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MINISTRY OF NATURAL RESOURCES AND TOURISM**

WILDLIFE DIVISION



**ASSESSMENT AND EVALUATION OF THE WILDLIFE
MANAGEMENT AREAS IN TANZANIA**

BY

INSTITUTE OF RESOURCE ASSESSMENT



SUPPORTED BY



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List of Abbreviations

AA	Authorised Association
AWF	African Wildlife Foundation
CAWM	College of African Wildlife Management
CBNRM	Community Based Natural Resource Management
CBC	Community Based Conservation
CBO	Community Based Organisation
Danida	Danish International Development Assistance
DED	District Executive Director
DNRO	District Natural Resources Officer
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
EMA	Environmental Management Act
FBD	Forestry and Beekeeping Division
GCAs	Game Controlled Areas
GMP	General Management Plan
GoT	Government of Tanzania
GRs	Game Reserves
GTZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft fur Technische Zusammenarbeit (Development Agency of the Federal Republic of Germany)
IRA	Institute of Resource Assessment
JFM	Joint Forest Management
LGFR	Local Government Forest Reserve
JUHIBU	Jumuiya ya Hifadhi Burunge
JUHIWAI	Jumuiya ya Hifadhi Wanyama Pori ya Ipole
JUKUMU	Jumuiya ya Kuhifadhi na Matumizi Bor ya Maliasili Ukutu
MBOMIPA	Matumizi Bora ya Malihai Idodi na Pawaga
MNRT	Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism
NCAA	Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority
NGO	Non Governmental Organisation
NPs	National Parks
PFM	Participatory Forest Management
TALA	Tourist Agent Licence
TANAPA	Tanzania National Parks
TAWIRI	Tanzania Wildlife Research Insitute
TOR	Terms of Reference
TWPF	Tanzania Wildlife Protection Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VC	Village Council
VFMP	Village Forest Management Plan
VLFR	Village Land Forest Reserve
VNRC	Village Natural Resources Committee
WCA	Wildlife Conservation Act
WD	Wildlife Division
WDC	Ward Development Council
pilot WMA	Pilot Wildlife Management Area
WMA	Wildlife Management Area
WPT	Wildlife Policy of Tanzania
WWF	World Wildlife Fund

Executive Summary

Background

In December 2006 the Institute of Resource Assessment (IRA) was contracted by the Tanzania Programme Office of the WWF to undertake an assessment and evaluation of wildlife management areas (WMAs) in the country. The main objectives of this assignment were to:

- Evaluate the implementation of the process to establish a WMA;
- Evaluate the design of the pilot phase for the WMA looking at the extent to which the design has facilitated the implementation of WMAs, and
- Identify factors that can enhance sustainability of WMAs.

The evaluation was done in response to the WMA Regulations that require the pilot WMA to be assessed after the lapse of 36 months since the Regulations come to force. The assessment and evaluation aims to explore lessons learnt in order to provide a road map for WMA implementation in Tanzania.

Methodology

This assignment involved assessment and evaluation of the 16 pilot WMAs in Tanzania. The assessment and evaluation process covered ecological, economic, and sociological aspects related to the pilot WMAs. The combination of these aspects necessitates the use of a variety of approaches in the collection of both primary and secondary information from the pilot WMAs.

Before visiting the respective WMAs, the Review Team consulted various stakeholders at the national, regional and district levels, where it conducted interviews and discussed with the appropriate officials with the purpose of getting their views about the importance, capacity, and feasibility of the WMA concept. Also, the team consulted with the various donors for the respective WMAs to collect and assess data and information related to the facilitation process for the WMAs. Moreover, issues related to performance, strength, weaknesses and opportunities of each WMA and the WMA establishment process as stipulated in the WMA Guidelines were explored. The discussions with district officials enabled the team to assess and evaluate the technical, administrative, community involvement and management structures to each of the WMAs.

