



PO Box 70180  
Gaborone  
Botswana  
Tel/Fax: +267 3903401  
E-mail: [siphoka@botsnet.bw](mailto:siphoka@botsnet.bw)

# **Final Report of the Review of Community-Based Natural Resource Management in Botswana**

## **Volume 2: Appendices**

**A study carried out for the National CBNRM  
Forum**

**September 2003**

## **Table of Contents**

### **VOLUME 1: APPENDICES**

Table of Contents  
List of abbreviations  
Acknowledgement

Introduction

Appendix A	Review of CAMPFIRE
Appendix B	Namibia's CBNRM experiences
Appendix C	Experiences from other southern African countries
Appendix D	Botswana CBNRM case studies
D.1	Kgetsu ya Tsie
D.2	Sankuyo Tswaragana Management Trust
D.3	Khwai Development Trust
D.4	Ngwaa Khobee Xeja Trust
D.5	HCH
D.6	Rann Hunting Safaris
D.7	Thusano Lefatsheng
D.8	Kalahari Conservation Society
D.9	BOCOBONET

## Abbreviations

AA	Appropriate Authority (Zimbabwe)
ADMADE	Administrative Management Design for Game Management Areas (Zambia)
AWF	African Wildlife Foundation
BOCOBONET	Botswana Community-Based Organisation Network
BOCONGO	Botswana Council of Non-Government Organisations
BWMA	Botswana Wildlife Management Association
CBNRM	Community-Based Natural Resources Management
CBO	Community-Based Organisation
CBTE	Community-Based Tourism Enterprise
CCF	Community Conservation Fund
CPP	Community Private Sector Partnership
CSD	Community Services Division
CDSW	Community Development and Social Welfare
CEDA	Citizen Economic Development Agency
CECT	Chobe Enclave Conservation Trust
CEG	Community Escort Guide
CHA	Controlled Hunting Area
CITES	Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species
CPA	Communal Property Association (South Africa)
DDP	District Development Plan
DET	District Extension Team
DLUPU	District Land Use Planning Unit
DNR	Department of Natural Resources (Zimbabwe)
DWNP	Department of Wildlife and National Parks
DNPWLM	Department of National Parks and Wildlife Management (Zimbabwe)
EHF	Environmental Heritage Foundation
EU	European Union
GAM	Game Management Areas (Zambia)
GEF	Global Environmental Facility
HATAB	Hospitality and Tourism Association of Botswana
IFS	Integrated Field Services
IUCN	World Conservation Union
IRD	Integrated Rural Development Programme
JVA	Joint Venture Agreement
JVP	Joint Venture Partnership
KCS	Kalahari Conservation Society
KDT	Khwai Development Trust
KyT	Kgetsi ya Tsie
MET	Ministry of Environment and Tourism (Namibia)
MEWT	Ministry of Environment, Wildlife and Tourism
NKXT	Ngwaa Khobee Xeja Trust
NACOBTA	Namibian Community Based Tourism Association
NACSO	Namibian Community Support Organisation
NCSA	National Conservation Strategy Co-ordinating Agency
NDP	National Development Plan
NGO	Non-Government Organisation
NRM	Natural Resources Management
NRMP	Natural Resources Management Project
PAC	Problem Animal Control
PACT	Private Agencies Collaborating Together
RADP	Remote Area Development Programme
RALE	Representative, Accountable and Legal Entity
RDC	Rural Development Council (RDC)

RRC	Review Reference Committee
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SBB	Safari Botswana Bounds Pty.Ltd.
SWOT	Strengths-weaknesses-opportunities-threats analysis
STMT	Sankuyo Tshwaragano Management Trust
SNV	Netherlands Development Organisation
TAC	Technical Advisory Committee
TBNRM	Trans-Boundary Natural Resources Management
TOR	Terms of Reference
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VDC	Village Development Committee
VP	Veld products
VTC	Village Trust Committee
WMA	Wildlife Management Area (Botswana)
WMA	Wildlife Management Authority (Zambia)

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As so many people and institutions have assisted the review, we have not even attempted to acknowledge everyone. For the 'great collective' that we have not mentioned by name, we are very grateful for your support, and hope that you will find that the time invested in the Review is rewarded in a report that will contribute towards the establishment of a strong CBNRM programme and that will lead to more and better CBNRM projects in future.

While the whole team has contributed towards volume 1 of the report, the writing responsibilities of the appendices have primarily fallen on individual team members, which are duly acknowledged.

David Mazambani has taken the lead for writing Appendices A and C (with assistance of Joshua Nyoni); Beth Terry has been the lead author for Appendix B, while Jaap Arntzen, Ketsile Molokomme and Beth Terry have led the write-up of the case studies summarised in Appendix D.

Jaap Arntzen  
Team leader,  
30.9.2003.

## **Introduction**

**Volume two** of the final report of the CBNRM Review Study provides detailed information collected during the study. As the documentation of CBNRM projects is relatively poor in Botswana, it was felt that the release of more detailed information, in addition to the main findings of the study (**volume one**) will assist CBNRM stakeholders, practitioners and researchers.

**Volume two** provides detailed information about CBNRM in other southern African countries (Appendix A-C), and about the Botswana CBNRM case studies that were used as examples during the fieldwork carried out during the period of Late June-early August for the CBNRM review (Appendix D).

The main findings and recommendations are contained in volume one, chapter eight.

# **APPENDIX A**

## **REVIEW OF THE CAMPFIRE PROGRAMME**

### **Table of Contents**

List of Acronyms

1. Background Information
    - 1.1 Introduction
    - 1.2 CAMPFIRE structures and their functions
  2. Key benefits and Impacts of CAMPFIRE
    - 2.1 Conservation impacts
    - 2.2 Economic and social benefits
    - 2.3 Empowerment and capacity building
  3. Stakeholders and Their Responsibilities
  4. Legal and Policy Aspects
  5. Diversification of CAMPFIRE
  6. Weaknesses and Threats
  7. Lessons
- References

### **List of Acronyms**

AA	Appropriate Authority
CAMPFIRE	Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources
CASS	Centre for Applied Social Sciences
CCG	CAMPFIRE Collaborative Group
CDF	CAMPFIRE Development Fund
CSP	CAMPFIRE Service Provider
DEAP	District Environmental Action Plan
DNPWLM	Department of National Parks and Wildlife Management
DNR	Department of Natural Resources
MLGPWNH	Ministry of Local Government, Public Works and National Housing
NGO	Non-governmental Organization
NRB	Natural Resources Board
NRMP	Natural Resources Management Programme
PAC	Problem Animal Control
SAFIRE	Southern Alliance for Indigenous Resources
RDC	Rural District Council
UMP	Uzumba Maramba and Pfungwe District
WWF	World Wide Fund for Nature

## 1 Background information

### 1.1 Introduction

The Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) is about the sustainable use of natural resources by rural communities. The community users may be a village, a ward or a group of wards depending on the type of natural resource being managed and the way in which it is distributed in a given geographical area. CAMPFIRE is a programme that is currently based on devolution of power from central government to district councils

Through Section 95 of the Parks and Wildlife Act of 1975 as amended in 1982, the Minister can gazette a district as having Appropriate Authority (AA). AA confers full rights for wildlife in the same manner as enjoyed by private landholders with some checks to ensure that these rights are not abused. Appropriate Authority for wildlife was given to district councils only because of limitations of the National Parks and Wildlife Act and the District Councils Act, and the lack of management expertise among people living in communal areas. This is clearly reflected in the agreement between the Department of National Parks and Wildlife Management (DNPWLM) and council which led councils being granted AA and the guidelines issued by National Parks. A fundamental objective of CAMPFIRE is to train people in the wards and villages so that they become competent management authority, fully capable of managing their natural resources.

Legally, wildlife belongs to no one unless they are held in captivity or enclosed in a game fence. The DNPWLM does not own wildlife but is obliged by law to look after them and ensure that they are properly used and looked after. Similarly, a district council with AA does not own animals.

Between 1989 and 1997 the number of Rural District Councils that applied for and were granted Appropriate Authority status rose from two (2) to 28. CAMPFIRE now covers 52 Councils. In the wildlife producing districts, local communities have set aside large tracts of wild land and have adopted wildlife production systems, both consumptive and non-consumptive within their areas based on free ranging game. Most of the wildlife producing districts lie in the agriculturally marginal natural regions in the northern and southern lowveld regions of the country.

### 1.2 CAMPFIRE structures and their functions

#### *District CAMPFIRE Coordinating Committee*

These are sub-committees of the Rural District Councils' Conservation Committees formed to strengthen communication between the RDCs and their CAMPFIRE wards. Their tasks include:

- Monitoring the exploitation of natural resources in project areas;
  - Developing plans that are implemented by the district;
  - Overseeing management of CAMPFIRE assets including motorcycles, vehicles and other equipment;
- Identifying training needs that must be addressed by the RDC CAMPFIRE units;
- Drawing up annual budgets for the RDCs' CAMPFIRE activities; and
- Coordinating quota setting for the entire district.

#### *Ward level CAMPFIRE Committees*

These committees feed into District or Inter-ward CAMPFIRE Committees. They are democratically elected committees whose membership comes from village wildlife committees. Their task is to co-ordinate village wildlife committees, and to plan and implement ward projects. Wards are crucial structures for CAMPFIRE since villages would find it difficult to monitor and manage large fugitive animals that are particularly important for raising CAMPFIRE revenue. They coordinate vertical and horizontal management structures and systems for the effective administration of CAMPFIRE. In other words, wards link up villages to RDCs and they work with neighbouring wards on the movements of fugitive animals.



### *Village CAMPFIRE Committees*

These form the basic units for CAMPFIRE and natural resources management. All basic management issues like control of veld fires, apprehending poachers, Problem Animal Control, participating in of quota setting, are all centred at the village level and handled by the Village Committee.

## **2. Key benefits and impacts of CAMPFIRE**

### **2.1 Conservation impacts**

Given its original focus on wildlife management, the CAMPFIRE programme has had significant positive impacts on the conservation of large and small wildlife especially on the “traditional” wildlife districts. Wildlife area have been demarcated in most districts, often informally and sometimes with fences. The demarcated areas have by and large been maintained. As a result, elephant populations have increased steadily and buffalo populations were maintained since the late 1980s. The trophy quality was also largely maintained (CAMPFIRE Association, 2001).

After 1998 CAMPFIRE diversified its operational focus and its products to include a wide range of other natural resources besides wildlife. The number of districts participating in the programme increased from 36 in 1997 to the current membership of 52 Rural District Councils. New activities include promoting community-based eco-tourism, fisheries, community beekeeping, harvesting and processing mopane worms and fruits. With diversification, small “community conserved areas” were established or protected in non-wildlife districts. Such projects have given communities the necessary incentives to reduce or contain veld fires. In addition, poaching has been contained, the results being reduced levels of illegal off-take of wildlife populations and fish (data on fish not available). There has also been a significant reduction in tree felling particularly where the Forestry Commission has encouraged adoption of the CAMPFIRE approach in the sharing of benefits from commercial exploitation of timber.

### *Conservation awareness*

The CAMPFIRE programme is widely known as the “African solution to the African problem” because a lot of awareness activities have been done to make the programme acceptable and justifiable socially, economically, environmentally and politically. The programme made significant investments in awareness raising through the activities of Rural District Councils (RDCs), CAMPFIRE Service Providers (CSPs) and the CAMPFIRE Association itself. Conservation awareness has been promoted through the formation and establishment of Natural Resources Management Committees from village to district level; training workshops targeted at producer communities, conservation awareness among schools, and information dissemination through the print and electronic media.

Table 1 indicates the numbers of monitors and promoters who were recruited by selected councils and deployed to monitor and report the state of specific natural resources at village and ward levels. CAMPFIRE promoters function as extension personnel and provide back-up support to the Councils’ training officers. Although there is no quantitative data on the impact of natural resources monitoring, anecdotal information suggest that monitors and promoters have played an important role in reducing incidents involving unsanctioned harvesting of big and small game, fish, fruits and commercial timber. Natural resources monitors and promoters motivate local communities to take a leading role in the management and sustainable utilization of natural resources.

### *Information dissemination*

“Action Magazine” (part of Zimbabwe Trust) played a critical role in disseminating conservation awareness messages through schools and teachers training colleges countrywide. Action has produced 12 issues of its magazine, with an estimated circulation of 200 000 per issue covering six countries in Southern Africa.

Table 1: Natural Resources Monitors and CAMPFIRE Promoters recruited by Councils since 1996

Rural District Councils	Natural Resource Monitors and Promoters
Nkayi	6
Mudzi	9
Rushinga	17
Nyaminyami	11
Tsholotsho	8
Uzumba/Maramba/Pfungwe	14
Beitbridge	13
Guruve	14
Muzarabani	10
Bulilimamangwe	10
Gwanda	10
Chimanimani	4
Nyanga	8
Binga	7
Kusile (Lupane)	6
Gokwe North	6

The CAMPFIRE Teachers' Pages has been distributed to 100 000 teachers and about 15000 schools, 6597 of which are in Zimbabwe. Action estimates that this environmental awareness drive has reached 1.5 million school children. In addition to magazines Action's products include ecosystem and animal poster sets of CAMPFIRE districts and a dynamic and participatory approach to the teaching of Environmental Education in Zimbabwe.

#### *Conservation training*

From 2000 to 2002 several Rural District Councils requested the CAMPFIRE Association and the Department of Natural Resources (DNR) to assist communities in areas where newly "occupied" resettlement areas have the potential for wildlife and other natural resources management. In response, DNR held several CAMPFIRE training meetings in "fast track" farms in Binga, Hurungwe, Tsholotsho, and Bubi. Through training provided by WWF and RDC officials producer communities are encouraged to undertake their own wildlife censuses. They later hold meetings with Parks Officers to compare their census results and determine sustainable off-take of wildlife. The impact of all the activities associated with conservation training is reflected in the efforts being made in protecting landscapes and wildlife habitats, in the interest shown by communities through the small and large projects. CAMPFIRE has developed income-generating enterprises based on natural resources and these projects are linked to natural resource management strategies. Community actions and attitudes towards these resources have significantly changed. Strategies that have been embarked on by communities include: formulation of by-laws that govern access to the resources, fencing the resource, establishment of village natural resource management committees that are responsible for monitoring use of resources, conducting Environmental Impact Assessments and periodic natural resource audits.

## **2.2 Economic and social benefits**

At the national level, revenues from hunting in CAMPFIRE districts increased rapidly after 1995 and then maintained at USD1.5-2.0 million annually. In addition at least 12 high-end eco-tourism projects (lodges) are operational in or close to communal areas, for example Chilo and Mahenye (Chipinge) and Chizarira and Musumi lodges (Binga). The number of households benefiting from CAMPFIRE revenues (direct cash dividends) increased from 7,861 in 1989 to over 80,000 in 2001. Gross revenue received by communities from 1989 to 1999 is presented in Table 2. Table 3 shows examples of how CAMPFIRE revenue is used.

Table 2: Allocation of revenue to communities (1989 – 1999)

Year	Exchange Rate: USD to ZWD	No. of Districts	No. of Wards	No. of Households	ZW\$ disbursed to communities	% of total disbursed to communities
1989	2.126	3	15	7 861	396 005	53.25
1990	2.472	9	41	22 084	509 994	37.08
1991	3.751	11	57	52 456	1 203 673	41.42
1992	5.112	12	74	70 311	3 074 278	49.43
1993	6.529	12	98	90 475	5 560 958	57.40
1994	8.212	14	101	96 437	7 794 511	57.78
1995	8.724	14	111	98 946	8 259 680	59.49
1996	10.07	19	96	85 543	8 388 566	47.89
1997	12.444	28	98	93 605	10 681 392	46.57
1998	24.374	28	98	80 498	22 185 225	48.11
1999	38.338	32	112	95 726	51 443 942	48.72
<b>Total</b>					<b>119 498 224</b>	<b>49.70</b>

**Note:** After 1995 some districts began to default in terms of sending revenue records to the CAMPFIRE Programme's monitoring unit at WWF. Such districts wanted to avoid remitting levies to the CAMPFIRE Association. Some of these districts are the main culprits in failing to pay the agreed % to communities.

Source: CAMPFIRE Association, Annual Report 2000-2001, p. 14.

Many of these households made social investments and built small household businesses. Secondary benefits enjoyed by communities include schools, clinics and community grinding mill and shops funded by CAMPFIRE revenue. The programme has also enhanced employment creation at local levels around successful tourism projects. Three eco-tourism projects, for example, are fully operational and each employs not less than five individuals (caretakers, cooks, guards and Natural Resources Monitors). In addition, districts participating in CAMPFIRE have set aside positions within their "CAMPFIRE units" (departments), which can only be filled by locals, with the exception of the unit manager/coordinator. The positions include Natural Resources Monitors, Game Guards, Accounts and Filing Clerks.

### 2.3 Empowerment and capacity building

#### *Devolution*

The CAMPFIRE movement has led to increased awareness of entitlements and rights and demand for these at village and ward levels (Chitsike, 2000). At least sixteen Community Trusts were established at sub-district level and most of these have bank accounts, they regular meetings and they have paid employees. The idea of forming trusts was learned from Botswana after several district representatives and some CAMPFIRE Service Providers had made look and learn visits to that country. Where trusts have been registered, payments of CAMPFIRE revenues are being made directly to sub-district level (e.g. the Karunga Community Trust in Guruve district has signed a lease agreement with Ingwe Safaris, while the Gairezi Development in Nyanga has signed a partnership agreement with Nyanga Downs Fly-Fishing Club. Table 4 shows the list of community trusts that have been formed and registered to date with the facilitation of the CAMPFIRE programme. In other districts where trusts have not been formed, RDCs still receive revenues and disburse them to Ward and Village CAMPFIRE Committees.

In many districts, officials in CAMPFIRE units strongly support devolution and are taking measures to implement it, however, there is generally less commitment by Councillors, with some notable exceptions. In 2002, CAMPFIRE Revenue Guidelines were developed to reinforce principles of administrative devolution whereby the Committees are given more decision-making powers to decide how revenues are utilized. Most RDCs accept that communities must have the right to make decisions to utilize income as they see fit.

Table 3: Community-projects funded from 1999 one-off ivory sale

District	ZWD	Projects Undertaken
Beitbridge	209 363	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Piped water scheme for 4 villages in two wards.</li> </ul>
Nyaminyami	2 426 085	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Supply of materials for Mayovhe clinic</li> <li>Purchase of lorry for anti-poaching work</li> </ul>
Chipinge	414 685	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Construct of radio base at Tuzuka heights</li> <li>Mahenye Secondary School block</li> <li>Water pipeline for Mahenye community</li> </ul>
Hwange	1 592 707	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Class room block &amp; School furniture</li> </ul>
Hurungwe	1 237 036	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Painting staff houses at Chipfuko school</li> <li>Mothers' shelter and nurses houses at Chundu clinic</li> <li>Materials for Kemapondo and Bushungwe schools</li> </ul>
Gokwe South	901 600	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Soak way at Huchu clinic</li> <li>Cement for Masuka Primary and Secondary Schools</li> <li>Mangidhi dam spillway; Chikomba bridge</li> <li>Deep well for Zhamba Clinic</li> <li>Makondo dam wall extension</li> </ul>
Guruve	2 138 499	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Chapoto classroom block; Gonono dip tank</li> <li>Community tractor, plough and trailer</li> <li>Neshangwe School classroom block</li> <li>Road and fence for Masoka community</li> <li>Ambulance for villages in Zambezi valley</li> </ul>
Matobo	267 626	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>School furniture for 4 wards</li> <li>Rehabilitation of teachers houses</li> <li>Community Hall in Sigangatsha Ward</li> </ul>
Gokwe North	4 105 569	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Mazda 4x4 pick up and rifles for PAC</li> <li>Camping equipment for Guards on PAC</li> <li>Community hall, Vhumba Clinic,</li> <li>Mashame &amp; Zumba Clinic; 20 Blair toilets</li> <li>Ten classroom blocks &amp; 8 teachers houses</li> </ul>
Tsholotsho	1 384 730	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Vehicle for PAC; Community hall</li> <li>Construction of Bemba clinic</li> <li>Mlevu school admin block</li> <li>Grinding mill x 1; Fencing Sikente clinic</li> </ul>
UMP	186 296	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Fencing 40 ha of Muda conservancy</li> <li>Maintenance of Nyatana Wilderness</li> <li>Radio communication equipment</li> </ul>
Chiredzi	1 954 823	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Cement for Dumisa primary school</li> <li>Water tank for teachers houses</li> <li>Fire management engine house materials</li> <li>Labour for building the engine house</li> <li>Shed for fire fighting equipment</li> <li>Chambuta fire management programme</li> <li>Protective clothing for fire fighters</li> </ul>
Muzarabani	364 960	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Fencing Bwazi Primary School</li> <li>Hwata ward goat rearing project</li> <li>Contribution to Uchachacha Project</li> <li>Renovate Chiwaura &amp; Hwata clinic</li> <li>Renovate Chadereka Primary school</li> </ul>
<b>Total</b>	<b>ZWD 22 376 008</b> <b>USD 585 760</b>	<b>(Exchange rate = 38.2)</b>

Source: CAMPFIRE Association, 2002 – An Assessment of Progress pg 13-14)

Table 4: List of community trusts (June 2003)

District	Name of Trust	Registered	Type of Project Managed by the Trust
1. Bulilima	Bulilimamangwe Amacimbi Trust	✓	Harvesting, packaging and marketing mopane worms
2. Mangwe	Thuthukani Development Trust	✓	Harvesting, packaging and marketing mopane worms
3. Matobo	Ntunjambili Development Trust	✓	Eco-tourism - based on sacred caves, camping, and culture
4. Nyanga	Gairezi Development Trust	✓	Eco-tourism - based on fly-fishing (trout), camping, chalets and water rafting
5. Guruve	Karunga Community Trust	✓	Eco-tourism in a wildlife area, chalets, camping
6. Guruve	Masoka Community Trust	✓	Eco-tourism in a wildlife area, chalets, camping
7. Mwenezi	Manyuchi Fisheries Project Trust	✓	Harvesting, processing and marketing fish
8. Manyame	Mayambara Community Trust	✓	Eco-tourism - conference centre and chalets
9. Goromonzi	Ngomakurira Development Trust	✓	Eco-tourism – sacred mountains, camping, crafts
10. Mudzi/ UMP/Rushinga	Nyatana Joint Management Trust	✓	Wildlife management – developing game ranch
11. Pfura	Mukurupahari Community Trust	✓	Crafts based on bamboo forest
12. Bindura	Paradise Pools Development Trust	?	Eco-tourism – scenic pools, wildlife, rocks
13. Mazowe	Banje Development Trust	✓	Eco-tourism – sacred mountains
14. Umzingwane	Matojeni Development Trust	✓	Eco-tourism
15. Chimanimani	Vhimba Development Trust	✓	Eco-tourism – unique vegetation, butterflies, fish, deep clean water, culture
16. Muzarabani	Muzarabani Wildlife Community Trust	?	Eco-tourism – Mavuradonha mountains, photographic safaris, mountain climbing

Source: Mazambani, 2003

#### *Institution and capacity building*

Well over 100 village and ward CAMPFIRE committees in 36 Districts learned basic organizational skills, especially bookkeeping, recording and maintaining minutes of meetings and maintaining bank accounts. In at least 13 districts, natural resource monitors (and community leaders in particular) learned wildlife management skills, which include setting quotas, selling wildlife, monitoring hunting, managing electric fences, problem animal monitoring, counting wildlife and ecological management. Systems of controlling off-take of natural resources were put in place – e.g. fish poachers were fined, with fines being used to pay guards and providing community benefits.

Fire management implemented in four districts. CAMPFIRE Support Units have been established at RDC level in 36 districts and are still providing training to sub-district levels in districts where wildlife are common. As noted already above, over 100 village and ward wildlife committees established and functioning. Natural Resources Management by-laws and constitutions have been developed for use in the village and ward committees. Other benefits include training of members of Board of Trustees to maintain assets registers books. In most producer wards, basic record keeping is being maintained. Communities are already undertaking project identification and implementation in wildlife districts.

#### *Governance*

High levels of transparency and community participation in revenue distribution and use are encouraged at sub-district (village and ward) levels. CAMPFIRE structures provide a forum for community participation in decision-making on Natural Resources Management and other issues. Generally, funds are well accounted for at sub-district level and in RDC CAMPFIRE departments. There is transparency in the flow of information at ward and village levels, and between some

wards and villages concerning issues, action plans and projects. Lastly, CAMPFIRE committees at village and ward levels are elected.

### **3. Stakeholders and their responsibilities**

#### *Department of National Parks and Wildlife Management*

The Department is the statutory authority for wildlife management on all land in Zimbabwe. Recognising the failure of punitive conservation, the Department granted appropriate authority to all private landholders in 1975. In 1982, the Parks and Wild Life Act was amended to allow the granting of the same rights to local communities. With effect from 2002, the department is now operating like a parastatal and is known as the "National Parks and Wildlife Authority".

#### *Ministry of Local Government, Public Works and National Housing*

The role of MLGPWNH is to promote, support and regulate local governance structures and processes. It ensures transparency and accountability in the management of local government affairs. The ministry insists on the openness in the conduct of public affairs by RDCs, Ward and Village Committees. As part of playing its role the Ministry insists on the involvement of people in the planning process, the timely preparation of financial statements, production of audited statements and the holding of report back sessions by councillors in their wards. The ministry provides the vision and an avenue for coordinating local development.

#### *Zimbabwe Trust (Zimtrust)*

Since 1991 Zimtrust provided institutional and infrastructure development support to four CAMPFIRE districts in Matebeleland. Zimtrust provided implementation support as well as grant management. Since 1994 Zimtrust relinquished grant management services to districts and focused on providing institutional support services. From 1995 to 1998, Zimtrust assisted districts to develop capacity building plans that included proposed infrastructure development. These plans were used to give focus to the capacity building strategy, which has been implemented since 1998 in the CAMPFIRE districts.

#### *Centre for Applied Social Sciences (CASS)*

The Centre for Applied Social Sciences at the University of Zimbabwe has been receiving USAID funding to support the CAMPIRE Programme since 1989 when it received a grant through to 1996. CASS then received a second grant in 1996. CASS's primary responsibilities were programme policy and socio-economic research and monitoring activities.

#### *Southern Alliance for Indigenous Resources (SAFIRE)*

SAFIRE is an NGO which is affiliated to the CAMPFIRE Programme as a service provider. It was formed in 1994, and its mission is to facilitate the development and application of innovative approaches to diversify and improve rural livelihoods, based on the utilization, commercialisation and sustainable management of natural resources. SAFIRE was involved in NRMP II for two years from 1<sup>st</sup> October 1998 to September 30, 2000

#### *Forestry Commission*

The Forestry Commission is a parastatal established under the Forestry Act (Chapter 19:05) of 1948, and falls under the Ministry of Environment and Tourism. The national mandate of the Forestry Commission is derived from the Forestry Act (Chapter 19:05 as amended in 1999) and the Communal Lands Forest Produce Act (Chapter 20 of 1987), which provide for regulatory, management, capacity enhancement and trading functions within the forestry sector. The Commission was received funding for its active participation in NRMP II from July 1998 to July 2000.

#### *Department of Natural Resources*

The Department of Natural Resources (DNR) falls under the Ministry of Environment and Tourism. Its mandate is to enable the Natural Resources Board to implement the Natural

Resources Act, which is a major piece of legislation, that influence the management of natural resources in Zimbabwe. In view of this, DNR is a focal point for natural resources management at all levels in the country. DNR is involved in a number of natural resources management initiatives, the most important of these being the District Environmental Action Planning programme (DEAP), the Bio-diversity Programme and the National Action

Table 5 summarizes the responsibilities of each one of the key stakeholders outlined above.

Table 5: Key Stakeholders in the CAMPFIRE Programme

Stakeholders	Responsibility
1. National Parks and Wildlife Authority	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Granting Appropriate Authority status to Rural District Councils</li> <li>• Setting ecological standards and providing guidance to the CAMPFIRE partners on all wildlife matters, as well as technical training and training assistance to RDCs and local communities;</li> <li>• Monitoring CAMPFIRE implementation to ensure continuing biological integrity;</li> <li>• Assisting RDCs in setting wildlife off take quotas, the control of problem animals (PAC) and the enforcement of quotas,</li> <li>• Conducting CAMPFIRE-related ecological and economic research and monitoring, and dissemination of the results of this work at the sub-district, district and national levels, and in the various international fora</li> <li>• Representing CAMPFIRE interests internationally, and support the development of markets for Programme-generated products;</li> <li>• Providing strategic management inputs for CAMPFIRE operations, including ecological, economic and institutional data and operating guidelines; and</li> <li>• Coordinating national park planning and management activities with participating neighbouring communities.</li> </ul>
2. Ministry of Local Government, Public Works and National Housing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Policy setting and overall accountability for RDCs</li> <li>• Assisting in formulating policies and procedures, and addressing relevant policy issues affecting CAMPFIRE</li> <li>• Providing technical assistance and training to village, ward and RDC CAMPFIRE Committees and Programme staff</li> <li>• Monitoring the use of CAMPFIRE Funds, and conducting regular financial audits of RDC CAMPFIRE Accounts</li> <li>• Reviewing and approving RDC projects funded under CAMPFIRE Development Fund</li> <li>• Providing oversight and approval of local government capital and recurrent cost budgets and NRMP and CAMPFIRE activities</li> <li>• Providing assistance in mediating resource conflicts within RDCs</li> <li>• Monitoring district and sub-district level activities of Programme-funded NGO service providers</li> <li>• Assisting in overall NRMP and CAMPFIRE management, coordination, and monitoring and evaluation</li> </ul>
3. Zimbabwe Trust	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Strengthening institutional arrangements for Integrated CBNRM in selected areas;</li> <li>• Strengthening organizational, financial, management and administrative planning skills through training inputs provided to districts and sub-district levels;</li> <li>• Providing and facilitating the provision of specialist services (technical, socio-economic, environmental education) to district and sub-district levels;</li> <li>• Monitoring CAMPFIRE institutional development</li> </ul>
4. CASS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Training Rural District Councils and community representatives and providing support in the execution and analysis of baseline socio-economic studies at local and district levels</li> <li>• Providing critical analyses of existing policies, policy issues;</li> <li>• Providing research findings on prioritised CAMPFIRE related issues that have been researched, analysed, presented and published;</li> <li>• Providing advisory services to clients; and</li> <li>• Assisting and supporting the establishment of socio-economic monitoring and evaluation of district natural resource programmes in order to enable the continuous assessment of the impact of the CAMPFIRE Programme;</li> </ul>
5. WWF	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Conducting ecological research and monitoring the economic aspects of the programme;</li> <li>• Providing technical advisory services to RDCs and sub-district levels;</li> <li>• Monitoring and evaluation which involves: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Annual aerial census of all CAMPFIRE areas carrying large mammal populations</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

	<p>in sufficient numbers to warrant an aerial census.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Monitoring the area and quality of wildlife habitat in CAMPFIRE areas</li> <li>○ Monitoring of financial and economic indicators of performance, revenue generation and related marketing and management information conducted and an appropriate database established for the CAMPFIRE programme.</li> <li>○ Assessing the organizational development and institutional performance of community based organizations.</li> <li>○ Coordinating CAMPFIRE monitoring and evaluation.</li> </ul> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Effective technical services provided to assist RDCs in implementation of their CDF projects</li> <li>• Resource surveys and feasibility studies completed as requested by RDCs.</li> <li>• Research and information dissemination to assist natural resource management and land use planning in CAMPFIRE areas.</li> <li>• Natural resource management training program developed and implemented with CA, RDCs and communities (started early 1999).</li> </ul>
6. SAFIRE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Increasing the participatory planning skills of RDCs, CAMPFIRE partners, and relevant district-level officers; and</li> <li>• Increasing the ability of communities and local-level organizations to participate in natural resources management planning.</li> </ul>
7. Forestry Commission	<p>Providing specialized services to the programme and the communities in the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Enhancing the productivity and environmental functions of the forests and surrounding communal areas;</li> <li>• Involving communities in the management and utilization of forest resources in certain reserved areas and surrounding communal lands;</li> <li>• Improving the socio-economic status of communities surrounding the forests through improved access to tree and forest resources;</li> <li>• Developing and strengthening the capacity of local institutions, communities and other stakeholders in the management and utilization of forest resources; and</li> <li>• Developing and recommending appropriate policies for local-level management of tree and forest resources.</li> </ul>
8. Department of Natural Resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Providing guidance to CAMPFIRE partners and beneficiaries on Natural Resources Management (NRM) policy and legislation, including salient environmental review requirements;</li> <li>• Assisting Rural District Councils (RDCs) and local communities to develop technical skills in NRM; and</li> <li>• Providing technical services to CAMPFIRE partners in resource inventory and mapping, monitoring and environmental review.</li> </ul>

#### 4 Legal and policy aspects

Several policy and legislative instruments guide the allocation of rights and responsibilities for natural resource management to communities in Zimbabwe. Generally, natural resource legislation concentrates considerable authority and power on Rural District Councils. Although policy guidelines in the wildlife sector attempt to promote the “administrative devolution” of some functions and decision-making to sub-district levels, the RDCs cannot legally be forced to apply these policy guidelines. The policy and legislative framework within which CAMPFIRE operates creates numerous local level institutions that operate in parallel, have overlapping functions and compete with each other for power and access to financial resources.

The Communal Land Act (1982) places ownership of communal land in the State and the administration of communal land in the hands of the RDCs. The Rural District Council Act (1988) gives the councils power to take measures to conserve natural resources, permit grazing and cultivation, develop land use plans and make bylaws for the protection of natural resources. The councils may issue permits for catching fish, hunting, cutting firewood, cutting grass and collecting honey).

The Forest Act (1947) allocates large areas of state land to the Forestry Commission, which leases timber, hunting and photographic tourism concessions. The Commission has adopted the policy of sharing 15% of its income from timber concessions with RDCs. The Communal Land Forest Produce Act (1984) restricts the use of forest products to “own use” and excludes use of



products from protected forest areas and areas where a license to cut trees has been granted to others. The use of certain trees is restricted. According to Chitsike (2000:11) under the Act, “without a permit or license, virtually any use of woodland is illegal”. The Environmental Management Act (2002) establishes a general legal foundation for all environmental laws based on sustainable development and address inconsistencies, overlaps and duplication in environmental and natural resource legislation. The Act contains limited references to devolution and decentralization and does not provide for empowering sub-district levels. The Traditional Leaders Act (2000) provides for Ward and Village Assemblies that would “consider and resolve” all issues relating to land, water and other natural resources. This statement is somewhat ambiguous with regard to actual decision-making powers of the Assemblies. Further, the Act does not provide land rights to the Assemblies and it does not give them any legal status beyond being sub-committees of council.

## 5. Diversification of CAMPFIRE

CAMPFIRE is a dynamic approach, which is now helping Rural District Councils and communities to set up new types of projects. Some of the districts have been able to support diverse community-based natural resource management and income generating initiatives. Approximately 40% of these new projects focus on the establishment of community-based eco-tourism ventures; while 20% involve the production and sale of products derived from indigenous resources (beekeeping, crafts, edible mopane worms). Other major project categories include veld fire management, and commercial fishing in major inland dams. Tables 6 and 7 shows the different types of large and small community projects being implemented under CAMPFIRE.

**Table 6: Large community CAMPFIRE Projects as at May 2003**

Types of projects	Number
<b>1. Institutional Capacity Building</b>	<b>20</b>
<b>2. Veld fire management</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>3. Eco-tourism</b>	<b>12</b>
<b>4. Electric fencing</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>5. Game corridors</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>6. Fisheries</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>7. Mopane worm harvesting and processing</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>8. Natural resources conservation</b>	<b>2</b>

**Table 7: Small Community CAMPFIRE Projects as at May 2003**

Types of projects	No
<b>1. Crafts</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>2. Bee keeping</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>3. Eco-tourism (campsites, lodges, cultural villages)</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>4. Woodlots</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>5. Water supply for wildlife</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>6. Fisheries</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>7. Conservancy</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>8. Canal construction</b>	<b>1</b>

Source: Status of CAMPFIRE Development Projects: Development Associates, June 2003

## 6. Weaknesses and threats

The following are the weaknesses and threats that the CAMPFIRE Programme has to deal with.

- Implementation of CAMPFIRE, especially over the past ten years has strengthened the control and role of Rural District Councils as gatekeepers in relation to producer communities (rural communities), with respect to decisions pertaining to utilization of natural resources.

This has tended to slacken the pace of devolution of the rights and responsibilities of the communities over natural resources.

- No enabling Legislation has been passed to provide proprietorship at producer community levels (village and ward levels). Although the Traditional Leaders Act of 2001 provides for village and ward assemblies and physical boundaries of these units, there are no entitlements to these sub-district levels, and they do not constitute legal persona.
- The current membership of CAMPFIRE Association, which is the lead agency in the programme, does not include producer communities and conservancies at the grassroots levels even though these play a critical role in day-to-day conservation and use of natural resources. Also there is no room for associate membership for supporters, promoters and well-wishers of CAMPFIRE.
- During the past ten years, there has been competition among the service providers for the programme (the stakeholders) and between the CAMPFIRE Association and some of the service providers. This led to the marginalisation of some of the collaborative partners from core decision-making forums. The policy of marginalizing the Campfire Collaborative Group-NGO members and the conversion of these into service providers removed the opportunities for long-term facilitation and partnership with producer communities. As a result some training/educational materials developed for communities were not fully utilized.
- Little synergies were created with the private sector during the development and establishment of infrastructure projects. Consequently, there was insufficient investment in product development and marketing. Many community-based eco-tourism projects were embarked upon without sufficient marketing and product feasibility, except in cases where collaboration with private sector was already in existence.
- Monitoring of Socio-Economic Impact. The programme had no centralized monitoring system and key monitoring aspects of the program are weak (e.g. income data at household level, socio-economic data, capacity and institution-building data etc.) No collated and analysed information exists to substantiate capacity building effort and income generation at district and sub-district levels. No sustainable mechanism was in put in place to maintain the database already set up by service providers particularly WWF, and Zimtrust.
- Loss of interest by Project Collaborating Partners/Service Providers: During the mid to late 1990s National Parks and Wildlife Management took a back seat or remained passive in program implementation, particularly when it came to policy issues, monitoring of wildlife and enforcing compliance with conditions of Appropriate Authority. Some of the Campfire Service Providers did not perform up to expectations on providing training on trusts, on institution capacity building, application of sound financial management principles, and institutional training.
- Many Rural District Councils and Campfire Service Providers are losing technical capacity due to the prevailing political and macro-economic factors in the country. The loss is a threat to effective delivery of services to communities; and represents a serious loss to the long-term technical capacity of the CAMPFIRE programme. Macro-economic and political factors reduce the capacity of many RDCs CSPs, and government agencies to facilitate community efforts.
- Other factors that affect the sustainability of CAMPFIRE the projects are:
  1. Capacity of RDC CAMPFIRE Managers/Coordinators. During implementation of the community-based projects, some RDC CAMPFIRE Units were under pressure to “perform” and come up with projects. As a result, some imposed projects on local communities or alternatively, they short-circuited the planning process in order to have something to submit to the Project Management Team. They created project proposals without sufficient acceptance among the communities. In some instances such practices usually gave the communities the false impression that the CAMPFIRE programme is bad and is designed to benefit the RDC and not the communities themselves.
  2. Staff turnover. High staff turnover among Council staff tends to retard continuity in the implementation of community project in some districts. This is caused by resignations or deaths due to the AIDS pandemic.

