

# Newsletter from African protected areas

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## Editorial

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### *A breath of fresh air!*

“Change the system, not the climate!” This is one of the many slogans blooming on banners around the world every Friday when “the youth” – a vague term essentially encompassing “those whose opinion is not asked for but who still have enough energy to voice it anyway” - march into the streets to denounce the slow and ineluctable degradation of our environment. And against the growing, deleterious shadow looming over their future.

The movement has a name: Fridays for the future. Their claim is simple: we must act now against the causes of climate change, and no longer postpone the painful yet vital measures that scientists have been advocating for over the course of nearly 30 years. In concrete terms, this no longer means “We should slow our growing rate of greenhouse gas emission”, as we have been (cynically) satisfied to do so far, but rather: “We must actually reduce our greenhouse gas emission rates at a sustained pace in order to meet the objectives of the Paris Agreement.” The aim: finally recovering a breathable atmosphere.

“Failure is not an option” and “Why study if we have no future?” read the placards as the protests spread across England, Sweden, Australia, Germany, Belgium and many other countries. The demonstrations are quiet and friendly but the concerns are real. The anxiety is palpable, the despair is blatant because, in the end, no one really knows what to do. Often, more revolutionary claims are thrown into the mix: “Respect existence or expect resistance!” Because in reality, what youth denounces is the system that generated this situation, and not merely, as our leaders want us to believe, its consequences.

How exciting to see this movement grow, bloom and disseminate! For once, no selfish, partisan or corporatist claims here. On the contrary, it is an appeal to save the common good, to unite for a cause far broader than individual interests. How long has it been since this last happened? How is it that we do not talk about it more and more?

Africa - continent of youth and of climate injustice like no other - is still largely invisible. The Fridays for Future maps of event speaks for themselves. There are at most a dozen local events planned, and often, mostly organized by foreigners... for a continent of a billion people! Some cities in Europe generate twice as much unrest every week! This time again, will change be decided elsewhere?



*Map of predicted events on "Friday for future" website*

No, not this time. Not on such an important subject. Whatever form it chooses, Africa must seize the cause and generate its own momentum, its own paths for action, its own future. Otherwise, others will act or keep acting on her behalf, and rest assured that the outcome will not be a good one...

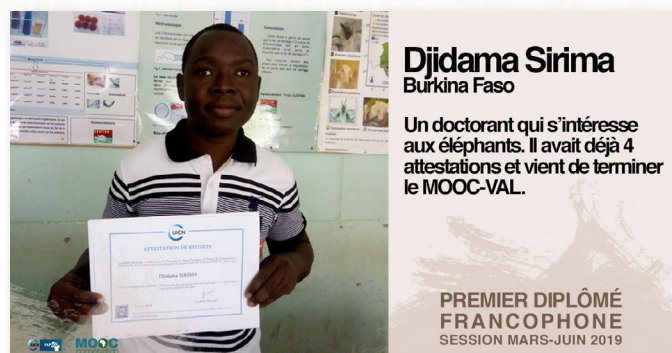


# Our courses

## PAPACO MOOCs

### THEY COMPLETED THE MOOC-VAL

As you know, the new session of our MOOCs started 4 March, with a brand new MOOC on the valorisation of protected area resources. Djidama Sirima from Burkina Faso is the very first student to have finished and completed the new MOOC.



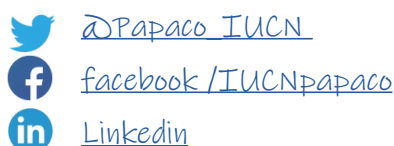
A little later, Job Odhiambo, the first English-speaking student who completed the MOOC-VAL also received his certificate of completion. Congrats to them!



If you are enrolled but haven't passed the exams yet, it's not too late, keep going! If you have questions, contact us via Facebook or by sending an email to [moocs@papaco.org](mailto:moocs@papaco.org).

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Also read the [newsletter of the IUCN programme of protected areas](#) (WCPA).



## MOOC Sustainable development (French only)

Senghor University and the IFDD's MOOC on Sustainable development is part of our selection of MOOCs that you need to pass in order to receive the Online Certificate of protected area management (to be launched in 2019). This specific session finished 31 March, so you'll have to wait for the next session to be able to complete this one.

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## University Diploma on Protected area management

Classes for our fifteenth group studying for the University Diploma are almost over. The 20 students will return to their respective countries 13 April.



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In addition to PAPACO's page, join the 6,000 members on the [Facebook group](#) dedicated to MOOCs.

All links and useful information is on [papaco.org](http://papaco.org).

# Featuring this month

## *Reconfiguring the protected areas in changing Africa...*

The previous NAPA exposed some ways we may try to reconfigure the protected areas in Africa, taking into account the many changes that happen on the continent (see the study realized by IUCN-Papaco). We saw it, to increase the surface under protection in Africa, the most adequate solutions are probably to resort to the reclassification of partially degraded protected areas or to the classification of land that helps conservation but is not recognised as a protected area. For several years, with the great decline in the big game hunting sector almost everywhere in Africa, offering the possibility of joining up certain hunting areas with protected areas –in line with the Aichi Target– there has been a major opportunity to ensure that 17% of national territories are classified as real protected areas. The challenge will be to finance them. The second opportunity is that of the creation of community conservancies, the democratic expression of local communities, which allow conservation and development to be integrated right alongside protected areas whilst managing human-wildlife conflicts more effectively. The global development of the tourism industry is a great opportunity for participating in the financing of these community areas.

*This NAPA presents some extracts of the study on these two opportunities. The full report is available on [www.papaco.org](http://www.papaco.org).*

### *1. How should the periphery be managed?*

The periphery of a PA starts at the boundary. More often than not, the State-owned property stops at the boundary and, depending on the case and the country, the private sector or communities have jurisdiction over the periphery. There may or may not be a land title, and sometimes only usage rights are vested in the communities. As we have seen, most PA buffer zones have disappeared. Mainly due to the usage restrictions imposed by the State on the rights holders. For several years now, we have seen peripheral areas emerge that were created on a voluntary basis by the rights holders, who continue to govern and manage them. They lay down the rules and reap the benefits.

These voluntary, democratic peripheral areas are of great interest because they make it possible to create a transition zone between the conservation area (PA) and the development zone, whilst retaining the natural features that favour the sustainability of the PA's values, and also foster the development of communities and the private sector. In many cases, these areas are called “conservancies”. Moreover, it

should be noted that a conservancy is sometimes situated on the periphery of a PA, but not always.