Lessons Learned

From the analysis and discussion of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats to the WMA design and implementation process, the team is able to draw up at least nine major lessons, as follows:

- The process of establishing WMAs is long and cumbersome. This does in many ways not only discourage communities by the resultant cost and bureaucratic complexity, but also lead to successful WMAs being formed only in areas with significant external support. The capital-intensive nature of activities like land use planning, natural resource management zoning, numerous consultative meetings in WMAs with many villages, and patrols make implementation of the WMA concept difficult indeed without donor support. Hence, continued facilitation is imperative in the whole process of establishment of WMAs.

- Recent history of conflict over land alienation for parks and game reserves has contributed substantially to the lack of progress on the establishment of WMAs in areas such as Tarime and Loliondo.
- Capacity building is the main issue emerging after the WMAs have attained an AA status and resource User Rights. All such WMAs do not have business and strategic plans to manage the WMAs and run business.
- Poor governance with little transparency and accountability is the general condition of many of the local level institutions. In some villages CBOs have distanced themselves too much from the Village Councils and hence also from the local communities. On the other hand, some of the Village Councils lack transparency in income and expenditures.
- In villages with rich wildlife and/or potential for investors there are strong anti-WMA establishment sentiments often fostered by individual investors and conflicting interests from some NGOs. Innovative and flexible ways need to be devised by facilitators to raise awareness among the local communities and promote the WMA option as a more attractive and viable economic venture.
- Benefit sharing between the Central Government and the local communities, and between villages with different land sizes contributed to the WMAs or with different resource bases, is still not so well defined.
- The focus of Regulations on wildlife management ignores the importance of other resources such as forests, water, minerals, and land, which could as well contribute to poverty alleviation. The situation calls for an integrated approach to the management of these resources and to the formation of resource management teams at the AA, district and national levels.
- Lack of harmonization of policies and legislation has made harmonization of the management and exploitation of the natural resources inherent in a WMA riddled with uncertainties and conflicts, as has been the case of forest resources in Ipole and Uyumbu WMAs, or the licencing of mineral exploration in the Songea pWMA.
- WMAs are not homogeneous. There are different socio-economic conditions and cultural lines within and between WMAs that need to be properly understood as they each demand different approaches to planning.

Best Practices

Although none of the 16 pilot WMAs had been operational by the time of this Evaluation, there are a few best practices that can be documented, as follows:

- In the WMAs that had earlier on participated in CBC programmes/projects around the SGR, presence of demonstrable benefits to communities in the form of legal access to game meat and revenue derived from sale of quotas in WMAs has given an extra impetus to the process of establishing the WMAs. So has been the case in areas where individual villages had benefited from private tourist hunting and photographic safari companies that had entered into local agreements to provide development support to adjacent villages as in Western Serengeti (e.g. Robanda village in Ikona). WMAs such as the Pawaga-Idodi WMA in Iringa District managed by the MBOMIPA association, have been able to earn income by selling wildlife quotas to resident hunters.

- Commitment at the macro or meso level is crucial for establishing vibrant links between the micro and the macro. Wildlife Division has involved local government authorities in planning and implementation of WMA programmes. In this case local government's commitment is demonstrated through direct participation and through the institutionalization of the Wildlife Division /Local Government relationship. Most of WMA interventions have been scaled up to the meso level vis-à-vis the District Strategic Action Plans so as to ensure conformity and avoid duplication of activities. Meso level institutions, e.g. the DGO, DCDO, etc., have also done the district level training, received feedback and given out recommendations for improvement. This relationship needs to be enhanced and promoted.
- Though not very well spelt out in the Regulations, the role of NGOs, both local and international, in facilitating the implementation of the WMA process has in many cases been exemplary. Facilitators like WWF, Africare, AWF, GTZ, et cetera, have played a crucial role in assisting the WMAs from registering their CBOs to the acquisition of User Rights. This Government/CSO relationship also needs to be enhanced and promoted.