3. Assignment of CAMPFIRE Managers to other duties. In some districts CAMPFIRE managers are overloaded with other council duties to the extent that CAMPFIRE activities became secondary.

Constraints affecting eco-tourism projects in CAMPFIRE:

- **Lack of effective marketing strategies for most of the projects, coupled with the difficulty of marketing a single product in an isolated rural area;**
- **Investor scepticism over the viability community-based tourism and tourism as a whole under the prevailing economic and political environment in Zimbabwe;**
- **Many communal areas where eco-tourism projects have been established are remote and difficult to access;**
- **Attraction to the completed facilities is constrained by the prohibitive costs of upgrading roads and establishing tele-communications systems. Councils do not have the necessary resources required to maintain roads. This has been compounded by the fuel crisis that has gripped the country; and**
- **Due to internal factors (especially political instability) and external factors (e.g. bad publicity about the country), the tourism industry in Zimbabwe has experienced a serious decline in overseas and foreign visitor numbers and tourism receipts over the past two years.**

## 7. Lessons from CAMPFIRE

The following lessons can be drawn from the implementation of the CAMPFIRE Programme:

- ❑ With sufficient devolution, communities can manage resources sustainably.
- ❑ Devolution also brings high levels of participation, transparency and accountability.
- ❑ Programmatic support in the form of long-term relationships and light touch facilitation by quality managers is far more important than short-term consultancy support and training for the development of sustainable community institutions.
- ❑ Large and time-bound projects are an expensive way of delivering capacity to communities and are not well suited to the behavioural changes that programs like CAMPFIRE envisage. Too much emphasis is placed on the delivery of products, and too little on the process of behavioural and institutional change.
- ❑ Product diversification is expensive, often has a long gestation period and cost-benefit is unproven in arid and semi-arid zones.
- ❑ Projects are an inefficient way of driving product diversification, unless they complement the efforts of private entrepreneurs (e.g. venture capital funds).
- ❑ Grant funding of diversification investment results in inefficient use of funds (by some estimates twice as much could have been built at half the cost). Moreover, the process whereby communities inexperienced in eco tourism build facilities and then lease them to private sector is sub-optimal. Providing a venture capital loan fund, to which community-private partnerships could apply, is likely to have resulted in more viable investments.
- ❑ CAMPFIRE is most sustainable where business partnerships have been developed between communities and the private sector. At a large scale, the relationships between CAMPFIRE and conservancies in the lowveld are an example. At a small scale, the long-term relationship between the Mahenye community and the tour operator is another example.
- ❑ Communities are capable of managing funds, building projects and managing wildlife, especially with light, but consistent, technical support.

## APPENDIX B: NAMIBIA'S CBNRM EXPERIENCES

<b>Table of Contents</b>	<b>Page No.</b>
1. Background and current status of CBNRM in Namibia .....	22
1.1 Introduction.....	22
1.2 Background to the start of CBNRM in Namibia.....	22
1.3 Major Landmarks in the development of CBNRM in Namibia .....	23
2. CBNRM Policy and Legislation in Namibia.....	24
2.1 For wildlife and tourism.....	25
2.2 For related .....	26
3. The current status of the CBNRM Programme and its .....	28
4. Key activities and benefits .....	31
4.1 Environmental achievements through conservation and natural resource management .....	31
4.2. Financial benefits from tourism and enterprise development.....	32
4.3. The economic and financial viability of CBNRM.....	33
4.4. Social benefits of CBNRM and capacity building .....	34
5. Strengths and weaknesses within the CBNRM Programme .....	36
6. Opportunities and threats for the success of CBNRM .....	38
7. Issues and options for the future of CBNRM in Namibia.....	39
8. Key differences and similarities in the Namibian and Botswana CBNRM Programmes .....	41
9. Key lessons learned from Namibia's CBNRM programme.....	44
References.....	47
Personal Communication.....	49

## List of Acronyms

CAMPFIRE	Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources
CBM	Community Based Management
CBNRM	Community-Based Natural Resource Management
CBO	Community-Based Organisation
CBT	Community-Based Tourism
CHA	Controlled Hunting Area
DEA	Directorate of Environmental Affairs
DRWS	Directorate of Rural Water Supply
DWNP	Department of Wildlife and National Parks
EIF	Environmental Investment Fund
EU	European Union
FCR	Full Cost Recovery
GPTF	Game Product Trust Fund
HATAB	Hospitality and Tourism Association of Botswana
IRDNC	Integrated Rural Development and Nature Conservation
JVA	Joint Venture Agreement
JVP	Joint Venture Partnership
LIFE	Living in a Finite Environment Programme
MET	Ministry of Environment and Tourism
MEWT	Ministry of Environment, Wildlife and Tourism
MFMR	Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources
MWCT	Ministry of Wildlife Conservation and Tourism
NACOBTA	Namibia Community Based Tourism Association
NACSO	Namibian Association of CBNRM Support Organisations
NWRMR	Namibian Water Resources Management Review
NDP	National Development Plan
NDT	Namibia Development Trust
NGO	Non-Government Organisation
NNF	Namibia Nature Foundation
NRM	Natural Resources Management
NRMP	Natural Resources Management Project
O&M	Operation and Maintenance
RADP	Remote Area Development Programme
RF	Rössing Foundation
RWS	Rural Water Supply
SWOT	Strengths Weaknesses Opportunities Threats analysis
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WASP	Water and Sanitation Policy
WMA	Wildlife Management Area
WWF	World Wildlife Fund (US)
WPA	Water Point Association
WPC	Water Point Committee

## **Background and current status of CBNRM in Namibia**

### **1.1 Introduction**

The primary goal of the Community Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) programme in Namibia is 'the protection of biodiversity and maintenance of eco-systems and life support processes through sustainable use of natural resources for the benefit of rural communities' (Ashley 1995). To understand how the CBNRM Programme in Namibia has come to be in the form it is today, it is important to have an understanding of the political, social, and environmental situation before Independence in 1990 and to see how the programme evolved over the decade before and after Independence.

### **1.2 Background to the start of CBNRM in Namibia**

Approximately two-thirds of Namibia's population of some 1.8 million people live in rural areas and attempt to make a living from the available natural resources. As in Botswana, Namibia's aridity and limited surface water is a major limitation on agricultural productivity.

Colonial heritage and the legacy of *apartheid* found most black Namibians prior to Independence living in 'homelands' mainly in the northern parts of the country. In some places the land allocated to the black ethnic groups was the least suitable for the dryland agriculture and livestock farming on which they depended. At the time of Independence in 1990 state-owned communal land covered about 41 percent of the country and hosted an estimated 138,000 households or about 68 percent of Namibia's population. About 44 percent of the country was freehold territory and the home to some 4,200 large-scale farmers. The rest of the land was stated-owned and allocated for mining and wildlife reserves (Jauch 1998; SIAPAC 2002).

Namibia inherited a land situation with three main characteristics: 1) gross inequality regarding access to land and resources to develop the land, 2) non-existent planning structures to allocate land for specific purposes, 3) land degradation due to mismanagement, population growth and climatic conditions, and 4) excessive and non-rational use of water resources (NPC 1985; Hubbard and Katjuango 1997). Furthermore, the communal areas have been characterised by extremely low farm productivity, a high degree of poverty, household food insecurity and poor nutritional status (FSNS 2001). Ironically, the communal areas located in the arid northwest and the Kalahari sandbeds to the east and northeast have turned out to be attractive locations for commercial hunting and photographic tourism acting as significant resources for CBNRM ventures (Jones and Weaver 2003).

Although communal land is legally defined as state land, resident communities have always had the right to use this land for traditional crop growing, grazing, gathering and fishing. Allocation of these resources has been effectively under the control of traditional authorities, with government instituting and maintaining some regulations aimed at conserving the resources. For example, fishing net mesh sizes were restricted, and woodcutting was subject to a permit system although such restrictions have never been widely enforced. There has been a tendency in use of grazing, forest and fish resources, for an 'open access' problem, where communities have been unable to restrict access, and resources, at least locally, have been over used.

With regards to wildlife, before Independence, communities on communal land were unable to use wildlife legally. The conservation ordinance of the time prohibited this, and the only exceptions were in Bushmanland, where small-scale traditional hunting was tolerated by the authorities having been given special government permission, and elsewhere in the north, where chiefs were sometimes allocated small, token hunting quotas by the authorities. The rural communities were, in effect, totally alienated from their wildlife resources (SIAPAC 2002).

In sharp contrast, since 1968 commercial (freehold) farmers have been given conditional rights to exploit wildlife on their farms. This policy decision was supported by legislation passed in 1975, which gave the commercial farmers the right to retain all income coming from the use and sale of

game animals. This combination of financial incentives and proprietorship has led to the development of a multimillion-dollar wildlife industry and a 44 percent increase in game species on freehold land over a 20-year period (Jones and Weaver 2003).

Although tourism activities had been occurring in Namibia's communal areas for many years, the industry was not structured to allow communal area residents to gain any benefits. Just as for the wildlife utilisation, active participation in tourism by communities was hampered by 'a lack of policies, experience and support organisations' (WWF *et al* 2000). Efforts to rectify this situation are outlined in the next two sections.

### **1.3 Major landmarks in the development of CBNRM in Namibia<sup>1</sup>**

The following highlights the major landmarks leading to the current status of the CBNRM programme in Namibia:

- Efforts to involve rural people living on communal lands in wildlife conservation began even before Independence. In 1982, the Namibian non-government organisation (NGO), Integrated Rural Development and Nature Conservation (IRDNC), started working with local traditional leaders, various community members and government conservation officers in north-western Namibia, who were worried about the reduced wildlife populations that had declined because of the armed struggle, heavy poaching and severe drought. A network of community game guards was established with funding support from the Endangered Wildlife Trust and a pilot project was started to provide revenue from a nearby tourism venture to one community as an incentive for the conservation of local wildlife. This initial conservation effort by local communities played a major role in the increase of wildlife numbers in north-western Namibia and demonstrated the viability of community-based approaches to natural resource management on communal lands.
- For two years directly after Independence, the newly formed Ministry of Wildlife Conservation and Tourism (MWCT) (later to be renamed the Ministry of Environment and Tourism – MET), IRDNC and other NGOs conducted a series of participatory socio-ecological surveys, which identified key issues from a community perspective on wildlife conservation and the institution of MWCT. These studies led to a number of local community-based conservation projects to address the identified problems, and the recognition that existing policy and legislation had to be reformed if these projects were to succeed.
- As a response to this recognition, in 1992, MWCT began drafting a new policy providing certain rights over wildlife and tourism to be given to communities in communal areas that formed a common property resource management institution to be called a 'conservancy'.
- In 1993, the USAID-funded, WWF-administered Living in a Finite Environment (LIFE) Programme began and continues to date. The LIFE programme provided significant donor monies and administrative, organisational and technical capacity to Namibia's fledgling CBNRM programme. The LIFE Steering Committee held regular coordination and planning meetings with support partners who were mostly LIFE grantees. This coordination forum expanded and evolved into the national CBNRM structure mentioned below.
- In 1995, Namibia's Cabinet approved the new policy for communal area conservancies 'Wildlife Management, Utilisation and Tourism in Communal Areas'. Work began on drafting legislation that would enforce the policy.
- In 1995, the Namibia Community Based Tourism Association (NACOBTA) was established. This membership and umbrella organisation supports tourism and enterprise development within conservancies.
- In 1996, Parliament passed the new 'conservancy legislation' by promulgating an amendment, Nature Conservation Amendment Act (Act 5 of 1996). This amendment to the Nature Conservation Ordinance (No. 4 of 1975) made it possible for communities to form conservancies, and thereby gain certain spatial use and management rights over wildlife.

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<sup>1</sup> Except where otherwise indicated this section draws heavily from three summary CBNRM documents (LIFE 2002; Jones and Weaver 2003; NACSO 2003) and one 'Vision 2030' technical report (SIAPAC 2002).

- In 1998, the first communal area conservancy was gazetted.
- In June 1998, three more communal area conservancies were registered for a total of four covering about 1.6 million hectares.
- During the same year a workshop was held to discuss the development of a national CBNRM co-ordinating body eventually to be called the Namibian Association of CBNRM Support Organisations (NACSO).
- In September 1998, President Nujoma officially launched Namibia's Communal Area Conservancy Programme.
- Five more conservancies were registered in December 1999.
- Mid-1999 saw the extension of the LIFE programme (LIFE-II) for a further five years.
- The NACSO Secretariat was officially established in July 2000.
- One more conservancy was registered in May 2000.
- The Game Products Trust Fund (GPTF) was launched by MET in 2000 and provides financial support to various projects that are aimed at improving relationships between people and wildlife, improving monitoring, management, protection and sustainable use of wildlife resources in rural areas, and/or balance wildlife conservation with rural development. GPTF receives its revenue from the sale of animal products, sale of trophy hunting concessions, head levies from the export of live game, and donations.
- Throughout 2001, five more conservancies were registered for a total of 15 by the end of the year.
- A Joint Venture Unit under NACOBTA was established in 2002 to help identify and facilitate joint venture opportunities between conservancies and private sector companies.
- In 2002, legislation for the Environmental Investment Fund (EIF) was approved by Parliament. This provides for a fund similar to the GPTF, but with a more wide-ranging mandate to invest in environmental conservation and management. It should focus on areas not easily funded by government, will give grants to organisations carrying out conservation and CBNRM activities, and is expected to derive some funds from a levy in the tourism sector. The board has yet to be established, but this is expected sometime during 2003. The EIF will, thus, have a role in supporting CBNRM.
- In May 2002, the CBNRM Sub-Division within MET's Directorate of Parks and Wildlife was launched. This Sub-Division has a staff of 32 situated in all 13 regions with the main objective to assist rural communities in managing their wildlife resources. They also set policy and draft legislation, while supporting and monitoring conservancies in meeting legislative requirements and standards.
- During 2003, an innovative compensation/insurance scheme is being piloted in four conservancies to provide compensation for stock losses due to problem animals.
- In March 2003 another four communal area conservancies were registered bringing the total to 19.
- In July 2003 an additional ten conservancies were registered so by the time of writing this paper (September 2003), Namibia has 29 communal area conservancies.

### **CBNRM policy and legislation in Namibia<sup>2</sup>**

Section 1 indicated that practical experience and policy development ran parallel throughout the beginning of the CBNRM programme. This allowed policy and legislation to be informed by practical experience and ideas from the grassroots, not from just academic theories. Like Botswana, Namibia does not have one comprehensive policy or piece of legislation that covers all aspects of natural resources management and utilisation.

The following sub-sections describe the key policy and legislation that guide the CBNRM programme in Namibia:

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<sup>2</sup> Unless otherwise referenced, this section is derived from separate interviews with Brian Jones and Chris Weaver in May 2003.



## 2.1 Wildlife and tourism

### Nature Conservation Ordinance

The Nature Conservation Ordinance (No. 4 of 1975) is the primary piece of legislation covering the proclamation of protected areas and the conservation and utilisation of wildlife in Namibia. Originally it gave conditional ownership over 'hunnable' game and limited use rights over other species (through a permit system) to commercial farmers but not to communal farmers. The law required commercial farmers on freehold land to have farms of a specified size, enclosed by a certain type of fencing. Communal area farmers could only benefit from wildlife through a permit system when a hunting season was declared in their area or when permits were issued for the use of specific game species for traditional feasts or other special occasions. The Ordinance provided for trophy hunting on communal land, but hunting rights were allocated by the state and all revenue belonged to the state.

### Nature Conservation Amendment Act

Based on MET's policy on Wildlife Management, Utilisation and Tourism in Communal Areas, the Nature Conservation Amendment Act (Act 5 of 1996) amends the Nature Conservation Ordinance of 1975 so that residents of communal areas can gain the same rights over wildlife and tourism as commercial farmers. To obtain these rights, a community is required to define an area and form a legal entity, registering it as a conservancy with government. Within conservancies, communities have the right to manage, use and benefit from the wildlife resource for tourism and limited off-take, under the guidance of the MET (Wiessner 1999, Barnes *et al* 2001).

It is important to note at that time there was no Communal Land Act, therefore the 'conservancy legislation' gave communities rights over the wildlife resource but not the land. Without secure land tenure and the ability to exclude others from the communal land, the exact interpretation of a community's right remained unclear (Roe *et al* 2001). This amendment, along with tourism policy, allows communities to benefit from associated tourism activities, but does not provide the right to control tourist activities or exclude certain tourists from coming into their area. Furthermore, the 'conservancy legislation' does not address natural resources besides wildlife, such as forestry, rangelands, veld products, fisheries and water. This was due to the fact that the conservancy legislation was amending existing legislation dealing with only wildlife and conservation. At the time, only addressing these issues was seen as the easiest route for legislative change.

The Nature Conservation Amendment Act also provided for the establishment of Wildlife Councils. These would be formed by the MET with representatives of Regional Councils and local traditional leaders. They were aimed at providing for some form of benefit to reach parts of communal areas where conservancies were not formed. No Wildlife Councils have been formed in Namibia. They would retain considerable control in the hands of the Ministry and its officials and operate at such a large scale that they probably could not operate effectively in terms of providing incentives for sustainable management of resources.

### Amendment of Regulations Relating to Nature Conservation

MET at the same time introduced new regulations to accompany the Nature Conservation Amendment Act of 1996 to qualify certain issues regarding the formation of conservancies and Wildlife Councils. The regulations specify that a conservancy committee must provide a register containing the names, identification numbers and addresses of the members of the community to be represented by the committee. The conservancy constitution must cover the following aspects:

- the objectives of the conservancy, including the sustainable management and utilisation of game within the conservancy in line with a game management and utilisation plan, and the equitable distribution of the benefits derived from any activities,
- the powers and responsibilities of the conservancy committee, including powers to enter into agreements for consumptive and non-consumptive use of game,
- the criteria and procedure for being recognised as a member of the conservancy, provided that no-one may be excluded on the grounds of ethnicity or gender,

- the rights and obligations of members of the conservancy, and
- the procedure or system for the equitable distribution of benefits.

#### Community-Based Tourism Policy of 1995

The MET policy on the Promotion of Community Based Tourism, which was approved in 1995, provides a framework for ensuring that local communities have access to opportunities in tourism development and that they are able to share in the benefits of tourism activities that take place on their land. The policy gives recognised communal area conservancies the concessionary rights to lodge development within the conservancy boundaries. The policy acknowledges, in cases where tourism is linked to wildlife and wild landscapes, that the benefits to local communities can provide important incentives for conservation of these resources (WWF *et al* 2000).

#### Park and Neighbours Policy of 1996

This policy indicates MET's desire to promote the involvement of communal area dwellers and/or conservancies in the process of managing and benefiting from the use of natural resources in protected areas that are located in or next to communal areas (WWF *et al* 2000). However, it has still not been approved.

### **2.2 For related sectors**

Work has also been carried out to draft and develop policies and legislation that link with wildlife and tourism policy and legislation to further the effective management of other natural resources important to communal area residents. Within this, issues and options are being examined on community or group tenure and use of resources by 'duly constituted co-operatives', 'legally constituted bodies and institutions' or 'suitable legally-recognised user groups' to exercise joint ownership rights (MLRR 1997, Werner 2000). Notably, any registered conservancy would fall under these definitions.

#### Forestry Policy and the Forestry Act of 2002

Namibian forestry policy recognises the need to involve local communities in forest management. One aim is to reconcile rural development with biodiversity conservation by encouraging individuals and local communities to manage forest resources on a sustainable basis. This will be fostered by assigning effective property rights to forest users, including communities.

Forestry legislation makes provision for the establishment of various types of 'classified forest' areas including one category 'community forest'. Any legally formed and registered community forestry 'user group', which could include conservancies, will be expected to enter into a forest management agreement with government.

#### Fresh Water Fisheries

The freshwater fisheries sector falls under the responsibility of the Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources (MFMR). With most emphasis being placed on the important marine sector, little implementation of fisheries management has been carried out in the freshwater sector. Management has been carried out by traditional authorities (most effectively in Caprivi), or individual fishers (allowing an open access system to develop, most notably in Kavango) (Tvedten *et al* 1994). In 2003 the Inland Fisheries Resources Act was promulgated, which allows for local communities to develop, in consultation with government, an effective system for the co-management of fisheries (Purvis 2002). Thus specific initiatives in community-based fisheries management are now possible.

#### Rural Water Supply Management

The rural water supply sector began a transitional phase with the endorsement of the Water and Sanitation Policy (WASP) by Cabinet in 1993. After extensive consultation with all stakeholders the strategy to implement the rural water supply component of WASP was developed. This strategy, called Community Based Management (CBM) of Rural Water Supply (RWS), was approved by Cabinet in 1997. During the same year the CBM Programme was launched beginning with Phase 1 ('Capacity Building' – of RWS headquarters staff and regional extension officers and of communities). The other two phases would be

implemented over a ten-year period and these include 'Operation and Maintenance' (O&M) and 'Full Cost Recovery' (FCR) (DRWS 1999).

The main aim of CBM is to improve the RWS sector through the achievement of the following objectives:

- To improve management of the RWS sector by involving communities as partners.
- To empower communities to manage and own their own water points.
- To ensure sustainability of the RWS sector.
- To ensure better water coverage in communal areas.

Although the policy and strategy have been introduced primarily in recognition of government's limited capacity (financial and human) to maintain existing water points while building new ones, they also have the effect of promoting community-based management of local water resources.

Before a water point can be handed over to a community on communal land through a leasehold agreement, the following steps must be met (DRWS 1999 and IRC 1999):

- a Water Point Association (WPA) must be formed by community members having access to a specific water point,
- a representative Water Point Committee (WPC) must be elected and trained, including a water point caretaker,
- a WPA constitution and management plan prepared,
- WPA registered, and
- water point rehabilitated (if necessary) to a standard acceptable to DRWS and the community.

The WPA constitution must address how the WPA plans to undertake the following requirements (DRWS 2000):

- the sustainable management and utilisation of the Water Point for the social and economic benefit of the members in accordance with a management plan,
- the fair distribution of water to the members,
- the recovery of the costs of operating and maintaining the Water Point from the members, and
- the acquisition and/or holding and managing of the Water Point property for the benefit of and on behalf of the members.

Just like the CBNRM programme, to implement the CBM policy and strategy, legislation had to be drafted to reconcile existing legislation. For example, the Finance Act vests ownership of all government assets with the state, therefore making it illegal to handover water points for O&M or FCR. Furthermore, the Water Act (No. 54 of 1956) defines a water point on communal land as 'a public watering place', meaning that anyone can use it. One of the guiding principles of common property resource management is that users should have certain rights and responsibilities over the resource, and in RWS CBM that an individual must become a WPA member to obtain the right of access to a specific water point (DRWS 1999).

### Water Resources Management

The present legal framework and primary legislation for water in Namibia is the Water Act of 1956, covering ownership, allocation, rights to access and management issues. This framework is not seen to be suitable for the country's hydrological conditions or its post-Independence political, social and economic realities. Extensive stakeholder consultation and legislation drafting took place in the late 1990s by the Namibian Water Resources Management Review (NWRMR) team in order 'to achieve equitable access to, and the sustainable development of, freshwater resources by all sections of the population especially the rural and urban poor, in order to promote long-term social and economic development'. Some of the principles underlying the water resources management policy include: community participation and awareness, equity, access, demand management, capacity building of the water sector's institutions and communities, along with conservation and protection of the nation's water resources (NWRMR 1999).

In 2000, legislative drafting for rural water supply and water resource management were merged under the NWRMR. These legislative efforts have been very slow in reaching fruition. Apparently Cabinet has approved the legislation but it is not known if it has been tabled before Parliament yet (van der Colf pers. comm. 2003)

#### National Land Policy

The National Land Policy of 1998 allows for tenure rights of all renewable natural resources on communal land, subject to sustainable utilisation, relevant sectoral policy and legislation, and the gazetting of the Communal Land Act. These resources include wildlife, tourist attractions, fish, water, forest resources, veld products and vegetation for grazing. Tenure rights will be exclusive and law will support enforcement. Among the categories of land rights holders provided for are 'legally constituted bodies and institutions' and 'duly constituted co-operatives' (MLRR 1997, Werner 2000). This definition would include such bodies as wildlife conservancies, community forest management bodies, and Water Point Associations.

#### Communal Land Reform Act

The Communal Land Reform Act, which was finally promulgated in March 2003, provides for the establishment of land boards, their composition and functions. Customary land rights will be allocated by a traditional authority, but must be ratified by the land board, which will then register the grant. Provision is made for residents to have access to common grazing lands subject to conditions made by a traditional authority, including limits on stock numbers or location of grazing. The traditional authority may also grant (and withdraw) grazing rights to non-residents for a specified or indefinite period. Legal action can be instituted for the eviction of illegal occupiers of land. The land boards will control the allocation of leases for land for such purposes as wildlife management and utilisation and rural water supply management and use. Land boards are required to take into account any management or utilisation plans developed by conservancies, and may not grant a lease for a purpose that would defeat the objectives of such plans. Conservancies will have the right to be represented on land boards.

It should be noted that the Act does not specifically provide for secure group land tenure nor does it specifically preclude group tenure rights. When read with the section of the National Land Policy that provides for legally constituted bodies and institutions to exercise joint ownership rights as a category of landholder, the Act could be used by conservancies to obtain group tenure. Conservancies will have to work through the traditional authority (chief or headman), which has been given the authority in this Act to grant permission to outsiders or deny access to outsiders. However, the traditional authority is considered to be an agent of the state, not of the conservancy and there could be cases where the traditional authority does not act in the best interest of the community.

#### Traditional Authorities Act

The Traditional Authorities Act indicates that traditional authorities 'shall ensure that the members of their traditional community use the natural resources at their disposal on a sustainable basis and in a manner that conserves the environment and maintains the ecosystems, for the benefit of all persons in Namibia'. The Act does not describe or dictate how these environmental duties of traditional authorities will be carried out. In the past under customary law, traditional authorities have exercised control over natural resources in various ways, along with central government instituting and maintaining some regulations aimed at conserving the resources.

#### **The current status of the CBNRM programme and its stakeholders**

The main activity of Namibia's national CBNRM programme, which is active in all 12 of Namibia's regions except Khomas, has been the fostering of conservancies (Jones and Mosimane 2000, Davis 2001). Since 1997, 29 conservancies have been registered<sup>3</sup>, and a further 30 are in the process of development. Some 74,000 square kilometres are currently demarcated as

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<sup>3</sup> Ten have just registered in July 2003.

conservancy areas with 38,000 people registered as members and an estimated 150,000 benefiting from the conservancy programme (Weaver pers. comm. 2003).

By the end of 2002, four conservancies had signed joint venture contracts with private sector companies to operate tourism lodges. In 2002, this led to N\$2.1 million in total benefits (including wages) to the conservancies and conservancy members.<sup>4</sup> Two more joint venture agreements are currently under negotiation and several other potential sites have been identified. Several lodges that existed before the conservancy movement started are being encouraged to develop formal benefit-sharing agreements with conservancies. Seven conservancies have negotiated trophy-hunting agreements, which effectively lease hunting concessions within their conservancy areas to professional hunting outfits. In 2002, this resulted in N\$2.5 million in total benefits (including wages) to the conservancies and conservancy members.

Currently twelve NGO support organisations and the Government of Namibia (represented through five directorates of MET) are involved in the CBNRM programme. This represents a substantial increase from the original two NGOs back in the early 1990s (i.e. IRDNC and Nyae Nyae Foundation). The University of Namibia provides research-related support along with private consultants. All of these bodies are members of NACSO plus three individuals who hold associate membership (LIFE 2002) (see Table 1). NACSO acts as a small secretariat that coordinates these member organisations. Meetings are held on a quarterly basis. NACSO has also established several Thematic Working Groups made up of individuals from member organisations, which work on various crosscutting issues. Some examples include: 1) Natural Resource Management, 2) Business and Enterprise, 3) Training, 4) Monitoring and Evaluation and 5) Institutional Support.

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<sup>4</sup> 1 Namibian dollar = 1 Rand = 0.65 Pula. 1 US dollar = N\$7.5

Table 1 NACSO members and their responsibilities

Member	Responsibilities	Area of Operation
Centre for Research, Information and Action in Africa (CRIAA)	Supports communities in the harvesting, processing and marketing of plant-based products such as marula oil.	National
Desert Research Foundation of Namibia (DRFN)	Assists emerging and registered conservancies and other CBOs on desertification issues.	National
Integrated Rural Development and Nature Conservation (IRDNC)	Provides technical support to emerging and registered conservancies.	Kunene, Kavango and Caprivi Regions
Legal Assistance Centre (LAC)	Provides legal advice and advocacy on CBNRM issues.	National
Multi-disciplinary Research and Consultancy Centre (MRCC) at University of Namibia (UNAM)	Conducts research and provides research related support.	National
Namibian Community-based Tourism Association (NACOBTA)	An umbrella organisation and support provider for community-based tourism initiatives, inside and outside of conservancies.	National and field-based projects in North Central Regions
Namibian Development Trust (NDT)	Provides assistance to emerging conservancies.	Southern Namibia
Namibian Nature Foundation (NNF)	Provides assistance through grant making, financial administration, fund raising, monitoring and evaluation.	National
Namibian NGO Forum (NANGOF)	Represents a broad range of NGOs and CBOs.	National
Nyae Nyae Development Foundation of Namibia (NNDFN)	Supports San communities in the Nyae Nyae and N#laqna Conservancies.	Otjozondjupa Region
Rössing Foundation (RF)	Provides training and materials for CBNRM partners. Supports community craft development and marketing. Gives specific support to CBNRM activities in the North Central Regions.	National and field-based projects in North Central Regions
Rural Institute for Social Empowerment (RISE)	Provides assistance to established and emerging conservancies.	Southern Kunene and Erongo regions.
Ministry of Environment and Tourism	Provides support in terms of policy, wildlife resource monitoring, management and publicity.	National
Living in a Finite Environment (LIFE)	Associate Member of NACSO. Provides technical assistance to implementers and support organisations in the field of CBNRM, enterprise development and institutional development.	National

Source: NACSO 2002 and 2003

Mainly donor funding with the prime funding agents being USAID and WWF supports the national CBNRM programme. Through the agreement between Namibia and the United States, the Government of Namibia fulfils 25 percent of the funding requirements, mostly in-kind. The WWF LIFE Programme administers USAID funding for CBNRM in Namibia and provides technical support to CBNRM support organisations and implementers in the areas of natural resource management, enterprise and business development, and institutional development. Other funds come from the Swedish government, the British government, the Global Environment Facility, and the Dutch and Australian governments. Private donors also contribute, mostly in-kind, for example with the donation of live game.

## 4 Key activities and benefits<sup>5</sup>

There are three pillars to the national CBNRM programme in Namibia. The following section highlights key activities, achievements and benefits under each of these core components:

### 4.1 Environmental achievements through conservation and natural resource management

Evidence of environmental achievements can be noted as follows:

- Increase in wildlife numbers in general, and in particular, population growth in rare and/or valuable species such as black rhino, elephant and Hartmann's zebra in communal areas and in game parks because of the free movement of game and the improved environment for natural increases in animal population. In 2002 alone, in Namibia's northwestern area there was an increase of about 44,000 animals across five species (springbok gemsbok, kudu, Hartmann's zebra and ostrich) valued at N\$21 million. While no formal game counts have been done in the Nyae Nyae area since 1998, projections also show large increases here. Increases have occurred because of restocking, establishment of water points and the decline in poaching. For example, in 1998 there were 18 red hartebeest in the Nyae Nyae area, 541 were introduced and there are now estimated to be 725 (Weaver pers. comm. 2003). Some of these increases in certain species (e.g. springbok, gemsbok, kudu) provide an important buffer that reduces pressure on slower growing populations of rare and high-valued species, such as roan antelope;
- Dramatic reduction in illegal hunting;
- Significant progress by conservancies in managing human-wildlife conflicts.
- Maintenance of wild habitat.<sup>6</sup>;
- Increased awareness of wildlife and tourism as legitimate land uses; and
- Increased requests by communities for wildlife to be re-introduced onto communal lands with parallel expanded re-introduction of game supported by MET, the private sector, the LIFE Programme and other international donors.

Key activities undertaken in this component to realise these achievements include:

- Training and support of conservancy NRM staff (e.g. Community Game Guards and Environmental Shepherds);
- Development and implementation of integrated management plans within conservancies, including for some the zoning of specific areas as dedicated wildlife management areas that preclude human settlement, cropping, and in some cases, livestock grazing;
- Development and implementation of conservancy monitoring systems;
- Development and implementation of monitoring and management systems for key species.
- Implementation of annual game census in the northwest;
- Monitoring of biodiversity in certain conservancies;
- Development of strategies and systems to reduce human-wildlife conflicts within conservancies, along with the piloting of an innovative compensation/insurance scheme in four conservancies in 2003; and
- Trans-location and re-introduction of wildlife to strategically important conservancies.
- Negotiation and management of trophy hunting concessions leased to commercial hunting companies;
- Sale of live game from conservancies;
- Design and implementation of the Game Product Trust Fund (GPTF) by MET that provides financial support to various wildlife-based projects.

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<sup>5</sup> Except where otherwise indicated this section draws heavily from three summary CBNRM documents (LIFE 2002; Jones and Weaver 2003; NACSO 2003).

<sup>6</sup> In many conservancy areas there is still huge potential for expansion of game populations. For example in the Nyae Nyae area, the current situation is using less than 10 percent of the carrying capacity.

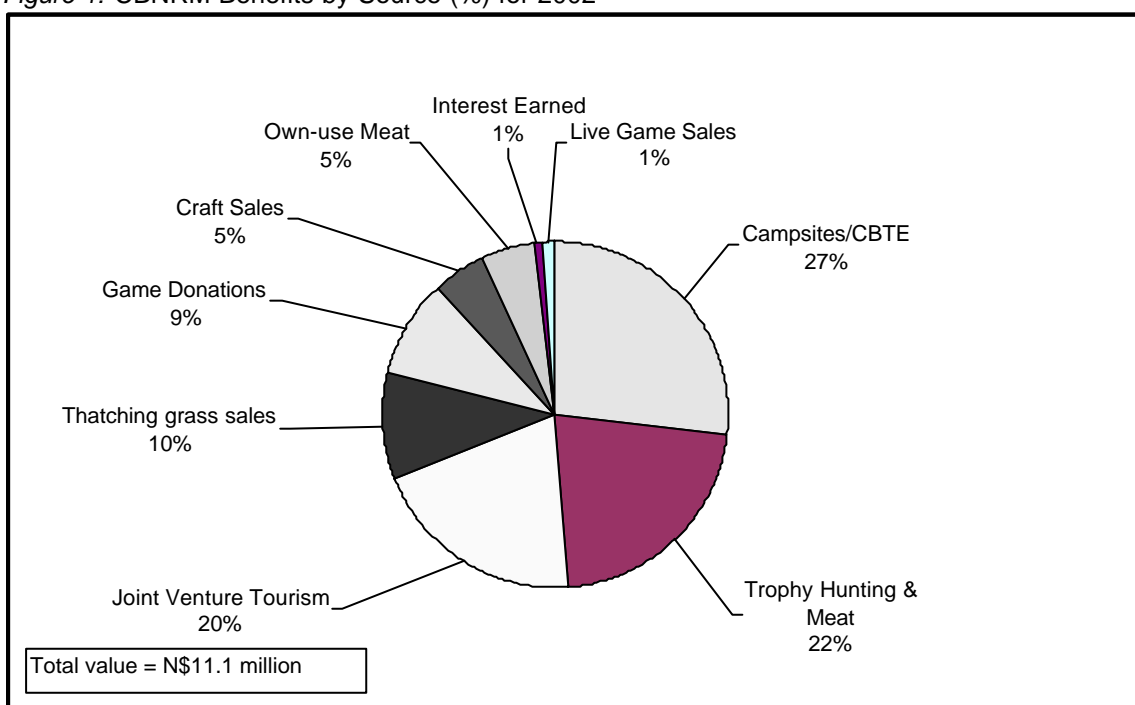
- Discussions and coordination (and recent implementation) with neighbouring countries (Zambia and Botswana) on various transboundary NRM efforts.

#### 4.2. Financial benefits from tourism and enterprise development

Growth in the number of conservancies and increases in income have been explosive, due to the financial incentives for communities in many cases and other less tangible benefits. Since 1997 when the first conservancy was registered, cash income to conservancies (via their committees) has risen from a total of just over N\$325,000 per annum to N\$3.2 million per annum in 2002, with the average income per conservancy increasing from N\$108,000 per annum to N\$215,000.<sup>7</sup> The range in earnings of 15 conservancies in 2002 was zero (for four conservancies) to N\$960,000 (for Nyae Nyae Conservancy in the northeast) (LIFE 2002).

When looking at the value of total direct income and benefits to conservancies and community members, 2002 figures have almost doubled since 2001, increasing from N\$6.1 million to N\$11.1 million per annum.<sup>8</sup> Fig. 1 provides a breakdown of the source of these benefits.

Figure 1: CBNRM Benefits by Source (%) for 2002



Source: NACSO 2003

By late 2002, four conservancies had become financially independent. From revenue from the sale of trophy hunting concessions and photographic safari tourism ventures, they could pay all their staff salaries,

<sup>7</sup> This is all self-generated income from enterprise activities and does not represent any grants or subsidies from the donor community.

<sup>8</sup> Total direct income and benefits to conservancies and community members include: 1) conservancy or enterprise committee income, 2) natural resource based household or individual income and natural resource based wage employment income, and 3) conservancy and household non-financial benefits. In 2002 these were valued at about N\$5 million, N\$4 million and N\$1.5 million respectively (NACSO 2003). Benefits such as 'own-use' game meat are expected to increase substantially over the coming years due to the increasing populations of game and the fact that in some areas less than 10 percent of the carrying capacity is being currently utilised (Weaver pers. comm. 2003).



vehicle-operating costs, and infrastructure maintenance costs, and at the same time provide income distributions to conservancy members. Three conservancies have begun the process of distributing cash benefits or dividends to individual members and households within their conservancies. For example, Nyae Nyae has conducted three cash payouts: in 1999 N\$41,250 went to 550 members, in 2001 N\$58,125 went to 775 members, with each payout equal to N\$75 per member, but for 2002/2003 they paid out N\$620 to 770 members for a total of N\$477,400. In 2001, Salambala distributed N\$2000 to each of the 19 villages in the Salambala jurisdiction. In 2002, this amount was increased to N\$2500 per village. Each village is allowed to decide how best to use the money to meet their needs.

According to NACSO (2003), these significant increases in conservancy income and benefits are critical to the sustainability of the conservancy movement. This income allows the conservancy to cover its operating expenses, and most operating costs are attached to the direct management of the resource base. With financial viability of conservancies comes resource base recovery and longer-term resource sustainability.