There are private conservancies for which an owner has a land title and devotes his/her property to the management of natural resources and fauna. Sometimes several owners get together and manage their land using the same management type. In accordance with the country's land tenure, we can thus find this kind of entity right on the periphery of a PA. Examples of these entities include those flanking the western boundary of the Kruger National Park in South Africa (Sabie Sands Game Reserve, Timbavati Game Reserve, etc.).

There are also community conservancies in which community land is governed by a democratically elected body, which adopts a management plan for its land, reserving part for the management of natural resources and wildlife, part for cattle breeding, part for farming, part for houses and infrastructures, and part for development. The zone reserved for natural resources only represents a part, a variable proportion of the conservancy.



In other cases, such as on the periphery of the Maasai Mara National Reserve in South-Western Kenya, the communities have individual land titles and the owners met to create conservancies, which are managed for wildlife and cattle, thanks to a grazing land management plan that evolves over the course of the season and in accordance with periods of drought. This thus allows for adaptation to the vagaries of the climate. In this case, thanks to tourism, wildlife management generates the majority of the conservancy's funding. These conservancies are of great interest because they are created voluntarily and democratically, and increase the amount of protected land on a voluntary basis, funded by wildlife tourism, without excluding development.

A key point is the importance of the economic benefits, as communities will take ownership of conservation action only when benefits are significant for them.

In Namibia, there are 82 conservancies, which cover 165,000 km<sup>2</sup>, in other words 20% of the country's total land area. However, this does not imply that 20% of the country is covered by additional PAs: it means that 20% of the country is subject to community management with a natural resources management plan. The parts that are really conserved (the central or core areas) only represent a (variable) part of this 20%. More often than not, they are not adjacent to a PA, and conservation areas between neighbouring conservancies are not generally joined. This does not favour the conservation of large species that are of interest in wildlife tourism, but it can increase the number of human-wildlife conflicts, since human habitats are scattered among the areas assigned to fauna. The economic benefits for the 200,000 people inhabiting the conservancies are generated by the association of wildlife tourism with big game hunting, which generated 7.4 million USD. The most profitable activity is tourism (although this only concerns less than 50% of the conservancies), generating 58.3% of the income and creating 950 jobs. The analysis shows that the income is insignificant per person, with big gaming hunting providing around 1.5 million

USD/year to all the conservancies<sup>1</sup>, in other words 0.09 USD/ha per conservancy or 7.5 USD/person per year. These very low figures are perhaps still of interest in the context of Namibia, which is very sparsely inhabited, but they would not be in the vast majority of other African countries.

This analysis allows us to draw the following conclusions that can improve the management of PAs in the future, whilst making populations a more integral part of their management:

- Favour the creation of community conservancies on the periphery of protected areas wherever possible.
- Favour the development of wildlife tourism on the basis of these conservancies, in the conservancies but also (and especially) in PAs, promoting private sector-community partnerships.
- Favour the hosting structures in these conservancies and not within the PAs, in order to maximise the profits from tourism for local communities, thereby maximising the effect of the conservancies.
- We must not only favour the conservancies that adjoin a PA (plus those that do not), but, during the planning stage, we must also ensure that the conservation zone (core area) is directly adjacent to the PA. If this is not the case, the conservation effect will be reduced and human-wildlife conflicts will increase.
- The coordination between conservancies must also be promoted to ensure that, when they are being planned, their conservation zones are adjacent. This will favour the conservation effect by increasing the global useful surface area conserved and encourage connectivity. It will also favour tourism and thus the economic returns and, finally, the sustainability of the action.
- The governance must be planned at several levels: for each conservancy, for all the conservancies, for all the protected landscapes, and by linking

<sup>1</sup> Naidoo, R., et al. Complementary benefits of tourism and hunting to communal conservancies in Namibia, 2016. Conservation Biology. DOI: 10.1111/cobi.12643. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26537845>

the conservancies and the PAs.

## 2. Should all PAs be conserved?

In order to answer this question, first of all we need to remember the objective: to expand the global protected area network to 17% of the Earth's land surface, irrespective of the category. Areas not considered as PAs (classified forests, most hunting zones, etc.) are added to this 17% without contributing to it. The next question is logically: what percentage of PAs do we have in our country?

Let us take the example of a country like Tanzania, which has 57,000 km<sup>2</sup> of national parks for a total national land surface area of 945,000 km<sup>2</sup>, in other words 6.0%<sup>2</sup>. Additionally, there are 176,300 km<sup>2</sup> of other types of PA (in accordance with Tanzanian law), including the Ngorongoro Conservation Area, 28 wildlife reserves (that are all or partially hunting zones) and 43 Game Controlled Areas<sup>3</sup> (which are hunting zones), in other words 18.7%. However, much of this land is in fact used for hunting and does not match the IUCN definition of a PA. Additionally, there are other types of PAs, making a total of 233,000 km<sup>2</sup>, in other words 24.65% of Tanzania's land surface area. Thus, we can see that the 17% objective has been substantially exceeded, but that many of these PAs (18% of the country's surface area)<sup>4</sup> are not PAs in the international sense, and they are largely degraded or unused, as mentioned earlier.

We can thus ask ourselves whether it is appropriate to exceed the 17%, and finally note that these PAs are not protected areas, or they have become degraded and are no longer protected. It seems important:

1. To cover 17% of a country's land surface in PAs that correspond to internationally recognised categories.
2. That this 17% of the land is made up of real, efficiently managed PAs. This implies that the necessary budget needs to be available.

Managing 17% of the surface area of Tanzania efficiently requires a budget of at least 120 million USD per year to manage 16 million ha.

In reality, very little money is spent outside of national parks for conservation in Tanzania (see Appendices 2 and 3): the hunting advocacy group "Conservation Force" stated that between 2013 and 2015, 27 hunting operators exploiting 121,400 km<sup>2</sup> spent 2.24 million USD, in other words 0.18 USD/ha/year<sup>5</sup>. Today, no one can achieve proper management with such modest management budgets.

This example clearly shows the importance of choosing the role, the status, the category of a PA and finally of having a sufficiently large budget for the management before deciding whether it is desirable to realign a protected area network. We can propose several simple elements in response to the questions below, to serve as a basis for reflection:

- **Should they all be conserved?** If we analyse the real management categories of all the PAs, country by country, we will reach the conclusion that, for most countries, the 17% target has not been reached. However, countries present as PAs, areas that do not meet the IUCN PA criteria, even though they contribute to conservation on another level. Thus, the total number of PAs wrongly represents an extremely high percentage of the national surface area.