The Way Forward

The following recommendations for improving the WMA process focus on the three objectives of this assignment, as follows:

Recommendations for Improved Implementation of the Process to Establish a WMA

- In order to ensure effective implementation and roll out of the WMA process, it is recommended that there should be a fully staffed and budgeted WMA Project Management Unit at WD.
- In order to ensure that the Wildlife Policy (1998), WMA Guidelines (2002) and Regulations (2004) are supported by a principal legislation, it is recommended that the new Wildlife Act be finalised as soon as possible.

Recommendations for the Design of the Pilot Phase for the WMA

- Harmonizing wildlife policies and legislation with the Land Acts, Forest Act, and Tourism Act, the Local Government Act and the Local Government Reform Programme and other laws of the land so as to minimize resource use conflicts.
- Harmonizing the management of the natural resources inherent in a WMA call for an integrated approach to ensure optimal benefits and cost effectiveness. Hence, there is a need to harmonise these community based conservation initiatives which sometimes fall in the same geographical area (e.g. forest resources in Ipole and Uyumbu WMAs).
- In order to reduce bureaucracy and accelerate the process of establishing WMAs, applications by CBOs for AA status, User Rights and hunting blocks should be combined.

- The conflicting Regulations need to be harmonized to rid them of the confusions and ease their implementation.

Recommendations for Enhanced Sustainability of WMAs

- Put in place a flexible post-User Rights capacity building programme, based on local needs assessments of the AAs and the communities in general, as these institutions are weak in human capital; lacking in both technical capacity and skill to take off and later manage their resources and operate successfully.
- In order to clearly define the role of facilitators in this respect a Facilitators Meeting should be organized on this issue by the Wildlife Division. The resultant capacity building programmes should be based on local needs assessments.
- Opportunities should be created for local communities to exercise and practice the skills obtained to alleviate poverty at the household level in simple, cheap and sustainable ways.
- Strengthen the WMA Regulations by clarifying the issue of benefit-sharing and granting community's greater control over wildlife utilization activities such as tourist hunting and photo tourism.
- Instead of relying solely on the resources of the donors, the WD should take a more pro-active role in the facilitation and roll-out of WMAs. The current initiatives of allocating a percentage of the tourist hunting fees to the WMA formation process are appreciable. However, other possible avenues of funding need to be explored. Inclusion of other players such as TANAPA, NCAA and the Tanzania Wildlife Protection Fund (TWPF) is encouraged.

Authorship and Acknowledgements

This report has been prepared by Prof. N.F. Madulu (Demographer and Socio-Economist), Prof. P.Z. Yanda (Land Use Analyst and GIS Specialist), Dr. F. P. Maganga (Governance and Conflict Resolution Specialist) Dr. Claude Mung'ong'o (Rural Livelihoods and Community Participation Specialist and Dr. A. Mwakaje (Agricultural/Environmental Economist). Prof. I. Kikula participated in the early stages of the assignment, prior to being appointed Vice Chancellor of Dodoma University.

The accomplishment of this assignment would not have been possible without the involvement of many players who invariably contributed to the report. Most of these appear under Annex 4 of this report. The evaluation team appreciates the understanding and cooperation displayed by the various institutions who dedicated their time and personnel to this exercise. In particular, the team would like to mention the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism, especially the Wildlife Division, who seconded one of their staff members, Captain W. Minja, who accompanied the team during the fieldwork trips.

Special appreciation goes to the WWF (TPO) who facilitated the work and coordinated the collection of comments to the draft report from various stakeholders, which helped significantly to improve the quality of the report. Last but not least, the evaluation team appreciates the role played by the IRA authorities and staff for assisting them to undertake the study and produce this report.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Background to the Evaluation

The Government of Tanzania is committed to effectively manage the wildlife resources for the benefit of its citizens. In 1998 the Government adopted the National Wildlife Policy of Tanzania (WPT). In the WPT a number of challenges were identified, and thus the adoption of best practices (sustainable development) for wildlife management in Tanzania was emphasized. The WPT has given a notable importance to community involvement in wildlife conservation. In addressing this aspect, the following challenges have been identified:

- To conserve areas with great biological diversity which are representative of the major habitats of Tanzania;
- To promote involvement of local community in wildlife conservation in and outside protected network;
- To integrate wildlife conservation with rural development;
- To ensure that wildlife conservation competes with other forms of land use, and
- To enhance recognition of intrinsic value of wildlife to the rural people.