Regarding financial benefits to individuals and households through employment and income-generating activities, figures from the Torra Conservancy in Kunene Region can be cited. From a socio-economic survey of 38 of Torra's 120 households, Jones (1999) found that 53 percent were earning an income from wildlife-related activities, including working in a tourism lodge and as community game guards and through craft production. The average annual household income from these activities was N\$4,380. While income to individuals or households may not appear significant, any ready cash income is a real addition to rural households where the mean and medium annual household income in Caprivi for example was estimated to be N\$7,200 and N\$3,500 respectively and for Kunene N\$10,600 and N\$5,200 in 1993/1994 (CSO 1994; Terry 1999).

Some examples of activities undertaken to realise these benefits include:

- The active facilitation of tourism planning and development that leads to job creation and income generation. This was spearheaded by MET with the commission of the North West Tourism Plan (1998-2002) covering the communal areas in Kunene and Erongo Regions. A North Central Tourism Plan for Oshikoto, Omusati, Oshana and Ohangwena Regions was also developed in 2000 with the support of the Northern Namibia Environmental Project (NNEP). Other tourism plans have been developed or are in progress for the eastern floodplains of East Caprivi, the Kwando area of western East Caprivi and in the southern regions of Hardap and Karas (NACSO 2003).
- Actively helping Community-Based Tourism (CBT) enterprises to develop. In 1993 there were three known CBT enterprises. This number increased to 16 by the time NACOBTA was established in 1995 and as of December 2000 there were 45 being supported by NACOBTA (WWF *et al* 2000).
- The establishment of a Joint Venture Unit under NACOBTA helps to identify and facilitate joint venture opportunities between conservancies and private sector companies.
- After an initial survey of natural resource based crafts was undertaken in 1994, the Rössing Foundation became the key player in craft development and marketing for Namibia (Terry *et al* 1994). In 1996 the Rössing Foundation started their trading arm called Mud Hut Trading (MHT) and also took over the Namibia Craft Centre in Windhoek (WWF *et al* 2000). Except for local sales of crafts to tourists much of the conservancy and CBT craft production is marketing via MHT.

#### **4.3 The economic and financial viability of CBNRM initiatives**

Barnes *et al* (2002) conducted an analysis of the economic efficiency and the financial incentives associated with five ongoing conservancy initiatives in Caprivi, Kunene and Otjozondjupa in Namibia. They developed detailed ten-year cost-benefit investment flow models, and annualised budget models for each conservancy, based either on past performance, or on future plans for development. In each case the analysis investigated the financial returns to the overall project

(from the collective donor, government community perspective) and to the community itself. The study also used shadow pricing to investigate the contribution that conservancies make, or can make, to the national income, and to employment creation.

The results showed that conservancies, as constituted and planned, are *economically efficient*, and are able to contribute positively to national income and the development process. The likelihood of their being sustainable is high. Their receipt of donor funding, as part of the national CBNRM programme, means that they also provide a channel for the capture of wildlife *non-use values*, as income.

The results also showed that conservancies also provide *very attractive financial returns for communities*. These returns are made up of income from wildlife use (direct wildlife use values) as well as donor grants (reflecting international non-use values). The latter considerably enhance the attractiveness of conservancy investment for communities and perform a very important role in start-up. However, direct use values can generate positive financial returns for communities. Conservancies also tend to be financially viable as projects.

For all conservancies, tourism (primarily non-consumptive tourism but also safari hunting) was confirmed to be a particularly important income generator. In the development of tourism, the joint ventures between private investors, with skills and access to markets, and communities were seen as critically important. Other consumptive wildlife and natural resource uses were less important, but they served to spread risk.

The existence of natural wildlife populations on conservancies (reducing the need for investments in stock) was found to be a very significant factor affecting the economic efficiency and financial viability of conservancies. Acquisition of stock for restocking was not found to be economically efficient at the conservancy level, unless there were no opportunity costs. However, it was concluded that restocking could have wider, longer-term economic benefits. It was concluded that *flexibility and adaptability in design* has allowed Namibia's conservancy initiative to embrace an apparently sound rural development framework, which includes significant intangible values and benefits as well as financial income for communities. The analysis confirmed the assertion that conservancies can deliver positive financial incentives to communities, contribute positively to national development, conserve wildlife and be at least as sustainable as other rural development initiatives.

#### **4.4. Social benefits and capacity building**

As noted above some conservancies have not earned any income to date. According to Jones and Weaver (2003), this can be attributed in some cases to a lack of progress where there is actual potential for tourism or safari hunting activities and in other cases where there is no actual direct income potential. Jones and Weaver (2003:10) further note that:

“Significantly a number of communities that do not have much potential to generate income from wildlife and tourism have formed conservancies. Although in some cases there might be unrealistic expectations concerning income generation, in other cases other motives appear to be important. Residents seem to believe that conservancies can provide useful institutional arrangements for managing other resources such as grazing and for gaining a stronger claim over their land.”

For those conservancies that have gained financial benefits from their activities some are applying the income earned to social causes. For example, Torra Conservancy has made several grants to the local school and has contributed to the building of a crèche, besides distributing cash dividends to individual conservancy members.

Employment is another social benefit derived from the conservancy movement. While employment opportunities for conservancy members have not been as great as the actual income levels to the conservancies, nevertheless they have not been insignificant. In 2002, an estimated 374 people were

employed full-time (e.g. employed in tourism venture) and 3,136 part-time (e.g. hunting trackers, craft producers and thatching grass harvesters). With an average unemployment rate of 34.5 percent across the country and the highest rate found in Caprivi (51.3 percent), any employment opportunity is beneficial (MLHRD 1998). For example, self-employment in such fields as craft production and thatching grass collection offers the possibility of productive absorption of labour that would otherwise be unemployable. The diversified, decentralised nature of natural resource based employment opportunities in remote areas (which is the location for most conservancies) contributes to income distribution and equity, while helping to stem the rural exodus to urban areas. Finally, the psychological benefits -- self-esteem, self-confidence and self-reliance -- of having purposeful work, cannot be denied (Terry 1999).

Furthermore, even low-level jobs offer an excellent breeding ground for managerial and entrepreneurial talent as can be evidenced by the one female goat herder in the northwest who started working for a tourist lodge as a cleaner and is now the first black Namibian woman to be managing a safari camp – and one that is an up-market lodge aimed at overseas tourists. Similarly, conservancies that run community campsites are gaining valuable on-site technical skills and managerial experience that is building capacity for future, higher-value, joint venture lodge operations.

**Other capacity building benefits have been derived from CBNRM at the community level. For example, participatory tourism planning and the development of natural resource management plans have increased the capacity of rural people to plan and therefore to manage their tourism ventures and natural resources. The participatory process has also resulted in a feeling of ownership of the plans and responsibility for the natural resources (NACSO 2003).**

**Formal training has been provided to conservancy members and conservancy committee members to increase capacity. WWF *et al* (2000) reports that during Phase 1 of the LIFE Project, 146 training events were provided for a total of 1,839 participants covering 10,599 person days of training. Of those participating, 73 percent were community members. Some training has revolved around committee operations and responsibilities such as staff management, financial management, reporting, communication between committee and members, and negotiation skills (for negotiations with government, donors and the private sector). Other training has been broader in nature including: land use planning, participatory decision making, visioning and strategic planning, institutional arrangements, advocacy, monitoring and evaluation and establishing policies and strategies to address the issue of HIV/AIDS. Some training has been very specific, for example how to undertake a game count using various techniques such as vehicle road count, on-foot transects, and aerial counts.**

Wide-ranging evidence can be cited that community-level capacity is expanding:

- Several conservancies are already financially independent and others are moving towards financial and management independence, which will lead to sustainability in the long run;
- Financial benefits are being generated and distributed to conservancy members.
- Representative, accountable and transparent community structures are in place;
- Conservancy committees hold quarterly planning and evaluation meetings, which prove to be important mechanisms for coordination, communication, evaluation and planning at the conservancy level.
- Conservancy committee members are exhibiting the capacity to negotiate with government, donors, and the private sector, and to liaise with regional councils and line ministries; and
- Conservancies have proven to be sound and strong legal entities to uphold community rights. For example, Purros Conservancy won its court case against the campsite manager who took over the campsite as his own, hiring only family members and keeping all the profits. Nyae Nyae Conservancy was able to legally terminate a contract with one hunting operator after the relationship deteriorated.

Capacity building of the support organisations (NGOs and government) has also been a major achievement of the CBNRM programme. From the training mentioned above, 18 percent of the participants were from NGOs and eight percent from government. At the start of the LIFE Project in 1993 very few Namibians with NGOs or government had CBNRM-related knowledge along with experience as trainers in areas relevant to CBNRM. Only two NGOs and government were active in the CBNRM field and women were virtually nonexistent in the wildlife and conservation field. Because of this situation, training was given the highest priority in the first five years of the LIFE project so that the support organisations would be capable of assisting client communities. As capacity was built and the programme progressed, two local NGOs (NACOBTA and the Rössing Foundation) were designated as the key formal community-based tourism (CBT) and CBNRM training organisations (WWF *et al* 2000).

### **Strengths and weaknesses within the CBNRM programme**

<b>Strengths</b>	<b>Weaknesses</b>
<b>Policy and legislative process.</b> Conservancy policy and legislation was grounded in practical experience, the input of rural Namibian communities and lessons learned from other countries implementing CBNRM in the region (WWF <i>et al</i> 2000, Jones and Weaver 2003). Neither were academic exercises conducted by outsiders.	<b>Policy and legislative process.</b> More sharing of information across various resource sectors could have further enhanced the policy process for some of the sectors.
<b>Policy and legislative process.</b> The Directorate of Environment Affairs (DEA) under MET provided substantial direction and input to the attorneys drafting CBNRM legislation. The Rural Water Supply sector benefited by having one of the same attorneys who drafted the CBNRM legislation draft the CBM legislation.	<b>Policy and legislative process.</b> There could have been more communication and networking between the various sectors developing CBNRM-related policy and legislation so that each sector could have learned more from the other sector's experience.
	<b>Land rights.</b> Even with the conservancy legislation and the recent passing of the Land Act, as mentioned in Section 2, communal area dwellers still do not have secure group land tenure rights. Conservancies have no control over outsiders who want to come into their areas for grazing or water. Not being able to exclude others from using the conservancies' resources set aside for wildlife and tourism, may reduce the incentive to maintain the wild habitats. A lack of secure land rights also makes it difficult to raise capital using the land as collateral and to attract private sector investors.
<b>Conservancy formation.</b> The underlying flexibility and ability to choose written into conservancy policy and legislation has led to community empowerment, capacity building, and the sense of control over the community's own affairs (Jones and Weaver 2003).	
<b>Conservancy formation.</b> The conservancies must be well defined and planned properly prior to registration, and both processes are in the hands of the local community (Jones and Weaver 2003).	
<b>Conservancy formation.</b> Implementation has been based on a 'process' approach rather than the need to achieve pre-determined outcomes (Jones and Weaver 2003). This has allowed communal area residents to make their own decisions, come to their own conclusions, and settle their own disputes, which in the long run should be more sustainable than if imposed from the top.	<b>Conservancy formation.</b> The longer 'process' approach has sometimes delayed conservancy formation (Jones and Weaver 2003).
<b>National CBNRM programme and co-ordination.</b> The LIFE Project helped to develop and coordinate CBNRM from the early days, but because the LIFE Steering Committee was comprised of government and NGOs working in CBNRM, LIFE was not considered as a threat. The Steering Committee grew with the programme and eventually developed into the organisation NACSO.	

Strengths	Weaknesses
<p><b>National CBNRM programme and co-ordination.</b> The LIFE project provided institutional development support to the support NGOs and government rather than directly to the CBOs or emerging conservancies. Part of this support included conducting institutional assessments and following-up on these assessments with recommended support services and customised training. Strategic planning assistance was also provided.</p>	
<p><b>Support to conservancies.</b> NGO and government support bodies have provided regular, consistent and on-the-ground attention to the communities in the process of forming conservancies and later to the conservancies (Jones and Weaver 2003).</p>	<p><b>Support to conservancies.</b> This direct support can lead to dependency and the support organisation retaining a dominant role (Jones and Weaver 2003).</p>
<p><b>Support to conservancies.</b> The number of support NGOs has grown from the original three to 12. NGO staff, for the most part, is dedicated to the CBNRM philosophy and the NGOs are made up of solid and hardworking teams. Jones (pers. comm. 2003) sees more regular and consistent support from CBNRM NGOs than in any other sectors or projects in the country.</p>	<p><b>Support to conservancies.</b> The capacity of government to deliver is still weak. For example there are over 30 officers in the new CBNRM support division within MET. While these officers are spread across the regions, most only have MET experience as former Information Officers. Some were general labourers and/or are former combatants. Amongst these officers there are only four vehicles.</p>
<p><b>Support to conservancies.</b> A common vision and sense of common purpose prevails amongst the members of NACSO and others (Jones and Weaver 2003).</p>	
<p><b>Support to conservancies.</b> Any weakness in community capacity is being constantly monitored and addressed by the support organisations. For example, one NGO has hired a communication expert that will work directly with conservancy committees to enhance their ability to communicate downwards and upwards (Knott pers. comm. 2003). LIFE and NACSO are about to hire an institutional specialist to continue to build the capacity of both the support organisations and the conservancies.</p>	<p><b>Support to conservancies.</b> Communities continue to need their capacity improved to run and manage a conservancy. For example, conservancy committees need to improve their ability to provide more and better feedback to their members, and to be more accountable and transparent. In some cases, conservancies are still sitting on large amounts of money because they do not know the best way to use it.</p>
<p><b>Support to conservancies.</b> Namibia's support organisations provide services to communities and conservancies on a geographic and thematic basis, which reduces conflict and duplication. For example, the Rössing Foundation provides training nationally on institutional organisational development and natural resource management. CRIAA provides support nationally on harvesting, processing and marketing veld products. NACOBTA focuses on CBT nationally and has one field-based project in the four north central regions. IRDNC works directly with communities and conservancies in the northwest, and in Kavango and Caprivi. RISE works in the Erongo and southern Kunene Region. NDT focuses on Hardap.</p>	<p><b>Support to conservancies.</b> There is an unclear and therefore unstable institutional environment in which conservancies must operate due to the array of institutions that claim overlapping authority over land and natural resources. This includes traditional authorities, government ministries, regional government and soon the new land boards that will be formed under the new land act. Within this competitive environment conservancies are also trying to establish their own authority over land and resources. According to Jones and Weaver (2003), if the roles and responsibilities of these various institutions are not clarified in relationship to CBNRM then there may be conflict over authority.</p>
<p><b>Support to conservancies.</b> NACOBTA provides a wide range of services to its member organisations, including: specifically developed training courses for CBT enterprises, assistance in marketing and managing, dispersing small grants to support infrastructure development, and providing general tourism awareness training. NACOBTA uses a committee of private sector tour operators to approve the grants for improving community tourism facilities. This has proven a useful forum for strengthen the cooperation and interaction between CBT enterprises and the private sector (WWF <i>et al</i> 2002).</p>	<p><b>Support to conservancies.</b> While NACOBTA supports the CBT part of income generation and CRIAA supports veld product based enterprises, there is no NGO in Namibia providing nationwide support that specialises in income generating or business development especially for the CBNRM sector. Various areas need support including: providing advice to conservancies on how to use their savings to develop other income generating activities (not necessarily CBNRM related), improving the operation of existing income generating activities, providing general business management training, and supporting conservancies to become more entrepreneurial.</p>

Strengths	Weaknesses
<p><b>Support to conservancies.</b> Intensive support is provided around financial management and record keeping. One financial system has been developed and is being introduced to every emerging conservancy through the work of NNF, RF, LIFE and IRDNC. Various 'checks and balances' are part of this system. NACSO has issued small grants to conservancies to help them get started and to provide 'on-the-job' training in financial management, so that they can be capable of handling their finances before large sums of money start to be earned.</p>	<p><b>Support to conservancies.</b> The conservancy must agree to want this support. One did not want any NGO support and allegedly used this opportunity for one person's personal advantage, which has resulted in extensive turmoil and conflict in this conservancy</p>
<p><b>Support to conservancies.</b> The legal support provided by the Legal Assistant Centre (LAC) is a 'strong asset unique to any other CBNRM movement in Africa' (WWF <i>et al</i> 2000). LAC's role in CBNRM has included: conflict resolution, joint venture negotiations, conservancy constitution development and registration, policy and legislation review, drafting contracts, and programme support against human rights violations.</p>	
<p><b>Women's roles in CBNRM.</b> One of the goals of the LIFE Project has been to strengthen the role of and improve the capacity of women and formerly disadvantaged Namibians in CBNRM related activities (WWF <i>et al</i> 2000). Great achievement has been made in this area. For example, black female Namibians currently head both NACOBTA and NACSO. To mobilise the active participation of women in the community, the system of women Community Resource Monitor was developed. Women also compose more than 30 percent of the conservancy management committee members. More than two-thirds of direct beneficiaries are women through crafts production and thatching grass sales.</p>	<p><b>Women's roles in CBNRM.</b> In places where the focus of CBNRM has been on large mammals there may be a neglect of other natural resources that are mainly used by women and this reduces the involvement of women in CBNRM decision-making. This occurs mostly in the northwest.</p>
	<p><b>Benefit distribution.</b> Conservancies still struggle with the issue of benefit distribution with income from tourism and trophy hunting sitting in the bank, in many cases, because the conservancy cannot decide on how to distribute the money or utilise it. According to Jones and Weaver (2003), problems regarding benefit distribution correlate in part with the problems facing a 'loosely representative group of people who have to try and satisfy the needs of diverse groups and interests within the community'. However, this is becoming less of an issue as Torra, Salambala and Nyae Nyae have all under gone impressive distributions in the past year.</p>
	<p><b>Vast distances.</b> The semi-arid and arid conditions found for most of Namibia's conservancies necessitate the animals to roam over vast distances in search of food and water. These distances create logistical and organisational problems, and they raise the issue of who 'owns' the wildlife when it crosses from one community's land to another (Jones and Weaver 2003).</p>

### Opportunities and threats for the success of CBNRM in Namibia

Opportunities	Threats
<p>Several factors made Namibia ripe for CBNRM in the early 1990s. Communities expressed strong interest in having wildlife back on their land. Once they got past their initial problems with MET, the communities became eager partners in CBNRM. Significantly, many community leaders and residents were willing to take on the responsibility of conserving wildlife even before there was any prospect of financial benefit (Jones and Weaver 2003). The new government of Namibia was happy to see policy and</p>	<p>At the beginning, the 'old guard' in the MET were reluctant to hand over wildlife management and decision making responsibilities to rural people.</p> <p>Currently proposed changes to legislation would remove many of the rights that communities have at the moment. However, this is not seen as a severe threat as it is anticipated that CBNRM community of organisations will be able to positively influence policy and legislation</p>

Opportunities	Threats
legislative change that would redress the wrongs of the <i>apartheid</i> past and therefore provided solid political support to the programme (WWF <i>et al</i> 2000).	development for conservancies.
Already some communities are altering their conservancy structure to address the practical constraints of size and to create a viable area for resource management. Smaller sub-units with conservancies are being considered and one emerging conservancy has split into three (Jones and Weaver 2003). By placing responsibilities on smaller social units more rural people gain management, problem solving and decision making skills.	Like Botswana, the size of Namibia's rural communal areas is enormous and it has been difficult to match the size of the area containing the natural resources to be managed with a small enough social unit in charge to be practical. Vast distances with widely distributed animal and human populations create logistical and organisational problems. Some conservancies with membership in the thousands are showing the strains of having to achieve transparency and accountability (Jones and Weaver 2003).
Namibian communities are able to retain 100 percent of any revenue generated from the use of wildlife in the communal areas just as is the right of freehold farmers.	With legislation review this right is coming under threat along with the other limited rights that communities currently have. As above, this is not seen as a severe threat as it is anticipated that CBNRM community of organisations will be able to have a positive influence on policy and legislation development.
The successful development of conservancies to date has increased awareness of wildlife and tourism as legitimate land uses (Jones and Weaver 2003).	
The change in rural communities' attitudes about living with wildlife (because of the incentives and possible benefits) and parallel reduction in poaching 'have created a fertile and safe environment for game re-introductions' including the possibility of re-introducing the white rhino to some proven conservancies (Jones and Weaver 2003).	
In lieu of significant interest from the private sector to form joint ventures, discussions have been held to start a non-profit (Section 21) 'Central Lodge Company', which will provide the investment, technical and management support, and training to communities for the first few years of start-up of a tourism lodge operation (Ward 2003). As of August 2003, this concept has been approved by MET, a board is being formed and a Section 21 company will be registered shortly. While it is assumed that eight lodges will have to be run to make the company financially viable, at the beginning two lodges will be funded by the EU as test cases. The other lodges will probably be funded with government money and from interested donors, should the concept prove successful (Thouless 2003).  Recently, another tendering process for JVP tourism (lodge) activities in two different areas has been launched. One of the areas, Nyae Nyae, has generated a great deal of interest in comparison to the 2002 tendering launch because a new border post had recently opened east of Tsumkwe, which should lead to more tourism traffic between Namibia and Botswana.	An attempt at advertising and implementing a joint venture partnership (JVP) tendering process in late 2002 was a bit disappointing with only two of the four tendered sites resulting in signed agreements (Anon 2002). With few large tourism companies, the private sector in Namibia has only limited interest in making JVP arrangements with rural communities because most Namibian companies cannot afford to invest the extra money and time in negotiating with the communities nor have their capital tied up during the negotiating process (Ward 2003). Tour operators want to be straight business partners not implementers of development and training programmes. In addition, there are still tourism investment opportunities in the country that are not connected to CBNRM so the attitude is 'why bother' (Jones pers. comm. 2003).
Donors remain interested and funding is available to the CBNRM programme. The LIFE Project will receive five more years of support from USAID for implementation of LIFE Phase III.	
Peace has returned to Caprivi Region.	
With global terrorism on the increase and SARS in Asia, tourists perceive southern Africa as a safe destination. With the weak Rand to the US dollar and Euro, a southern African destination, even an up-market, high-cost one, is a relative bargain.	

## Issues and options for the future of CBNRM in Namibia

Davis (2001) projects there will be at least 25 communal area conservancies by 2005 and these conservancies will be managing more than nine million hectares, which would be about 10 percent of

Namibia's total land area. Assuming ongoing flows of donor funds to the CBNRM programme and continued growth in the tourism markets, this expansion is likely to persist during the next 30 years (SIAPAC 2002). However, there are some upcoming issues that Namibia's CBNRM practitioners will have to address to ensure the ongoing success of CBNRM.

MET is about to embark on a new round of policy and legislation review. To avoid costly mistakes, it will be necessary to ensure input from all stakeholders, especially the rural people who will be primarily affected. Some issues that will be examined include:

- At the moment, individual community members have the choice to join the conservancy or not, and in fact if they do want to be a member they must sign a register and commit themselves to the responsibilities of being a member if they are to also have the rights. Some misinformed government officers are going around saying that all community members within a conservancy area should be allowed to benefit from the conservancy (Jones pers. comm. 2003). While this may save the administrative and organisational hassle of registering members over vast areas, it will negate one method of enforcement of responsibilities – if one does not comply with the rules that person can be expelled from the conservancy and no longer be entitled to any benefits. It would also negate many other advantages as noted in Section 9 below. According to Weaver (pers. comm. 2003), this issue has quieted down and may become a 'non-issue';
- New policy and legislation is being drafted in the form of a Parks and Wildlife Bill to replace the Conservation Ordinance of 1975 (which is the current legislation governing conservation in Namibia along with its Amendment in 1996 governing conservancy formation). Certain segments of government are considering changing policy and legislation, to remove rights of the conservancies and to place power back in the hands of the MET. Changes would also limit the amount of decision-making and management responsibilities that the conservancies already have, and along with this reduce the amount and type of benefits they can gain. Paradoxically the changes would allow conservancies to do more, but any permission would be based on the discretion of MET officials. It appears that these efforts are being conducted by "the 'old guard' who want to go back to their old 'comfort zone' of government being in power". While this could be a major threat to the conservancy movement, several CBNRM implementers believe these legislative changes will not come into being. Certain government officials are against "going backwards" and will fight these efforts. When government releases the draft Bill for consultation, these government officials and the NGO community will lobby extensively. Lobbying efforts by various stakeholders will be time-consuming and possibly cause conflict between stakeholders. On the other hand, open discussions around these issues could be a vehicle for educating misguided policymakers and building consensus on the way forward;

Additional upcoming issues will have to be addressed to ensure the sustainability of Namibia's CBNRM programme:

- As mentioned previously under 'threats', there are very few large tourism companies operating in Namibia, and the private sector appears to have only limited interest in forming JVP arrangements with rural communities. To expand JVPs beyond the four that have been formed and the two that are in the process of negotiating, certain aspects will have to be in place, including: 1) the conservancy needs secure tenure over the land, 2) the land should be a high-value asset, and 3) an enlightened private sector;
- With the growing number of conservancies, the existing NGOs and government bodies are showing the strain of being able to provide adequate support. Jones and Weaver (2003) believe it will be difficult to give the emerging conservancies the same level of support that the first conservancies benefited from. One constraint will be financial resources, but the main constraint is the lack of qualified and experienced Namibians. The LIFE Project will be extended for a third phase for another five years. During this time capacity building of existing NGOs should continue and other NGOs should be encouraged to participate in the CBNRM sector, including NGOs active in other sectors such as agriculture (Weaver pers. comm. 2003);



- NACOBTA is a membership, networking and service organisation specifically with a CBT focus. Its Board is made up of its members and is therefore not always capable or neutral in its decision-making or service provision. There are considerations underway to split the organisation into two with different focuses and two different boards. One would be a membership and networking body while the other would provide CBT services to the conservancies;
- Discussions are being held to start a membership body or national association of conservancies, which would be separate from NACSO and NACOBTA and have a networking and advocacy role, but no service objective. In order to network frequently, enough, regional-based conservancy sub-structures are in the process of forming. Since regional conservancy associations are emerging in parts of the country, the plan is to see how these take off before developing any national body; and
- CBNRM practitioners are considering the idea of starting up a 'game utilisation unit' outside of government that would deal with the numerous issues around game utilisation, and provide support to the conservancies in negotiating hunting safari joint ventures, live capture and sales, etc. (Weaver pers. comm. 2003).

## Key differences and similarities in the Namibian and Botswana CBNRM Programmes

### 8.1 Key differences

Namibia	Botswana
<p><b>Start-up of CBNRM.</b> In the original start-up of CBNRM, two NGOs existed that already had community-conservation-wildlife experience and could act as sound partners (grantees) with the USAID-funded WWF-LIFE Project. These NGOs had already been providing support to communities. The LIFE technical staff could focus on providing capacity building to these two and to other interested NGOs rather than providing direct support to communities and emerging conservancies. LIFE was able support the NGOs while the NGOs pilot tested ideas on the ground. Furthermore the LIFE Steering Committee, which was made up of these support NGOs and government, was responsible for driving the programme and grew as the programme grew. LIFE provided technical support not implementation (WWF <i>et al</i> 2002).</p>	<p><b>Start-up of CBNRM.</b> There were few NGOs with any capacity in wildlife management or CBNRM experience in Botswana to act as support organisations to communities. Because of this lack, the USAID funded programmes (first NRMP and then PACT) ended up having to provide direct support to rural communities to get CBNRM off the ground. By focusing directly on local communities, there was limited time to build the capacity of NGOs that could carry on with the work. Once donor funding was reduced, communities and CBOs were left with reduced support. In addition, the NRMP staff found itself in the position of driving the CBNRM programme without equal partnership from Botswana NGOs and government. NRMP also had to do its own research and pilot testing on the ground.</p>
<p><b>Start-up of CBNRM.</b> CBNRM in Namibia began with the premise that rural communities could look after their wildlife if you provided them with the necessary incentives and rights.</p>	<p><b>Start-up of CBNRM.</b> CBNRM in Botswana began with the premise that you must educate rural communities to look after their wildlife.</p>
<p><b>Umbrella organisations.</b> NACOBTA is a membership, networking (of CBT organisations) <u>and</u> service organisation (to its members) specifically with a CBT focus. NACOBTA deliberately chose to provide services to its members with its costs funded by LIFE. Its Board is made up of its members and is therefore not always capable or neutral in its decision-making or service provision.</p>	<p><b>Umbrella organisations.</b> BOCOBONET is structured like NACOBTA and has some of the same problems. But under even more strain than NACOBTA, BOCOBONET is trying to do everything: act as a membership and networking body <u>and</u> provide services to members in CBT activities <u>and</u> NR management. BOCOBONET 'drifted' into implementation to obtain money from donors, but ran into problems when the money ran out. Both BOCOBONET and NACOBTA need to strengthen their accountability to their members.</p>

<p><b>Umbrella organisations.</b> NACSO is also a membership and networking organisation (for NGO and government support organisations). It provides some specific services to its members, including coordination, planning, and networking, policy inputs, strategic interventions, monitoring and evaluation at national level, and helping with fundraising. It does provide some services to the conservancies and communities, but most support comes directly from the individual NACSO members (NGOs and government). NACSO meets quarterly. NACSO utilises the strengths of its individual member organisations (geographically and thematically) to support the national CBNRM programme. NACSO is the 'glue' that holds the national programmes together.</p>	<p><b>Umbrella organisations.</b> The CBNRM Forum in Botswana is a bit similar to NACSO, but is not a formal registered organisation like NACSO. It also includes CBOs and CBO representatives, and only meets bi-annually to discuss key issues and strategies. The CBNRM Forum appears to only be able to make suggestions with no power to ensure they are implemented.</p>
<p><b>Community CBNRM structure.</b> Communities are allowed to define their own conservancy social unit and physical boundaries. WPAs can do the same, but the social unit is typically made up of those within reasonable access of a specific water point and the physical boundary encompasses the entire water point infrastructure. For both, individual community members have the choice to join the conservancy and WPA or not. Because conservancies are not within pre-existing boundaries, a conservancy can be formed on any communal land in Namibia. This formative process in itself is a bonding and uniting event that links conservancy members around common objectives.</p>	<p><b>Community CBNRM structure.</b> The CHA is a physical area zoned by government and given to the community living in that area as a community concession. The trust or CBO is made up of all people living within the designated CHA. Because the communities have not been able to choose their own boundaries or social units some have experienced ethnic conflict. Communities have no rights over the CHAs already designated as private concession areas, even though they are located on communal land or land to which in the past communities used and now could lay claim to.</p>
<p><b>Community CBNRM structure.</b> Individual community members must consciously choose to join a conservancy or a WPA by registering. Signing the register indicates that they understand the constitution, know their rights and accept any responsibilities they may have. At least one conservancy and most WPAs charge an annual membership fee, usually a symbolic amount of N\$1-10.</p>	<p><b>Community CBNRM structure.</b> Individual community members automatically become members of a CBNRM CBO if they qualify according to certain set criteria (e.g. over 18, lived in community for more than five years). Without registration and/or a membership fee, proper understanding and commitment to the CBO may be lacking. Some believe this non-registration is a fundamental flaw in Botswana's CBNRM programme.<sup>9</sup></p>
<p><b>Ensuring sound financial management.</b> Intensive support is provided around financial management and record keeping. One financial system has been developed and is introduced to every emerging conservancy through the work of NNF, RF, LIFE and IRDNC. Various 'checks and balances' are part of this system. NACSO has issued small grants to conservancies to help them get started and to provide 'on-the-job' training in financial management, so that they can be capable of handling their finances before large sums of money start to be earned.<sup>10</sup></p> <p>Namibia does not legally require an annual audit. In principle MET is supposed to arrange for audits for each conservancy but they have yet to do so.</p>	<p><b>Ensuring sound financial management.</b> Botswana has done little to build the capacity of CBOs in financial management, record keeping and decision-making before large sums of money are earned.</p> <p>DWNP requires that audited financial statements be submitted annually before a quota can be issued. However in the case of Khwai, three years passed before the quota was finally denied.</p>

<sup>9</sup> The veld product-based CBO Ketsie ya Tsie and some of the craft production CBOs are notable exceptions, where community members must choose to join and pay a membership fee.

<sup>10</sup> This is not to say that what happened with Khwai in Botswana cannot happen in Namibia. Some conservancies could choose to ignore any support offered by NGOs and government. However, because of the intensive support around financial management and the 'checks and balances' in place, most financial mismanagement could be spotted before it got out of hand.

<p><b>Natural resource management.</b> The LIFE project has focused on institutional building of the support organisations and the various support organisations have focused on institutional building of the conservancies. Both have supported natural resource management training for the communities, conservancies, conservancy game guards and natural resource monitors so that they can actively plan for (including their own zoning) and manage their resources. The focus of Namibia CBNRM has been to promote responsible resource management first, and then secondly, generation of benefits as a result of this 'responsible management'. Having said this Namibia still has room for improvement and expansion of community-based resource management.</p>	<p><b>Natural resource management.</b> The value has been placed on the natural resources and the CBOs and communities are benefiting from their natural resources but they are not having/taking the responsibility to manage them. CBNRM in Botswana has not promoted active community involvement in NR management. The communities are passive recipients without doing much management. According to one respondent 'active' management of wildlife in Botswana effectively means 'not poaching'.</p>
<p><b>Rights to natural resources.</b> In Namibia any rights to natural resources are given through legislation that evolved from policy.</p>	<p><b>Rights to natural resources.</b> In Botswana rights are given through policy and ministerial decrees, both of which can easily be changed making communities vulnerable.</p>
<p><b>Rights to natural resources.</b> In both countries government still holds the balance of power and authority when it comes to managing the wildlife resource. In Namibia the conservancies have rights over 'hunting' game <u>for their own use</u>, as long as it is used sustainably.<sup>11</sup> Government sets quotas for live sales or trophy hunting based on the request of the conservancy, but in each specific case, the conservancy must apply for a permit.</p>	<p><b>Rights to natural resources.</b> In Botswana, the CBO can choose to lease the area for hunting or tourism if the land is designated for either. Except for one or two exceptions, individuals and CBO members can only have access to hunting by buying a Community Game License from DWNP.</p>
<p><b>Rights to natural resources.</b> Setting quotas is based on survey data coming from the conservancy's own surveys with support from LIFE, MET and NGO technical advisors.</p>	<p><b>Rights to natural resources.</b> Government does its own surveys and bases quotas on possibly unreliable data. NMRP was supposed to build community capacity to undertake its own game surveys but this really never took off.</p>
<p><b>Rights to natural resources.</b> No system devised to let an individual have permission from the conservancy to hunt for individual gain within the conservancy.</p>	<p><b>Rights to natural resources.</b> For almost all CHAs, Botswana have lost their right to Citizen Hunting and Special Game Licenses (formerly for the San). However the CBO can give individuals the right to hunt within their CHA through the Community Game License system.</p>
<p><b>Rights to natural resources.</b> Once a conservancy is formed and boundaries are earmarked, communities have the right to use and benefit from the wildlife and from tourism activities in their conservancy area, including lodge development. They can form a JVP, but neither the conservancy nor the joint venture partner has any legal right to control access by casual tourists. This may change under the new Tourism Concession Policy as well as the Communal Land Act once conservancies apply for lease of their conservancy area.</p>	<p><b>Rights to natural resources.</b> Botswana provides strong and clear rights over tourism to rural communities. Within a CHA, the communities have all rights over their concession area and can choose to form a JVP or not. Within a community concession, casual self-drive tourists can be denied access or charged a fee.</p>
<p><b>Poaching.</b> In the past if poaching was discovered, a 'citizen arrest' could be done and the poacher could be taken to the headman. The headman could take action under customary law by fining the person (e.g. a number of head of cattle) or calling in the MET. Today a Game Guard can take the poacher to the conservancy or MET. The conservancy can withdraw the person's rights to benefit from the conservancy if they are members of the conservancy but they can no longer fine the person, unless the person is taken to a headman.</p>	<p><b>Poaching.</b> There are no Game Guards but 'Community Escort Guides' accompany hunters on hunting safari to monitor the trophy hunter.</p>
<p><b>Problem animals.</b> Namibian citizens can only shoot a predator if it is caught killing livestock. Only MET can declare an elephant or hippo a problem animal and deal with it. Conservancies are not allowed to take direct action against problem animals except for predators, which can undermine the legitimacy of the conservancy in the eyes of the community.</p>	<p><b>Problem animals.</b> Communities have more rights in Botswana than in Namibia to deal with problem animals. Any animal that is not listed as an endangered species (e.g., wild dog, cheetah) can be shot if it is a problem animal. For example, a farmer can shoot an elephant if it is in the farmer's field ruining the crop.</p>

<sup>11</sup> 'Own use' is defined as using the meat and skins, but not selling live animals or allowing trophy hunting in the conservancy without getting permits from government. 'Hunting' game includes springbok, gemsbok, kudu and warthog. If conservancies are found not using the game sustainably, MET has the right and power to disband the conservancy.

<b>Donor money</b> is still forthcoming in Namibia to support CBNRM activities.	<b>Donor money.</b> Very little donor funding is available to support CBOs or NGO support organisations.
<b>JVPs.</b> In Namibia, there are still tourism investment opportunities in the country that are not connected to CBNRM so many private sector companies choose these investments where they do not need to form partnerships with rural communities	<b>JVPs.</b> Prime tourism land and investment opportunities outside of designated community CHAs is almost non-existent in Botswana (except for the remaining private concession areas), therefore the private sector is 'forced' to form partnerships with rural communities. This ensures more active private sector involvement in CBNRM.
<b>JVPs.</b> In terms of hunting JVPs, the tendering system is preferred as it can lead to the best market value and is transparent. However, since MET sometimes does not issue the safari hunting quota until the hunting season has started, often a safari operator has to be linked to a conservancy without any tendering process. When this happens the CBNRM support organisations, especially LIFE, helps to negotiate the agreement between the operator and the conservancy to ensure that the conservancy gets the current market value for their game. This is usually put into place for one year the first time. If everyone is happy with the relationship, then the agreement can be extended for three to five more years.	<b>JVPs.</b> In most cases hunting JVAs are put out to tender and usually run for a five-year period. In the case of Khwai Development Trust, an auction system on an annual basis has been used instead of a tendering system. Botswana is currently reviewing its tendering procedures.

## 8.2 Similarities

While there may be more differences than similarities in the CBNRM programmes in Namibia and Botswana there are some similar issues that need addressing in both countries.

In both countries government still holds the balance of power and authority when it comes to managing wildlife resources. The governments of the two countries remain in control of the quota allocation for off-take, except in Namibia the quota offered for 'own use' of 'hunnable game', which can be set by conservancies.

In both countries, communities are allowed to zone areas within their concession or conservancy for different land uses, such as livestock, photographic tourism or hunting. However in both countries there is still not sufficient capacity to negotiate the best arrangements with JVPs, although Namibian conservancies appear to receive more support in this area than the CBOs in Botswana.

In both Namibia and in Botswana and in other southern African countries, a certain combination of circumstances creates one of the a major constraints facing CBNRM: financial benefits from wildlife and tourism to individual households remain low, cost of living with wildlife remain high and community proprietorship over wildlife continues to be weak. The current enthusiasm of rural communities could wane if household benefits do not increase and proprietorship over wildlife is not strengthened (Jones and Weaver 2003).