So, according to Lindsey<sup>6</sup>: Central African Republic, Tanzania, Zambia and Botswana have totals (PAs + Big game hunting areas) of 43%, 40.5%, 29.2% and 41% respectively of the country's land surface area supposedly devoted to conservation.

As we have seen, the income generated by wildlife does not fund its conservation, since it is extremely inadequate. This means that no State can budget the sums of money required

<sup>2</sup> Tanzania National Parks, 2018. <http://www.tanzaniaparks.go.tz/index.php/2016-02-03-12-30-54/2016-02-03-12-31-41>

<sup>3</sup> Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism, Tanzania <http://www.mnrt.go.tz/about/category/ministry-overview>

<sup>4</sup> Big game hunting is possible on 300 000 km<sup>2</sup> of land in Tanzania, all categories combined, in other words 31.7% of the country! <http://www.conservationforce.org/tanzania-hunting-operator-report>

<sup>5</sup> Conservation Force, Tanzania Hunting Operator Enhancement Audit, 2016, <http://www.conservationforce.org/tanzania-hunting-operator-report>

<sup>6</sup> Lindsey, P.A., et al. Economic and conservation significance of the trophy hunting industry in Sub-Saharan Africa. Biological conservation 134 (2007) 455-469. <https://www.perc.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/08/Economic-and-conservation-significance.pdf>



for the management of 40% of its land simply for conservation. Moreover, the benefits for the communities are very limited: between 2013 and 2015, the above-mentioned 27 hunting operators in Tanzania distributed to the communities an average annual sum of 1.04 million USD, in other words 0.08 USD/hectare per year<sup>7</sup>. So, hectares of land with extremely low productivity for conservation (or hunting in this case) are taken from the populations<sup>8</sup>. In these conditions, it is inconceivable that 40% of a country could be devoted to an activity that does not generate the well-being expected by its inhabitants. It would probably even be counterproductive. Many people believe it is legitimate to take back from the State what it is giving to wildlife to the detriment of its population.

Thus, except perhaps in very sparsely populated countries that are also quite rich, such as Botswana, the response will be not to exceed the 17% threshold, but rather to manage it properly, starting by funding it sufficiently.

- **Should more PAs be created?** A simple map of Africa's human density shows us that it is practically impossible to find significant areas to classify in order to extend the PA network further. Nowadays, it is no longer conceivable to remove inhabitants from their land in order to create a PA. The only land that can still be categorised as PAs is land that is considered marginal for humans. But is this land important for conservation beyond what has already been classified? It would appear preferable to carry this process out in two stages:
  - *Analyse the gaps in the PA network*<sup>9</sup>, and identify the biological features (habitats, species, etc.) not covered properly by the network. Then, study to what extent it is possible to take them into account in the PA network. Bearing in mind what we have seen above, there is surely

a need for a greater focus to be placed on the reclassification of protected areas and areas that contribute to conservation (conserved areas) than on the creation of new zones.

- Analyse the current network of PAs and areas that contribute to conservation to see to what extent it is possible to make them more effective by improving the configuration (surface area, boundaries, management category, real PA). In many cases, we may only focus on part of the existing area to take the realities into account: the effective agricultural encroachment, human settlements, balancing the land with the available management budget, the need to straighten boundaries (avoiding indentations, for example).

The taking into account of realities (human density, existing human settlements, the available management budget, etc.) will probably lead more to the reconfiguration of a certain number of PAs, the classification of part of the areas that contribute to conservation as PAs, than to the creation of new PAs, within the threshold of 17% of the country's land surface.

- **Should some PAs be abandoned?** The two above-mentioned analyses should give us a good idea of the utility and the reality of numerous PAs. It is clear that some have already disappeared, and others are simply paper parks. In a context where the available budget is essential and fragmentation leads to the deterioration of the whole, it is clear that prioritisation should be carried out by allocating the necessary budgets to the main PAs. The question is therefore to find out how one determines whether a PA is of high priority, if all the PAs contribute to the quality of the network? If they are not prioritised, there is a risk that everything will be lost. In other words, should one car be given enough fuel to allow it to reach its destination or should all cars be given a little fuel so that none of them arrives? In practice, it is likely that some PAs will be better funded than others. The objective remains first of all to increase the budget available for the

<sup>7</sup> Conservation Force, Tanzania Hunting Operator Enhancement Audit, 2016, <http://www.conservationforce.org/tanzania-hunting-operator-report>

<sup>8</sup> Tanzania has an average human population density of 62 people per Km<sup>2</sup>, in other words 0.62 per hectare. <http://countrysmeters.info/fr/Tanzania>

<sup>9</sup> Identification and Gap Analysis of Key Biodiversity Areas. 2011. Gland, Switzerland: IUCN. xiii + 128pp. <https://portals.iucn.org/library/efiles/documents/PAG-015.pdf>

network. Thus, in Kenya, in 2015 the Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) had a budget of 68 million USD10 to manage a network representing 8% of the country's 580,000-km<sup>2</sup> surface area, in other words 46,400 km<sup>2</sup>. The budget therefore corresponds to 14.65 USD/ha/year. Whilst this level is already excellent, very few countries have budgets of this size (above the recommended average). It should also be noted that all PAs are not funded in the same way: national parks are under the exclusive jurisdiction of KWS, whilst national reserves are controlled by the regions (decentralisation), which have to finance them. Moreover, KWS provides support for community and private conservancies, whose surface area extends beyond the 8% of the proportion of the national PA network. So, this example shows that the budget must be sufficiently large but that it must also take the periphery and the communities into account. The budget must therefore be differentiated without the PAs being prioritised, since they are all important.

We must stress that the act of abandoning PAs is not insignificant. When the latter were gradually colonised illegally by agro-pastoral encroachment, degazetting the PAs and allowing them to be encroached by agriculture was a victory to illegality and was thus validated. Since the first condition of nature conservation is respect for the state of law, we put future wildlife conservation on the wrong track by degazetting illegally colonised areas. In terms of communication, it is the worst possible message you could send. It is a clear incentive to continue the degradation of the PAs.

To address this issue, we need to focus on reclassification rather than degazettement, and on budgetary prioritisation rather than the prioritisation of categories.

To sum up, the objective is indeed to ensure that 17% of a country's land is covered in real PAs (and not areas contributing marginally to conservation). In many densely populated countries, the additional

percentages of so-called conservation areas are not well received by the population, especially when we know that the economic benefits they generate are not sufficient to ensure conservation. In an insufficient budgetary context, they may even have a negative effect, causing the whole network to be underfunded. This would not allow priority conservation to succeed and would incite communities to remove illegally these excessively large parts of the land that they need to live. This point now leads us to discuss the PADDD phenomenon ("Protected Area Downgrading, Downsizing and Degazettement" in other words the decrease in categorisation, in surface area and the declassification of PAs).

### 3. What is happening with the PADDD phenomenon currently un-derway?

The phenomenon of the downgrading, downsizing and degazettement of PAs refers to the modification in the legislation that decreases the land use restrictions (human activities) on PAs, the boundaries of a PA or totally eliminates the legal protection<sup>11</sup>. It is an important phenomenon and over 3,000 cases have been documented in 70 countries<sup>12</sup>.

Listed below are a few real cases from Africa that were published in the literature<sup>13</sup>:

- In Central African Republic, the authorisation given to the Ba'Aka pygmies to use 2/3 of the former Dzanga-Sangha National Park led to the classification texts being changed and the protected area being called the Dzanga-Sangha Special Reserve. This is classified as downgrading. Changing usage rights in conservation is thus not insignificant.
- The surface area of Akagera National Park in Rwanda was reduced (downsizing) after the invasion by the population during the events of the 1990s, the North of the park having ceased to be an effective conservation area.

<sup>11</sup> <https://www.conservation.org/projects/Pages/PADDD-Protected-Area-Downgrading-Downsizing-Degazettement.aspx>

<sup>12</sup> <http://www.paddtracker.org/>

<sup>13</sup> Mascia, M.B., et al. Protected area downgrading, downsizing, and degazettement (PADDD) and its conservation implications. *Conservation Letters* 2010, <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.1755-263X.2010.00147.x>

<sup>10</sup> <http://www.kws.go.ke/content/annual-reports>



- In Tanzania, the Ruvu Game Reserve was abolished after being encroached by the population and in order to develop agro-pastoral activities (degazettement).

In addition to these actions that have been implemented, we should mention those that have been proposed and often concern planned industrial infrastructures. For example, this is currently the case of the planned hydroelectric dam in the Selous Game Reserve<sup>14</sup>, a World Heritage Site in Tanzania. This construction would significantly change the ecological functioning of this reserve. Another example is the case of a planned uranium mine<sup>15</sup> in the same reserve, which would reduce the size of the latter by 0.7%.

Many well-known infrastructure development projects and other legal actions are undertaken within the framework of PADDD. However, they probably only represent a tiny part of the insidious phenomenon resulting from the gradual occupation by local communities of numerous PAs or areas that contribute to conservation. Let us take the example of Zambia: we mentioned earlier that 40% of the hunting areas in Zambia, which represent 21.3% of the country, were occupied by agriculture<sup>16</sup>, in other words 8.5% of the entire country. Although this downsizing is not recognised in the official texts, it is highly significant. Moreover, it is accompanied by downgrading, which was not officially recognised in the regulations (in other words, the authorisation given to the communities to farm in hunting areas) but was recognised in 2008, in its consequences, by the official classification of areas rich in wildlife (Category I), moderately rich in wildlife (Category II) or depleted of wildlife<sup>17</sup>.

It is however unusual for national administrations to recognise they have failed to conserve what they were responsible for, just as they are very reluctant to admit that an animal they were supposed to protect has

become extinct. Extinctions are generally announced by the international community rather than national administrations<sup>18</sup>. Moreover, it should be noted that when PAs or areas that contribute to conservation are concessioned for exploitation (consumptive or otherwise), for their entire surface area or part of it, the price is often based on the number of hectares allocated. Accepting that the land to be rented out (very often State land) has decreased entails accepting that the administration has not protected the land it was meant to manage properly and accepting a reduction in the State resources from the concession, which is problematic. This results in these degradations not being reported or even being hidden. These areas account for a considerable amount of land in Africa.

The main question conservationists are asked is: what should be done with these degraded areas and zones? Should their loss be legalised by introducing a legal act?

Let us consider first of all the case of part of a PA, which makes an important contribution to nature conservation. It will be important to keep it in the network, either by increasing its protection status to ensure that its natural resources are less degraded, or by adding another PA adjacent to this area. The boundaries of this new body must be clearly defined, for example via a large track created mechanically or, in extreme cases, by a fence (not to “enclose” the PA, but instead to mark out one of its threatened boundaries).

So, what should be done with the other part of the PA that has been degraded? We have seen that official degazettement would send out the wrong message, inciting populations on the periphery to continue to encroach on the PA. We have also seen that it was not easy for the administration to admit to its management failures through an official act in cases where it had not carried out its mandate properly. In many instances, maintaining the status quo is not a bad solution. The absence of a solution could be a practical and acceptable way out.

In some cases, it will be possible to implement

<sup>14</sup> <https://www.wwf.de/fileadmin/fm-wwf/Publikationen-PDF/WWF-Report-Selous-True-Cost-Of-Power.pdf>

<sup>15</sup> <https://www.bbc.com/news/world-africa-13989264>

<sup>16</sup> Watson, F.G., et al. Human encroachment into protected areas network in Zambia. Reg environ change 2014. DOI 10.1007/s10113-014-0626-5

<sup>17</sup> Lindsey, P.A., et al. Underperformance of African Protected Area Networks and the Case for New Conservation Models: Insights from Zambia, 2014. PlosOne. <http://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0094109>

<sup>18</sup> <http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/science/nature/5167266.stm>



community management of the periphery, but the crucial point remains the voluntary approach: good community management is an emanation of the community, and not of the central government. A top-down approach has every chance of failing and, after a few years, we will be faced with agro-pastoral encroachment instead of a community area. If, on the other hand, there is a real community demand, on the land for which they are the rights holders, it will be appropriate to support the approach. However, community management is not designed for being implemented on land that belongs to the State.

In short, the wisest course of action seems to be to reclassify what is required for the functional PAs and not degazette what is less important.

#### 4. Should the rights and duties of the different stakeholders involved be redefined?

In the field of PAs, discussions are constantly being held on who has the right or the duty to do or not to do something, regarding the different stakeholders. The different stakeholders mainly include:

- The State: in charge of sovereign functions (legislation, safeguarding public order, control and justice), and it is the State that is finally responsible for management of State land.
- Technical and financial partners that include the international donors, who provide funding, which is sometimes accompanied by technical support.
- Conservation NGOs: they take care of technical implementation and governmental advocacy, and it is hard to balance these two tasks.
- Private sector: it carries out certain activities within its area of interest, since the private sector cannot carry out loss-making activities.
- Local communities: these are the neighbours of the PAs, supporting their opportunity cost and more often than not they receive very little in exchange. Most of the pressures that are placed on PAs come from these communities.