In both Namibia and Botswana communities having formed common property resource units (conservancies and trusts) are entitled to all the income and benefits that come from CBNRM activities. Several years ago this principle came under threat in Botswana from district authorities. In Namibia, certain government bodies are also examining ways to share benefits.

Neither country has a comprehensive CBNRM policy or legislation that encompasses all aspects of the environment and natural resources sector. One can argue, however, that this is not necessary as long as existing policies are not in conflict and gaps do not exist.

### **Key lessons learned from Namibia's CBNRM's programme**

Various key lessons have been learned over the past decade and more from the practical implementation of the CBNRM programme in Namibia. The most important ones are highlighted in this section:

***Policy and legislation should be based on local needs and come from practical experience***

Jones and Weaver (2003) note that the series of participatory socio-ecological surveys helped to ground the concurrent development of policy and legislation in the realities of the rural communal areas. Experience gained in early pilot projects and debate amongst practitioners also informed policy and legislation. Local, experienced wildlife practitioners in government guided the legal drafters.

***CBNRM policy and legislation should provide a flexible framework***

The Namibian CBNRM programme has discovered the advantages of allowing communities some choices and the ability to shape their own conservancies and develop their own livelihood strategies to meet their own needs. For example policy and legislation does *not* dictate 1) the boundaries of the conservancy, 2) how a community should be defined, 3) who should represent the community on the conservancy committee, 4) that a new committee must be formed (an existing community institution can be utilised), 4) how communities should use any wildlife and tourism based income. This flexibility and ability to choose has led to community empowerment, capacity building, and the sense of control over the community's own affairs (Jones and Weaver 2003).

***Policy and legislation should allow rural communities to have as much management rights as possible.***

Rather than defining specific wildlife categories, and designating only some of them to be managed by the communities, it would be better to allow the conservancy to be responsible for all game within their area. Similarly they should be allowed to benefit from all categories of wildlife.

***The conservancy model has proven to be a sound institutional structure***

The conservancy model, based on common property institutional principles, has proven to be sound. The forestry and water sectors have adapted this model to meet the needs of managing these other resources (Jones and Weaver 2003).

***The conservancy model has proven to be an economically efficient vehicle for rural development***

The conservancy has also been shown to be economically efficient. Conservancies can deliver positive financial incentives to communities, contribute positively to national development, conserve wildlife and be at least as sustainable as other rural development initiatives.

***CBNRM structures need to be well defined at the time of establishment and be considered legitimate to be effective***

Any CBNRM structure should have the following elements: defined membership; defined area in which the resource is 'owned' and managed; agreed plan for managing the resources; agreed plan for the equitable distribution and/or communal use of benefits; legally recognised constitution; election of a representative committee; recognised and sanctioned by the resource users in the area; recognised and sanctioned by the State; set of agreed operating rules; set of agreed resource use rules; ability to monitor compliance with the rules; and ability to enforce the rules.

***Individual community members must choose to join a conservancy and register.***

There are many advantages to having conservancies register members on an annual basis (Weaver pers. comm. 2003), such as:

- Builds accountability and acknowledgement of rights and responsibilities (e.g. if you sign up for something or pay a membership fee you know you have the right to ask questions, to see a budget, to understand benefit distribution).
- Reinforces the likelihood that community members will understand their constitution.
- Establishes a commitment to the conservancy and its activities.
- Forces the board or committee to meet with/see/communicate with members at least once a year. Forces the leaders to be current/up-to-date on who is part of the community and part of the conservancy.

- Provides leverage (i.e. if you do something wrong you can be kicked off the conservancy and be denied benefits).
- Allow committees to budget for membership benefits distributions, etc.

***Participatory planning processes work well to foster stakeholder co-operation and co-ordination and a sense of 'ownership'***

Participatory planning processes have proven to be an excellent way to foster stakeholder co-operation and co-ordination and a sense of 'ownership' at several levels. Tourism planning processes and the participatory development of natural resource management plans resulted in a feeling of ownership of the plans and responsibility for the natural resources (NACSO 2003). Allowing the communities to undertake their own game counts with active technical support has also developed a sense of ownership, without relinquishing total control.

***Important to have a coordinating body for the development of a national CBNRM programme***

Namibia's CBNRM programme has been developed efficiently, effectively, and successfully because of the existence a coordinating body for the development of a national CBNRM programme, which was the LIFE Steering Committee made up of the various CBNRM support organisations. The LIFE Steering Committee later evolved into NACSO, which continues to coordinate and oversee all aspects of CBNRM in Namibia. In addition the support organisations have avoided 'stepping on each other's toes' because they are conducting activities based on thematic categories or by geographical location.

***Tourism development should be planned based on business principles***

According to lessons learned from the first phase of the LIFE Project, tourism planning and land use planning should be used by communities and all key support organisations to identify business development opportunities. The opportunities identified should be classified according to the required levels of capital input and management sophistication, noting that different opportunities will require different implementation strategies. The opportunities should be identified, located and developed according to commercial principles and from marketing and design studies that demonstrate a clear demand for the product.

***The system of awarding grants to implement LIFE Project activities is highly effective in building local capacity to perform CBNRM activities***

Three different types of grants have been issued from the LIFE Project: institutional support grants to support organisations, implementation grants to field-based institutions, and travel grants to allow individuals to participate in training or networking events. Grants proved to be central to building the capacity of Namibians to perform CBNRM activities, acting as an 'empowering vehicle' and increasing the autonomy of partnership institutions. Small initial grants to conservancies have helped to build the capacity of the conservancies in how to handle and use money and keep financial records before larger sums of money are earned through CBNRM activities.

***Regular support around financial management is necessary to ensure that finances are handled correctly***

To date Namibia has had no *significant* cases of money being mismanaged by the conservancies; only one case – and that is where the conservancy refused NGO assistance. Most feel that this is due to the concentrated efforts to build capacity around financial management, one financial system being developed and introduced to each conservancy, systems of 'checks and balance' put into place, and regular checking by the CBNRM support organisations (see Footnote 12 above). Namibia CBNRM practitioners do not feel that it should be the role of the JVP to check on or manage the conservancy's finances. This could lead easily to corruption and purposeful mismanagement by an unscrupulous operator.

***Management authority and rights to benefit needs to be devolved to the lowest possible level to have the maximum effect on behaviour change***

Some of Namibia's conservancies cover a very large area and include many people. Some emerging conservancies have decided to split into smaller units to reduce organisational and logistical problems. Transparency and accountability to conservancy members also becomes easier. The conservancy should also be able to start-up and run more efficiently, possibly reducing the amount of time that support is required.

***Communities must be able to retain as much as possible of any revenue generated from the use of wildlife***

Communities should be able to retain all, or as much as possible, of any revenue generated from the use of wildlife in the communal areas, just as has been the right of freehold farmers. Where part of the revenues has had to be shared with government, as was the case in Zimbabwe and in other countries, not enough income could be generated for individual households, to provide incentives.

***Local CBNRM organisations) should develop their own plans for integrated rural development***

Government and NGOs should support local CBNRM organisations (e.g. conservancies, trusts) in the development of their own plans for integrated rural development (all sectors not only wildlife and tourism). Service provision for all the sectors can be planned and coordinated through this mechanism in order to prevent the proliferation of sectorally-based organisations working in isolation or competitively (Jones and Weaver 2003).

***Do not to mix service, implementation and advocacy objectives in one national organisation***

As described above, difficulties can arise when an umbrella association of organisations (CBOs or CBTs) is responsible for providing support services to its own members and the implementation of activities, along with advocacy, lobbying and coordination functions. Best to keep these functions separate. (i.e. service provision through NACSO and advocacy through regional and national conservancy associations)

***In technical assistance projects, continuity of key management staff is important***

Continuity of key management staff creates optimal management efforts and minimises disruptions to project implementation from changes introduced by new management staff. Unlike in the wildlife and tourism sectors, this continuity did not occur in the water sector and change in management proved to be very disruptive.

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## **APPENDIX C: CBNRM EXPERIENCES IN OTHER SOUTHERN AFRICAN COUNTRIES**

### **Table of Contents**

1	Introduction and overview
2	Zambia
3	Mozambique
4	Malawi
5	South Africa

### **1. Introduction**

#### **1.1 Background**

*CBNRM emerged as a new approach to sustainable natural resource management in Southern Africa in the 1980s (Hachileka, 2002). Initially, they focused largely on community-based wildlife management, in programmes such as CAMPFIRE in Zimbabwe. Subsequently, this was extended to a wide range of natural resources including woodlands, rangelands, inland fisheries water catchments which have long been used as common pool resources within functioning common property regimes.*

*At the centre of the CBNRM approach was the argument that the twin goals of economic development and biodiversity conservation need to complement each other in direct and immediate ways. The specific arguments for CBNRM were that:*

- *Conservation methods inherited during the colonial era were not sustainable;*
- *It was important to conserve natural resources in the communal areas where large proportions of the population live;*
- *It was important to provide communities in the communal areas with economic incentives to use natural resources in a sustainable manner;*
- *Common property management regimes were seen to have viability natural resources management; and*
- *CBNRM had the advantages of bottom-up approaches to rural development; and*
- *It was necessary to provide redress for the historical injustice for the forced removals of people during the creation of protected areas.*

#### **1.2 Impacts**

*Since the 1980s, efforts by governments and non-governmental agencies resulted in an array of CBNRM programmes and projects across southern Africa. The key impacts of CBNRM are now self-evident. Rural communities have been able to take up new challenges and develop new ideas and attitudes towards their natural resources, and they are using these as bases for improving their livelihoods and environmental security (Machena, 2002). Implementation of CBNRM projects has promoted the integration of biodiversity management and income generation. This provides very strong incentives for the sustainable use of natural resources. The overall effect of this is the enhancement of rural development and reduction of poverty.*

#### **1.3 Weaknesses**

- *Fewer economic benefits to local people than were anticipated and therefore fewer incentives for biodiversity conservation;*
- *Lack of evidence of positive impacts on biodiversity;*

- *Underestimation of the difficulties of joint decision making;*
- *Failure to grapple with problems associated with developing strong and effective local institutions;*
- *Lack of political commitment to devolution of decision making powers;*
- *Capture of benefits by bureaucrats in intermediate institutions; and*
- *Biodiversity conservation and rural development are essentially incompatible.*

#### **1.4 Challenges**

- *Benefits derived from CBNRM are often lower than those from competing livelihood options.*
- *Institutional development and capacity building at community level can take many years to occur;*
- *There are obvious difficulties associated with collective action approaches to sustainable rural development. These difficulties must be accepted;*
- *Recent developments in land reform in the region have created an entirely new context for CBNRM, especially in Zimbabwe. It is not clear how CBNRM and land reform articulate.*
- *Rural poverty, inequality and the HIV/AIDS pandemic;*
- *The changing composition of livelihood systems under the impact of globalisation; and*
- *Government and donor support may continue to decline, and this may stifle the possibility of relevant agencies to learn from CBNRM experiences.*

#### **1.5 Emerging lessons**

- The local community level is a critical entry point for conservation. This level is critical because of its proximity to resources. This underscores the fact that CBNRM approaches bring management decisions closer to the ecosystem, thus enhancing greater community responsiveness, responsibility, ownership, accountability, efficiency, and effectiveness;
- Inter-sectoral cooperation between government and civil society is very important for CBNRM to succeed. The conservation of wild resources is a biological, political as well as an economic issue. Natural resources management cannot be divorced from political and governance issues; and
- Rural economic development is ultimately dependent on building strong and effective rural institutions and empowered communities.

*Below, the experiences of Zambia, Mozambique, Malawi and South Africa will be discussed. Zimbabwe's CAMPFIRE programme has been reviewed in appendix C, while Namibia's conservancies were analysed in appendix B.*

## **2 CBNRM in Zambia**

### **2.1 Introduction**

**Since Zambia gained independence in 1964 the trend has been towards centralised control of land and natural resources. The Land Act of 1995 provided individuals with rights of use and occupation of land under customary law. The local community through their traditional leader in whom the power is entrusted determines ownership and use of land and resources. This plays an important role in providing security of tenure and access to community members.**

**Zambia is one of the four countries in which five chiefdoms have been identified as the core stakeholders in the Four Corners Transboundary Natural Resources Management initiative. The chiefdoms are found in the area stretching from Lake Kariba to the Sioma National Park, which borders Namibia and Angola.**

**CBNRM in Zambia has evolved within the wildlife sector and is still focused there. The Administrative Management Design for Game Management Areas (ADMADE) is the primary mechanism for decentralizing management functions. ADMADE was initiated in 1979 to address wildlife-poaching problems in National Parks and Game Management Areas (GMA), and is operational in 26 of the 34 GMAs. Given the prominence of traditional leaders, ADMADE relies heavily on traditional leadership structures. Under ADMADE benefits from wildlife were channelled back to local communities with the chief having a central role in decision making in the distribution of funds.**

**ADMADE devolves limited rights to manage wildlife within a GMA to a Wildlife Management Authority (WMA). The WMA brings together chiefs, National parks and Wildlife Service Personnel, relevant government technical staff and directors of commercial companies. A WMA is further divided into sub-authorities, which conform to the hunting blocks of a GMA. The area of a hunting block is determined by the local chief's area and the chief is the chair of the sub-authority, with local headmen forming the hulk of the membership. WMAs and sub-WMAs have legal status and traditional leaders control decisions to a significant degree.**

**The WMA's tasks and responsibilities are limited to the adoption of an annual programme for wildlife management as recommended by its unit leader and the approval of budgets to support the programme and for community development projects. All decisions remain the responsibility of the National Parks and Wildlife Service. Ownership and management responsibility of other common property resources e.g. forests remain vested in the state.**

### **2.3 Community Resource Boards (CRB).**

**These are relatively new institutions formed in 1998 after it was felt that there was need for broader community involvement in decision making on natural resources management. A CRB is based on the geographical area of the chiefdom but is composed of elected members from the community. The Board includes one representative of the chief in whose area the board is established. The boards in conjunction with the Zambia Wildlife Authority assume the responsibilities of the WMAs.**

### 2.4 Benefits to the community

The livelihood of communities is in the Chiefdoms based on agriculture, especially cropping and livestock management. Fishing and utilization of forest products are also critical in supporting livelihoods. Fishing is done for household consumption as well as for sale. Timber products include crafts, carpentry, charcoal, and basketry. Major resources that are supporting tourism in the communities are wildlife, rivers and streams, forests, vast open plains and the diverse culture. Key commercial activities include tourism that is based on lodges, indigenous timber processing, rafting, sand mining, quarrying and large-scale farming.

There are no formalised linkages with neighbouring countries, except for cultural linkages. Most Chiefdoms have no rich interactions with private investors, which communities could benefit from.

### **2.5 Legal aspects**

- Land Act of 1995;
- Policy for Wildlife in Zambia of 1993 promotes community based approach to wildlife management;

- Policy for National Parks and Wildlife of 1997; and
- Wildlife Act of 1998 provides for a system of local natural resource management boards i.e. Community Resource Boards.

## 2.6 Stakeholders

African Wildlife Foundation, CARE International, World Vision, ZNFU, state and communities.

## 2.7 Weakness and threats

- Customary systems appear to be weakening leading to greater problems of abuse and increasing inequity in access to resources;
- Poor relationship between communities and with private investors be it in agriculture, tourism or infrastructure development;
- Lack of community capacity to negotiate business with private investors;
- Lack of development structures to support traditional institutional structures;
- Poor Communication network between the Chiefdoms;
- Despite the vast resources no tangible benefits are being realised by communities;
- Lack of capital;
- Poverty is rife in all communities in all Chiefdoms; and
- The local communities do not have adequate awareness of the potential opportunities for the area to attract tourism.

## 2.8 CBNRM overview in Zambia

Policy framework and supporting legislation	<p><b>Existing framework:</b> Agricultural Land Act - 1960; Natural Resources Conservation Act - 1970; Tourism Act - 1965, Forestry Act - 1973; National Parks and Wildlife Policy - 1982; National Parks and Wildlife Act - 1991; Land Act -1995</p> <p><b>Highlight:</b> 1982 policy provided for private ownership of wildlife animals; share of revenues from wildlife utilization returned to community wildlife management authorities as from 1983 with launch of ADMADDE programme. 1994 NEAP called for review and rationalization of legislation with aim of increasing decentralization and increased local participation in management and decision-making.</p> <p><b>Developing Frameworks include:</b> Zambia Wildlife Authority Bill - 1997, Policy for National Parks and Wildlife in Zambia; Forestry Act.</p>
Implementing agencies	<p>Lead: NPWS (MTNPWS) Support: US/USAID and WCS</p>
Geographical scope of programme/pilot projects	Scope: Potentially applies to 34 GMA's established as NP buffer zones. 26 currently involved.
Community management entity	Democratically elected representatives from villages constitute a sub-authority, which is chaired by the local chief. Several sub-authorities form a Wildlife Management Authority (WMA), which in turn is chaired by the local NPWS District Warden.
Level of control responsibility of community	Largely devolved to communities according to proven capacity and demonstrated responsibility. Quotas set by NPWS in conjunction with communities. Communities may negotiate joint venture agreements with private sector. GMA WMA form Community Game Guard Units headed by NPWS Officer. NPWS assist in PAC.
Non wildlife resource management options	Beekeeping; Aquaculture; Carving, harvesting thatching grass, basket making.
Mechanisms for distribution of quota revenue	Revenues paid to revolving fund; 50% to treasury, balance - 35% for producer VWA (chief decides on development projects) 40% for local wildlife management (Scouts, etc), 25% for NPWS. Certain communities may receive total revenues directly from private sector and pay out relevant levies due to government upon proven financial management capacity.

## 3 CBNRM in Mozambique

### 3.1 Background to CBNRM

Mozambique has a low population density and is comparatively resource rich. Approximately 7% of the country is cultivated; forest cover is estimated at 600 000 square kilometres and 50% of the country supports less than 15 people per square kilometre. There is therefore a great potential for CBNRM in terms of both rural development and biodiversity conservation.

IUCN initiated discussions with the Department of Wildlife and Forestry Management (DNFFB) in 1994 to see how they could participate in activities that promoted CBNRM. At the same time there were communities on the border with North-east Zimbabwe who had seen the benefits of CBNRM projects in neighbouring communities and were keen to take up the challenges. The IUCN programme thus facilitated the meeting of the communities and eventually started a CBNRM project "Tchuma Tchatu" (*our wealth*) with communities in the Districts of Zumbo and Magoe in Tete Province. Similar projects then started in other parts of the country.

Mozambique has been experimenting with a variety of small initiatives involving a wide range of resources in its CBNRM strategies focusing on:

- The Tchuma Tchatu programme was founded in 1994 to protect natural resources and wildlife with a view to reducing poaching. The specific objectives of the programme include, *inter alia*; control poaching, ensuring that benefits go to the community, and creating economic activities such as tourism. Presently Tchuma Tchatu is operating under the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural development but is reported to be soon moving to the Ministry of Tourism (MICOA);
- Co-management arrangements involving the state and communities on state land (forest reserves) and National Parks have been established. Local communities have access to the protected area for resources such as fisheries, medicinal plants, Ecotourism and small scale timber harvesting. Existing initiatives include small timber extraction and artisan fishing in and around Gorongosa National Park, artisan fishing and tourism revenue on Bazaruto National Park, and bee keeping within Niassa Reserve; and
- Environmental Working Group (GTA) of Mozambique is implementing a GTZ-funded project in Mabalane District of the Gaza Province. Mabalane is near Qoutada 16 Hunting Area which is now part of the 50 000 square kilometre Great Limpopo Trans-frontier. GTA is implementing sustainable use of forests in Mabalane. Communities are taught to reduce pressure on the environment and warned against unsustainable harvesting natural resources.

### 3.2 Key benefits to communities

Wildlife income from the Tchuma Tchatu programme (1996-1998)

Year	Sport Hunting in US\$	Fishing in US\$	Total in US\$
1996	32 000	4 400	36 400
1997	45 000	4 900	49 900
1998	35 550	3 130	38 680
Total	112 550	12 430	124 980

Beneficiaries of income from sport hunting

Beneficiaries	Percentage %
Community	33
State	34
District (Magoe 70% Zumbo 30%)	33
Total	100

Beneficiaries of income from fisheries

<b>Beneficiaries</b>	<b>Percentage %</b>
State	40
Community	30
District	10
Programme	20

Source: IUCN, 2003

With greater control of their natural resources, people in Mabalane district are realising more benefits from the sale of timber, charcoal and trophy hunts. Community members are able to buy food, livestock and roofing materials e.g. zinc sheets instead of using grass.

Fishing by foreigners is done under license, which is obtained from Tchuma Tchatu for a fee. The proceeds from fishing are shared as follows: State 40%, Community 30%, District 10% and Program 20%.

### **3.3 Stakeholders**

The main stakeholders include the Department of Wildlife and Forestry Management, Ministry of Environmental Affairs and Coordination, WWF, IUCN-Mozambique, Ford Foundation, Zambezi Society. A few local NGOs are also involved at the local level.

### **3.4 Legal aspects**

The 1990s witnessed the rapid evolution of new policies and legislation affecting natural resource management including:

- The 1990 Constitution reduced the role of the state and recognizes the significance of the communal and private sector in decentralized management and benefits;
  - Land Policy of 1995 and Land Law of 1997 which retained the state as the sole land owner, guarantees rights for local communities to land and resources through the introduction of process for leasehold titling (up to 50 years) for both private and communal sectors, develops conflict resolution mechanisms and introduces rights to participate in natural resource management;
- Agricultural Sector Policy and Strategy of 1996;
- Wildlife Forestry and Fisheries Policy and Strategy of 1996; and
- Environmental Framework Law of 1997 and the Forestry and Wildlife Act of 1999.

All these Acts promote the role and rights of local communities in planning, management and benefits from natural resources.

### **3.5 Opportunities and strengths**

Communities in Mabalane have gained confidence in developing and implementing natural resources management plans e.g. they are able to set their own hunting quotas.

### **3.6 Weaknesses and threats**

The primary threat has been the increasing exploitation of forest resources and the growing land and resource speculation.

#### *Wildlife*

It took two years before communities begin to realise good benefits from some of the programmes, and this, sometimes deters the "faint-hearted" to firmly commit themselves to the ideals of such programmes. Sometimes, the initial donor funding of such investments as training take sometime to commence due to administrative delays. Some of the specific constraints faced by Tchuma Tchatu include (IUCN 2003);

- Government insensitivity to conservation hence low priority and resources given to conservation;
- Previously, Zumbo and Magoe districts did not benefit from development taking place in the rest of the country but now government starts to realise the importance of natural resources;
- Some members of the community, particularly women, are not aware of the objectives of Tchuma Tchato, which they have called “Tchuma Tchato” ( “*their wealth*”). They say benefits go to the office staff and their families. The problem here seems to be one of perception of scale of benefits vis-à-vis that the community owns the resource”(IUCN 2003);
- Income is over dependent on intake from tourists;
- Inability of the programme to generate savings from the revenues received as all are disbursed every year; and
- Poor infrastructure and remoteness of Tete Province.

#### *Forestry*

Communities that are being relocated to Mabalane District from Quotada16, to allow the implementation of the Great Limpopo Trans-frontier, are posing a challenge to the CBNRM program. The people from Qoutada 16 have not been exposed to CBNRM approaches, and have not benefited from the project. They are involved in poaching and other forms of unsustainable harvesting of natural resources.

### **3.7 Future of CBNRM**

The challenges of CBNRM include the identification of natural resources that can be commodified for possible enhanced commercial return and thus looking for markets for these. However, in some communities the natural resources that can be turned into commercial ventures are not always readily identifiable.

## **4. CBNRM in Malawi**

### **4.1 Background to CBNRM**

Malawi is the most densely populated country in Southern Africa. 85% of the population derives their livelihood from rural occupations with a dependency on the natural resource base. The high population densities and resultant pressure on the resource base has led to significant distinctions between Malawi’s CBNRM strategies compared to those in other countries. This is because there are few natural resources remaining outside protected areas.

Elsewhere CBNRM initiatives have focused on natural resources in communal areas, but in Malawi initiatives have focused on resources within protected areas. This has been facilitated by the Wildlife Act of 1992, which allows for consumptive use by neighbouring communities of resources inside the National Parks and Wildlife Reserves whilst retaining state ownership of all wildlife.

Fisheries on Lake Malawi, Malombe, Chirwa and Chiuta and forests on customary land are common property resources. Fishing provides a source of livelihood to 300 000 people and formally provided 60-70 % of animal protein. This source of protein is the most affordable to a population in which more than 50% live below the poverty datum line. The lakes-Malawi, Chilwa and Malombe and Shire River contain the bulk of the fish and the stocks were facing massive depletion from over fishing. Fish production has stagnated between 50 000 and 110 000 metric tones per year although lately this figure is showing continuous decline. Measures have been attempted to control the sustainable utilization of fishing by lakeshore communities. Around Lake



Chilwa large tracts of marshes that are the habitat of many migratory and local bird species have formed the basis of a local tourist trade that has involved local communities in providing guides.

In the 1990s the Government of Malawi began to change legislation governing the use of natural resources, in particular fish. The government shifted away from the traditional top-down approach to one that accommodated the aspirations of the communities. In 1997 the Fisheries Conservation and Management Act was enacted, providing for local community participation in conservation and management of fisheries in Malawi.

Three models of CBNRM groups were identified in Malawi, namely: “*organic*”, “*assisted*” and “*imposed*”. The “*organic* CBNRM are those where communities own the resources and implement their own management plans for sustainable utilization of the resources” The “*assisted*” types have been developed with the help of government or other agencies based on ideas and efforts already discussed by the local communities, whereas the “*imposed*” groups are “*donor-, NGO-, or government-driven*”(IUCN 2003).

In 1995 the community based fisheries management programme was initiated on realizing that the influx of seine net fishers were depleting fish stocks in an unsustainable manner. The objective thrust of the co-management programme, in the short term, was therefore to halt the rapid decline in fish stocks and encourage recovery of the fishery industry. Policies were thus formulated with participation of local communities leading to the setting up of Beach Village Committees (BVCs) along the lake to assist in the management of resources. In 1997 the Lake Chiuta Fishers’ Association was formed with support from the Fisheries Department, who also facilitated in the provision of training in leadership and business management skills. The formation of the association with the blessing of the authorities led to the successful banning of the use of seine nets fishers in preference for gillnets fishing. In this way ecological sustainability and indeed economic sustainability was assured in this fisheries industry.

#### **4.2 Key benefits to communities**

- Conservation; sustainable fishing using nets that do not always catch everything so as to allow further breeding of stocks.
- Financial and economic; income from fish sales and subsistence from fish caught
- Social including empowerment and training; groups have learnt social organisation skills, including involvement in participatory rural appraisal. There are co-management agreements around National Parks which allow neighbouring communities to collect a wide range of minor forest products e.g. thatching grass, caterpillars, mushrooms, fish, termites, reeds and fruits but exclude finite products such as clay and sand, from the Park estate.

#### **4.3 Stakeholders**

The main stakeholders are:

- The Department of National Parks and Wildlife: This coordinates environmental educational centers for public training in conservation. It facilitated the promotion of CBNRM concepts and formation of projects;
- The Wildlife and Environmental Society of Malawi (WESM): It has over 1000 clubs. It promotes environmental awareness in schools through clubs, and conservation issues in rural areas, through village natural resources committees;
- The Coordination Unit for the Rehabilitation of the Environment; and
- The Lake Chiuta Fisheries Association – which promotes co-management under the fisheries programme.

#### **4.4 Legal aspects**

Malawi has begun a program of policy and legal reform in the land and natural resource sector aimed at addressing historical grievances through the development of fair and sustainable tenure systems. The following are some of the laws in place:

- Parks and Wildlife Act of 1992;
  - Fisheries Conservation and Management Act; 1997: provides for the commercial and artisan fisheries and the Department of Fisheries has been responsible for the enforcement of the Act through the District Fisheries offices;
  - The Forestry sector is governed by the Forest Act; 1997 and enforced by the Department of Forestry; and
  - Environmental Management Act; 1998

#### **4.5 Opportunities and strengths**

- There have been national efforts to bring about changes in resource management through the provision for communities participation in natural resource management;
- Policies being developed focus on co-management regimes by pursuing partnerships between relevant sectors of society and the adoption of a collaborative management approach to resource management;
- Co-management agreements e.g. the beekeeping initiatives within and in the buffer zone of Nyika National Park, and co-management agreements for Lake Malawi National Park relating to eco-tourism and access to the resources of the Park;
- There has been a reform process of the legal framework, which has led to the formulation of the National Environmental Action Plan and the National Environmental Policy and Comprehensive Environmental Management Act to specific sectoral law review in Fisheries and Forestry;
- In the fisheries sector, management and protection of some parts of the lakes of Malawi are in the hands of local communities;
- Enforcement of the close season to allow fish to breed is the responsibility of the communities in collaboration with the Fisheries Department; and
- Experimental work is underway in allowing communities to manage forests in some parts of the country through the establishment of village forest committees.

#### **4.6 Weaknesses and threats**

- The endemic poverty that engulfs the rest of the country, in particular those that are just outside the project areas means there is a continual threat of territorial incursion by communities who do not necessarily share the same ideals of wise-use. To this end the project communities are often at the mercy of the “open access” syndrome in natural resource use where there are no legislated mechanisms of preventing non-project communities from harvesting the same resource.
  - Rapid population growth at 3.2% per annum is the highest amongst southern African countries and results in significant pressure on the resources, as there are limited natural resources remaining outside protected areas.
  - Use of lining nets with mosquito netting led to fingerlings being caught and they would be unable to breed in the next generation.
  - Weaknesses in the Fisheries Act include: (a) low enforcement capacity of the Act due to management and financial constraints, (b) low levels of penalties for non-compliance, breaking up of traditional systems for regulation and control of exploitation of fish resources, (c) lack of co-ordination between Fisheries Act and other Acts.
  - Ill defined, insecure and lack of enforcement of property rights on forest resources.
  - Weakness of local level management institutions caused by erosion of the authority and legitimacy of traditional leaders has undermined their valuable role in natural resource management.

#### 4.7 Future of CBNRM

New legislation is required to transform the limited resource sharing strategy, to one in which communities and government develop genuine resource management partnerships. Stakeholders should be involved in resource management activities through clear definition of respective rights, responsibilities and functions.

#### 4.8 Lessons

Local communities once empowered through an enabling legal framework and realistic incentives can become the most efficient managers of natural resources.

#### 4.9 CBNRM overview in Malawi

Policy framework and supporting legislation	<b>Existing framework:</b> The 1997 Fisheries Act allowed involvement of lakeshore communities to participate in the management of fishing in the lakes and major rivers. Also banned the use of seine nets. This devolution and decentralization of authority and functions was a useful milestone as were the National Fisheries and Aquaculture Policy, Fisheries Conservation and Management Act, Fisheries legislation, Environmental Act, Decentralization Policy, and the Local Government Act
Implementing agencies	Fisheries Department, Department of National Parks and Wildlife
Geographical scope of programme/pilot projects	Around Lakes Malawi, Chiuta, Malombe and the Shire River
Community Management entity	Beach Village Committees and Fishers Association
Level of decision making responsibility of community	BVCs are involved in policing exclusion of seine net fishing, protection of fish breeding grounds, monitoring fishery activities
Non wildlife options ongoing/planned	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Traditional crafts</li> <li>• Eco-tourism</li> </ul>
Mechanism for distribution of quota revenue	Members of the Fishers Association benefit directly from sale of fish caught and use some of the returns for own and contribution to Association's running purposes

### 5 CBNRM in South Africa

#### 5.1 Background to CBNRM

During the apartheid era Africans, 76% of the population was forced to live in state owned 'Bantustans' whilst whites that constituted only 13% of the population had complete control and ownership of 87% of the land. The land and resources in the 'Bantustans' have been severely degraded by the artificial land pressure resulting from the skewed land distribution. Chiefs and tribal authorities that had been created or co-opted by the apartheid government administered resources in 'Bantustans'.

The ANC government has embarked on a "rights-based" land reform program. One of the central components of the land reform is to conform to the co-ownership of rights to land and other resources of groups and communities living in former 'Bantustans'. The rights take the form of 'ownership in common hold' and communities have the right to choose the institution in which ownership of rights will be vested. One option is for co-owners to constitute themselves into a Communal Property Association (CPA). This is the option, which has been selected by CBNRM initiatives in South Africa.

Between 1994 and 2002 2% of the land was given back to the majority of the population, but the minority still controls 85% of the land. There are limited areas where local people are able to harvest resources and earn a decent living outside privately owned protected areas.

South Africa does not have one specific CBNRM programme but each province has adopted different approaches and has different capacities. Natural resource management has been focused upon Parks and Protected Areas and this is reflected in the current focus of CBNRM initiatives in the wildlife sector.

#### *Makulele Land Claim*

One of the most important precedent setting initiatives has been the Makulele tribes claim over land within the Kruger National Park and their establishment of a Communal Property Association. The Makulele tribe was forcibly removed from 24000 hectares of land known as the Pafuri Triangle, which was incorporated into the Kruger National Park (KNP). In 1996 the Makulele lodged a formal claim for the restitution of their land and in 1998 they were recognised as the owners of the Pafuri. The Pafuri is used for conservation purposes and is still part of KNP but the Makulele have exclusive ownership rights over the area. Responsibility for conservation has been moved to the grass roots level.

The Makulele CPA is a registered Trust, which can determine its own destiny through partnership tourism projects with the private sector.

### **5.2 Key benefits to communities**

From the Makulele Claim the following have been realized:

- Launch of conservation initiatives including development of an intensive conservation-training programme integrating modern approaches with traditional knowledge;
- 26 Makulele members have gained national diplomas;
- Makulele have gained self-confidence and established a strong and respected CPA; and
- Revenue from tourism projects will uplift the standard of living of the Makulele people through construction of public infrastructure such as tarred roads, boreholes, schools, hospitals and early learning centres for children.

### **5.3 Legal aspects**

At the national level, the focus has been on developing policies to restore property rights. These include the following:

- Communal Property Associations Act of 1996 enables establishment of legally recognised local institutions;
- Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism Affairs (DEAT) 1998 White Paper on Environmental Management for South Africa promotes equitable access to and sustainable use of natural and cultural resources; and
- National Forestry Action Plan, White Paper on Land (2002) and the Local Government Act

### **5.4 Opportunities and strengths**

- Various mechanisms exist which could promote co- management approaches to facilitate CBNRM; and
- There is potential for the private sector to play a significant role in the forestry and tourism industry but clear incentives and regulations have not yet been developed.

### **5.5 Weaknesses and threats**

- Traditional leaders frequently oppose the formation of CPAs and new policies, as they believe that these will threaten their political power base;
- Lack of clarity about the roles and responsibilities of CPAs;
- Lack of capacity within government and local NGOs to facilitate the process of preserving the benefits of the communal tenure system whilst eliminating abuses from the apartheid era;
- The South African government has to turn policy into practice in all but a few isolated cases.
- Lack of coordination and collaboration between and within departments and with NGOs and the private sector; and
- The severe dislocation from apartheid resulted in the disruption of traditional institutions and knowledge, and has led to a scarcity of communal and state owned land upon which common property regimes can be established.

## **APPENDIX D CBNRM CASE STUDIES**

### **Table of Contents**

- D.1: CBO Kgetsi ya Tsie
- D.2: CBO Sankuyo Tshwaragano Management Trust
- D.3: CBO Khwai Development Trust
- D.4: CBO Nqwaa Khobee Xeya Trust
- D.5: Private company HCH
- D.6: Private company Rann Hunting Safaris
- D.7: NGO Thusano Lefatsheng
- D.8: NGO Kalahari Conservation Society
- D.9: Community-Based Organisation's Network: BOCOBNET

## D.1: CBO Kgetsi ya Tsie<sup>12</sup>

### 1 Introduction

Kgetsi ya Tsie (KyT) is a community-based organisation (CBO) that is legally formed as a Trust and located in eastern Botswana under the shadow of Tswapong Hills. KyT's history begins officially in 1997 when it was built up from a CBNRM initiative. During the next few years, small natural resource user/production groups (max. of 5 members) were formed across nine different villages. The groups joined together in the villages to form Village Centres. In 1999, the Centres formally came together to register as an Association in the form of a grassroots Community Trust.

### 2 Current situation

#### 2.1 Purpose and aims

The overall purposes of the KyT project include:

1. To strengthen the rural economy of the area, based on traditional livelihood activities, by processing and marketing plant-based natural resource products (veld products); and
2. To assist rural women in the Tswapong Hills area to empower themselves, both socially and economically, through the effective organisation of entrepreneurial activities centred on the sustainable management and utilisation of veld products.

To achieve these purposes, KyT has the following long-term aims:

1. To continue to develop the skills of KyT's members to run the Trust themselves;
2. To ensure the long-term financial sustainability of the Trust;
3. To improve the income generating potential for KyT members;
4. To enhance the ability of members to play an active role in their communities; and
5. To manage and use the local natural resources in a sustainable manner.

**As a women's community trust, KyT's Deed of Trust does allow male membership as long as male enterprise or micro enterprise Groups do not constitute more than 20% of a Centre's membership. At present male membership is far less than this.**

#### 2.2 Targets and activities

KyT's *Annual Report 2002* provides the following list of targets and activities of the Trust for the period 2002-2004:

- **To increase membership from 500 in early 2002, to 1000 in late 2002, and to 1500 by end of 2004;**
- **To further develop income-generating activities (especially the *morula* oil and soap business) to achieve financial self-sustainability by the end of 2004;**
- **To increase the average member's income through Trust activities by 50% by the end of 2004 by stimulating business generating ideas and supporting these through business and technical skills training;**
- **To support members in getting their products to the market and maximising prices obtained for the products by (a) developing a premium price market for the products that appeal to higher income earners and tourists and by (b) greater penetration of local markets;**

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<sup>12</sup> This brief report is based on discussions with staff members, KyT members and other people in Tswapong Hills and on reports made available by KyT. KyT comments on an earlier draft have been incorporated, where possible.

- To refine the organisational structure to cope with up to 1500 members by creating Regional Councils;
- To liaise with appropriate government, NGO/CBO and development organisations;
- To devise and implement a training programme to equip all levels of KyT's democratic structure with the skills and knowledge to effectively understand their roles and carry out their responsibilities;
- To continue and expand the role of micro-lending by stimulating micro enterprise development among members;
- To establish natural resource management programmes to ensure the improved long-term supply of key natural resources in the Tswapong Hills area;
- To construct premises for the Trust's operations and to support Centres in developing KyT Business Centres in each village where KyT operates; and
- To use the skills developed within KyT to assist other CBOs throughout Botswana in their development.

To meet these objectives, KyT has developed a range of products that it produces and markets; both at a Group and Centre-level and also via KyT headquarters in Lerala. Table 1 describes these products and indicates the year they were first developed.