However, in practice, this distribution is not so simple and one of entities frequently does not play

its part or encroaches on land belonging to others. Numerous management problems then arise. As the saying goes: “good fences make good neighbours”. Thus, if the State is unwilling to exercise its sovereign functions, no other body will be able to replace it. Good governance is the basic element of conservation<sup>19</sup>. The desire to replace it cannot be a guarantee of success in the long term.

On the ground, it is common to see an entity wanting to have more power and trying to take the place (and the rights) of others. They give many reasons for this: “The State is not doing its work”, “such-and-such organisation does not have the skills”, “the local communities are being robbed and should have more power”, “the local communities are indigenous and thus know more about how to manage the land”, etc.” These arguments show no sign of stopping. As the essayist La Rochefoucauld once said, “*Quarrels would not last long if the fault were only on one side*”<sup>20</sup>.

It is the State’s duty to establish the governance framework, in other words for each geographical entity, to specify who makes the decision and how. It is then its duty to ensure the rules are enforced properly. Thus, the management rules for the State’s land are established for the smooth running of the State: for example, the central bank’s safe is not managed by people in the street. The PAs, the safes of biodiversity, will therefore not be managed by their opponents who, *in fine*, want it to disappear. Similarly, community land is meant to be managed by the community itself and not by another community, an association of communities or another body. It is the principle of subsidiarity. A private property will be managed by its owner, respecting rules (legislation).

In this context, the main aspects that we feel it is important to improve are, for each of the partners:

- The State: it should achieve good governance and the rule of law. It should prevent socio-political conflicts, which are the prelude to the

<sup>19</sup>Minister Tshekedi Khama, Botswana, May 2018. <https://www.facebook.com/WeAreAfricaTravel/videos/1534375810001231/UzpfSTE3Mjg4NTI4MzMwOToxMDE1NTU5ODQ4OTEzODMxMA/>

<sup>20</sup>François de La Rochefoucauld, *Réflexions ou sentences et maximes morales*, Paris, 1665

destruction of nature and of PAs. It should draw up a PA strategy that can be funded and to build capacities at all levels in order to implement it. Finally, it must manage the State land, which is a public good.

- Technical and financial partners: they should take into account the real financial needs of the PAs and help finance them. They should provide funding in accordance with the PAs' national strategy in order to maintain a uniform approach and fund all the PAs and activities that deserve it. Public funding is essential for financing public goods such as PAs, the intention being that a global public good (biodiversity in this case) should be financed by international public funds.
- Conservation NGOs: they should not mix the search for funding, political lobbying, environmental advocacy, and technical substitution, or follow short-term trends.
- Private sector: it should devote itself to the implementation of operations from which it will benefit financially, which is its mission. It is an occasional service provider for indispensable infrastructures, its role in tourism, etc. Besides, private companies (private goods) are not eligible for the donation of public funding.
- Local communities: they should be able to govern themselves, and thus choose what they want to do with their land. Forcing them to make a choice would be synonymous with failure. Imposing a method of implementation on them (without respecting the principle of subsidiarity, for example), would also lead to failure. The actions chosen by the community must be compatible with those implemented in the neighbouring PA. One important point is that the local communities are eligible for public funding for development. This development must be conservation-dependent, in other words the funds really must depend on the conservation result generated.

In this context, there needs to be a consultation framework between the partners. This framework must be set up by the State and comply with good

governance. This is a key point and everyone should have the chance to express themselves and to be heard, in particular via forums represented in decision-making boards of directors. Transparency is essential, as is the absence of corruption and any dictatorial excesses. Each entity should feel that they are a partner in the PA's global policy, because if any of them feels left out this will inevitably generate frustration and a feeling of rejection, to the detriment of conservation and biodiversity.

This consultation framework must be situated at a local level, for each PA, bringing together all the partners involved in the PA and on its periphery, allowing them all to express themselves, and for the decisions to be taken in accordance with the governance and after they have all been able to express themselves (representative and inclusive character).

*Find out more on [www.papaco.org](http://www.papaco.org).*



### A little bit more info: the decline of big game hunting in Africa

The dire state of the big game hunting sector in Africa and its low potential for conservation in the future were highlighted in a study published by IUCN-Papaco in 2009<sup>21</sup> and later confirmed by other publications<sup>22,23</sup>.

This decline, beyond any partisan discussions, is characterised by the evolution in three indicators:

- **The progressive disappearance of big game hunting zones** faced with agro-pastoral encroachment linked to population growth. In some countries, big game hunting zones have practically disappeared, and have lost over 90% of their surface area (Senegal, Niger, Chad, CAR, DRC, Sudan, Malawi, Angola...), in other countries, the choice was made to close big game hunting (Kenya, Gabon, Botswana, Côte

d'Ivoire...), finally, in countries where big game hunting is still carried out, the degradation of both the biotope and the populations of game species has led to the non-use of 40% of big game hunting zones in Zambia<sup>24</sup>, and 72% in Tanzania<sup>25</sup>. In addition to these unused areas, in Zambia, for example, certain active zones contain no game species. These include zones classified as “depleted”<sup>26</sup>. This disappearance of hunting zones is linked to population growth, as shown in Figure A1: human density (in blue) does not leave any room for big game hunting (in red, % of the country's land occupied by big game hunting zones) and they evolve inversely<sup>27</sup>.