Table 1: Development of the range of KyT products

Product	Description	Year of development
<b>Phane</b>	Edible caterpillar	1997
<i>Morogo</i> <i>Mosata</i>	Indigenous spinach 'Tree meat' (high protein meat substitute made from the fruit of the <i>mosata</i> tree)	1998
Clay pots	Traditional and contemporary clay pots	
<i>Morula</i> jelly <i>Lerotse</i> jam	Jelly made from <i>morula</i> fruit Jam from locally grown melons	1999
<i>Morula</i> oil <i>Morula</i> soap	Oil made from oil pressed from the <i>morula</i> nut. Soap made from <i>morula</i> oil and coconut oil.	2001
<i>Gala le Tshwene</i> <i>Monepenepe</i>	Traditional herbal remedy for strokes, high blood pressure and sever headaches. Traditional herbal remedy for 'cleansing the blood' and relief of menstruation pains.	
Tswapong sands	Bottles filled with various colours of sand laid in decorative patterns.	2002
<b>Letsoku</b>	Natural face powder	2003
<b>Technical services</b>	Services rendered: digital photographs, scanning, printing and lamination to create various documents, stationery, funeral programmes, etc.	2003

Source: KyT files and website ([www.kgetsiyatsie.org](http://www.kgetsiyatsie.org))

### 3 The socio-economic and environmental impacts of KyT

#### 3.1 Socio-economic impacts of KyT

The activities of KyT are based on the exploitation of veld products, particularly *morula* products, and on income generation from a micro-lending scheme that is offered to groups.

According to PEER Consultants (2002) KyT has changed from a community development organisation, largely dependent on donors, into a 'service and support organisation that emphasises cost recovery'. The new emphasis focused on *morula* oil and soap and moved away from *phane*, as the price that KyT could offer (P 4.25/ kg) was unattractive to its members.



KyT has grown quickly in the late 1990s, as demonstrated by the increase in members (around 980), Centres (31) and KyT villages (26). New Centres are being planned for another five villages, and a second Centre will be opened in Maape (KyT annual report 2002/03). KyT has its headquarters in Lerela with a morula oil factory, a cold storage facility and staff housing. Table 2 summarises some basic information about the growth of KyT.

Table 2: The number of KyT villages and members (1997-2003)

Year	New villages	Total no of villages	KyT members
1997	6	6	
1998	7	13	
1999	1	14	420
2000	0	14	
2001	3	17	
2002	6	23	960
2003	3	26	980

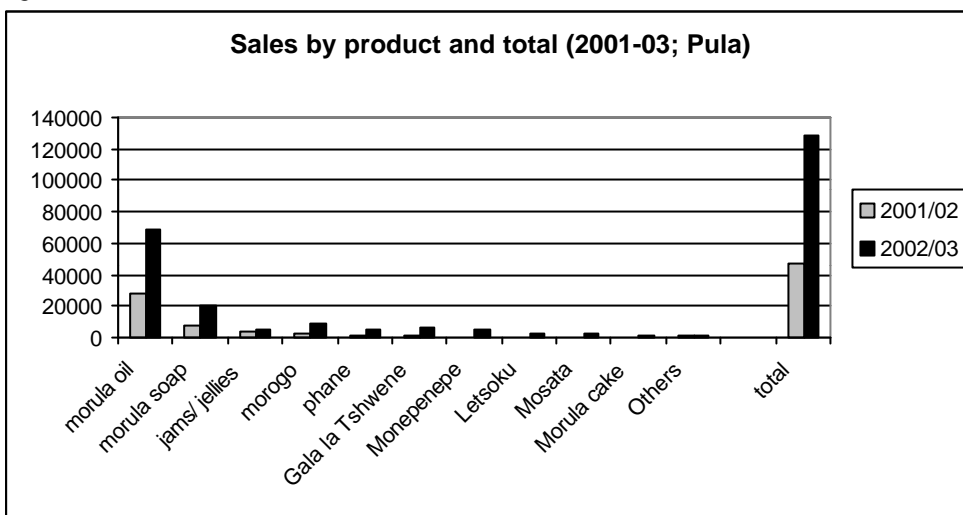
Source: KyT files

The major development benefits of KyT include the following:

- Employment creation. KyT Trust employs fourteen employees, and has close to a thousand members who spend part of their time on KyT related activities.
- Rapidly growing membership (doubled in five years) and coverage of villages (increased fourfold in seven years) lead to a more even distribution of the benefits of KyT.
- Accumulation of productive assets, including the factory, offices and cold storage facilities and various technical and office equipment. Most assets are in Lerela; plans exist to build offices in some of the Centres;
- Technology development and innovation. KyT is producing very high-quality oil which is attributed to its purchasing, storage and processing system. Discussions have started with the Botswana Bureau of Standards to get ISO-certification. While the organisation strongly relies on *morula* oil sales (Figure 1), it is regularly developing new products (see Table 1 above);
- Growing sales, particularly in Gaborone. KyT uses sales agents and products are found throughout the country (e.g. in Gabane, Maun and Ghanzi, as fieldwork showed). KyT has not yet been successful in exporting its high quality oil. One bulk order to the Body Shop via CRIAA helped to reduce the KyT surplus stock, but falling prices and limited demand did not make bulk exports via CRIAA a viable option. KyT has just established eight outlets in Gauteng through a new sales agent, but it is too early to predict results;
- Increased cost recovery and reduced dependency on external financial support (Figure 2). It is estimated that KyT covers around 40% of its recurrent expenditures, up from almost zero in 1999.
- KyT raised almost a quarter of its income from the sale of products, as compared to 2% in 1998. While the decrease in donor funding has caused serious problems, KyT has been able to compensate part of the lost revenues by increasing sales, increasing its long-term survival chances;
- Creation of local and urban marketing opportunities for local natural resources;
- Increased payment to members for the products they sell to the Trust. Payments more than doubled from P 35 148 in 2001/02 to P 84 935 in 2002/03. Such payments benefit individual families and members;
- Access to credit to finance small enterprises, mostly *semausas* and selling of clothes, vegetables, cooked food, home-made floor polish, etc. In 2002/03, a total of P 278 090

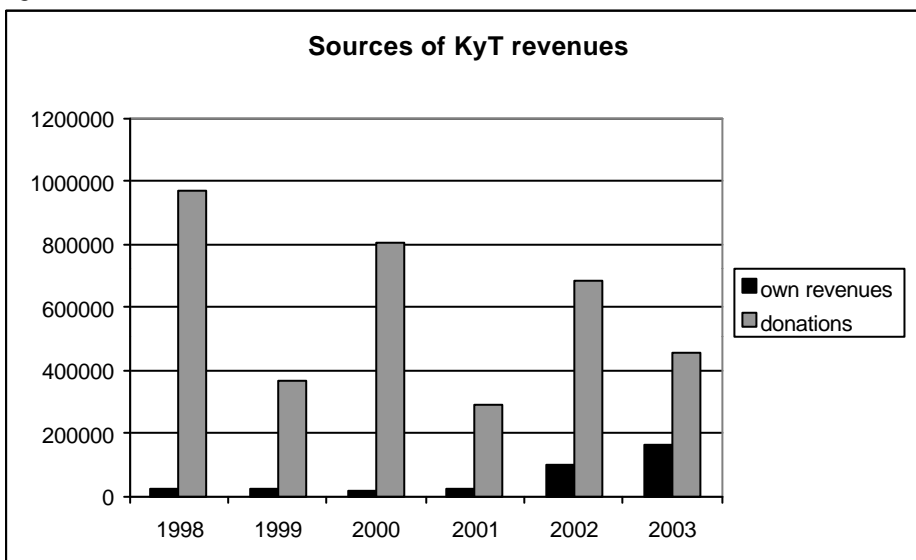
- new loans<sup>13</sup> had been committed, and the average monthly member's income from micro-enterprise activities is Pula 200/ month<sup>14</sup> (2002/03 annual report); and
- New enterprises include accommodating visitors in private homes and providing catering services for meetings.

Figure 1:



Source: KyT annual report

Figure 2:



There are several non-material benefits that emerge from the project, including:

- Prestige associated with KyT membership;

<sup>13</sup> Repayment remains a problem with 12.9% of late/non- payments totalling P 123 631 (annual report 2002/03).

<sup>14</sup> This figure applies to one month only (October). It is important that net income figures are collected on a regular basis to validate the KyT impacts.

- Membership is diverse: young and old, educated and uneducated, poor and richer;
- Contributing towards greater unity among Tswapong villages;
- Empowerment and establishment of a sense of pride among local people;
- Recognition that women can make and run their own businesses;
- Increased confidence of members leading them to play a more active role in their own communities;
- Improvement of skills in collection and processing of veld products;
- Increase in skills and experience in business management and financial record keeping (although still limited to date);
- Training in civil education and good governance;
- Benefits from exchange visits to other countries such as Malawi and the United States;
- Recognition that one does not have to migrate to Palapye or Gaborone to obtain an income;
- Greater knowledge about the local natural resources and their utilization. For example, groups in Chadiba stated that they were not aware of the opportunities to use *mosata* prior to joining KyT;
- “Better life”, “better future”, “improved family situation”;
- Dissemination of information on the project’s activities and organisational structure to other CBOs and NGOs in Botswana and the region; and
- Supporting and encouraging the ‘Buy Botswana’ campaign.

**Non-material benefits accrue to households as well as the region at large. Asked what would happen if KyT would stop operating, members in Chadiba simply responded that their ‘hopes would be dashed’. They claimed that it would not make a big impact on their current livelihoods as their groups were only just starting.**

The immediate material benefits to *households* are relatively small. Groups may sell products through the Trust or directly to local outlets or individuals. The estimated purchases from members by KyT amount to around P100 per member in 2003 (*dicheru*, which is the *morula* nut, and purchased from Centres). Assuming that members manage to sell also directly to local outlets, the income per member from natural resources could be in the range of P200-500. In addition, members benefit from the income generated by the small businesses started with the KyT micro loans (normally under P2000).

The vast majority of KyT members are women, as the constitution prescribes that at least 80% of the members should be women. Around 15 to 20% of the women in Tswapong hills are members. There is substantial variation in cash income from KyT depending on the level and quality of the work of the groups. Everyone feels that the most productive members of the Trust benefit the most, along with those who are employed.

The veld products offer additional income sources to traditional agriculture, and therefore, small as they may be, they contribute positively to rural livelihoods. Moreover, the greater livelihood diversity decreases households’ vulnerability to drought. While some veld products are affected by drought, others are not although members did not agree on the drought vulnerability of veld products.

The KyT claim that members’ income has increased from P440 in 1996 to over P2500 in 2002 could not be verified (Habarad and Tsiane, 1998). It seems a rough estimate, which may not be based on sufficient empirical data. Lack of baseline data and monitoring make it difficult to estimate the increase in cash income of members.

Members have been paying a small annual fee since 2001 (P10/annum, soon to be raised to P20). In return they receive several benefits: access to micro loans; higher prices for products bought by KyT, a discount of 10% on products purchased from KyT, access to a funeral insurance scheme option if under 70 years of age and pay a P9.50/month premium, and access to training in technical production skills and business skills.

### 3.2 Environmental impacts

The KyT project is not expected to have major adverse environmental impacts due to several factors:

- Abundance of indigenous trees;
- Only part of the plant or tree used (e.g. fruit instead of roots); and
- Careful harvesting techniques (e.g. picking mostly fruits, not harvesting *phane* until it reaches its fifth stage of growth, taking side roots not tap roots).

The project has increased *morula* trees by planting 1500 seedlings and has trained eight members in grafting techniques. While members have substantial knowledge of the local environment, they do not monitor resources, nor do they determine the potential for harvesting. A committee was set up to look at any misuse of the natural resources and to examine the base for each resource. Resource monitoring needs to be incorporated in the regular project activities as resource sustainability determines the long-term sustainability of the project.

#### 3.3.3 Summary of impacts

The current material benefits of KyT are modest, certainly in comparison with wildlife based CBOs that are engaged in joint venture agreements. The most important benefits are income supplementation, formal employment and improved market access. A growing number of villages and member groups reap the benefits, and this very growth reflects both the limited livelihood opportunities in Tswapong hills as well appreciation for the project in the area.

Non-material individual and collective benefits are very important. Technology development has been remarkable (new products, high quality products and plans for ISO certification), and KyT has achieved remarkable progress with increasing its own revenues in a short period. This is key to long-term sustainability. Further progress with cost recovery, identification of additional markets, including the just started exports to Gauteng, and development of attractive and profitable new products to reduce the reliance on *morula* are three key challenges vital to the future of the organisation.

## 4 Organisational analysis

The organisational structure of KyT is innovative and appears to be unique in Botswana. It has attracted attention from CBOs and NGOs in Botswana and in the southern African region. Box 1 at the end highlights some of the Strengths, Weakness, Opportunities and Threats (SWOT) for the organisation.

According to the KyT brochure, *Kgetsi ya Tsie: Tswapong Hills Women's Community Trust*, the basic unit of organisation is the five-member Group. Several Groups (three or more) within a village organise themselves into a Centre (maximum of ten groups per Centre). Small villages may have only one Centre or one Centre may draw from several villages, while larger villages may have two or three Centres. Each Centre elects a representative to one of the three Regional Councils formed to cover the entire Tswapong area. Three Representatives, one from each Regional Council, are nominated to sit on the Board of Trustees, and the tenth Board member is an optional Board appointment, where they feel that the Board is lacking key skills or experience. The Board is mainly responsible for formulating policy and implementing decisions, and is supported by a Project Co-ordinator, office and factory production staff, and a small team of field workers. The Board is required in the Deed of Trust to meet at least every two months, but typically meets monthly. The entire structure meets once a year in an annual general meeting (AGM).

Decisions are said to flow up and down the organisational structure but are typically taken at the lowest possible level. Groups meet regularly to produce products, initiate new business ideas, discuss issues and provide feedback to their representatives. Centres meet every two weeks where Centre representatives report to their Centre members, and new issues or business are introduced and discussed. Centre representatives also carry forward their Centre's views and decisions to their Regional Council, which meets every two months. It appears that this structure allows for a high degree of representation, feedback, accountability, transparency and responsiveness in decision-making. The employed Community Development Officers (CDOs) clearly provide a vital link between the different components of the organisational structure.

Members interviewed during the CBNRM Review stated they were happy with this new structure. PEER Consultants (2002) in their April 2002 assessment study of KyT noted that the previous structure had room for improvement, especially, "Members are, at the best, only marginally involved in detailed discussions on policy, strategy, and programme issues, and yet they feel that they have ideas and experience that they can contribute." It remains to be seen whether the new structure has helped to address this concern. Obviously, a balance needs to be maintained between participation and involvement, and the need to take business decisions in time. Another concern that needs to be addressed is that the entire Board changes after each election with little continuity.

The production and marketing of products is done at three levels, depending on the product. For example clay pots and sand bottles are created at the individual level, jams are produced at the group level, and morula oil and soap are made at the factory in Lerala. Similarly the members can market their own products and/or sell to KyT who will undertake the marketing for them. This process allows for flexibility and assures that the members can get the best possible price for their products.

**There are currently nine full-time staff and five part-time. The staff structure includes: 1 Project Co-ordinator, 1 Office Administrator, 1 Production Manager (with 4 part-time staff working under her), 3 Community Development Officers, 2 Drivers, 1 Night Watchman and 1 part-time Cleaner. Of these, all staff members are women except for the expatriate Project Co-ordinator, the two Drivers and the Night Watchman. KyT also benefits from the voluntary services of a retired Managing Director from the UK for a variable number of months each year.**

**Regarding the staff, the biggest weakness of the structure is that the expatriate Business Advisor must act as the Project Co-ordinator with no Motswana Project Co-ordinator identified to act as a counterpart or understudy. Acting on the position of Project Co-ordinator has restricted the amount of time that the expatriate advisor can spend on education and business training for which he was appointed. The existing staff appears to be hardworking and dedicated. It appears, however, that none of the current senior staff are interested in becoming the Project Co-ordinator. They feel that a local woman would have difficulty in being allowed to make decisions. Senior management staff also feels that they do not have all the necessary skills or knowledge to fill the Co-ordinator position, including the lack of the 'worldly' experience, links with overseas connections and ability to attract donors. Even the MP for the area says, "Batswana do not have ideas because they are not exposed to things in the outside world. We need someone from the outside to bring in ideas. This is one issue of sustainability. When the outsider goes the new ideas go." The 'worldly' attributes may be more difficult to obtain with a local Co-ordinator, and it will be important to expose the counterpart to overseas markets and opportunities.**

PEER Consultants (2002) noted the following about the Community Development Officer:

"Following the resignation of other staff in 2001, KyT has taken steps to streamline its staff roles. The Community Development Officers were given additional responsibilities, including office management and marketing. However, the skill base for them to effectively take on these responsibilities does not

exist. Similarly, the CDO skill base for them to work effectively with groups and Centres is in some cases weak. Their understanding of business and business skills need to be developed, given the fact that the micro-lending scheme and enterprise development are a key component of the KyT programme.”

In terms of reaching sustainability as an organisation, KyT has prepared a very basic two-year strategic plan (for 2002-2004) that includes a simple financial analysis of their situation. KyT recognises the need to become self-sustaining and is progressively moving towards this goal. One of the short-term goals towards sustainability is to access funding to pay for a local Project Co-ordinator. At the Group and Centre levels, members meet regularly, share ideas, and make production plans and schedules. They also examine ways to make the most profit but are often concerned that they are not selling enough products.

PEER Consultants (2002) recommended that a thorough strategic plan should be developed, which would include “a business plan for the morula factory, a feasibility analysis of the Business Centre concept, a review of the micro-lending arrangements, and staffing requirements in relation to programme priorities”. It appears that only the later two points have been done or are in the process of being done. In addition PEER Consultants (2002) recommended that a marketing strategy should be developed to include the following:

- Assessing the market potential;
- Assessing KyT’s capacity to consistently supply products to meet the market demands, taking into account the supply of raw materials, production capacity, etc;
- Defining quality standards and determining the ability of KyT to meet these standards;
- Identifying market outlets that have a good potential for KyT to access or develop within the next 12 months; and
- Determining the personnel, technical and financial inputs required enabling KyT to develop these markets.”

While these points appear to have been explored by KyT management and Board, they have not been developed in any formal manner into a strategy. PEER Consultants (2002) rightly notes that “the absence of a clear strategic focus tends to result in ad hoc management decisions, and makes finding appropriate funding support much more difficult”.

Overall KyT appears to be a recognised and respected organisation within and outside the Tswapong vicinity. The Trust is acknowledged as fulfilling an important function and its leaders are respected. Only some of the youth have expressed the opinion that “our mothers are wasting their time with this project”. For the women themselves, membership in KyT appears to be a positive experience.

## 5 Policy environment

**The KyT project is a unique CBNRM project, as it does not depend on any licenses or permits (except for exports). This means that the project can be replicated anywhere in Botswana where veld products with a commercial potential are found. The down side is that KyT groups do not have exclusive resource rights; non-members can copy the KyT activities for their own benefits. More worrying is that new CBOs may be established that claim exclusive rights to natural resources of Tswapong hills. If the newly established Trust in the area would get exclusive resource rights to natural resources in the Tswapong area, KyT would become dependent on this CBO for its survival.**

There is need to ensure that resource rights of existing projects such as KyT are protected, and that new CBNRM projects do not supplant (part of) KyT activities. The new CBNRM policy would offer such protection, and is therefore important.

## 6 Key issues and options

Various key issues were identified during this case study review and several options have been formulated to address some of the issues, as follows:

Key Issues	Options
Sustainability of the organisation once the expatriate Project Co-ordinator leaves. Some of the staff do not want this position filled by a Motswana, they prefer to have an expatriate woman. None of the existing Batswana management staff want to take over the Co-ordinators post.	KyT is busy pursuing the possibility to get donor money to pay for understudy/ counterpart position. Provide Board and staff education to change the mindset that a local person cannot fill top management positions. Ensure that a qualified person with previous relevant experience fills the counterpart understudy/counterpart position. Expose the counterpart to overseas markets and opportunities.
The Project Co-ordinator's role with the Board. Apparent some management decisions are made without the information provided to the full organisational structure. The minutes of meetings do not indicate how decisions are made; they only represent an 'action list'.	Continue to work on ways to ensure full participation of all members.
Size of Board and Executive Council. KyT cleverly solved the problem of a too large Executive Council by forming three separate, representative Regional Councils that feed from the Centres based in the village into the Board. The Board changes after each election with little continuity.	Explore how the KyT organisational model can be duplicated in other areas. Consider changing Deeds of Trust so that some Board members must stay on each year to provide continuity.
Sustainability issue of being heavily reliant on one main product. Although KyT is looking at the production of other oils, what will the global market place be like for natural products 10 years from now?	Continue to explore other potential profitable products. Examine market trends and demand in the short and long-term.
Central marketing. Supply and sales of the main product earner for KyT seem to fluctuate wildly. In 2001 there was a bulk order sale via CRIAA in Namibia and KyT could not meet its production targets because of an inadequate supply of <i>dicheru</i> (PEER Consultants 2002). Currently, at the KyT headquarters level in Lerala, certain products (e.g. morula oil) are stockpiling.	Access additional market support. Access support from relevant NGOs and government bodies. Make connections with a private sector partner (trader or wholesaler) or relevant Alternative Trade Organisations (ATOs). Start a new veld product-marketing organisation with exclusively business objectives; no social objectives.
Village-level marketing. As more producers are making the same products, competition for the limited local market is growing. In 2001, many of these products were stockpiling according to PEER Consultants (2002).	Develop new products that can be sold locally and outside the Tswapong area. Suggest that the various groups make <u>different</u> products rather than producing all the same products. Secure the expertise of a craft development specialist who can provide advice on the quality and design of the existing craft products and make suggestions for the development of new craft products.
Financial sustainability issues and cash flow problems still remain even though revenue from the sale of products is increasing over the recent years.	Prepare a marketing strategy and business plan. Continue to do market research and develop new markets (as above).
Lack of baseline data and monitoring make it difficult to estimate and track the cash income of members (through sales outside of KyT).	Need regular monitoring of individual sales at the Centre level and at the group level. Need to increase the capacity of individuals, small groups and the Centres to do record keeping and bookkeeping. Attach an intern or advisor to the project that can focus on developing the business, financial management and bookkeeping skills of individuals, small groups and Centres.

While income from the KyT project may not be as much as wildlife-based CBNRM projects, the income proves to be important to the women and acts as a supplement to agricultural activities.	
Appears to be very little natural resource monitoring or management, even with the local women having indigenous knowledge of their local resources.	Develop and implement regular monitoring activities. Seek advice from Namibia's CBNRM programme in this regard. Continue to explore further cultivation of certain veld products. Explore how the CBNRM policy can be best utilised to support veld product-based projects. Explore how the KyT model can be duplicated in other areas for other veld products (e.g. other <i>morula</i> producing areas, <i>mokola</i> palm for basketry)
New CBOs may create conflict from competitive utilisation of the plant-based natural resources.	KyT needs to gain exclusive access rights to the veld products they utilise. Explore how the CBNRM policy can be best utilised to support veld product-based projects.

### Box 1: SWOT analysis

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
Organisational structure allows for a high degree of representation, feedback, accountability and responsiveness in decision-making.	
Adaptability and creativity led to the change in the governing and representative structure (from one Executive Council to three Regional Councils).	
Hardworking dedicated staff.	Expatriate Business Advisor must act as the Project Co-ordinator with no Motswana Project Co-ordinator identified to act as a counterpart or understudy. Filling the position of Project Co-ordinator has very much limited the amount of time that the expatriate advisor can spend on education and business training for which he was appointed.
The availability and therefore the production of many of the KyT products is seasonal and occur during different times of the year, therefore offering production activities year round.	
Unique system of using sales agents within large organisations, several who take no commission on their sales.	Difficulty in finding an export market for the <i>morula</i> oil that will pay a sufficient price to be cost recovering and profit making.
Solid assets funded mainly through donors: office and factory building, one staff house, cold oil press machine, scanning, printing and lamination equipment, vehicles and trailers.	Remain largely dependent on donors for capital support and core funding.
OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
The production and marketing processes allow for flexibility and assure that members get the best possible price for their products.	As more and more producers (members and non-members) make the same products, the small local market becomes saturated. There is always the danger that individuals and Groups find their own markets and KyT no longer has enough products to sell to support the organisation financially.
The registration of a new CBO in the Tswapong area could create spin-off businesses and opportunities for KyT especially from the tourism sector, as long as the two CBOs are willing to co-operate and work together and do not see each other as competition.	The registration of a new CBO in the Tswapong area with several duplicate objectives may create competition for the same natural resources and lead to tensions within the Tswapong communities.
Access to micro financing allows the start-up of small business initiatives. Reported low default rates on micro-loans.	Several older loans remain outstanding. In 2002, 12.6% of the loans (P79,500) remained outstanding of which 3.71% (P23,450) has been owed for more than one year.
Taking an internal need for creating packaging, labelling and promotional materials using digital photography, scanning, printing and lamination has now led to a potential spin-off business to create various documents, stationery, funeral programmes, etc. for the general public.	



<p>In 2002, about 1500 <i>morula</i> trees were planted on members' plots and lands areas, which should bear fruit in 5-7 years. Members were trained in grafting techniques. Two members from each Centre have received training in improved <i>phane</i> harvesting methods.</p>	<p>Limited monitoring and management of other natural resources may threaten sustainability, especially the one root-based herbal remedy, <i>monepenepe</i>.</p>
<p>Negotiating with the National Food Technology research centre in Kanye to set up a <i>phane</i> canning factory in Tswapong.</p>	<p>Canned products may be less profitable than the dried product.</p>
<p>Have access to donor support for the next few years.</p>	<p>Are still far from being financially secure and self-supporting.</p>
<p>Have created links with people willing to volunteer their time to support the project (e.g. development of website, analysis of micro-lending programme, technical business support and training).</p>	

## **D.2: CBO Sankuyo Tshwaragano Management Trust<sup>15</sup>**

### **1 Introduction and brief history**

The Sankuyo Tshwaragano Management Trust (STMT) was established in 1995, and is the second eldest CBO. Prior to this the District Land Use Planning Unit had carried out consultations with the community, which culminated in the development of a land use plan. During the same year, a participatory community process to establish a community organisation resulted in the establishment of an Interim Committee to provide oversight to the development of a constitution and registration of trust. The trust was duly formed and registered in November 1995.

The first tender for the hunting and photographic safaris was awarded in 1996 to Game Safaris. The land rental and wildlife quota had a total value of P285 000 and the lease was for an initial one-year period. Through the Joint Venture Agreement, thirty Sankuyo residents were employed for the whole year in the hunting and photographic safari operations managed by Game Safaris. The community also received meat from the hunting activities of the operator some of which was sold to generate income for the trust. The remainder was, however, distributed to destitutes in the community. During its formative years, STMT received project development support from the USAID funded NRMP. The Institutional Reinforcement for Community Empowerment (IRCE) also funded by USAID provided support for capacity building in the areas of Board Leadership and Governance and Financial Management as well as organisational capacity assessments to strengthen the CBO's capacity to carry out self-monitoring and evaluation processes.

The JVA with Game Safaris ended in 1996 and although STMT was keen to continue the partnership, the private operator was not short listed in the subsequent tender process. The value of the community area had increased to P385 000 a year, and the tender was won by Crocodile Camp, which leased the area for three years and earned the trust income of P595 000 in the third year. In 1998, the STMT purchased its first vehicle to run the affairs of the trust. A total of 50 jobs were created during the JVA with Crocodile Camp. Community Escort Guides were trained and monitored the hunting activities of the safari operator. Training in cookery and the basic skills required to run a camp were provided to employees. In 1999, trust offices were constructed through a cost-sharing arrangement between STMT and Crocodile Camp. During the same year, Crocodile Camp built the Sankuyo community hall and equipped it with a television and furniture.

In 2000, STMT underwent another tendering process, which was riddled with controversy. Differences and conflicts in the community regarding the choice of the safari company, and allegations of bribery by tour operators resulted in a court battle, which caused delays in awarding the tender. This also resulted in delays in awarding the quota for 2001. After state intervention and the ruling by the TAC that the tender be awarded to the highest bidder HCH Safaris became the third partner of STMT in five years. HCH offered P492 000 for the land rental and P900 000 for the quota. Other benefits offered by HCH were P65 000 for the football team and 56 jobs.

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<sup>15</sup> This report is based on STMT documents, interviews with the Board and employees and on focus group discussions. Due to time pressure and communication problems, it was impossible to seek comments from STMT on the report.

## 2 Current situation

STMT is still involved in a JVA with HCH, which continues to be involved in the hunting and photographic safaris. The photographic safaris are presently sub-leased and two hunting camps have been developed.

The objectives of STMT as stated in its deed of trust are to:

1. Sustainably use the natural resources of the area for the benefit and development of the community of Sankuyo;
2. Conserve and protect the natural resources of the area against extinction, misuse or any other damage;
3. Link CBNRM within the area to the improvement of livelihoods and development of members of the trust and residents of the said village without discrimination on any tribal, racial, political, religious, gender or any ethnic affiliation.
4. Monitor the condition of the resources in the area in order to protect and sustainably use them; and
5. Educate all users of the area, including village residents, as to the importance for the present and future generations, of the wise management of natural resources.

To meet the stated objectives of the trust, STMT manages NG 33 and NG 34 and is currently involved in the following activities:

### *Implementing the JVA*

This involves implementation and monitoring of the JVA. This involves recruitment of staff for HCH run camps. Employment in the camps is on a rotational basis and according to the Board of STMT HCH is given the "cream of the crop" for key positions. For each job, a trainee from the community is attached to the skilled person to ensure skills transfer to the pool of unskilled and unemployed residents. The Board of STMT is also involved in monitoring the working conditions of the camp workers and where necessary acts as a mediator between the HCH and staff.

STMT also employs 10 community Escort Guides who monitor the hunting activities of the operator. The CEG also routinely collect data on wildlife number and mortalities and records of this activity are kept at the trust office.

Initially, HCH and STMT held weekly meetings to discuss progress, problems and the resolution. The relationship between the partners was at that time characterised by regular communication and the HCH honoured the agreements stipulated in the JVA. The relationship with HCH began to sour when land rental fees were not paid in full allegedly because of the reduction in the quota and the removal of lions in the quota. Currently relationships with HCH are strained, according to the community because of the late payments by HCH. Staff working conditions and HCH's concerns regarding overstaffing of the camps are issues that further strain the relationship between both parties.

### *Trust management*

The Board provides leadership and management to the trust, which does not have a dedicated manager position. The Board roles include financial and operational planning, financial management and monitoring, looking after organisational assets such as vehicles and managing all external relations. Supervision of trust staff is also the responsibility of the Board. The current staff includes a community liaison officer, bookkeeper, ten community escort guides, two administrative assistants, two drivers, two security guards and an assistant sales and marketing officer based in the Maun office.

#### *Oversight to STMT tourism enterprises*

STMT has several tourism enterprises, two of which were established through the assistance of the People and Nature Trust (PANT), a Maun-based NGO. These enterprises are the Kazikini Community Campsite and the Shandereka Cultural Village. These enterprises were established with the purpose of reducing the organisation's dependency on the hunting quota. Presently, only the Kazikini Campsite is operational and employs a total of 15 Sankuyo residents. The cultural village was closed because it made losses and some expenditures could not be accounted for. During its peak, Shandereka also employed fifteen people.

In 2001, the Santawani Lodge was handed over to STMT. The trust made provision in its 2002 budget for its renovation with the idea that the lodge would be a self-managed enterprise of STMT. The lodge is currently managed by the trust and employs six residents including a manager. The lodge is at present in disrepair, as it was handed over to the community without prior warning and the planning required for STMT to effectively run the lodge. The trust, in partnership with the African Wildlife Foundation (AWF) is currently working on a plan to rebuild the lodge. The costs of rebuilding the lodge are estimated at P500 000 and STMT and AWF are expected to share the costs on a 50-50 basis. According to the Board chairman, the trust has an option to lease out the lodge to a private company.

#### *Community meetings*

The Board of STMT is also responsible for ensuring active community participation in trust activities and that decision-making on these are democratic. To this end STMT holds regular meetings with the general membership of the trust to discuss progress, problems as well as recruit personnel for both the trust and HCH. The general membership is to a very large extent involved in management decisions of the trust. The Board also organises AGM's wherein Board elections are conducted. A new Board was actually elected during fieldwork for the review.

### **3. The socio-economic and environmental impacts of the Project**

**STMT operates NG 34 just south of Moremi Game Reserve. It is strategically located along the main roads from Maun to Moremi Game Reserve as well as to Mabaabe and Chobe. The area is fairly rich in wildlife, but does not have direct access to water. NG 34 is a multiple purpose area, used for hunting as well as photo safaris. The Trust has recently been given Santawani Lodge, and is planning to renovate the Lodge.**

The STMT has developed a campsite (Kasikini) and Shandereka cultural village. The Trust is growing in size and operations, boosted by rising financial income from wildlife, and to a lesser extent by the development of several productive projects and the recent acquisition of Santawani Lodge.

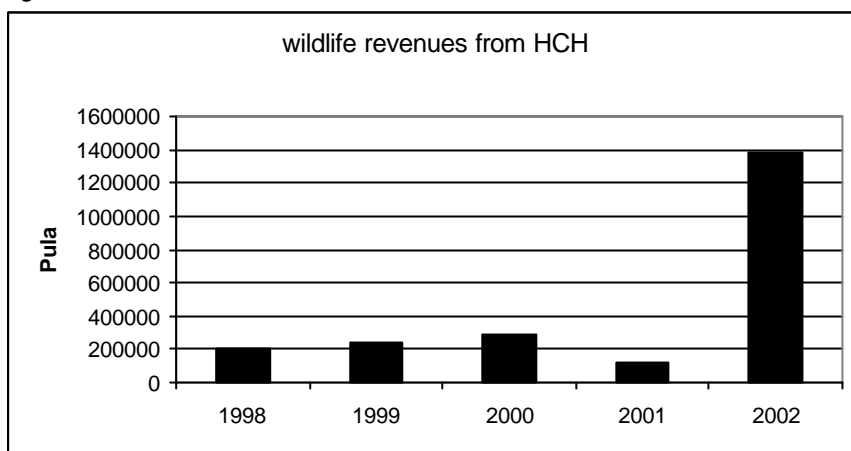
**The increase in revenues from land rentals, hunting quota and concession fees is shown in Figure 1. The 2002 revenues from wildlife were close to P1.4 million, compared to P 216 420 in 1998. No land rentals were paid by HCH in 2001 pending the outcome of the court case about the allocation of the concession, leading to much lower Trust revenues. The increase in revenues reflects the high bid of HCH, and the financial benefits of that to the community.**

**The volatility of the annual revenues makes it difficult to plan Trust activities. The Trust is heavily dependent on wildlife revenues, normally for over 70% with a peak in 2002 (96.2%). This situation is risky, as it makes STMT dependent on wildlife quota and the performance of the private company.**

The increase in revenues has allowed the Trust to expand its operations and expenditures and to increase its bank balance substantially. With the exception of 2001, the Trust has a surplus in terms of total net revenues as well as own revenues minus recurrent expenditures (Figure 2). STMT could therefore be described as financially independent at the moment. The surplus has

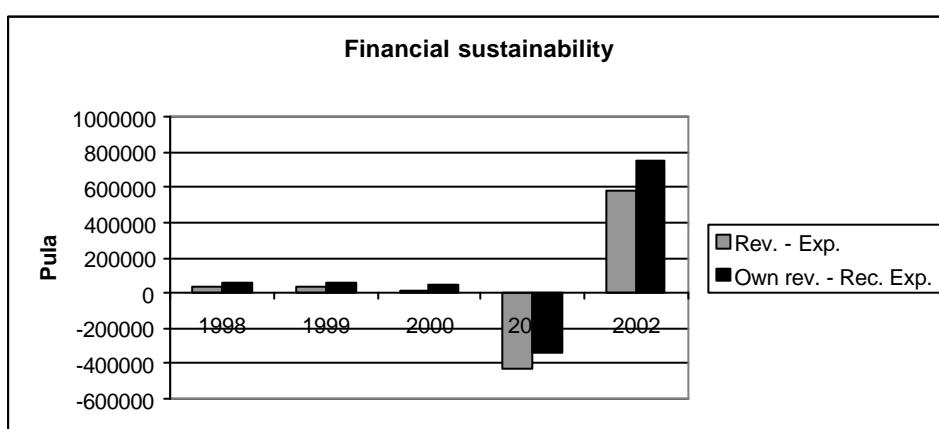
been used to support the Trust operations, develop projects, support community benefits and increase savings, which are now substantial.

Figure 1:



Note: figures from the annual financial reports. These figures reflect actual payment in financial years, and may deviate from the figures from the joint venture agreement due to late payments (e.g. 2002 covers part of 2001).

Figure 2:



Total expenditures have risen from around P 200 000 in 1998 to close to P 900 000 in 2002. This rapid increase may pose problems if future revenues drop below the level of recurrent expenditures.

Apart from income generation, the Trust has provided employment opportunities for 39 people divided over the head office, camping site and Santawani Lodge. In addition, HCH employs 56<sup>16</sup> people from Sankuyo village given a total CBNRM employment benefit of 95. The impact of the STMT on employment of residents has been positive. Residents employed in HCH and the trust are reported to have improved shelter, supported siblings meet the costs associated with schooling and supported their families. Another major impact on those employed by the safari company has been the transfer of skills in cookery, basic camp management, skinning, housekeeping, waiting tables and caring for tourists. Residents stated that the CBNRM initiative has significantly reduced poverty and food insecurity in the community.

<sup>16</sup> HCH requires fewer people, but tries to meet the joint venture agreement obligations. The needed employment may be around thirty.

STMT has distributed some of the revenues to the community through:

- Construction of toilets in yards, but unfortunately most toilets are not functioning properly;
- Construction of a community centre with DSTV;
- Small cash payment of P 250 P 300 per family in the years 2002 and 2003 respectively);
- Funeral assistance to bereaved families: cash of P1000 for children and P3000 for adults and supply of firewood and water as well as transport;
- Meat rations for destitutes that have contributed to food security amongst vulnerable groups;
- Elephant, warthog and ostrich meat are rationed to all members of the community at no cost;
- Plans exist to build houses for destitutes and orphans;
- Support for the local soccer; and
- Seven scholarships to community members were awarded in 2003.

The Trust appears to increase the direct benefits to the community, but does not have a benefit distribution strategy or plan.

**Self esteem and pride has been an important non-material benefits. Community members have gained experiences in running the Trust and some of its projects; the trust was confident enough to close the cultural village when it proved to be loss-making, and some expenditures could not be accounted for. The community also displays confidence in dealing with the private company, and has decided to develop the Santawani Lodge first by itself with AWF-support (even though there was an offer for joint development with HCH). The wisdom of this choice may be questioned, but it certainly reflects a sense of pride and self-confidence.**

While STMT is currently successful, the Trust continues to depend strongly on wildlife revenues and on the performance of HCH. It would be prudent to control the recurrent expenditures of the Trust, and to ensure that sufficient revenues are earmarked for capital expenditures and direct community benefits.