- **The decrease in the number of shot animals.** This phenomenon started several years ago. Thus, in the Northern Cameroon, the hunting taxes paid by hunters to the State when they

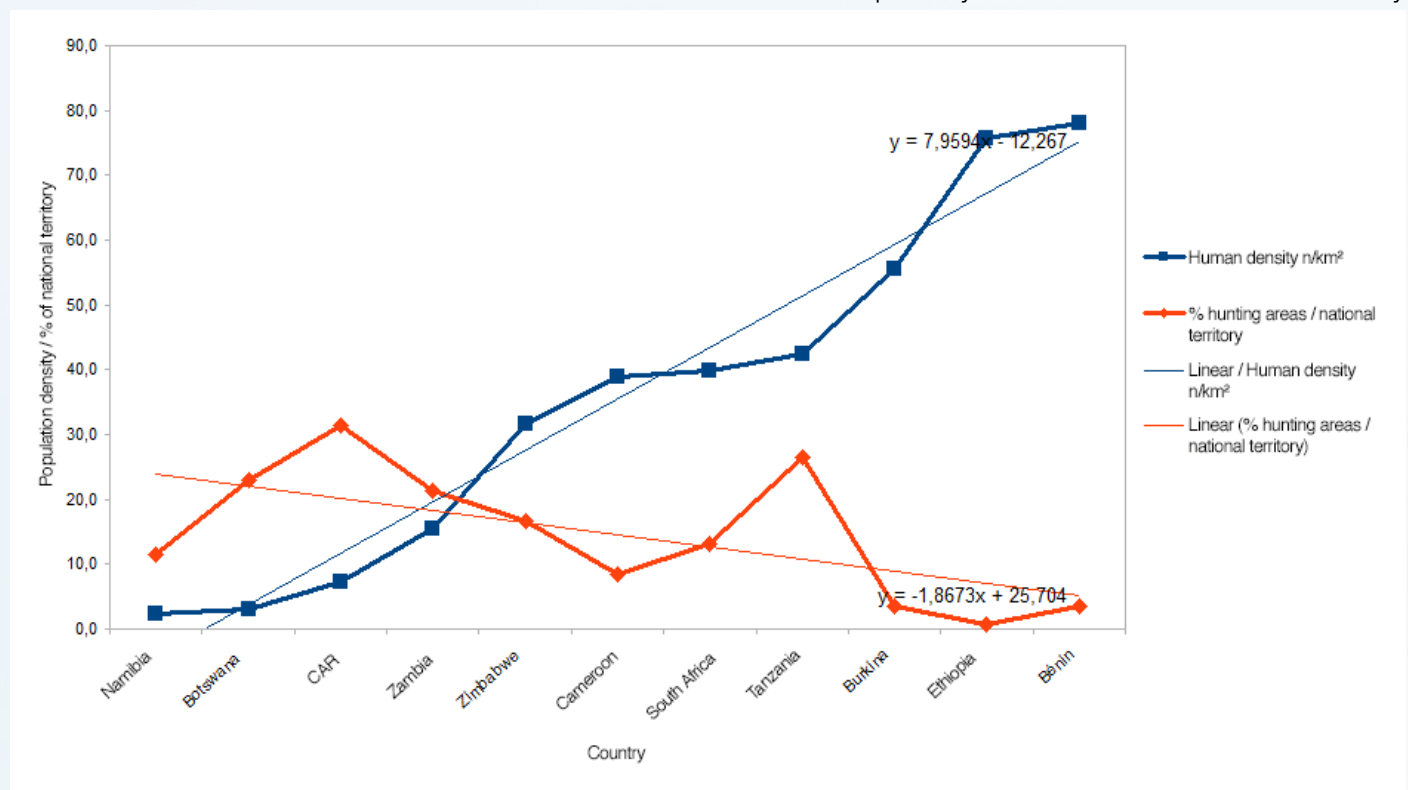


Figure A1: Evolution in human densities and the national land allocated to big game hunting

21 IUCN Papaco. La grande chasse en Afrique de l'Ouest : quelle contribution à la conservation? ISBN: 978-2-8317-1204-8. <https://portals.iucn.org/library/efiles/documents/2009-074.pdf>

22 Economists at large, the lions share? On the economic benefits of trophy hunting, 2017. Melbourne, Australia. <http://www.hsi.org/assets/pdfs/economists-at-large-trophy-hunting.pdf>

23 Economists at large, The \$200 million question. How much does trophy hunting really contribute to African communities? 2013. Melbourne, Australia. <http://www.ecolarge.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/06/Ecolarge-2013-200m-question-FINAL-lowres.pdf>

24 Watson, F.G., et al. Human encroachment into protected areas network in Zambia. Reg environ change 2014. DOI 10.1007/s10113-014-0626-5

25 Packer, C., 2018. Minnesota University & Oxford WildCRU. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=STaqmtIZfcU>

26 Lindsey, P.A., et al. Underperformance of African Protected Area Networks and the Case for New Conservation Models: Insights from Zambia, 2014. PlosOne. <http://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0094109>

27 IUCN Papaco. La grande chasse en Afrique de l'Ouest: quelle contribution à la conservation? ISBN: 978-2-8317-1204-8. <https://portals.iucn.org/library/efiles/documents/2009-074.pdf>

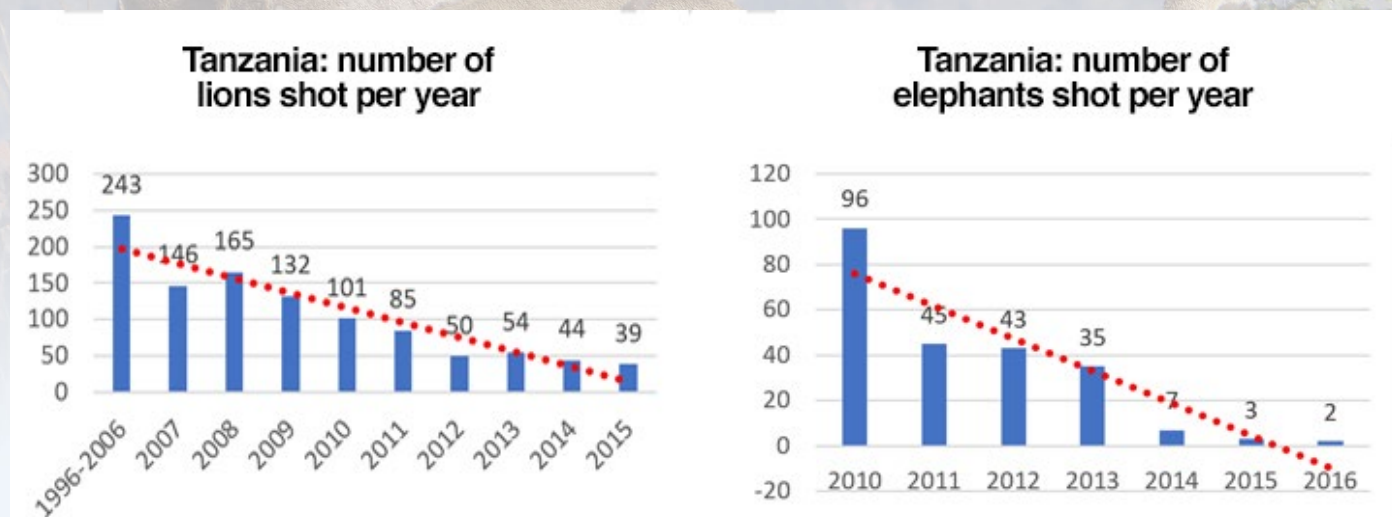


Figure A2: Evolution in the number of lions (left) and elephants (right) shot each year in Tanzania, and trend lines (in red)