**NG 34 has good wildlife resources. During fieldwork, groups of giraffes and impalas were sighted daily. In addition, zebra, steenbok, duiker as well as several big bird species were spotted. Hunting quotas are issued for seventeen different species, including elephants and buffaloes (see Table 1). Shifts occur within the quota for each species, but there is no general decline in quota. The quota for species such as impala, steenbok and tsessebe has increased, while the quotas for warthog and spotted hyenas have decreased. The ban on lion hunting has affected the hunting value of the area, but the ban was known at the time of tendering.**

The area has a very limited potential for veldproduct utilisation. A few spots have some palms.

Despite the limited direct community benefits, people have a very positive attitude towards wildlife resources, and poaching does no longer occur. HCH agreed that poaching was very low, but has come across a few cases. DWNP records (Maun) show that all but one reported poaching cases occur outside CBNRM areas<sup>17</sup>.

Table 1: Hunting quota for NG 34.

	2001	2002	2003
Baboon	10	10	10

<sup>17</sup> People from CBO areas may poach outside their areas and not all poaching is reported. Therefore, no firm, quantitative conclusions can be drawn on the impact of CBNRM on poaching in Gamelan District.

Buffalo	7	7	7
Elephant	12	12	12
Spotted hyena	10	3	2
Impala	20	40	78
Kudu	15	10	9
Lechwe	40	40	23
Leopard	3	2	1
Ostrich	5	5	5
Steenbok	5	5	14
Tsessebe	20	18	36
Warthog	15	10	7
Zebra	2	2	2
Sable	1	0	0
Wildebeest	9	9	7
Total number	174	173	213

Source: DWNP and STMT/ HCH files.

Table 2: Reported poaching cases in Ngamiland

	2001	2002	2003
CBO area	0	0	1
Non-CBO areas	12	13	12
Total	12	13	13

Source: DWNP-Maun

**The community believes that wildlife resources are stable in the area. Their views are based on wildlife monitoring efforts of the escort guides. It is therefore difficult to understand for the community that the quotas are being reduced by DWNP.**

There is little active natural resource management, other than wildlife monitoring. HCH's suggestion to establish water points and retain wildlife longer in the area has not been followed up.

#### 4 Organisational analysis

This section provides the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats for STMT

At the apex of the STMT structure is the General Membership, which is defined as all Batswana above the age of sixteen who have resided in Sankuyo for over five years. The General Membership is responsible for policy formulation, monitoring and the election of the Board. Board elections are held every two years and the District Commissioner's office presides over the process. Twenty people are nominated and ten are elected by show of hand. The ten elected members then elect the office bearers to include the Chairperson, Vice Chairperson, Treasure and Vice, Secretary and vice secretary. The Board is allowed to elect small committees and task forces as appropriate. An example of a task force recently established is the Santawani Lodge task force charged with overseeing the planning and development of the enterprise. Board meetings are held weekly primarily because the Board micro-manages. The fact that Board meetings are held with such frequency results in high expenditures on Board sitting allowances.

While the management style is participatory and membership is involved in decision-making, there is no clear organisational structure and no clear management roles. The extent to which the general membership is involved in decision-making is unclear but it appears that the latter also make day-to-day management decisions. The managers currently employed at Kazikini and Santawani are not able to effectively execute management roles given the involvement of the

Board in the management of these enterprises. The staffing structure is also unclear. It is not clear within the staff who is the most senior. Lines of communication and reporting relationships are not clearly spelled out.

Programme management and operational planning in STMT are weak. The CBO does not have a long-term strategic plan. Administrative procedures have been developed but are not followed systematically. Rudimentary financial procedures have been developed but the planning and reporting systems are poor. Examples are the delayed audits and insufficiently developed budgeting processes. Personnel and supervisory policies have been defined but are not always followed and there appears to be a serious mismatch between some staff capabilities and the positions/responsibilities held.

Through managing the NG 33 and 34 Photographic and Hunting Safari initiative, STMT is actively involved in CBNRM. The positive impacts of the CBO in CBNRM implementation have been provided in the previous section. The membership of STMT shows a clear understanding of sustainable natural resources management and all its values and principles; hence poaching was reported to be non-existent in the area. Although members have a positive attitude towards natural resources, this is undermined by the absence of a natural resources management strategy, plan and activities. The CBO has not developed the capacity or accessed the expertise to plan, maintain an inventory of resources nor has it developed mechanisms for monitoring the environmental changes that might occur as a result of its current or future activities. With the exception of the monitoring undertaken by the community escort guides, no active management takes place. With the exception of the wildlife quota, STMT has no other NRM activities that it implements. The monitoring data derived from the activities of the community escort Guides appears not to be analysed and used to inform decisions or used to influence the quota. The trust does not set aside any funds for environmental management.

## 5 Policy environment

Although STMT does not have a robust advocacy and lobbying strategy to influence policy, the CBO has to some extent engaged in policy dialogues. Through its membership to BOCOBONET, STMT was involved in the discussion on the ban on lion hunting, the controversial saving gram suggesting that Councils hold CBO funds in trust. The trust has also contributed to CITES processes, Botswana's Elephant Management Plan and Strategy, and the CBNRM draft Policy debates.

## 6 Key issues and options

Key issues	Options
Micro-management by the Board	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Recruitment or development of management expertise</li> <li>Separation of administration and policy making</li> <li>Out-sourcing some of the capacity requirements.</li> </ul>
Lack of technical support/advice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Recruitment or development of management expertise.</li> <li>Out-sourcing some of the capacity requirements.</li> <li>Contractual agreement with an NGO to provide specific support</li> </ul>
External shocks: Abrupt changes in the quota allocation	
Dependency on wildlife quota	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Diversification of sources of revenue through income generating tourism enterprises/investments</li> </ul>
Lack of capacity to manage tourism enterprises (lodges)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Recruitment of management expertise</li> <li>Leasing to private sector</li> </ul>
Lack of a long-term strategic plan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Development and implementation of a long-term strategic plan</li> </ul>
Investment Planning Strategies/plans	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Development of investment ideas, assessment of their feasibility.</li> </ul>



## 7 SWOT analysis

<b>Strengths</b>	<b>Weaknesses</b>
NG 33 and 34 is well endowed with wildlife and veldt resources.	Micro-management by the Board undermines the effectiveness of the trust and the efficient management of the enterprises it has established.
The Board respects the provisions of the deed of trust regarding quorum and fixed terms of office.	Over-reliance on the wildlife quota
The trust has a clearly defined membership which is regularly informed of the progress of the trust and that is involved in all major decisions of the trust.	Unclear organisational structure and management roles. The involvement of the General Membership in day-to-day management and decision-making undermines the effectiveness of the trust.
The empowerment process is taking place in Sankuyo as evidenced by the clear understanding and ownership of the objectives, activities and benefits from NRM activities of the trust.	Human resources development is a grey area. Staff training is not prioritised; the scholarships offered to members of the community are not geared towards the needs of the trust and its projects. Furthermore, a tannery course was offered to residents and to date no such enterprise has emerged.
The Board of STMT broadly represents the diversity of the Sankuyo community in terms of gender and age.	The Board training offered through PACT/IRCE and BOCOBONET does not appear to have improved leadership and governance of STMT.
Monitoring of hunts, wildlife numbers and mortalities by the Community Escort Guides is strength.	STMT lacks a robust, comprehensive NRM strategy, plan and activities that are regularly monitored and evaluated.
The benefits from CBNRM are appreciated by the community and have a positive impact on livelihoods, trust activities, community infrastructure and assets. A major strength of STMT is the fact that benefits are distributed directly to the households.	Currently, most STMT investments are consumptive and not productive e.g. vehicles and enterprises which have not been assessed for feasibility
The impact of STMT on the environment although based largely on qualitative information, has been positive. Communities demonstrated a positive attitude towards wildlife and reported that poaching was not a problem in the area. Perceptions are that wildlife resources are increasing.	Absence of a long-term strategic plan, operational plans to guide the activities of the organisation
The trust has identified productive projects (Kazikini, Santawani) to reduce its dependency on the quota and generate additional benefits to the community and the trust.	Unequal power relations within the Board structure and power struggles based on class, elitism and to some extent political party affiliation.
Rudimentary management (administration and financial) policies and procedures are in place.	
<b>Opportunities</b>	<b>Threats</b>
Rich, varied wildlife resource base	Fluctuating hunting quota
	Potential capacity problems managing lodges and tourism enterprises
	Delays in internal decision-making processes could contribute to loss of opportunities
	Lack of investment planning and effective management could undermine business performance of current income generating projects.

### D.3 CBO Khwai Development Trust<sup>18</sup>

#### 1 Introduction

Khwai Development Trust (KDT) have a head lease for NG18, an area of 1918 km<sup>2</sup> north of Moremi Game Reserve, designated for “Multipurpose use in a WMA” and NG19 designated as a photographic area. The Khwai community is located right at Moremi North Gate, along a major tourism route.

KDT's history is as follows:

- |      |  |
|------|--|
| 1994 | Khwai Interim Management Committee established.  |
| 1995 | Overall WMA management plan prepared by Okavango Community Consultants<br>Preparation of constitution. First Board of Trustees <sup>19</sup> elected, even though government had not accepted the constitution due to the inclusion of a clause that restricted membership in the Trust to Basarwa. 'Interest groups' formed to address livelihood needs.  |
| 1997 | <b>Proposal to GEF; start of technical support and advice from Dr. Richard Bell during the formation of the Trust (until 2001)</b>   |
| 2000 | Modification and subsequent approval of the constitution. Registered as a Trust in March.<br>Second Board of Trustees elected <sup>20</sup> , holding office from March 2000 to September 2001 (Potts 2003)<br>Interim management plan prepared by the Trust.<br>First auction of wildlife quota (including two lions) held; revenue of almost P1.1 million from four private hunting safari operators.<br><br>Ablution and skinning facilities developed at two hunting campsites.<br>First clients at the hunting camps. |
| 2001 | Second auctioned quota (no lions) for almost P600,000 to three private hunting safari operators. No minimum base price set.<br><br>Chalets and dining room constructed at Zou (Lechwe) hunting camp. No money left to further develop Xamtasi (Giraffe) hunting camp.<br><br>Third Board of Trustees elected, holding office from September 2001 to February 2003.   |
| 2002 | Auctioned quota for almost P1.2 million to one private hunting safari operator. Minimum base price set.  |
| 2003 | <b>Auctioned quota before the quota was officially allocated for just over P1 million.</b><br>Fourth Board of Trustees elected in February 2003.<br>Quotas suspended due to failure to submit audited financial report.<br>Quotas releases in August after appeal by the new Board.  |

This case study describes the situation at the time of fieldwork (beginning of July 2003). At that time, the Trust was dormant, while the new Board members trying to revive the Trust and get the community quota back. The Trust did not employ anybody, and the old Board had not handed over the files and keys to the new Board. Consequently, meetings were held outside, and trust documents were not accessible. Later in August, the Government released the quota, and an auction was held.

#### 3 Current situation

KDT continues to hold its physical assets, but has no capital and has incurred significant debts. At the time of the fieldwork, there are no sources of income for the Trust, as DWNP withdrew KDT's quota rights because it could not produce an audited financial statement for 2002. Even the revenues from the August auction did not cover the outstanding debts.

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<sup>18</sup> This case study is based on interviews with the new Board members and focus group discussions with villagers. In addition, documents about KDT have been used, in particular the recent publication by Eco-Support Services was very useful. The fieldwork took place when the quota was suspended and the CID was conducting its investigation into alleged abuse of Trust resources. DWNP released the KDT quota later in August.

<sup>19</sup> Strictly speaking, this is not a recognised Board as the Trust was not registered.

<sup>20</sup> The current board listed this as the first Board of the Trust.

The police investigation of alleged financial mismanagement was continuing. The new Board has prepared a document entitled *Steps Taken to Improve the Management and Functioning of Khwai Development Trust*, which outlines their ideas on the 'way forward' (KDT Board 2003). The KDT Board has contracted the services of Eco-tourism Support Services (ESS) to provide various types of support and advice. The new Board would like to go back to the original plans that KDT had and move forward with them.

## 2 The socio-economic and environmental impacts of the project

KDT's strategy was to build up infrastructure, make and save money from the hunting camps and other KDT operations and then decide on what community projects should be initiated. The strategy was to keep direct benefits to community members initially small, but such benefits were expected to grow at a later stage. In reality, there has never been a dividend payment to individual households, and there has never been any money saved to spend on community projects. This is evidenced by the poor look of compounds in Khwai and by the lack of community facilities.

Plans to develop 'interest groups' and projects for thatching grass, craft marketing and dancing were made, but the latter two never really took off. According to some Board members and Khwai residents this was due to disagreements on how donor funds and revenues should be used, financial management problems, village politics and limited access to craft-making raw materials. The thatching group did work well from 1996 to 1998, selling on average P6,000 per annum. The collection or production and sales of items such as grass and baskets have continued on an *ad hoc* or individual basis, with thatching grass remaining as a very important source of income for individual households at the moment.

The major material benefits of KDT include:

- Employment of KDT staff when the trust was operational. For example during 2001, KDT employed 42 people to open up new hunting tracks and 22 to run the hunting camps. In addition, the safari operators employed three people from the Khwai community as trackers and skimmers for each safari package. The KDT office in Khwai had a small staff including a Manager, Administrator, and Accounts Officer. Due to the current situation, none of the staff can be paid so no one is working. The new Board worries that some of the good employees will find other employment opportunities during this difficult period;
- Generation of substantial revenues through auctioning of hunts. Auctioning income was said to be P 2.9 million over the period 2000-2002;
- The establishment of some infrastructure using income earned from selling the quota. One hunting camp was completed (Zou). The other hunting camp (Xamtasi) was never completed due to lack of funds. Two campsites have been established, but without any facilities at all. A relatively craft shop was built inside Khwai village using Cattle Lung Disease Recovery Project funds, but it was not used at the time of fieldwork;
- Income generated by charging the professional hunter / safari operator US\$200/day/client to stay at Zou Camp and US\$50/day/client to stay at Xamtasi;
- Income generated by community members for cutting thatching grass and reeds for the construction of the hunting camps (sold to KDT) and other sales to outsiders. In 2000, for example, P6,000 worth of thatching grass was sold. The expected price of thatching grass was P10 for a bundle of about 25 cm. in diameter;
- Part of the hunting quota was set aside for community members;
- Acquisition of two lodges from the Land Board. Tsaro Lodge is meant for photo safaris and has permanent structures; Machaba Lodge has temporary facilities. The lodges offer the opportunity to diversify KDT activities away from hunting.

Information from the new Board and Potts (2003) suggests that KDT has received the following amounts from the auctions: for the year 2000 P1.1 million; for 2001 P600 000 and for 2002 P1.2

million. Revenues in 2003 were nil as the quota was withheld, even though draft quota had been sold for P1 million<sup>21</sup>.

There is no evidence that auctioning leads to higher Trust revenues. NG18 is a wildlife-rich area, and yet average auction revenues are similar to those of other CBOs such as Sankuyo Tshwaragano Management Trust (STMT).

Given the substantial revenues, it is appalling that Khwai village does not show any sign of improvement to compounds and/or community assets. People repeatedly suggested that the CBNRM-benefits and house improvements could be found in Maun. The lack of official status of Khwai as a village and never knowing whether they will have to move may be another factor in the lack of development in Khwai village.

Few benefits have accrued to individual households. The Trust has never made any cash payment to members. Households could hire Trust vehicles at a reduced price (P100 for return to Maun). While the Trust was operational, people benefited from cheap game meat (mostly elephant), and game meat was free for destitutes.

Ironically, households may even be worse off with the CBNRM than before, as people feel that with the establishment of the CBNRM project, support coming from the Remote Area Development Programme (RADP) has decreased, and households that depended on Special Game Licenses (SGL) prior to CBNRM lost access to wildlife resources. Nonetheless, fieldwork made it clear that villagers do not wish to return to the SGL System.

The CBNRM project has had several non-material benefits for Khwai village. The CBNRM project is perceived as a correction of a historical injustice of taking away access to wildlife resources through the license system. KDT chose a CBNRM model of self-empowerment by discouraging direct support or control by outsiders (e.g. using an auction system for its wildlife quota rather than going into a joint venture agreement or partnership, not inviting direct support from CBNRM support bodies). The project to a point has given the community a sense of pride and empowerment. This became evident from discussions on the way forward. A substantial group pointed out that the auctioning system and 'empowerment model' were not to blame for the failure, which was attributed to mismanagement and misbehaviour on the part of a number of individuals. Others in the village believe that linking up with a joint venture partner will substantially reduce the risks of repeating the same mistakes, and is also necessary to revive the lodges as quickly as possible.

The suspension of the wildlife quota has been costly to the community, to the private sector and to the country at large. The intervention may have been necessary to trigger off changes, but one wonders whether economically less costly alternatives could have been pursued.

KDT (and some other CBOs) have given CBNRM a bad reputation, and this is arguably the most important non-material 'disbenefit'. KDT gave 'ammunition' to the 'CBNRM scepticists' and it may be difficult to regain the earlier external confidence and support.

With respect to natural resources, KDT has arguably one of the richest and most scenic community areas adjacent to a major game reserve. Villagers reported that poaching has decreased and is basically non-existent, but that they are unable to monitor it at present in the absence of transport. In the past, people from elsewhere sometimes fished too much with nets but this has not occurred since 2000. The Chairperson and Chief feel that the CBNRM project has helped the community to become more aware about natural resource management. For example they have established the most suitable time to cut thatching grass so that the bush can be "re-seeded" with grass seeds. Community Escort Guides have counted game animals and

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<sup>21</sup> It was impossible to get financial statements in Khwai. The consultants were referred to Meyers and Associates accounting firm based in Maun for financial statements, but no response was obtained from this company.

provided these numbers to DWNP, which according to some have provide input into determining the annual quota.

#### **4 Organisational analysis**

Box 1 at the end of this case study highlights some of the strengths, weakness, opportunities and threats (SWOT) for Khwai community as a structure forming the organisation of KDT and for the Trust itself.

Generally there appears to be capacity problems amongst the Khwai community, including: illiteracy, low education levels, little business or financial management experience, lack of understanding of what the tourism sector needs and tourists want and expect, and poor craft making skills (with some notable exceptions) and limited access to craft making raw materials. According to some Board members and the Chief, community members do possess the necessary skills to partake in the daily running of KDT, but not for the management-level activities such as administration and marketing. In 2001, three community members went for a six-month training course in Gaborone in accounting and secretariat management.

Other community problems that impact on the functioning of KDT include village 'politics' conflicts, tensions between different clans/families, and greed, corruption and manipulation amongst some individuals (Potts 2003). Within a small community like Khwai most people are related to each other and the strong family ties, while creating feelings of loyalty, also hinders the inclination and ability to intervene when things are going wrong.

The Trust has been run by an Interim Management Committee during the formation stage and three elected Boards. Even though the Deed of Trust requires a new election each year, two of the Boards elected since 2000 (when the Trust was registered) remained in office for about one and a half years. The newest Board was elected in February 2003 (Letsoalo 2003), but the previous Board members, who feel their Board was illegally dissolved, do not recognise this new Board. Apparently most community members do support the new Board, but there has been no hand-over from the previous Board.

Under previous Boards there have been no proper management systems for staff and financial management, and no strategic plans, work plans or budgets in place to fulfil the goal of self-determination to run their CBNRM operations. Some Board members were also paid employees of the Trust, which creates a situation that the same people overseeing the running of the CBO are the ones running it. There has been no record kept of KDT membership through a Register of Members (Letsoalo 2003). According to Potts (2003) there has also been a lack of consultation with then general membership of KDT by the previous Boards, and the Board did not meet regularly amongst themselves or with the community. Only two AGMs have been held over a three-year period. Potts (2003) also reports that "the community at large was completely excluded and felt powerless to intervene" when it came to making decision concerning money. It has been reported that the Deed of Trust was never translated into Setswana or ever discussed in detail with KDT members.

The new Board has prepared a document titled *Steps Taken to Improve the Management and Functioning of Khwai Development Trust*, which outlines their ideas on the 'way forward'. However, there are some doubts as to whether the new Board will be able to move forward. For example, it is worrisome that some of the suspected culprits amongst Trust employees, as of early July 2003, still had access to Trust assets and appear to be still working for the Trust.

The new Board, while seemingly sincere and reportedly transparent, appears to lack capacity in certain areas, especially financial management, organisational management, business experience and skills, and tourism experience. At least two of the Board members are well educated, but they have little experience in the business world. While KDT has currently made arrangements with Eco Support Services to act as 'Community Facilitator' for two days per

month, this limited assistance may prove to be insufficient. The terms of contract allow for additional days if necessary and acceptable for both parties (Anon. 2003). Three members of the new Board attended a three-day training session on good governance, leadership, leasehold rights of the Trust, and financial management in March 2003, but the training seems inadequate and uncoordinated with other training plans for KDT. Several members of the Khwai community feel that KDT needs support and business/ management advice on a daily basis from someone on the ground. Board Members still need adequate and specialised training in their specific roles and responsibilities, how to run a Board and a CBO, and in clear and practical financial management methods. One of the assignments of Eco Support Services is to conduct a training needs assessment of the Board and community members “to build capacity to enable them to run their affairs effectively” (Anon. 2003).

**KDT has recently engaged an accounting firm in Maun to assist with bookkeeping and to produce monthly and annual financial statements, so this is a step in the right direction, recognising that help is needed in financial recordkeeping. In addition ESS will play a financial controlling role by being a signatory on all KDT bank accounts (KDT Board 2003). Later in 2003, KDT plans to develop a ‘Community Investment Plan’ with the help of ESS “to ensure that any profits from KDT operations go into community developments based on informed choices made by community members on the ground” (KDT Board 2003).**

Another step in the right direction is recognising that outside expertise is needed to run the newly acquired lodges after their renovation. The Chairperson and Chief would like to see a true joint venture partnership with a private company taking care of the marketing and managing the lodge while training up Khwai residents to eventually take over. The company could have some shares in the company, but KDT would be directly involved in every step of the way.

None of the employees had job descriptions or conditions of service drawn up for them (Letsoalo 2003). This caused confusion and led to employees “jumping around a lot in their work and responsibilities”, according to the new Chairperson and the Chief. For example, one of the hunting camp managers relocated to Maun to market KDT and to make purchases for the camps. The Cook at the camp had to take over the management of the camp by default. Potts (2003) also reports that “the KDT organisation structure is very confusing – there are secretaries of the Trust Committee and there is another paid secretarial post created by the Board, whose portfolio is questionable!” The Community Liaison Officer was also a member of the Board while he was employed by the Trust.

## **5 Policy environment**

Khwai residents realise that they have deviated from the traditional tendering model that has been promoted by DWNP and the Technical Advisory Committee (TAC). It is felt that the support for alternative models such as Khwai’s has been limited, and that their choice is not fully understood and accepted by extension workers. At the same time, extension workers appear to feel that Khwai residents do not adhere to any of their advice.

## **6 Issues and lessons**

Khwai Development Trust is currently a sad story of very little benefits accruing to the members or community. People are poor and the village’s socioeconomic and infrastructural development is poor despite the more than P 2 million in revenues that the Trust has received over the last couple of years.

The following issues emerge from Khwai:

- Khwai is very rich in wildlife resources and some veld products (e.g. thatching grass). There should be good economic potential to exploit these resources profitably and to the benefit of the community;

- The CBO is well located near the North Gate of Moremi Game Reserve, and along a major tourism route;
- Khwai still lacks status as a village, and consequently it does not have the 'normal village facilities (e.g. clinic and school). It becomes difficult to plan for the future when residents do not know if they will be forced to leave the area or not;
- Alleged financial mismanagement has led to the suspension of Trust activities, and considerable debts. This has earned Khwai a bad reputation, even though the new Board has been open and transparent about the problems;
- The problems of Khwai have raised doubt about communities' ability to control and supervise Trust projects;
- Lack of timely interventions in the Khwai problems by the relevant CBNRM support bodies highlights the lack of cohesive planning and coordinated implementation amongst CBNRM support organisations, both in Ngamiland and at the national level;
- The problems of Khwai have highlighted the need for proper management systems (including staff management and financial management), strategic plans, work plans and budgets to be in place to run a CBNRM project in an accountable and transparent manner; and
- There are now two groups within the community; one in favour of tendering with joint venture partner; the other still in favour of auctioning and KDT will have to decide which system they will opt for in the future. One former Board member suggests that the community must come to the *kgotla* to discuss the advantages and disadvantages of each system, if consensus is not reached, the TAC should be brought in to advise;
- The CBNRM support structure should be able to handle different CBNRM models and modalities. In fact, it would be good to learn lessons from Khwai's experiences with auctioning for other CBNRM projects.

Some Board members have learned some lessons from the Khwai experience and would like to pass on advice to other CBOs, including that a CBO Board should never give full responsibility to the management staff; the Board must not do all the work and let the employees "sit back, doing nothing"; a good organisational structure needs to be set up right from the beginning; and responsibilities should be shared with the CBO staff, and all employees must have clear job descriptions.

The new KDT Board would like to learn from other CBOs that have managed to handle their finances successfully, and have kept proper records to ensure that annual audits can be completed.

**What happened in Khwai may happen in other CBOs that have weak procedures and control mechanisms. It is therefore extremely important to establish simple and transparent financial, administrative and organisational procedures and control mechanisms.**

All incoming Boards must be trained and supported up to a required level. It must not be assumed if members have a good education that they know how to run a CBO. Along with this, Deeds of Trust should stipulate that some old Board members should be retained to provide continuity.

As Potts (2003) notes, CBO Boards should be required to consult with their general membership on a regular basis, especially in the areas of financial expenditures and benefit distributions.

Many CBOs need help to determine how revenues should be utilised; i.e. what portions should be utilised for what aspects: Trust administration, running of Trust operations and projects, training of Trust members, Board members and staff, reinvested to expand Trust operations and projects, savings and investments for future needs, community projects, community social welfare activities, and distribution in the form of direct household dividends.

Suspension of the wildlife quota has shaken up Khwai, other CBOs and the CBNRM-support organisations in general. This is positive, as the actions taken will hopefully remedy the past shortcomings. However, the quota suspension has led to substantial economic losses to the community, private operators as well as the country at large. It is necessary to design alternative measures that take away the community control over the quota, and yet allow private operators and ultimately the community to benefit once its house is in order. Possible measures include placing such communities under 'protectorship' and conducting annual CBO inspections.

Box 1: SWOT analysis

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
<p>Khwai is "sitting on a goldmine" in terms of its location and having utilisation rights to pristine wilderness areas with abundant game and other natural resources such as thatching grass. They have solid physical assets: Zou (Lechwe) and Nxamtese Camps for hunting, Tsaro Lodge and Machaba Camp for photo safari, large building in the village earmarked for craft marketing.</p>	<p>No money at the moment to develop and use these assets. Significant debts.</p>
<p>During the good years of KDT many people from the Khwai community had full-time jobs or were engaged in part-time income generating activities paid for by KDT.</p>	<p>KDT has no money at the moment to pay any of the employees. No job descriptions so employees "jumped around a lot in their work and responsibilities".</p>
<p>The people of Khwai's desire for self determination and independence is honourable.</p>	<p>The people of Khwai's desire for self determination and independence may have led them to discourage support when they needed it and to hesitate to recognise that their own community members were allegedly mismanaging funds. No proper management systems, strategic plans, work plans or budgets in place to fulfil the goal of self-determination.</p>
	<p>Lack of capacity of KDT members including: illiteracy, low education levels, little business or financial management experience, lack of understanding of what the tourism sector needs and tourists want and expect, poor craft making skills (with some notable exceptions) and limited access to craft making raw materials.</p>
<p>Board members are elected by the community into the specific office bearer positions. With the exception of the Interim Management Committee, most Board members elected have been able to read, write and speak English. New Board members appear to be very sincere about the tough uphill battle ahead of them. The new Board is said to be very transparent. "Every time they do something they report immediately back to the community". At least two of the Board members (Chairperson and Secretary) are educated up to the Cambridge level.</p>	<p>Previous Boards received very little training or preparation for the work that was required (e.g. one Board received only 3 days on financial management, one received 2 days on community mobilisation, new Board received 3 days on governance, transparency and accountability. Previous Boards and Trust Managers appear to have been "running the affairs of the Trust in a non-transparent and non-accountable manner" (Potts 2003). The new Board starts their work already with heavy debts from previous Boards and Trust management. Letsoalo (2003) doubts the legitimacy of the new Board because they were elected in "some sort of Special General Meeting" rather than in a AGM. There has been no formal handover from the old Board to the new one. Doubts about the capacity of the new Board to handle the tough job in front of them. Lack of capacity of new Board in financial management, business experience, and running a CBO. KDT recently was invited to attend a training session on governance, leadership and financial management. Only three of the new Board members attended. The training was said to be too short by one of the participants, and by reading through the training workshop report (Letsoalo 2003), the training appears to be far from adequate.</p>
<p><b>OPPORTUNITIES</b></p>	<p><b>THREATS</b></p>



<p>Immediate revenue opportunities do exist: for example the hunting camp can be used for photographic clients during this tourist high season, the campsite near the village (with no facilities) can be cleaned up and campers can be invited to camp for P20/person/night rather than the expected P125 (!), a JVP can be invited to start-up Tsaro Lodge, and a JVP could be invited to rent and/or manage the craft shop.</p> <p>The significant physical assets of the Trust can be used for collateral to acquire loans.</p>	<p>Due to the financial mismanagement, KDT is threatened with collapse unless they can quickly earn some revenue. Ad hoc use of the hunting camp for photographic tourists, which is organised by the manager implicated in the alleged mismanagement is a further threat to KDT's reputation and may damage the physical assets (e.g. very nice hunting camp furniture piled up in the rooms to make way for the tourists possessions, tourists setting up their tents on the veranda of the hunting camp).</p>
<p>There are now two groups within the community; one in favour of tendering with joint venture partner; the other still in favour of auctioning and KDT will have to decide which system they will opt for in the future. The decision making process may be an opportunity for the new Board to show its abilities and for the community to rally around the 'rebirth' of KDT.</p>	<p>The decision making process may create conflict and tension within the new Board and the community.</p>
<p>Opportunities are available to build the capacity of the new Board.</p> <p>One of the assignments of ESS is to conduct a training needs assessment of the Board and community members "to build capacity to enable them to run their affairs effectively" (Anon. 2003).</p>	<p>While KDT has currently made arrangement with ESS to act as 'Community Facilitator' for two days per month, this may prove to be insufficient.</p> <p>Training accessed through ESS and through BOCOBONET does not seem to be coordinated.</p>
<p>Later in 2003, KDT plans to develop a 'Community Investment Plan' with the help of ESS "to ensure that any profits from KDT operations go into community developments based on informed choices made by community members on the ground" (KDT Board 2003).</p>	

## D.4: CBO Nqwaa Khobee Xeya Trust<sup>22</sup>

### 1 Introduction

The Nqwaa Khobee Xeya Trust (NKXT) was established in 1996 for the communities Ukhwi, Ncaang and Ngwatle. During the inception phase of the project, Thusano Lefatsheng (TL) was the implementing agency assisted by the Netherlands Development Organisation (SNV), which provided a Project Advisor. Financial support for the initial training interventions was secured from the USAID funded Private Agencies Collaborating Together (PACT)/Institutional Reinforcement for Community Empowerment (IRCE) project.

The objective of the KD1 CBNRM initiative was to:

*Establish a self-reliant community organisation responsible for the sustainable management of the available natural resources and the equitable distribution of the benefits derived from their utilisation, with the ultimate aim of securing access to and control over these resources in order to raise standards of living for the inhabitants of KD1.*

This broad project goal was to be achieved within a period of nine years divided into three phases of three years each. The first phase of the project (1996-1999) sought to facilitate the formation of a community-based organisation that would obtain exclusive rights to the use of natural resources occurring in the area and gain experience in community management of resources to include the hunting quota, the domestication of veld products and craft production. During this phase plans were made to establish two veld products plots to demonstrate the viability of veld products domestication. A comprehensive plan for the sustainable utilisation and management of the natural resources in KD1 was also to be developed. The second phase of the project (1999-2002) aimed at consolidation through continued capacity building, strengthening the CBO structure and facilitating the implementation of the Land Use Management Plan and other planned activities of NKXT. The thrusts of the third and final phase of the project (2002-2003) were never established.

A brief history of the NKXT is as follows:

1996-1997	Project identification and introduction at the District and local level Formation of an interim Quota management Committee Registration of natural resource user groups Establishment of woodwork groups Establishment of nurseries for raising herbal tea seedlings Wildlife quota utilised for subsistence needs Training of the wildlife monitoring team Craft production workshop for KD1/KD2 and Ghanzi based producers in collaboration with Gantsi Craft Trust (GCT) Study on the value of game meat
1997-1998	Conclusion and implementation of a craft purchasing agreement with GCT to ease the problem of infrequent buying trips by the Ghanzi based craft purchasing and marketing organisation GCT Training of craft managers Drafting of a constitution Registration of the NKXT Use of the quota for subsistence purposes Training of wildlife monitoring team Second attempt at raising herbal tea seedlings Exchange visit of KD1 representatives to visit CBNRM and craft production projects in Namibia Exchange visit to ostrich farm in Francistown
1998-1999	Draft Land Use and management Plan Biltong production for subsistence use Veld products monitoring training Establishment of veld products domestication plots in Ukhwi and Ncaang Training of wildlife monitoring team Craft production training for producers from KD1/KD2 and Ghanzi

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<sup>22</sup> This report is based on interviews of Board members, focus group discussions with villagers and reports about NKXT. Due to time pressure and poor communication, it was impossible to get comments from NKXT on the draft report.

1999-2000	<p>NRM Advisor recruited to replace SNV advisor  Two local project Assistants recruited  Board training  Obtained resource use lease  Identified and started co-operation with Safaris Botswana Bound (SBB). Signed the Memorandum of sub-lease Agreement with SBB.  Use of quota for commercial purposes</p>
2000-2001	<p>Fundraising for community tourism infrastructure  Income generated through commercial use of the quota (P283, 000.00). Employment opportunities provided by SBB and the Trust.  Subsistence hunting and access to meat through family groups  Grants to develop tourism infrastructure secured and the construction of campsites in the three communities commenced.  A tannery was built in Ncaang and a Craft shop in Ngwatle  Germination failure of domestication trials particularly in Ukhwi  Part of the income generated from the JVP was paid out to the three communities and the Settlement committees paid households P40.20 per individual.</p>
2001-2002	<p>NRM Advisor's contract came to an end and the two local project Assistants took over responsibility of the management of the Trust.  New Board elected  Reduced support from TL and difficulties implementing management responsibilities of the trust were experienced.  The hunting quota was reduced and excluded lions due the ban imposed on lion hunting  Income generated through commercial use of quota continued but dropped to 150,000.00.  Escalating operational costs of running the Trust resulted in staff retrenchments.  Resignation of one of the Project Assistants responsible for bookkeeping and financial management.  Amendment of the Sub-lease Agreement between NKXT and SBB, which substantially reduced the projected income, employment opportunities and social development support.</p>

Source: Trust project document phase 2.

## 2 Current situation

**NKXT is involved in a JVA with Safari Botswana Bound (SBB), which runs a hunting safari company. The photographic safari operation has been halted due to marketing difficulties.**

NKXT is at a crossroads as revenues from SBB have been substantially reduced and are expected to dwindle further due to the return of the photographic safari operation to the Trust. The total income for SBB declined from P213, 350.00 at the time of signing the agreement to P152, 000.00. Payments to the Trust have also not been timely adversely affecting the effective running of the trust. Employment has also been substantially reduced as only three Community Escort Guides are employed; one meat attendant and one Programme Assistant based at the NKXT office. The projected employment level of 45 with SBB at the signing of the sub-lease agreement was never achieved.

The infrastructure developed by the trust includes campsites in the three communities, a tannery in Ncaang and craft shop in Ngwatle. The Campsites are not advertised and marketed and do not bring any significant income to the Trust. The craft shop and tannery do no work.

The activities of the Trust are currently restricted to meat collection and sale and a few campers at one of the campsites. Board meetings have not been held as required and members of the three communities have not been informed about the current challenges faced by the Trust. The financial management systems of the CBO collapsed with the resignation of the Programme Assistant. Management functions are not being carried out and apart from the Tsabong based Community Liaison office, there are no support or advisory services being provided to the Trust. TL has since the end of the contract of the NRM Advisor provided very limited support to the Trust largely because of the lack of funding and capacity.

Community members are aggrieved about the current state of affairs and sentiments are that the project was having a positive effect on people's livelihoods at its inception but now its performance has been disappointing.

### 3 The socio-economic and environmental impacts of the project

KD 1 is a remote area with limited wildlife resources and veldproducts. However, it has the advantage of proximity to the Transboundary Gemsbok Park. The costs of operations are high, both for the Trust and the safari company. Inputs are obtained from far by sand road; charters directly fly in hunting clients from Johannesburg to airstrip next to the entrance gate to the Gemsbok Transboundary Park.

KD1 has a small population spread over three settlements (Ukhwi, Ncaang and Ngwatle), one of which is not officially recognised (Ngwatle). In 2002, the trust had a registered membership of 771, of which 376 (48.8%) were women (Table 1).

Table 1: Number of groups and members by settlement (February 2002)

	Ukhwi	Ncaang	Ngwatle	Total
Groups	10	14	10	34
Members	318	229	224	771
% of women	42.5%	54.6%	51.8%	48.8%

Source: Trust files.

The following services exist in the settlements:

- Ukhwi: reticulated water with own borehole, tribal authority, kgotla, primary school and clinic, co-operative shop;
- Ncaang: primary school, kgotla and cooperative shop. A clinic will soon be built, and a reticulated water supply will soon be established (the 40 km pipeline to Hunhukwe is ready); and
- Ngwatle: health post and kgotla. Ngwatle has few facilities, as it is not recognised as a settlement.

Most people are very poor, and traditionally depended on hunting and gathering. Most received Special Game Licenses prior to the introduction of Community Licenses and CBNRM.

The Trust has a JVA with Safari Botswana Bounds (SBB), which received exclusive rights for commercial hunting and photo safaris. The agreement lists the responsibilities of each party, and included the following community benefits:

- Financial benefits from land rights, hunting quota and photo safari rights;
- Employment for residents, initially estimated at 45; and
- A social responsibility programme (SRP), which included provision of clothing to villages, assistance with funerals, sports day, scholarships and assistance with subsistence hunting (transport, rifles and hunter).

The agreement offers the Trust opportunities to sell crafts and organise cultural events.

The agreement has been adjusted once, and currently further amendments are being negotiated. SBB handed back the photo safari rights in 2002, and stopped the annual payment of P 50 000. In addition, SBB has proposed to halt the community responsibility programme. SBB operates one camp at Kaa, where 12 community members have been employed. SBB has a couple in charge of the camp as well as a professional hunter. SBB argues that its operations are marginal, and the company may withdraw entirely from KD1. This leads to uncertainty about the remaining revenues, and makes planning for the Trust difficult.

The KD1 Land Use and Management Plan envisaged a wide range of activities, including livestock (within 20 km of the settlements), commercial use of veldproducts, and development of campsites, crafts industry and the selling of live wildlife animals. Few of these community plans have materialised to date.

Events that have adversely influenced the Trust include:

- The ban on lion hunting, which was by far the most valuable species;
- The dramatic decrease in hunting quota;
- Inability to develop photo safari activities; and
- Withdrawal of local advisory support;

After a promising start in 2001, the local socio-economic benefits have decreased substantially. The main local benefits are:

- Employment generation by the Trust and SBB. Trust employment peaked at ten in 2001, and dropped to five at present. SBB employs twelve local people, compared to 45 jobs mentioned in the lease agreement. The positive impact is therefore much smaller than expected and part of it is not sustainable;
- Revenue generation. SBB payments were highest in 2000 (P 283 000), but dropped to P 150 000 in 2002 and are expected to decrease further due to the return of photo safari rights, lower hunting quota and animal prices. The Trust has been unable to generate much own income, e.g. from camping sites, selling of crafts and meat, etc. For example, in the year 2000/01 such income was P 12 000 compared with a budgeted income of P 80 000. Donor grants were high during the formation stage of the Trust (e.g. SNV support and EU), but have dropped substantially in recent years;
- Other small benefits such as funeral assistance, sports days, and assistance with subsistence hunting.

The Trust has its offices in Ukhwi (4 rooms, 1 computer, 2 vehicles<sup>23</sup>, a guest house, and a radio system).

With donor support, the Trust has established two sites for veldproduct, three campsites (one in each settlement), a craft shop in Ngwatle and a tannery in Ncaang. The veldproducts plots and the craft shop and tannery are no longer operational. The tannery is not yet operational, and it is essentially a building only. The campsites are well equipped, but attract few tourists due to the remoteness and poor marketing. Records for Ngwatle (allegedly the most popular one) show that the average monthly revenue was P 182 in the period October 2000-April 2003. The following fees are charged:

- Camping: P 15/ night for adults and P5 for children (under 12 years);
- Vehicle: P 50 for the period of stay and P 25 for a trailer;
- Services: P 60/day for field guide and P 25/day for a cook.

Due to the dire financial situation, the Trust is unable to invest in projects, and has cut recurrent expenditures by retrenchments and suspension of sitting allowances.

Records and Focus Group Discussions in the three settlements show that individual households have benefited very little from the Trust. The Trust once (2000) made cash payment to all registered residents (P40/person). Otherwise, household benefits are restricted to those who were employed, rendered services to the Trust or were Board members. In fact, most households are worse off under the CBNRM system because the direct benefits from wildlife are much less than those of Special Game Licenses. The community subsistence quotas have decreased in order to generate more income for the Trust<sup>24</sup> and Trust meat is being sold. Meat is sold at P 10/kg, mostly to civil servants and visitors to the settlements as many households cannot afford to

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<sup>23</sup> One is broken down, and the other one urgently needs maintenance.

<sup>24</sup> The Deeds of Trust specify that Trust expenditures should not exceed half of the Trust revenues. However, an escape clause permits the Trust to sell more quotas to the safari operator if Trust expenditures are higher. Consequently, the Trust can sell most of its quota to SBB.

buy the meat. Skins are retained by SBB, and are not available for the local craft industry, depriving residents of a key input for a vital livelihood activity.

The decline in quotas and the growing SBB-share of quotas suggest that most of the benefits of the CBNRM project accrue to SBB; little is left for subsistence hunting. This makes it difficult for the local population to understand why their benefits from SBB are decreasing.

Table 2 shows the trend in quota since 1998. For most plain game species, quotas have decreased substantially. The losses were heaviest for gemsbok, springbok, duiker, steenbok and ostriches. Small quotas for hyena, jackal and wildebeest were introduced in 2002. A total of 342 quotas for animals were lost in three years, virtually all of them at the expense of the community! The community lost 337 animals with SBB losing 14 and the community losing 323!

Table 2: Community quota KD 1

	1998	2001	2002	2003
duiker	170	100	30	26
eland		3	3	2
gemsbok	120	100	50	26
hartebeest		3	4	4
Kudu	20	20	10	5
leopard	2	2	2	2
Lion		2	0	0
Ostrich	87	87	70	48
Springbok	125	116	50	34
steenbok	200	100	40	38
hyena	0	0	2	1
jackal	0	0	3	3
Wildebeest	0	0	2	2

Note: the lion ban was imposed before lions could be hunted.

From a short-term livelihood perspective, it appears better to reserve the remaining community quota entirely for subsistence hunting. However, communities do not favour a return to Special Game Licenses as they see potential development benefits in the JVA that such licenses do not offer.

The decrease in community benefits from SBB and the current problems to run the Trust properly have frustrated the Trust as well as SBB. The communities are poorly informed about the Trust operations and settlement committees no longer meet regularly. In addition, community members feel that SBB does not meet its commitments (e.g. radios, assistance with hunting, scholarships).

### 3.1 Environmental impacts

The fieldwork showed that wildlife diversity and numbers are much smaller than in Ngamiland. Sited animals included hartebeest, duiker, ostriches and a jackal, mostly in small groups. The lower wildlife density and variety raises the question about the viability of CBNRM projects in the Kgalagadi, particularly when quotas are being reduced.

The communities hold the opinion that most wildlife resources are increasing. Therefore, they query the reduction in quota as determined by DWNP. Residents were remarkably honest in admitting that they had contributed to the decrease in wildlife numbers in the past. In their view, poaching in KD1 has decreased, but still occurs on a small scale. Data provided by DWNP-Hukunsi recorded one case of poaching inside KD1. Poaching in KD2 is much more common, and demonstrates that CBNRM in itself is not sufficient to eradicate poaching. The decrease in

quota available to community members in KD1 increases the risks of resumption of poaching in this area.

It is obvious that KD1 and 2 indirectly benefit from the proximity to the Gemsbok Transfrontier Park, where wildlife resources were protected and from where they gradually spread back into WMAs. The Park acts as a resource pool that has assisted wildlife numbers to recover in surrounding communal areas such as KD1.

The lease agreement contains clauses that minimise environmental damage such as restricted off-road driving and no spot light hunting. While the escort guides monitor and record wildlife resources, this information is not used for the quota or for active resource management.

The livestock numbers, particularly in Ukhwi<sup>25</sup> are relatively high, and may cause conflicts with wildlife and tourism if not properly managed.

#### **4 Organisational analysis**

Box 1 at the end of this case study highlights some of the strengths, weakness, opportunities and threats (SWOT) of the NKXT. It should be noted that the strengths identified are based more on the past when the Trust was performing relatively well and that at present, community members generally hold the opinion that the trust does not have any strength.

The NKXT governance structure at the individual settlement level is based on family groups, which are the basic unit of co-operation and decision-making. One male and one female member of the family groups represent each family group on the Settlement Committee. Four people from each Settlement Committee represent their settlement on the Board of Trustees. The Board of Trustees plays an administrative role and is responsible for recruiting and overseeing staff employed by the Trust. In accordance with the Constitution, the General Membership which involves all family groups in each of the three settlements are responsible for setting policy, decision making related to the use of trust funds and property. Family groups also have decision-making powers over the use of natural resources and the revenues generated from trust activities. The Settlement Committees provide a vital link between the Board and the family groups and are charged with ensuring equitable benefit sharing amongst the family groups. The Board thus implements the decisions made by the Trust.

The Board also has ex-officio members who are drawn from the local authority structure in the three KD1villages, Councillors of the three settlements and representatives from the Kgalagadi District Administration, the Kgalagadi Land Board, DWNP, the Remote Area Dweller Programme (RADP), Social and Community Development and the Ministry of Agriculture. Ex-officio members act as advisors and provide NKXT with the much-needed linkages with the government policy framework.

#### **5 Policy environment**

**Through its membership to BOCOBONET, NKXT has actively participated in the CBNRM policy issues. The CBO was actively involved in the lobbying activities that were carried out on the issue of the controversial saving-gram and the ban imposed on the hunting of lions and other wild cats.**

#### **6 Issues and options**

The following issues emerge from the NKXT case study:

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<sup>25</sup> Ukhwi has a substantial number of cattle and goats; Ncaang has as yet only goats and Ngwattle only has donkeys.

- The significant support during the establishment of the Trust was insufficient to ensure proper implementation of Trust plans;
- The impact of NGO support have been disappointing;
- The benefits have been significantly reduced and lower than expected, and certainly community expectations have not been met;
- The dramatic decline in the quotas have mostly affected community livelihoods through a reduction in subsistence hunting, and increased vulnerability of households;
- The veld-products domestication trials have failed because they were based on inadequate research and analysis;
- The withdrawal of support and advisory services has plunged the CBO into management and financial crises;
- The CBNRM activities have yielded few direct benefits to households. Most revenues were used for Trust operations;
- The community projects are either not operational or perform below expectations;
- The Board is not in control of the CBO and the implementation of its role is characterised by lack of communication and power struggles between Ukhwi and Ncaang based office bearers; and
- Assets such as vehicles are not properly managed.

The Trust is unlikely to pull through without intensified advice and support. More assistance is needed from government and NGOs, but this requires funding. The process of the quota determination needs to be seriously reconsidered. Thresholds levels of quotas need to be established below which commercial hunting is not viable. The current quotas are probably too low to sustain both commercial and subsistence hunting. The communities would currently be better off by using the quotas for subsistence hunting. This would, however, shatter the dream of establishing development projects in their settlements.

*Box 1: SWOT analysis of NKXT*

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
<p>Revenues generated through the JVP have helped establish the Trust infrastructure Full-time and temporary employment opportunities have been generated through SBB and the NKXT. During the good years of NKXT, benefits such as the cash pay out communities, meat supplies, financial assistance during funerals, blanket and clothing supplies, support to cultural groups and the soccer teams were said to have had a positive effect in the three communities. Poaching inside KD1 was said to have declined as a result of the anti-poaching activities of the community escort guides. NKXT has successfully built up physical assets to include offices, a guesthouse, campsites, a craft shop and tanneries. The existence of radios in Ukhwi and Ncaang has eased communication between the two villages The organisational structure of NKXT is innovative and has the potential to promote active community participation.</p>	<p>The Board is weak and is not executing its role effectively. Communication between the Board and the Settlement committees and family groups has weakened. Power struggles, political affiliation and ethnic differences amongst Board members negatively affects the implementation of Board roles NKXT does not have a long-term plan to guide the development of the Trust NKXT does not have money at the moment to develop the Trust and has significant debts. The Community Hunting quota has been halted and households now have to purchase meat. Community members have lost access to skins that are required for craft production. Employment through SBB and NKXT has over the years been reduced significantly. The tourism facilities established by the trust are not operational and therefore not meeting their objectives of generating additional sources of income and employment for KD1 communities. Veld products domestication trials have failed. Training interventions during the early days of the project have had limited impact on the capacity and overall functioning of the Trust (Board)</p>
OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
<p>The pristine Kgalagadi environment</p>	<p>Due to the reduced revenues NKXT is threatened with collapse unless they can quickly raise donor funding. Limited wildlife numbers and lack of species variety The decline in the quota threatens the sustainability of the Trust Poaching could become an issue given that the community sells its entire quota to SBB Inadequate support mechanisms to assist the Trust manage its affairs. Loss of income due to the lack of viability of the Photographic</p>



## D.5: Private company HCH<sup>26</sup>

### 1 Introduction

HCH is a Botswana company that won the tender for NG34 in 2001, which is the CBNRM area for Sankuyo Tshwaragano Management Trust (STMT). HCH is the product of the wish of Africa Safari Zimbabwe<sup>27</sup> to expand operations from Zimbabwe into southern Africa, starting with Botswana and Zambia. As at the time no private concession areas were available in Botswana, HCH made a successful bid for NG 34, and another unsuccessful bid for NG 32; the activities in Zambia have not yet started. HCH is interested in other CBNRM areas, but it prefers concession areas, as they are easier to work in and more profitable. HCH established three holding companies, one for each camp (Africa Safaris Botswana Pty.Ltd, Mala Pula Botswana Pty.Ltd and Starling Camp Pty.Ltd).

**The awarding of the tender to HCH was controversial. While HCH's bid was substantially higher than that of its competitors, members of the Trust initially selected Johan Calitz Safaris. Subsequent litigation went up to the Land Tribunal, which ruled in favour of the Land Board and HCH.**

**The legal wrangle delayed the start of the operations by almost a year. The memorandum of agreement between HCH and STMT was signed in late 2001. The lease runs from March 2002 to February 2007.**

### 2 Current situation

**As per memorandum of agreement, HCH operates two hunting camps and a photo safari camp. HCH has invested between P 400 to 500 000 in Starling camp (photo safari). HCH estimates the value of its assets in NG 34 at around P 850 000; the company has three vehicles, one in each camp.**

**NG 34 has a potential of 278 hunting days, which is just over ten percent of the capacity of Africa Safari Zimbabwe. HCH has a small clientele, 60% from the USA and 40% from Europe. Roughly 60% are 'repeat'-clients, and 80% of the clients are being attracted through overseas sales agents, personal approaches and 'word-of-mouth'. HCH has a few female hunting clients.**

**The 2002 season ran well for both HCH and STMT; initial misunderstandings about the reduced quotas and subsequent reduction in land rentals were successfully resolved through negotiations. The mutually agreed mechanism apparently provides for a lower land rental if the quotas are decreased, and an increased rental if the quotas increase.**

HCH has run into financial problems in 2003. This is in part due to the adverse global market conditions, the hunting specialisation of the company and to the appreciation of the Pula against the US\$. HCH gets paid in US\$, but most of its expenditures are in Pulas and other southern African currencies<sup>28</sup>. The depreciation of the US\$ thus affects its profitability.

HCH seeks to renegotiate the quota fees referring to changes in the business conditions that occurred after the technical proposal was accepted. At the time of writing, HCH had tried to negotiate with STMT for a reduction in quota fees, but after meeting with the Technical Advisory

<sup>26</sup> This report is based on interviews with HCH directors as well as on information kindly provided by HCH. HCH commented on an earlier draft, and their comments have been taken into account.

<sup>27</sup> Africa Safari Zimbabwe has (partly) different directors and shareholders from HCH. The Zimbabwe company operates 15 camps in Zimbabwe with a total estimated potential of 2000 to 2500 hunting days.

<sup>28</sup> The other private company pays communities in US\$, and hence is not affected by exchange rate fluctuations.

Committee, the STMT Board decided not to accept the company's proposal. HCH mentioned that it would 'try again' by documenting its case better and by referring to a clause in the joint venture agreement that allows for such adjustments if the business climate changes.

### 3 The socio-economic and environmental impacts of the CBNRM project

#### 3.1 Socio-economic impacts

**The Sankuyo Tshwaragano Management Trust is the second oldest CBO in Botswana, and one of the more successful ones. The most important socio-economic impacts of HCH include:**

- **Foreign investment and growing competition for local private operators;**
- **A huge increase in Trust income; and**
- **Growing mistrust between the joint venture agreement partners.**

**With its links to Safari Zimbabwe, HCH has probably increased foreign investments, in this case from Zimbabwe. As a new company, HCH has increased competition for existing domestic operators. This is positive in a market dominated by a relatively small number of often inter-linked operators.**

**Growing competition is expected to lead to higher revenues to communities. This seems to be confirmed by the rapid increase in STMT revenues. Although the problems with awarding the tender initially led to lower Trust revenues, the financial benefits are now much higher than before; however though the revenues are lower than those offered in the tender bid due to quota reductions and corresponding adjustment in land rentals.**

**The company claims to make losses in Botswana in all three camps, but particularly in the photographic safaris. Cost data that were provided by HCH for the year 2002 showed that community benefits were the highest expenditure category of HCH. Payments to the community and wages to employees from Sankuyo accounted for 40.9% of total expenditures. The distribution of all expenditures is as follows:**

• community payments:	40.9%	
• government payment:	13.4%	
• services and inputs	6.9%	
• management remuneration	6.8%	
• capital payment (capital service + investments)		32.0%

**Based, on the provided 2002 figures, HCH was loss making: the revenues did not even cover the recurrent expenditures. It should be noted that it is impossible to verify the accuracy of the data. Initial losses are to be expected in a new market, but obviously the company has to improve its financial performance and start to make profit in the near future. It is important to consider the trend in time to assess the viability and future of the commercial operation. The data did not allow a detailed analysis of the poor financial performance, but some will argue that it is due to overbidding while the company itself blames the market down turn.**

**The company employs the same number of people as the previous private sector operator (56). While the initial HCH employment bid was lower (51 jobs), the company agreed to match the 56 jobs offered by other contenders. HCH estimates that they could run the three camps with half the number of people; hence there is serious over-employment. Surprisingly, HCH does not hire the employees themselves, but rely on STMT for hiring the community members for HCH. HCH claims that it has problems firing staff directly, and this is one of the reasons for over-employment. Sixty percent of the Sankuyo employees are performing well according to HCH, as they have the necessary experience; others have**

**a very low productivity. HCH has introduced a disciplinary code for workers in an attempt to improve discipline and performance. Apart from their salary, employees receive game meat and rations to the workers valued at P 300 per month. HCH also supports the local soccer team.**

HCH has done some training, but efforts did not work out well. According to the company, one chief member of staff refused to go for training, and the Labour Department refused a work permit for a Zimbabwean trainer of skinners and trackers. Another problem with training is that most employees do not sufficient English. Cooks have received training.

According to HCH and STMT, the relationship soured in 2003. The private operator attributes this to the unwillingness of the community to discuss the impact of the Pula appreciation and the downturn in the global tourism market on the profitability of HCH. During the fieldwork, the community decided against renegotiating the lease value. The community blames HCH for broken promises, particularly regarding community benefits. This is denied by HCH, but it is indicative of the sour relationships between the private company and the CBO.

At the national level, HCH generates over P 3 million in foreign exchange (US\$), and makes a modest contribution to employment creation and support services in Ngamiland. In order to reduce costs, HCH sources inputs from Zimbabwe, where these are cheaper, hence limiting the benefits to the Ngamiland economy. Royalty payments to the Council are around P 50 000 per annum.

In conclusion, after a good start HCH has landed into financial difficulties as well as difficulties with the community, as they have been unable to resolve their differences in 2003. The solutions found in 2002 demonstrate that negotiation in good faith may overcome such problems.

It is possible that the tender offer of HCH was too optimistic due to the desire to enter the Botswana market and underestimation of market volatility. HCH claims to have lost money in 2002, and was considering closing the photo-safari camp. During fieldwork, HCH mentioned that a new management plan for Starling camp was expected to offer relief. It is difficult to see how HCH can continue to invest under current conditions and halfway the JVA, putting the targets of the JVA in jeopardy.

### **3.2 Environmental impacts**

**According to HCH, poaching occurs but is minimal and is not alarming. In 2003, one poached elephant was found in NG 34 by HCH and in 2002 three buffaloes. The decrease in poaching is attributed to CBNRM and anti-poaching control. The hunting camps are equipped with running water, ablution facilities and wastewater discharge, reducing the risks of water and waste pollution.**

HCH has several ideas for more active environmental management, not taken up by the CBO. For example, the company has proposed to the Trust to drill several water points to retain more wildlife in the area<sup>29</sup>. Moreover, it has twice discussed draft DWNP hunting quota with STMT and drafted a detailed response with reasons for proposed changes. The letter drafted by HCH was, however, never submitted to DWNP by STMT.

**HCH also has ideas about the establishment of a community tannery and cannery to create more employment and to ensure meat availability throughout the year. The company mentioned that it could mobilise international funding for these projects as well as for the water points. These ideas have not been pursued, however, due to the strained relationship with the community.**

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<sup>29</sup> Ecosupport Services carried out an EIA for HCH.

#### 4 Organisational analysis

The company and community currently hold different perspectives about their roles and future in the JVA. The community strongly feels that HCH put in a high offer to win the bid, and is now trying to squeeze them in order to increase their profitability<sup>30</sup>. On the other hand, HCH feels that its genuine efforts to assist the community are not appreciated, and that the community only wants to take, and not give anything. HCH feels that the initial divisions within the community about the awarding of the tender have persisted, and do not offer them a fair chance to prove themselves.

Misunderstandings may be based on fundamentally different strategies and attitudes. STMT realises that it currently needs collaboration with a private operator, but intends to expand their activities and run the concession in future entirely by itself. In contrast, HCH sees NG 34 as a stepping stone for further expansion, and seeks much closer collaboration with STMT, for example through a true joint venture partnership, where both parties are exposed to commercial risks (not only the private sector partner as currently). HCH argues that STMT does not understand business. STMT argues that HCH does not really understand community needs. While the private operator wants to get on with business, the Trust spends a lot of time on meetings and consensus building, which is considered unproductive by HCH.

The following are the perceived strengths of HCH: hunting expertise and skills; marketing expertise and infrastructure; and substantial technical know-how in the running of camps, particularly in Zimbabwe. Perceived weaknesses include poor liaison with the local community, partly due to language problems and the absence of a community liaison officer (camp staff is used for this purpose); limited experience with photo safari operations, leading to problems with Starling Camp; and the fact that some people may perceive HCH as a foreign company.

The major threat to HCH and the memorandum of understanding is the mistrust of the community and the lack of cooperation. HCH expansion into Botswana offered the country the opportunity to bring in additional expertise from Zimbabwe and to increase competition for tendering of resource rights.

HCH feels that the CBNRM support structures such as TAC do not sufficiently appreciate the problems of private sector operators, and sometimes offers wrong advice to the community.

#### 5 Policy context

**HCH favours the direct involvement of communities in the memorandum of understanding. Involvement of Councils such as in Zimbabwe would reduce the community benefits. It argues that communities should pass more benefits directly on to the households so that these could appreciate the CBNRM projects. As found in the STMT case study, the community appears to be happy with the benefit distribution in STMT despite the small direct benefits to households.**

STMT has become 'famous' with respect to the role of communities in the selection of private sector operators. While the majority of the people preferred a substantially lower bid, the Land Board and ultimately the CBO-Board decided to award the tender to the highest bidder. Questions have been asked about the capability and rationale of communities to select the 'best' bid.

#### 6 Lessons

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<sup>30</sup> In their comment on the draft text of the case study, HCH denies this, and argues that they would not have ventured into the joint venture agreement if they had felt that they could not make a profit at that time.

**The award procedures may have lasting impacts on the CBNRM performance. The sour start of the HCH-STMT cooperation seems to haunt HCH, especially since the company has made several attempts to decrease the community benefits. It can easily be argued that the initial bid was too high as some asserted at that time.**

Market changes during the duration of the lease period, and so do business risks. It is important to recognise such risks in the memo of understandings, and to design procedures for their handling. They can be handled in at least three ways:

- Making a lower bid with a risk/ uncertainty margin. If nothing happens, the benefits of this margin usually accrue to the private enterprise;
- Renegotiation of the community benefits. This implies a degree of risk sharing, and may have positive and negative financial consequences for communities;
- Financial transfers could be made in US\$, hence exposing both parties to the risks of exchange rate fluctuations.

Before a JVA is drawn up, issues around employment, job descriptions and employment procedures must be carefully thought through.

**Due to the different economic fundamentals of hunting and photo safari operations, it may be better for communities to work with two joint venture companies, one for hunting and one for photo safaris. The photo safari operation JVA should cover a longer period in order to recover the high investment costs.**

Misunderstanding and mistrust can easily creep into CBNRM deals between communities and private operators, but they are damaging and unproductive. Several good ideas of HCH have not been taken up. The communities have become passive, and dis-interested in the creative development of the joint venture agreement. For example STMT refused several offers of HCH assistance, including identifying a manager for Santawani Lodge and to build and run Santawani Lodge for ten years after which the Lodge would be handed over to the community. This attitude does not serve the interest of either party, or the interest of Botswana.

**The relationship between HCH and STMT raises doubts about the ability of the current CBNRM projects and support network to establish successful JVAs. Possible alternatives include straight sub-lease agreement such as between Rann Safaris and CECT and true partnerships, in which both partners share losses and gains.**

The strategies and attitudes of partners need to be documented and openly discussed in order to identify common ground, and opportunities for collaboration. The proposed 'Community Development and Participation and Conservation Statement' could be valuable. A frank assessment of the CBO's capabilities and need for external assistance from a private operator, NGOs and government is equally important.

## **Appendix D.6: Private company Rann Hunting Safaris<sup>31</sup>**

### **1 Introduction and history**

Two Rann brothers established Rann Hunting Safaris (RHS) in 1998. The relatively young company only operates in Botswana at the moment both in private concession and CBNRM areas. The company first acquired two prime private concession areas in Chobe in 1994; in 1995 it also acquired NG 30. RHS bought Safari South in 1998 and by this deal got the rights to NG 29 and CH 3. The names Rann Safaris and Safari South have been retained for licensing purposes, land lease agreements, etc. The joint venture agreement with CECT is the only CBNRM involvement of RHS.

RHS considers NG 29 and NG 30 among the best concession areas in the country. They tendered for CH 1 and 2 mainly because of the opportunity to add more elephants to their hunting safaris. CH 1 and 2 offer 40% of the company's elephant quota and 30% of the buffalo quota. Initially the lease was one year, and annually renewed. In 1999, a five-year lease was signed.

RHS focuses mainly on hunting safaris, and only does a few photographic safaris. The safari hunting operations are kept small on purpose, and RHS has a campsite on Buffalo Ridge in the Chobe Enclave. The camp has six tents, a chalet, kitchen etc. and an airstrip with an estimated total investment of US\$ 250 000.

The hunting clients come mainly from America and Europe (50% each). Most are 'repeat' clients (70%), and around 30% are women. RHS has a capacity of about 2000 hunting days per season with approximately 300 clients per year. The CBNRM areas represent around 400 hunting days or 20% of RHS's total hunting days.

### **2 Socio-economic and environmental impacts**

The joint venture agreement offers three benefits to the communities. Firstly, CECT benefits from direct payments by RHS (lease fee of Pula 250 000 with an annual escalation of 10% and quota fees for elephants of US\$ 120 000). CECT gets paid in US\$, and therefore no exchange rate problems arise. Secondly, RHS creates employment for eight local people in the only camp that RHS operates in CH 1 and 2. In addition, two escort guides are used per hunt with a maximum employment of eight. RHS can hire and fire, but has a low turn over of staff; training is confined to on-the-job training. Thirdly, an estimated 20 tonnes of game meat is divided between the CECT communities.

The operations in CH 1 and 2 are profitable for RHS. It was pointed out, however, that profits (and community benefits) were adversely affected by the ban on lion hunting, as the company had sold the expected lion quotas until the year 2008 and had to refund clients.

RHS considers community development to be the responsibility of government, and therefore prefers its current type of lease agreement that is restricted to cash and employment benefits for communities, and does not have a detailed community development programme.

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<sup>31</sup> This brief report is mostly based on an interview with Steven Rann. The draft text was sent to RHS for comments, but no comments were received. CECT was not studied in detail, and therefore this report highlights the private sector perspective on the RHS/CECT JVA.

RHS pays 4% royalty to the Council estimated at around US\$ 40 000 p.a. This suggests that the gross revenues of RHS from CH 1 and 2 are around US 10 million per annum.

There is uncertainty about the extent of photo safari activities. Mr. Rann informed us that the company was only involved in hunting, while the Proceedings of the Second National CBNRM conference mention that a 16-bedded photographic camp is being established in partnership with Landela Botswana. It is not clear whether this has actually happened.

RHS does not believe that there are any major environmental issues. Poaching is very low, and the areas have plenty of wildlife. It actively exploits the differences in wildlife species and abundance between its concession and CBNRM areas, and therefore maximises the comparative advantages of each area. This is essential for retaining 'repeat' clients.

### **3 Organisational analysis**

The Rann family and an office manager, do the day-to-day running of the company (head office is in Maun), keeping management staff to a minimum and allowing RHS to operate optimally and profitably. In the field they have seven professional hunters and about 200 Botswana field staff.

**In terms of their relationship with the Chobe Enclave Community Trust (CECT) CBO, Mr. Rann says,**

**“We have been very lucky dealing with the Enclave. This was the first CBO area in Botswana and USAID<sup>32</sup> (NRMP) had prepared the community well, giving them a sense of direction and purpose”.**

**They feel they have a 'good business relationship' with CECT. RHS leases the land and concession rights from CECT and gains access to the hunting quota. In return, CECT receives cash for land rental and the quota rights. Rann Safaris provides nothing else and CECT asks for nothing else. This arrangement suits RHS: “we are happy and the community is happy”.**

**There are very few conflicts or problems. Mr. Rann feels the CECT Board is very professional. Rann Safaris as the private sector operator has no input into the running of the Board or the affairs of the CECT. The Board and the CECT perform well, according to RHS, because of several factors:**

- **NRMP-time and money spent on building up CECT as the first CBO;**
- **The Enclave communities have a more developed sense of business than some other communities in Botswana; and**
- **The Chair and Secretary of the Board have remained on the Board since 1994; this has created stability and continuity and allowed the building up of skills and expertise.**

**A further advantage of CECT may have been that the initial expectations about the value of hunting were low, and therefore more realistic than they are at present.**

**Rann Safaris and CECT have one formal meeting each year at the end of the year (ending with a 'big party') to review progress and to address any concerns. Otherwise if Rann management staff is in the area on occasion, they will meet with CECT members informally. At the formal annual meetings there is a great deal of community involvement (“people speak their minds”).**

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<sup>32</sup>USAID put in a development grant of US\$ 160 000 according to RHS.

#### 4. Policy and regulations

RHS believes that the CBNRM approach is sound, but that it does not get sufficient attention and time from government. It seems to be ambiguous about the amount of wildlife money that accrues to communities, and the commitment to the success of the programme may not be strong enough. A CBNRM policy is much needed and would be welcomed by RHS. While CBOs could function as business entities, government needs to develop this potential, for example through the CBNRM policy. There is an urgent need to market CBNRM, and this should be part of a long-term plan such as a covenant. Strengthening business skills and increasing the direct benefits to community members are other areas, where CBNRM needs to be improved.

Botswana's strengths include the liberal foreign exchange regime, wildlife resources<sup>33</sup>, the wilderness experience and the free press. Perceived weakness comprise the lack of direction and long-term vision for CBNRM and the distance to Gaborone, making it more difficult to lobby effectively.

#### 6 Key issues and options

Key Issues	Options
Mr. Rann feels that CBNRM is a good concept as long as it is run on a professional, straight business basis. A private sector safari company should not be expected to provide social support or community development input. This is not the strength of safari operators. Community development and training should be the responsibility of government.	Preparation of a long-term CBNRM plan to clarify the roles of stakeholders and ensure commitment
Photo safari potential and development. It appears that this potential is being under-utilised, and future development is unsure.	
One million and more Pula per year provided to the community but this can be a problem when the CBO and community do not know what to do with this kind of money.	More direct benefits to families

#### Box 1: SWOT Analysis of RHS

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
<b>As a safari company:</b> Believe they have the best hunting concession areas in Botswana (NG 29 & NG30) Keeping management staff to a minimum allows them to operate optimally and profitably. Employ about 200 Batswana field staff.	
<b>Views on CECT:</b> CECT was initially well prepared and supported by NRMP. The people of the Enclave have a more developed sense of business than some other communities in Botswana. Consistency and continuity of the Board (same Chair and Secretary have remained on the Board since 1994).	One million plus Pula per year provided to the community but this can be a problem when the CBO and community do not know what to do with this kind of money.
<b>Relationship with CECT:</b> Have a very professional relationship; "a good business relationship". Few conflicts or problems. Very clear-cut relationship based effectively on a sub-lease agreement.	
OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
Lease for CH 1 & 2 up at end of 2003. Hope they will get the lease extension for another five years.	Lease for CH 1 & 2 up at end of 2003. CECT might be "seduced" by other offers that include social and community support rather than a straight business relationship.

<sup>33</sup> Botswana is considered to be the best country in Africa for hunting buffalo and elephant.



## D.7: NGO Thusano Lefatsheng<sup>34</sup>

### 1 Introduction and brief history

Thusano Lefatsheng (TL) was established in 1984 as a non-profit making trust facilitating development projects and marketing veld products for the benefit of rural communities in the Kgalagadi, Kweneng, and Southern Districts. TL's founding objectives were stated as:

- Research and development of indigenous dryland biodiversity (crops/plants) as an alternative source of food and income to farmers;
- Production, processing and marketing of wild and cultivated medicinal, aromatic and edible plants;
- Provision of extension support and training to the target group in all aspects identified in the second objective; and
- Establishment of workshops, factories, retail outlets, or commercial endeavours, where appropriate in support of the objectives of the trust.

**At its inception, TL received substantial financial support from HIVOS. The HIVOS support aimed at assisting TL implement its veld products development initiatives. These initiatives sought to improve the income-earning opportunities of marginalised minorities such as the San through the sustainable utilisation of veld products, thereby providing alternatives to agriculture. Within this overarching goal, TL sought to:**

- Identify, purchase and market various veld products with a market potential;
- Promote research on cultivation of, and product development from these plants;
- Encourage sustainable exploitation of veld products; and
- Develop community structures that will in turn form the basis for community based management of the indigenous resources

TL initially had three main departments: 1. Research and Development; 2. The Commercial Department responsible for commercialisation and marketing of veld products, and 3. The Extension Department, which had as a core function mobilising communities to utilise veld products. TL's staff peaked at the number of 30 with key areas of expertise spanning agricultural research and extension.

TL developed several products that were tested on the market, namely, grapple (marketed raw and as granules and tablets) and natural teas *Lippia Javanica (mosokojane)*; *Lippia Scaberrinia (mosukudu)* and *Artamsia Afra (lengana)*. Other TL activities included community mobilisation for sustainable natural resource use, awareness building on sustainable harvesting methods, project identification and development and community capacity building. Through its programmes, TL contributed to income generation through purchasing veld products from rural harvesters and strengthened community capacity in sustainable harvesting methods. TL played a pioneering role in terms of generating new knowledge on the sustainable use of veld products. The internal research capacity of TL was never systematically developed as it was mostly out-sourced and funding for research was difficult given donor perceptions that it yielded intangible benefits.

**In 1998 TL moved its headquarters from Gaborone to Thusego where it has developed office space, a laboratory, a green house and a small manufacturing warehouse unit. In September 2001 TL's funding contract with HIVOS came to an end and largely because the organisation had not developed a robust sustainability plan, it was plunged into a financial crisis. This coupled with weak management and financial controls led to staff retrenchment and closure of the research and extension departments.**

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<sup>34</sup> This case study is based on interviews with TL staff, documents made available by TL and other literature identified by the review team. Comments of TL on an earlier draft text have been taken into account.

## 2 Current situation

Following the 2001 restructuring TL currently works in two main areas, namely the Commercial Department and Community-Based Projects Development Programme.

The Commercial department has the key role of processing and marketing veld products purchased from people in the communities where TL is active. Sustainable utilisation of veld products remains an important objective of TL and awareness building and training on sustainable harvesting are important components of TL's interventions at community level. Although grapple purchases have been reduced, TL was able to undertake some purchasing during the 2002/2003 grapple-harvesting season. At the time of the review, TL reported that it was stockpiling grapple due to marketing constraints.

TL's Projects Development Programme, aims at assisting rural communities through their institutions (trusts, co-operatives) identify, develop and implement projects that improve income generation and environmental conservation.

The current *aim* of TL is to assist people in remote areas to generate alternative sources of income and hence to improve their standard of living and through this their self-esteem.

**TL targets its support towards poor and marginalised settlements or low-income groups within more established rural communities. Although TL works throughout Botswana its main focus is in the Kgalagadi, Southern and Kweneng Districts.**

TL provides mobilises and supports local communities in activities associated with the broad definition of "veld products". These can be as diverse as the cultivation of sustainable harvesting of indigenous plants, organizing support for local handicraft enterprises or establishing income generation schemes from wildlife resources. TL believes in working at the local community level initially by using existing institutions and then, if appropriate by helping to set up new structures to develop local interest groups..

TL sees its role as enabling people to utilize natural resources responsibly and is both concerned and actively involved in the conservation of indigenous plants to ensure that commercialisation will not lead to over-exploitation. TL advocates stringent controls over the harvesting of wild plants and recommends the use of ecologically sound harvesting techniques

In pursuance of the general aim, TL focuses on two areas, namely CBNRM and commercial use of veldproducts.

The CBNRM projects assisted by TL are based in the Kgalagadi, Southern, Kweneng and Chobe Districts. They include Nqwaa Khobee Xeya Trust (NKXT), which is involved in the sustainable utilisation and management of natural resources in KD1 and covers the communities of Ukhwi, Ncaang and Ngwatle; Ita Xhaan Trust in Kweneng west; Chobe Craft in the Chobe enclave; Mahotswane and Molengwane, which are mainly involved in veld product utilisation.

The major thrusts of TL's support to CBNRM projects are institution building, facilitation and mobilisation of interest groups, assistance to project development and access to development funding, technical training and marketing support.

Commercial activities are promoted by providing a direct marketing link for harvesters on specific veld products, and ploughing the revenues back into remote rural communities. Products are sold into the retail market, mainly pharmacies throughout Botswana under TL's own trademarks and brand identity. TL also exports its products through sale of its branded products or material in bulk packaging to international markets. The income generated from the sale of veld products is paid

out to the communities after processing costs are deducted or used in further development of CBNRM projects. The products that have in the recent past been marketed include Kalahari Devil's Claw and natural teas such as *mosukujane*, *lengana* and *mosukudu*.

TL aims to co-operate with other organisations as a strategy for influencing government policy. From the onset, the organisation sought to build strategic alliances with other organisations involved in the development of veld products or natural resource management. These efforts have had limited success.

Due to financial constraints and a significantly reduced staff capacity, TL has been forced to reduce or completely withdraw support to some of its projects. In February 2002, for example, its support for KD1 came to an end and the NKXT management Board and project co-ordination were left to the project. TL has also stopped its activities in the basket weaving co-operative formerly known as Chobe Craft.

### **3 The socio-economic and environmental impacts of the CBNRM projects**

TL benefits from CBNRM projects by charging management fees, thus generating the much-needed income for the organisation. Over the years TL has also developed some capacity to support CBNRM.

#### *Purchases of veld products*

**Through purchasing grapple from rural harvesters and marketing products, TL has over the past twenty years provided a steady income to poor rural households in the Kweneng, Kgalagadi and Southern districts of Botswana. Currently the price offered for grapple to harvesters is P8.50 per kg compared to P6.50, which was paid four years ago. Non-material benefits have mainly been in the area of training specifically in sustainable harvesting and the processing techniques involved in veld products. Other non-material benefits have involved conducting research to identify veld products of economic value and experimenting with domestication, processing and marketing of veld products purchased from rural communities.**

#### *TL support to CBOs*

As stated above, TL has been involved in various CBNRM projects. The overall objective of TL's involvement in the KD1 was "to establish a community based organisation responsible for the sustainable management of the available natural resources and equitable distribution of the benefits derived from their utilization, with the ultimate aim of securing access to and control over these resources in order to raise the standard of living for the inhabitants of KD1. The impact of TL on the KD1 initiative has included the following:

- Facilitating the establishment of a CBNRM organization in KD1. A management structure suited to prevailing local conditions was established involving the three communities of Ukhwi, Ncaang and Ngwatle. A constitution outlining the rules, regulations, procedures, roles and responsibilities was developed and the trust registered;
- Legal access and control over the wildlife resource was secured and a land use and management plans drafted;
- Facilitation of the implementation of the land use management plan;
- Ensuring that the NKXT obtains income and employment from JVAs. To this end TL has assisted the Trust with drafting tender documents for safari hunting, participated in the selection of a JVP and assisted the community in monitoring the JVA;
- Facilitated the design and implementation of initiatives aimed at community income generation and employment creation from eco-tourism projects. These have included the establishment of community campsites in the three KD1 communities;

- Facilitating and promoting income generation through craft production in the three settlements and forging linkages with the craft purchasing and marketing organisation Gantsi Craft;
- TL has provided training and hands on support to the Board of NKXT. This included the transfer of skills for the trust to handle JV management responsibilities; and
- TL has facilitated access to development funding for some of the NKXT projects. Specifically, funding for the community campsites, small cultural centre, tracks, signposts, advertising materials, and salary support for campsite attendants and manager for the cultural centre was accessed from EU through DWNP. Funding from the CCF was also sourced for tourism infrastructural developments, equipment and salary support for the wildlife monitoring team, equipment and facilities for game skin tanning, equipment for biltong production, equipment for veld products processing and marketing, Board training, training community guides, tourism management training and legal fees for facilitating joint venture agreements.