kill an animal halved between 2008 and 2016<sup>28</sup> indicating a 50% decrease in the numbers harvested with a similar number of hunters. In Tanzania, the leading country for big game hunting in unfenced areas, the evolution in the number of lions shot per year is shown in Figure A2 below<sup>29</sup>. The decline is highlighted by the trend line (the red dotted line). It can be seen that, although the country introduced a 6-year minimum age limit for shooting lions, in 2015, 66.7% of the lions shot were 5 years old or under, underlining the fact that there were simply no lions of the correct age left to be shot. During the same period, the annual quota attributed by the Wildlife Division was 315 up to 2015 and 207 since 2016. These quotas are not at all in line with sustainable management and this mismatch is what has led certain Western countries to controlling or banning imports of sport-hunted lion trophies.

This same thing occurs with elephant hunting, as shown in Figure A2<sup>30</sup>: the decline in the numbers harvested started in 2011, with the large upsurge in poaching focusing on hunting zones, targeting elephants with ivory tusks. Since Tanzanian law requires that only elephants with

tusks over 1.6 m long or weighing over 20 kg can be shot, hunting has practically stopped due to the absence of individuals possessing these characteristics. Given the slow growth rate of tusks, it will take several decades of protection with no hunting before elephant hunting can start again respecting minimum measures, which is not sustainable for hunting operators from a commercial point of view. It can be seen that the authorised hunting quota for elephants was 200 up to 2013, and has been 100 since 2014, which is completely inconsistent with reality. The suspension of imports of sport-hunted trophies to the USA dates back to 11 August 2014<sup>31</sup>, and thus occurred after the decline. Therefore, this decision only sanctioned the reality and is not the cause of the decline in big game hunting, as is claimed by big game hunting operators.

In Tanzania, the income from lion and elephant hunting represented 23.5% of the global revenue from tourism operators before 2010, in other words around 1 USD/ha/year on a turnover of 4.24 USD/ha/year. This is therefore a significant loss, and not the only one, which turns the economic operation into a loss maker, the profit margins already being low or even negative<sup>32</sup>.

28Lescuyer, G., et al. Does trophy hunting remain a profitable business model for conserving biodiversity in Cameroon? (2016). International Forestry Review Vol. 18(2) <https://agritrop.cirad.fr/582098/1/IFR%20Lescuyer%20et%20al.pdf>

29Source: Wildlife Division & TAWA, Ministry of Natural Resources & Tourism, Tanzania

30Source: Wildlife Division & TAWA, Ministry of Natural Resources & Tourism, Tanzania

31 <https://cites.org/sites/default/files/notif/E-Notif-2014-037.pdf>

32Lindsey, P.A., et al. The Significance of African Lions for the Financial Viability of Trophy Hunting and the Maintenance of Wild Land, PlosOne, January 2012. <http://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?doi=10.1371/journal.pone.0029332&type=printable>



- The decrease in the number of hunters. Above all, this decrease involves the hunters' countries of origin. In the USA, the main country of origin, the number of hunters dropped from 14.1 million in 1991 to 11.5 million in 2016, in other words a decrease of 18.5% in 25 years, with only 4.4% of the population hunting<sup>33</sup>. The same is true for France for example, where the number of hunters dropped from 2.3 million in 1975 to 1.15 million in 2016<sup>34</sup>, in other words a decrease of 50% in 40 years. For African countries the number of hunters is sometimes hard to ascertain. However, in South Africa the number of foreign hunters dropped from 16,594 in 2008 to 6,539 in 2016, in other words a decrease of 60.5% in 8 years. Since there are 9,000 hunting game farms in South Africa, that total does not even represent one hunter per game farm per year. Some game farms have started to get rid of their game and return to cattle breeding<sup>35</sup>. In Tanzania, the latest statistics are not available, however, at the start of 2018, the former President of the Tanzania Hunting Operators Association said that the number of lion and elephant safaris had been reduced to a handful<sup>36</sup>. In Namibia, Figure A3 shows the decline curve (in red) of the number of foreign hunters from 2007 to 2013<sup>37</sup>.

The decline is thus clear for the three indicators, and explains why the big game hunting economy, which was already precarious during the 2000s<sup>38</sup>, has become so bad that the situation has declined rapidly in recent years.

The causes of this decline are poaching and agro-pastoral encroachment, since hunting

<sup>33</sup> USFWS, 2016. [https://wsfrprograms.fws.gov/subpages/nationalsurvey/nat\\_survey2016.pdf](https://wsfrprograms.fws.gov/subpages/nationalsurvey/nat_survey2016.pdf)

<sup>34</sup> Ministère de la transition écologique et solidaire, France, 2018. <https://www.ecologique-solidaire.gouv.fr/chasse-en-france>

<sup>35</sup> Flack, P., 2018. <https://www.peterflack.co.za/hunting-statistics-2016/>

<sup>36</sup> Interview E. Pasanisi, [www.fieldsportschannel.tv/us-trophy-ban-starts-to-kill-wildlife/](http://www.fieldsportschannel.tv/us-trophy-ban-starts-to-kill-wildlife/)

<sup>37</sup> Source NAPHA-NACSO in: Venter, R., Impact of a hunting ban on commercial cattle farms in Namibia, 2015. <http://www.theeis.com/data/literature/Impact%20of%20a%20hunting%20ban%20on%20commercial%20cattle%20farms%20in%20Namibia.pdf>

<sup>38</sup> Idem 111

<sup>39</sup> Lescuyer, G., et al. Does trophy hunting remain a profitable business model for conserving biodiversity in Cameroon? (2016). International Forestry Review Vol.18(2) <https://agritrop.cirad.fr/582098/1/IFR%20Lescuyer%20et%20al.pdf>

### Namibia: number of foreign hunters from 2007 to 2013



Figure A3: Evolution in the number of foreign hunters in Namibia from 2007 to 2013

associations did not invest the necessary amount of money to counter these phenomena. It has been seen that in Tanzania, the average expenditure for anti-poaching was 0.18 USD/ha/year in hunting zones, much lower than the current standards of 7 to 8 USD/ha/year and the Kenya Wildlife Service's figure of 14 USD/ha/year. By only financing 2% of the necessary operations, big game hunting has not been able to maintain biodiversity in these areas. It has not contributed significantly to the well-being of Tanzanian communities either, with an average redistribution of 0.08 USD/ha<sup>40</sup>, whilst in the same period the Maasai Mara conservancies in Kenya pay 40 USD/ha/year without counting the redistribution linked to the entry-fees and employees' salaries. Moreover, the amounts collected were not all used in Tanzania, as highlighted in the Panama Papers<sup>41</sup> financial scandal, which underlined the poor governance of the sector.