The placement of advisors has been the key TL intervention in KD1. Without a strong and effective community capacity building and phasing out strategy, the work initiated by TL has proven to be unsustainable. Within one year of TL withdrawal the NKXT is cash strapped and the camping sites and other development infrastructure (craft shop in Ngwatle and three camp sites) developed through its intervention proved to be white elephants or have collapsed. The Board is not able to manage the joint venture agreement or maintain effective communication with its settlement committees and groups. Relations with the community are strained and the envisaged hand-over of the management of the trust from TL advisors to the Board has been premature and resulted in confusion and a collapse of management functions. In terms of veld products, it was surprising to find that TL promoted the propagation of herbal teas that are exotic to KD1 instead of promoting (research into) the cultivation of the grapple plant and other locally found species (such as morama bean). The impact of TL in KD1 has fallen short of its targets and was in totality inefficient, ineffective and unsustainable.

TL's impact in the KD11/12/13 (Inalegolo, Diphuduhudu) has mainly been facilitating the establishment of the Ita Xhaan Trust. Training has also been provided in the areas of Board leadership and governance. Other impacts have included promoting lesson sharing through an exchange visit by representatives of the trust to Kuru Development Trust on cultural tourism. TL has also carried out fundraising for the development of a cultural village for the Ita Xhaan Trust. Material benefits have as yet not been realised.

Between 1995 and 2001, TL provided support to Chobe Craft through the placement during 1995 of a development worker from German Development Service (GDS) and facilitating access to development funding. Funding was secured from the African Development Foundation in 1999 for TL to assist Chobe Craft to manage a financially sustainable and profitable craft marketing outlet. Funding was secured for the construction of a craft centre, furnishing the premises, institution building through a participatory process, conduct a market research study and production skills training. The impact of the project has been minimal given that the only outputs achieved were those related to production skills training, the registration of Chobe Craft as a Co-operative and a basket marketing research study.

#### **4 Organisational analysis**

The table provided at the end of this case study provides the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of TL.

##### **4.1 Thusano Lefatsheng's organisational structure**

TL has remained a non-profit making development trust. At the apex of the organization is a Board of Trustees, which is elected every two years. The Board has representation from the government, private sector, NGOs and the University of Botswana. The plan to include members

of its grassroots development has not been realized due to capacity and resource constraints. TL has also experienced a number of resignations by Board members and its governance structure is at present inactive and weak.

Currently the organisation has six officers/professional staff and five industrial workers at its Thusego headquarters. TL has a General Manager, Programme Officer (PO) (Extension), PO (Natural Resources Management), Finance and Administration Officer. All staff are local and professional staff possesses skills and experience in socio-economic surveys, CBO development, participatory land use planning, community enterprise development, lobbying and advocacy, marketing, fundraising, business administration, agronomy and ecological research. Three senior positions in the approved organizational structure are vacant, namely, heads of Central Support, Commercial department and the Project Development Programme.

#### **4.2 Thusano Lefatsheng as an CBNRM-support NGO**

TL has since its inception worked in and used the CBNRM approach to its development work. The organisation during its early days focused exclusively on sustainable utilization of veld products by communities, their processing and marketing. Grapple and natural teas were the main products in the beginning; later on TL supported basket weaving and wildlife management projects.

The major areas of involvement in CBNRM include community mobilisation towards sustainable resource use to improve rural livelihoods, processing and marketing of veld products, training in sustainable harvesting and processing techniques, CBO formation, institutional strengthening, Board training and development, placement of Natural Resources Management advisers, facilitating, participatory land use planning, development of management plans, JVA and identifying viable ecotourism and social development projects for communities involved in CBNRM. TL has also acted as a funding conduit for CBNRM projects. Involvement in CBNRM has by and large been through the invitation of international development agencies, donors or government.

### **5 Policy environment**

The Agricultural Resources Board (ARB), under the Agricultural Resources Conservation Act of 1974, governs the extraction of grapple. The ARB is responsible for issuing grapple-harvesting permits and is keen on ensuring that harvesters market the product to established and authorised dealers. Apart from issuing permits, the ARB actively encourages communities to exploit grapple as advocated by TL, which harvest secondary tubers. An issue of concern to TL is that the issuing of permits is not linked to any scientific information or on data derived from monitoring the environmental impact of the exploitation of grapple.

The call by CITES for the listing of grapple is another issue of concern that has negatively affected the marketing of grapple and undermined the sustainability of TL and the rural grapple harvesters. TL has recommended that CITES funds research on sustainable grapple harvesting.

TL is in favour of the CBNRM policy as it has come a long way advocating for community management of resources and views CBNRM as an effective strategy through which rural communities have the opportunity to gain full access and control to natural resources in their localities.

TL is a classical example of a Botswana NGO that has suffered greatly from the funding gap left by the withdrawal of international donors. Strategic anticipation of the impacts of this withdrawal was inadequate. This raises the issue about the role, responsibilities and entitlements of NGOs such as TL.

The limited success of TL assisted CBNRM projects further questions the capabilities of TL prior to donor withdrawal. Probably, CBNRM involvement became a short-term survival strategy without proper consideration of the NGO capability to provide efficient support to the CBO. This raises the issue of support for NGO in terms of capacity and expertise building.

#### 6 Key issues and options of TL

Issue	Options
Project seeking approach of TL assists CBOs form but the organization lacks the capacity to sustain the levels of support required for CBO sustainability	Need to develop a CBNRM strategy and adopt a programme approach to CBNRM support Need for funds to be made available beyond 'projects'
Competition with Namibia and South African Grapple Growers	Find out why both countries can produce cheaper, and base development strategy on the findings Negotiate with harvesters for a fair, but competitive price.
Competition and weak linkages with VPR&D	Need for complementarity based on competitive advantage and recognition of the strengths of each organization
Lack of core funding and weak human resource base, including lack of research/ analytical capabilities	NGOs need institutional support and the government of Botswana needs to channel funds to the sector
Lack of skills and capacities in core skill areas required in CBNRM support (Eco-tourism, enterprise management, marketing)	TL needs to specialize and differentiate its services on the basis of its strengths and track record
Competition with BOCOBONET	BOCOBONET needs to focus on its original mandate and the relationship between BOCOBONET and NGOs needs to be resolved
Conflict with the Kgalagadi TAC	Role and mandate of NGOs in the Districts needs clarity; NGOs should not by-pass government structures TAC should include NGOs working in the CBNRM sector and the private sector

#### 7 SWOT analysis

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
Own generated funds from staff housing and sale of products	Absence of a long term strategic and sustainability plan
Strong linkages with grassroots constituency in some projects	Lack of institutional support
Own premises, land, vehicles and commercial facilities (processing plant), which can be used by other organizations at a cost.	Lack of an effective product marketing strategies
Relevant, valid mission and objectives	Lack of marketing expertise and personnel
Membership to useful networks (SANPROTA, BOCONGO, BOCCIM, FONSAG)	Donor dependency
Unique products with market potential and experience	Limited capacity (staff quality and quantity) to deliver efficient and consistent services to CBOs.
	Lack of effective community capacity building and phasing out strategies leading to low impact and unsustainable community based projects.
	Weak internal project appraisal mechanisms
	Weak governance structure and lack of commitment of Board members
	Low staff salaries and limited benefits
OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
Increasing government recognition of NGOs as partners in development	Lack of institutional support
The existence of the New Ministry of Environment, Tourism and Wildlife could increase the political commitment and support to CBNRM	Increasing competition from natural/herbal tea manufacturers
Draft NGO policy could result in government directly supporting CBOs; Governments' new guidelines to appraising NGO proposals are in place	NGO funding concentrated in HIV/AIDS
The enabling policy environment: Governments' policy on economic diversification is in line with TLs activities; NAMPAAADD, CEDA, Rural Development Policy, Draft CBNRM Policy, National Eco-Tourism Strategy, the Community-based Strategy for Rural Development are in line with TL's own policies and programmes.	Listing of grapple on CITES threatens TL and rural harvesters' future
Availability of funding for CBNRM activities	Weak linkages with the private sector
Market expansion for natural products abroad	Hostility of some government officials towards TL
Poverty alleviation on the national and international agenda	

## **D.8: NGO Kalahari Conservation Society<sup>35</sup>**

### **1 Introduction and history**

The non-governmental organisation (NGO), membership organisation of Kalahari Conservation Society (KCS) started in 1982 when the need was recognised to promote knowledge of Botswana's rich wildlife resources through education and publicity programmes. The need for research into issues affecting Botswana natural resources, especially wildlife and wildlife habitats, and their conservation was also apparent. KCS is Botswana's oldest environmental NGO. KCS is officially registered as a Society. According to the Constitution, KCS 's legal status is as "an association not for gain for and by members of the Society" (KCS 1991).

Over the past 21 years, KCS has remained dedicated to the conservation of Botswana's environment and has instigated, facilitated or financed over 60 conservation projects. Some noteworthy examples include: the ecological zoning of the Okavango Delta, management plans for Moremi Game Reserve, Chobe National Park and the Gaborone Game Reserve, various studies on elephant status and impact, a study on the migration of zebra and wildebeest in Savuti, various ecological studies on flamingos, lion, leopards, wild dogs, zebra and crocodiles, and the hosting of several environmental conservation and educational workshops. Certain projects have directly linked with community activities and CBNRM programmes, such as the Tswapong Hills Evaluation Project, Assessment of Community Attitudes to Nata Sanctuary, the facilitation and establishment of the Nata Sanctuary Community Project, and fundraising and the co-organisation of the National Conference on *Phane* (KCS 2002a, KCS 2003b).

When CBNRM started in Botswana in 1989, KCS immediately became involved by helping to facilitate the start of the CBNRM Nata Sanctuary project.

### **3 Current situation**

KCS has around 1000 members at the moment. The Constitution lists the following objectives of KCS (KCS 1991):

- 1. To promote the conservation of the natural environment of Botswana, including flora and fauna;**
2. To promote, sponsor and conduct research into flora and fauna and its management, conservation, population dynamics, movement, behaviour and the relationship between species and their habitats;
3. To act as a repository and to disseminate information related to the aforementioned;
4. To carry out, promote and sponsor education in the conservation of the natural environment and its value;
5. To negotiate, pursue, and monitor agreements, legislation, regulations, bye-laws, licensing procedures and other activities that are related to the objectives of the Society; and
6. To carry on any trade or business which can raise funds for use in carrying out the objectives of the Society.

KCS' activities include holding regular meetings to be addressed by a member or guest on a topic of interest to the Society; arranging occasional conferences and exhibitions; funding researchers in the area of environmental conservation and especially wildlife utilisation; publishing writings about environmental conservation within Botswana; helping to raise funds for various projects;

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<sup>35</sup> This case study is based on interviews with TL staff, documents made available by KCS and other literature identified by the review team. Comments of KCS on an earlier draft text have been taken into account.

undertaking lobbying activities through advocacy and assisting government in policy making; and facilitating the start-up of CBNRM projects and support to CBNRM projects.

KCS has three units, i.e. Conservation (responsible for all the Society's CBNRM programmes through the work of its Community Liaison Officer), Education and Public Relations.

**KCS is currently facilitating, running or raising funds for various projects including (KCS 2002a, KCS 2003b, Nchindo 2003):**

"Every River Has Its People" Project for the Okavango River, which is a trans-boundary natural resource management project between Botswana, Namibia and Angola under the management of KCS. This project aims to increase the capacity of communities and other local stakeholders to participate effectively in decision-making about the natural resources found in the Okavango River Basin, particularly those related to water. This project has recently established a community-based structure called the "Basin-wide Forum" with each country having ten representatives in the Forum. The Forum interacts with the Okavango River Basin Commission (OKACOM) and provides ideas on the management of the Okavango River.

Fences. Historically, KCS was an active member in an *ad hoc* committee on fences in Botswana, and lobbying for the removal of fences that cut off the migration routes of wildlife.

KCS is very active in CBNRM projects as Box 1 shows.

*Box 1: CBNRM involvement in CBNRM projects*

**Conservation and Development Opportunities from the Sustainable Use of Biological Diversity in Communal Lands of Southern Africa Project** – Started in January 2002, being implemented in eight SADC countries with the objective to strengthen the national and regional capacity of southern African NGOs and CBOs to promote CBNRM initiatives and implement the Convention on Biological Diversity and other international policies. The overall manager of the project is Africa Resources Trust in Zimbabwe (KCS 2002b, Nchindo 2003).

**Nata Sanctuary** – as early as 1989, KCS facilitated and helped to establish the Nata Sanctuary Community Project, which included the formation and registration of the Nata Conservation Trust (NCT) in 1992, one of the first CBNRM projects in Botswana. Nata Sanctuary is situated 170km northwest of Francistown at the top of Makgadikgadi Pans. It is a globally significant wetland and breeding site for migratory birds, flamingos, pelicans and other bird life. NCT members come from the nearby communities including Maposa, Sepako, Manxotae and Nata.

KCS secured funding for the fences, staff houses, ablution blocks and entrance gate of the Nata Sanctuary (KCS 2003a). KCS's initial activities with the Nata project proved successful, but in 1995 the relationship between KCS and NCT ended. According to the CEO of KCS, NCT felt that because of KCS's participation the NCT did not have enough power. Since that time the NCT has had three to four different managers. has only recently returned to work with NCT and the first activity has been to instigate a financial audit for the period 1998 to 2001. This created the environment for a new Board election, which had not been done for over six years. In 2003, a AGM should be held which will be the first one since 1998. In late 2001, veld fires burnt down the Sanctuary's ablution block and efforts are still being made to rebuild this infrastructure.

**Moremi Gorge Conservation Project** in Tswapong Hills – KCS facilitated the formation of a CBO called the Moremi Manonnye Conservation Trust (MMCT), based in Moremi village, in order to conserve and sustainably utilise an area around Moremi Gorge and to promote eco-tourism in the area (KCS 2002a). The area is one of great historical, archaeological and biological interest as well as having scenic beauty. The Trust was registered in July 1999, but the first Board was not elected until January 2002. The idea was that this project would act as a demonstration CBNRM project for the Tswapong area villages. To this end, KCS facilitated workshops in five Tswapong area villages in 2001, along with DWNP and the Department of Tourism in order to introduce the CBNRM concept (KCS 2002b). KCS was also involved in the preparation of the management and tourism plans for MMCT.



ding to a report prepared on KCS's involvement in CBNRM (KCS 2003a), "Mobilisation for this community took KCS over 4 years! And it has been very costly for the Society. However we are encouraged by the fact that the objectives of conservation would be somehow achieved." More problems have arisen and KCS's Vice-Chairperson will attempt to intervene and "rescue the project" (Nchindo 2003): "Funds were approved in September 2002 (through the MFDP's Micro-Projects Programme) and due to unfortunate village politics that undermines our role and that of the Reference Group, progress has been very slow. The Trust has not shown an interest to continue working with KCS and though this is a potential eco-tourism project, the insecurity and internal problems of the Board of Trustees are a potential threat to the project."

**ole Hills Nature Project** – KCS helped to get the Mapanda Conservation Trust started and facilitated the election of the Board of Trustees. The Trust was registered in January 2002. Lepokole is a Remote Area Dweller (RAD) settlement located 30km north of Bobonong. Lepokole Hills, which are located 5km east of Lepokole settlement, are declared as a national monument by the National Museum and Art Gallery. They are rich in historical and archaeological significance and provide an opportunity for historical and scenic tours (KCS 2003a).

KCS raised funds and prepared a management plan, which was funded by UNDP. The CLO is now in the process of training the Board members on how to run the CBO. KCS will continue to assist the community to secure funds to implement the management and business plan (Nchindo 2003).

Sources: KCS files and interviews.

KCS has conducted further efforts in the Tswapong Hills area with the idea to develop other CBNRM projects with the hope of conserving natural resources in the entire Tswapong Hills. The involved communities would include: Lerala, Ratholo, Tumasera and Goo-Tau villages and the surrounding settlements (KCS 2003a). Following KCS's involvement in mobilisation, the organisation hopes that interested villages will approach it for the development of CBOs.

KCS was at some stage a member of the Reference Group for Chobe Enclave Community Trust, and raised funds for the Khama Rhino Sanctuary Project. In the very early days of the Kgetsyi ya Tsie project, KCS worked with the NRMP staff involved in starting up the project. Finally, since 1997 KCS has taken some CBO and traditional leaders living within the elephant range to CITES processes.

Section 4 elaborates on how KCS works in the CBNRM sector.

### **3 The socio-economic and environmental impacts of the CBNRM project**

**Monetarily KCS does get some money from its work with CBNRM projects (overheads on donor-supported projects). Recently KCS has begun to charge a management fee of 10% for helping to start-up CBNRM projects. However the KCS CEO feels that the biggest CBNRM benefit to KCS is that it helps to promote KCS's message of conservation defined as sustainable utilisation.**

**In terms of the CBNRM projects that KCS has worked with, KCS secured funding for the fences, staff houses, ablution blocks and entrance gate of the Nata Sanctuary (KCS 2003a). The Nata Conservation Trust, which includes members from the communities of Maposa, Sepako, Manxotae and Nata, receives benefits from entrance and camping fees for Nata Sanctuary, with prices ranging from P5-20/person for day trips and P15-25/person/night for camping. The CEO of KCS says NCT's turnover is P70, 000 to P80, 000**

per annum with Nata Sanctuary gate earnings sometimes as much as P14, 000 per month. According to *The Nata Sanctuary* brochure, the idea is to use any surplus revenue from the project for capital development in the four villages. Because the Nata Sanctuary area took away cattle rangeland from the communities, the communities needed to benefit in a different way. However it appears that the NCT is still very much dependent on donor funding (KCS 2002b) and the last time any money was distributed to NCT households was around 1993/94. Linked to the project are the sales of baskets at the Nata Sanctuary entrance gate. In the past the Nata area weavers had only a few opportunities to sell their baskets (to a local shopkeeper, a local lodge owner, and to passing tourists or visitors) (Terry 1999). While the consultants were not able to collect data on basketry sales, the assumption is income should have increased or at least become more stabilised because of the opportunity to sell at the entrance gate.

A non-financial benefit arising from the Nata project is the opportunity for school groups from across Botswana to visit the Sanctuary free of charge and to gain insights into various ecological aspects of the area.

The other CBNRM initiatives that have had direct KCS involvement do not yet appear to have taken off to the point that either financial or non-financial benefits are forthcoming. In one case, Tswapong hills, there may be some conflicts between the Trust to be established and KyT that need to be resolved before the Trust becomes operational. In general KCS believes that "community participation in decision-making and benefiting from conservation could change the negative attitudes towards wildlife" (KCS 2003a).

#### **4 Organisational analysis**

Box 1 at the end of this case study highlights a few Strengths, Weakness, Opportunities and Threats (SWOT) for KCS.

##### **4.1 KCS's structure**

**KCS began as and continues to be a membership organisation. According to the Constitution (KCS 1991), membership falls into various classifications including ordinary, family, corporate, life and honorary members. School environmental clubs can also be members of KCS. The Society structure includes the Members, a Committee of Members and a President. The Office Bearers of the Committee include Chairperson, Vice-Chairperson, Secretary and Treasurer. In addition ten ordinary members are elected to serve on the Committee.**

At every Annual General Meeting (AGM) the Officer Bearers and one-third of the Additional Members are up for election. One third of the Additional Members are expected to retire (based on those who voluntarily retire and who do not seek re-election and those who have served the longest), and the final third remain on the Committee until the next year. In this way continuity and 'new blood' are guaranteed. Members nominate, second and elect Office Bearers for a specific position on the Committee. The Committee is expected to meet at least every quarter with a quorum of seven. The AGM and any Special General Meetings require a quorum of one-seventh of the number of members or forty members; whichever is the lesser (KCS 1991).

The Committee is allowed to form Sub-committees as when needed and can give the Sub-committee specific responsibilities. Examples of Sub-committees have included Management Committee, Finance Committee, Technical Committee, Environmental Education Committee, and Public Relations Committee.

**Overtime, various Branches have been formed in other parts of Botswana outside of Gaborone. These have included Branches in Francistown, Maun, Selibe Phikwe and Serowe/Palapye. Branches have the responsibility to promote the objectives of the**

**Society in a specific geographical area. They can elect a Branch Committee to administer and organise the affairs of the Branch and promote the objectives of the Society, but a Branch cannot undertake any responsibilities of the Society, act on its behalf, raise funds, disburse funds etc. without the written approval of the Main Committee. Branches are expected to provide quarterly reports to the Chairperson of the Main Committee and to hold Branch AGMs. They can also send proxy votes to the national AGM held in Gaborone.**

**The Gaborone KCS staff consists of ten people: Chief Executive Officer (CEO), Programme Officer (at the moment filled by an expatriate funded by the German Development Service), Conservation Officer, Community Liaison Officer, Environmental Education Officer, Public Relations Officer, Finance and Administration Officer, Secretary / Administrative Assistant, Cleaner, and Driver/Messenger. The Maun branch hosts three staff for the “Every River has Its People” Project. The Palapye Branch has one staff member.**

Financially, KCS reduced its running costs in 2001, compared to 2000 and was left with a P223,000 surplus for the year ending 2001 (KCS 2002b). The year ending 31 December 2002, showed an even greater surplus at over P680,000 (Deloitte & Touche 2003). KCS would like to increase the income coming from membership subscriptions so that they can cover the general operating costs. At the moment membership fees are covering about 34% of the core costs. In 2002, the majority of KCS's income came from interest earned on donor money raised for specific projects. KCS is currently looking into another financially sustainable strategy: securing its own permanent office space that would include renting out office space to others (Nchindo 2003).

#### **4.2 KCS working in CBNRM**

Generally KCS's involvement in CBNRM has included the following areas: mobilising communities around CBNRM through house-to-house campaigns and *kgotla* meetings, facilitating introductory workshops and meetings with communities to promote CBNRM, conducting “mini-feasibility studies” in potential project areas to determine their suitability for CBNRM and conservation projects, assisting communities to develop project proposals and constitutions and to register the trust with the Deeds Registry, facilitating board election meetings, providing board training, preparing tourism management and development plans, raising funds for project implementation, and facilitating project implementation. KCS attempts to facilitate the CBNRM process until the elected board can run the project. KCS then chooses to become an advisor to the project by sitting on a Reference Group, a Technical Advisory Committee or by acting as *ex officio* member on the CBO board. However, the Board has the right to request KCS to continue fully running their project until they have sufficient capacity to be independent.

KCS also tries to raise awareness around the conservation issues of CBNRM. KCS defines conservation as the sustainable utilisation of wildlife and wilderness areas. According to the CEO, if there was no conservation element in CBNRM, KCS would not be involved in CBNRM.

KCS becomes involved in a CBNRM site/project in one of two ways: (a) site/project is identified by KCS as of interest to KCS's objectives and as needing some support or guidance, (b) KCS is asked for assistance. There is currently a ‘waiting list’ of communities/people asking KCS for their help, and KCS realises that they do not have the capacity to support all. They currently do not have enough staff to do this work, and the mobilisation/start-up phase costs KCS money.

**In December 2002, KCS made plans to develop their own CBNRM strategy that could guide and govern KCS's operations within the broader national CBNRM programme. Some guidelines have been prepared but the full strategy still needs to be worked out. Once they have this strategy they feel they will be in a better position to apply for funding in order to support various CBNRM projects.**

KCS has not been collaborating with any other NGOs on CBNRM, except for trying to get some other Botswana NGOs involved in the “Conservation and Development Opportunities from the

Sustainable Use of Biological Diversity in Communal Lands of Southern Africa” Project. So far there has not been a great response. KCS does however try to share information with other NGOs.

## 6 Policy environment

**At the moment about half of the KCS Committee are apparently in favour of CBNRM and feel it is a good concept. They feel it is working. The other half have their doubts about CBNRM, and feel that the current CBNRM programme in Botswana is “in a mess”. However, it is reported that even those who do not favour CBNRM are willing to see the CBNRM policy put into place and hope it will sort out CBNRM in Botswana.**

KCS was consulted and provided input into the draft CBNRM policy. They are happy with the current version of the draft and feel that it should be finalised and implemented.

The CEO of KCS feels it is not KCS's role to intervene or negotiate any arrangements between the CBOs and the private sector in JVPs. He also does not see that the JVP concept is working, saying that the Departments of Tourism and Wildlife “want to talk rules and regulations” and the private sector/tour operators “want to talk business”.

## 6 Key issues and options

Key Issues	Options
A ‘waiting list’ of communities/people asking KCS for their help and KCS does not have the capacity to support all.	Must make a CBNRM strategy so they can apply for funds to help CBNRM projects get started.
The mobilisation/start-up phase of a CBNRM project costs the support organisation money not the CBO.	
Seemingly little communication or cooperation with existing CBNRM projects/CBOs situated in the same geographical areas.	The CBNRM sector needs coordination. Government should fund a new body (not the SNV programme) to act as the national co-ordinator of CBNRM. This body should <u>not</u> be a specific government department, it should <u>not</u> be a NGO dealing with only one specific sector like wildlife, tourism or veld products. Do not feel that BOCOBONET is suitable either. Would be useful if NGOs formed partnerships with government, the private sector and the communities to intensify CBNRM activities and benefits.
Lots of “backbiting” in the CBNRM sector.	
Confusion of roles between NGOs working in the CBNRM sector. Some NGOs are also resource users not just support organisations.	
Competition between NGOs working in the CBNRM sector.	
Problems between NGOs and BOCOBONET.	
Problems between DWNP and BOCOBONET.	
In terms of JVPs, the Departments of Tourism and Wildlife “want to talk rules and regulations” and the private sector/tour operators “want to talk business”.	
Not good that only information publications have come out of the CBNRM support network that have been more suitable for the support organisations than the CBOs.	Need to see more “tangible products”, such as useful, practical, and simple manuals for CBOs on various topics.
Has been good that the IUCN was willing to be the Secretariat for the CBNRM Forum.	Now should be rotated amongst forum members just like the chairpersonship.

### Box 2: SWOT analysis

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
The Society has been operating for 21 years and has a solid track record and reputation.	
Some members have been with KCS for entire 21 years. Membership has expanded over the years and currently there are many more young Batswana as members than in the early days of KCS, which was dominated by expatriate residents.	
There is long-term continuity on the Committee with many Officer Bearers serving for many years.	Possibly not enough ‘new blood’ is filling Office Bearer positions.
KCS's financial status at the moment is sound.	KCS will probably always have to be dependent on donors for financial support.
KCS is happy to work in the CBNRM sector as long as	KCS has only a very small number of staff working in the

CBNRM includes addressing conservation issues.	CBNRM sector and has yet to develop a strategy to determine how they want to carry on working in the sector.
The KCS CEO feels that KCS has a good working relationship with DWNP. KCS and DWNP have collaborated on fundraising activities.	
<b>OPPORTUNITIES</b>	<b>THREATS</b>
"The advent of CBNRM has provided us with an opportunity to create opportunities for community benefits from natural resources and this is an advantage to our conservation efforts" (Nchindo 2003)	If KCS facilitated workshops in five Tswapong area villages in 2001, along with DWNP and the Department of Tourism, in order to introduce the CBNRM concept, it does not appear that the Kgetsi ya Tsie veld product utilisation project, which was started in 1997, was being recognised as a CBNRM project. Seemingly little communication or cooperation with existing CBNRM projects/CBOs situated in the same geographical areas.
KCS plans to develop their own CBNRM strategy that could guide and govern KCS's operations within the broader national CBNRM programme.	
KCS can utilise funds from the CODEO Sub-project to build the capacity of CBOs and NGOs in CBNRM	
+ According to the KCS Secretariat, its influential Board has the potential to promote CBNRM politically.	-

## **D.9: Community-Based Organisation's Network: BOCOBONET**

### **1 Introduction**

The Botswana Community-Based Organisation Network (BOCOBONET) was registered as an association in 1999 to represent the interests of community based organisations (CBOs) involved in Community Based Natural Resources management (CBNRM) in Botswana.

**The withdrawal of the USAID funded NRMP and its related PACT-IRCE project in 1999 provided the impetus for the formation of BOCOBONET, as there was a need to ensure continuity of the support programme for CBOs. To a large extent therefore, BOCOBONET can be seen as an initiative of NRMP and not the CBOs themselves.**

**Between 1996 and 1998, six countrywide workshops to discuss the formation of BOCOBONET were held. Study tours were also organised to share lessons with comparative organisations in Zimbabwe (CAMPFIRE), Namibia (NACOBTA) and Kwa-Zulu-Natal. A final workshop held in 1998 led to the formation of BOCOBONET and the finalisation of its constitution. During the same year staff were recruited to facilitate the implementation of the networks activities. PACT/IRCE provided financial support for the establishment costs of BOCOBONET for a period of nine months.**

BOCOBONET's immediate tasks were to develop a membership base and its started with a membership drive and publicising its mission and objectives. During its formative years, BOCOBONET:

- Provided a series of short courses using some of the training manuals developed by PACT/IRCE: Leadership and Empowerment Training, Financial management and Board Leadership and Governance Training. BOCOBONET co-ordinated training in these areas but outsourced most training courses;
- Provided strategic planning and enterprise development support in its CBO capacity building programme. However, no clear methodologies or training manuals were developed for these interventions;
- Facilitated CBO formation;
- Conducted Participatory Rural Appraisal exercises with new CBOs; and
- Conducted CBO needs assessments.

The training courses were made possible through a substantial grant from the African Development Foundation (ADF). Networking and exchanges were also organised for CBOs to share lessons with similar other CBNRM initiatives in Botswana and in the region.

### **2 Current situation**

BOCOBONET currently has 76-registered member CBOs and 20 are in the process of being formally registered with the association. Members of BOCOBONET are spread throughout the country and are primarily engaged in CBNRM projects in the areas of wildlife utilisation and/or veld products. To become a member, CBOs pay a membership registration fee of P750 and an annual subscription of P200.00. Members default on paying their subscriptions and the amount involved is not enough to make a significant contribution to BOCOBONET operating expenses.

**The objectives of BOCOBONET as stated in the association's constitution are:**

- To enable CBOs to share experiences and learn from each other;
- To ensure dissemination of key information regarding CBNRM opportunities and new developments;

- To act as an advocate of member CBOs with government, the NGO community and other stakeholders.
- To serve as a vehicle for capacity building and empowerment training of member CBOs;
- To enable member CBOs to disseminate information on their own behalf
- To provide direct services to CBOs in such areas as marketing, technical advice, business planning, reporting and document preparation.

BOCOBONET has four types of activities:

1. CBO development: facilitates CBO formation, CBO training in the core areas and assistance for strategic planning;
2. Information exchange: Inter-CBO exchanges in Botswana and the region;
3. Annual General Meetings to review progress of the association; and
4. Representing the interests of its members in the policy and political arena.

**Largely because funding problems, the organisation is at present grossly understaffed. The association retrenched staff at the end of 2002, when major funding contracts came to an end. Currently the association has four staff members, three of who are involved in the implementation of its core activities.**

The limited capacity of the association has generally resulted in low levels of interventions and limited impacts on member CBOs. Activities have by and large involved networking and exchanges for CBOs to share lessons and experiences. Some outputs include:

- A bi-monthly newsletter *Mathowa* was started in 2000 providing a vital communication link with its member CBOs. Funding and staffing constraints led initially to irregular publication of the Newsletter and finally production was halted in 2002;
- BOCOBONET through the SNV CBNRM Support Programme published in 2002 the Botswana CBNRM Services Directory, which has been a useful document in providing CBOs access to vital services. This directory is currently being updated;
- BOCOBONET and the IUCN/SNV Support programme produced CBO fact sheets providing information on membership, activities, trends in employment and income generated through CBNRM project implementation.

At present, BOCOBONET is involved in several major projects funded by international donors.

Firstly, BOCOBONET entered into a partnership with the African Wildlife Foundation (AWF) to implement a capacity building project in 2003. The overall goal of this project is to:

*Improve the socio-economic status of rural Botswana in the Four Corners Trans-Boundary Natural Resources Management (TBNRM) activity area through implementation of viable conservation-based enterprises by CBOs)*

The specific BOCOBONET purpose of the project is to strengthen the capacity of BOCOBONET to support resource users in the TBNRM area and in Botswana in particular. A specific aim of this initiative as stated in the project document involves facilitating the development of agreements for joint management of natural resources in the project area reflecting and documenting best/viable practices applied within TBNRMA which can be replicated elsewhere in Botswana and in the region. The expected outputs from this project are:

- At least five Natural Resources Management Agreements between the private sector and communities and government;
- Enabling at least two communities to conduct quota setting with minimum assistance;
- Three conservation business ventures successfully negotiated; and

- A Botswana TBNRMAarea CBO Forum and documented at least four best practices in the activity area.

The specific role defined for BOCOBONET members in this project include availing its CBO members for training, workshops, exchange visits and meetings; fundraising/budgeting for conservation business implementation, natural resources monitoring; being part of the project management, monitoring and evaluation committee, co-facilitating CBO workshops and carrying on project activities beyond the project period

Secondly, BOCOBONET hosts the TBNRM-project and is responsible for project management, monitoring and evaluation as well as progress reporting including reporting on funds it has been provided with through this project. BOCOBONET, through this project, is expected to engage and supervise consultants specifically in the areas of community-based feasibility studies, business planning processes, community based leadership training and tourism skills training and facilitating training; direct implementation of community based feasibility studies, community based business plans, community based leadership training, document best practices and disseminate these lessons learned through a regional workshop and local and regional exchange visits. Although BOCOBONET will implement the project with the assistance of AWF and private consultants, it is envisaged that the association's involvement in direct implementation of some of the activities will strengthen its capacity to support CBOs involved in CBNRM.

Thirdly, BOCOBONET hosts the Kellogg Foundation Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) in the Kweneng District. The programme aims at building the capacities of rural communities to work together for sustainable social, political and economical development through established local community structures. Its ambition is to establish functional partnerships between community structures, the NGO sector, the government departments and the private sector for long-term sustainable development of rural Botswana.

### 3. The impacts of BOBONET on CBNRM projects

**The impact of BOCOBONET on CBNRM projects include:**

- **Lobbying and advocacy on issues of concern in CBNRM such as the lion hunting ban and the government savingram;**
- **Improved awareness of CBOs about the approach and performance of other CBOs and CBNRM experiences in the region;**
- **Training courses in financial and business management, leadership and governance have been provided;**
- **Community action plans contributing to the realisation of CBO CBNRM projects.**
- **Assistance for CBOs in developing strategic plans.**

**BOCOBONET has to varying degrees facilitated processes with CBOs. However, it appears that given the capacity constraints experienced by the association, its work has had very limited socio-economic and environmental impacts on CBNRM projects. There is no money and capacity to follow-up on training and plan development, and consequently the actual impacts are very limited, as the case studies have shown.**

### 4 Organisational analysis

**BOCOBONET is governed by a board of fourteen representatives who are elected by the general membership on an annual basis. BOCOBONET is currently making efforts to establish a structure with four regional committees in the northwest, central southern and western regions. This decentralised structure is expected to ease communication flow. The Board is responsible for policy guidance of the Secretariat, supervision and oversight to the Secretariat, monitoring and evaluation of network activities.**



The following are the perceived strengths of BOCOBONET:

- The mission and objectives of BOCOBONET;
- The selected areas of CBO training needs;
- The association's development constituency;
- Recognition from the Botswana government as an umbrella organisation representing CBO interests; and
- Lobbying and advocacy activities.

Perceived weaknesses include:

- Narrow funding base and the lack of fundraising capacity;
- Shift from its original mandate and lack of clarity on its identity and focus;
- Weak implementation and co-ordination capacity;
- Ad-hoc and inconsistent support interventions at membership level.
- Some members' perception that the association does not serve members equally; and
- Lack of capacity to respond to the needs of members.

Opportunities

- CBNRM in Botswana is needs an effective, efficient and representative network organisation of CBOs.

Threats

- Funding problems for networks and institutions that do not directly implement projects;
- Perceived underachievement and the lack of an impressive track record;
- Lack of clarity on the role of BOCOBONET and its linkages with umbrellas such as the Botswana Council for NGOs; and
- Conflicts and competition between BOCOBONET and environment and conservation NGOs.

BOCOBONET is an active member of the National CBNRM Forum and participates in initiatives promoted by the Ngamiland CBNRM Forum. BOCOBONET is also a member of the Hotel and Tourism Association of Botswana (HATAB) This relationship allows BOCOBONET to provide a useful link between the private sector and its membership and makes BOCOBONET well placed to promote a greater understanding between these two key actors in CBNRM implementation. BOCOBONET also collaborates with government departments to include the Department of Wildlife and National Parks, Tourism and the National Conservation Strategy (NCSA).

The relationship between BOCOBONET and environment and conservation NGOs is characterised by varying levels of conflict and competition. NGOs perceive BOCOBONET as playing a negative and interfering role in their relationship with CBOs. This perception reached proportions where NGOs believed that BOCOBONET "owns" CBOs. Attempts to resolve this conflict culminated in BOCOBONET setting out to develop guidelines, which would govern CBO-NGO relations. To date the issue remains unresolved as no guidelines were developed on CBO-NGO relations or on the role of BOCOBONET and NGOs. This issue was again raised as a concern at the 2003 National CBNRM Forum meeting. Although BOCOBONET sits in various forums that are of importance to CBNRM development, its lack of capacity undermines follow-up and systematic interventions thus rendering it a weak umbrella organisation.

## **5 Policy context**

Aside from its role as association that promotes networking amongst CBOs, BOCOBONET has in the past played an instructive role in advocacy and lobbying on issues relevant to CBNRM and its member organisations. Worthy of note is the role that the association played in modifying the ban imposed on lion (and other wild cats) hunting and in mobilising CBOs to petition the government on the saving-gram that sought to take away control of CBO revenues and place them in the hands of District Councils.

In pursuance of its objective of lobbying and advocating on issues of concern to its members, BOCOBONET has actively participated in reference groups on important studies such as the Rural Development Policy Review, formulation of the Poverty Alleviation Strategy, National Development Plan 9 discussions as well as in the reference group for Botswana's Vision 2016.