The hunting market does not have the means to pay the real price of safaris. A very good hunting zone has a lion density of 2/100 km<sup>2</sup> and thus it needs a hunting surface area of 5,000 km<sup>2</sup> (= 500,000 ha) to shoot one lion per year

<sup>40</sup> Conservation Force, Tanzania Hunting Operator Enhancement Audit, 2016, <http://www.conservationforce.org/tanzania-hunting-operator-report>

<sup>41</sup> <https://corporatewatch.org/article/panama-papers-leak-reveals-safari-companies-africa-use-tax-havens>



sustainably<sup>42</sup>. The annual upkeep alone of this area costs around 4 million USD (and probably more for a lion population of this type, due to the management of conflicts with the populations). The sales price of a safari to hunt lions is on average 50,000 USD (the price paid by the hunter who killed the lion called Cecil in Zimbabwe in 2015<sup>43</sup>), in other words 1.25% of the cost price.

No one will pay 4 million USD to shoot a lion, and this shows how hunting is powerless to fund its conservation. Moreover, since a dead lion becomes the private property of a hunter, the donations from public funds are not normally eligible for funding hunting.

In conclusion: the facts and indicators reveal a very rapid decline in big game hunting in Africa over several years: it does not protect the habitat from agro-pastoral encroachment, it can only finance a small percentage of the sum required for its conservation, and its socio-economic benefits are too low. Hunting

used to be a conservation tool, but in the great majority of cases it no longer plays this role and will not do so in the future either. Before many hunting zones are colonised, it is important to recover part of some of them to improve the configuration of certain protected areas and, through this, nature conservation.

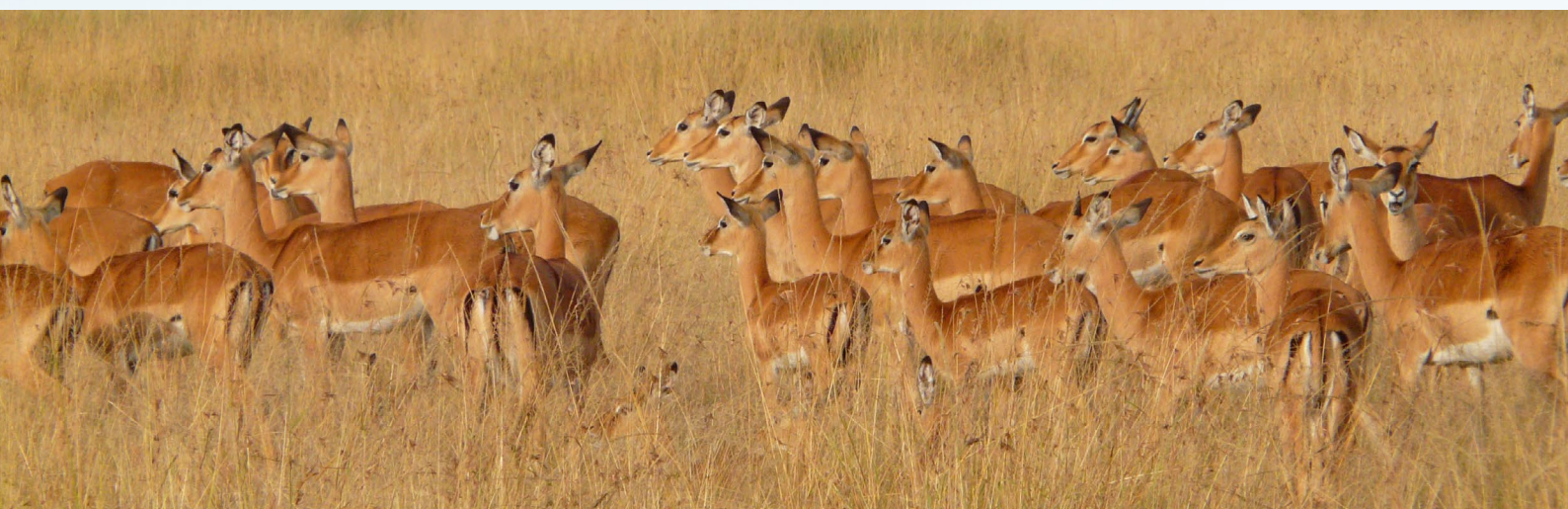
**The full study is downloadable on [www.papaco.org](http://www.papaco.org).**

**This study was funded by the France-IUCN partnership**



<sup>42</sup> Bauer, H., et al. 2017. Lion trophy hunting in West Africa: a response to Bouché et al. PlosOne 12 (3). <http://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0173691>

<sup>43</sup> Loveridge, A. Lion hearted, p. 150-151. Regan Arts. New York, April 2018. ISBN 978-1-68245-120-5





# Announcements

## PANORAMA

SOLUTIONS FOR A HEALTHY PLANET

### East Atlantic Flyway partnership for the conservation of tidal flat ecosystems Banc d'Arguin - Wadden Sea

Europe's Wadden Sea (DK, DE, NL) and Mauritania's National Park Banc d'Arguin (PNBA) — two World Heritage properties linked through the migratory birds on the African Eurasian Flyway, for which they serve as important wintering and stop over areas — signed a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) in 2014 to protect the migratory birds. Since, there have been bilateral visits of managers and scientists, a joint action plan and cooperation in bird monitoring. More, PNBA joins the Wadden Sea Flyway Initiative, launched to strengthen waterbird conservation and monitoring along the East Atlantic flyway.



Migratory birds in the Wadden Sea  
© Martin Stock

Full article [here](#).

More info about Panorama [here](#).

### FIVE POSITIONS AT WCS

Wildlife Conservation Society



- **Community Conservation and Livelihoods Coordinator** in Central African Republic, [apply here](#),
- **Anti-poaching Coordinator** in Central African Republic, [apply here](#),
- **Land-use Planning Coordinator** in Central African Republic, [apply here](#),
- **Northeastern CAR Protected Areas Director** in Central African Republic, [apply here](#),
- **Country director** in Congo Republic, [apply here](#).

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