In December 2002, the Government issued the Wildlife Management Areas (WMA) Regulations (2002), which identified 16 areas as pilot WMA where the Regulations applied. The pilot WMAs are governed by among other laws, the Wildlife Conservation Act of 1974, the Village Land Act 1999, and the Local Government Act (District Authorities) 1982. Collaborators in the management of the pilot WMAs are: the Authorized Association, the communities in the pilot WMAs, the Wildlife Division, District Councils, and other wildlife sector institutions such as TANAPA, NCAA and TAWIRI. Other partners include the private sector and NGOs such as WWF, AWF, and FZS. Development partners such as USAID, GTZ, and DANIDA have supported the Government in this initiative.

The implementation of the WMA was expected to increase community participation in the protection and conservation of wildlife resources, and contribute to improve natural resource management and planning process and strengthen local level governance and generate tangible social, economic and financial benefits to communities in harmony with the natural environment. The WPT advocates the establishment of WMAs as a means to effectively implement Community Based Conservation (CBC) activities in Tanzania. One of the objectives of the WPT is to promote the conservation of wildlife and its habitat outside the Core Protected Areas by establishing WMAs. This objective aims at fostering the involvement of local communities in the management of unprotected wildlife areas. The WMAs were expected to operate under the Wildlife Conservation Act (WCA) 1974, Village Land Act 1999 and Local Government Act (District Authorities) 1982. The underlying assumption was that WMAs would be established where there is a “healthy” population of wildlife, since WMAs, despite their conservation roles, would run as business entities parallel to other production systems in the village land, as will be determined by the land use plans.

The Operational Guidelines together with the Regulations for the Establishment of WMAs in Tanzania provided a starting point for the operations of the WMAs. The Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (MNRT) identified 16 sites to implement

WMAs on a pilot basis for the period of three years. The Progress Report outlines the strategy and methodology for conducting an assessment and evaluation of ten of the pilot WMAs in Tanzania. The TOR emphasised the importance of working with all stakeholders in order to generate information to be used in the assessment and evaluation of the performance of the various WMAs in terms of the conservation, social and economic activities in the respective WMAs.

As economic units of production the pilot WMAs were expected to operate in a sustainable way, and to provide benefits to the local community (village or villages) as well as individuals within the community (households). District Councils and the Central Government were also expected to eventually derive some benefits through taxes on income that would be derived from economic activities within WMAs. The local community at large was to benefit through investments that would be made from income derived from the WMA related activities. Individuals were expected to benefit through employment, using facilities or services that have been financed through proceeds from WMA economic activities and any disbursement from such activities accruing to individual village members. Villagers may use such disbursement for direct consumption to improve their welfare or they may use the benefits to improve productivity in other sectors such as crop or livestock production.

Since the overall goal of the WMAs is to have a secure and productive wildlife resources outside core protected areas, it is important to ensure that the WMAs are managed as a common pool resource. As already stated, the main objective of the WMAs is to conserve and manage wildlife outside protected areas, in view of maintaining environmental quality and improving livelihoods. It was expected that most of the benefits would be allocated for use to activities that provide benefits to the community in general. In order to entice sustainable interest and support of community members some benefits must also accrue to individuals and households from time to time and at an increasing rate over time.

Objectives of the Evaluation

The main objectives of this assignment are to:

- Evaluate the implementation of the process to establish a WMA;
- Evaluate the design of the pilot phase for the WMA looking at the extent to which the design has facilitated the implementation of WMAs, and
- Identify factors that can enhance sustainability of WMAs.

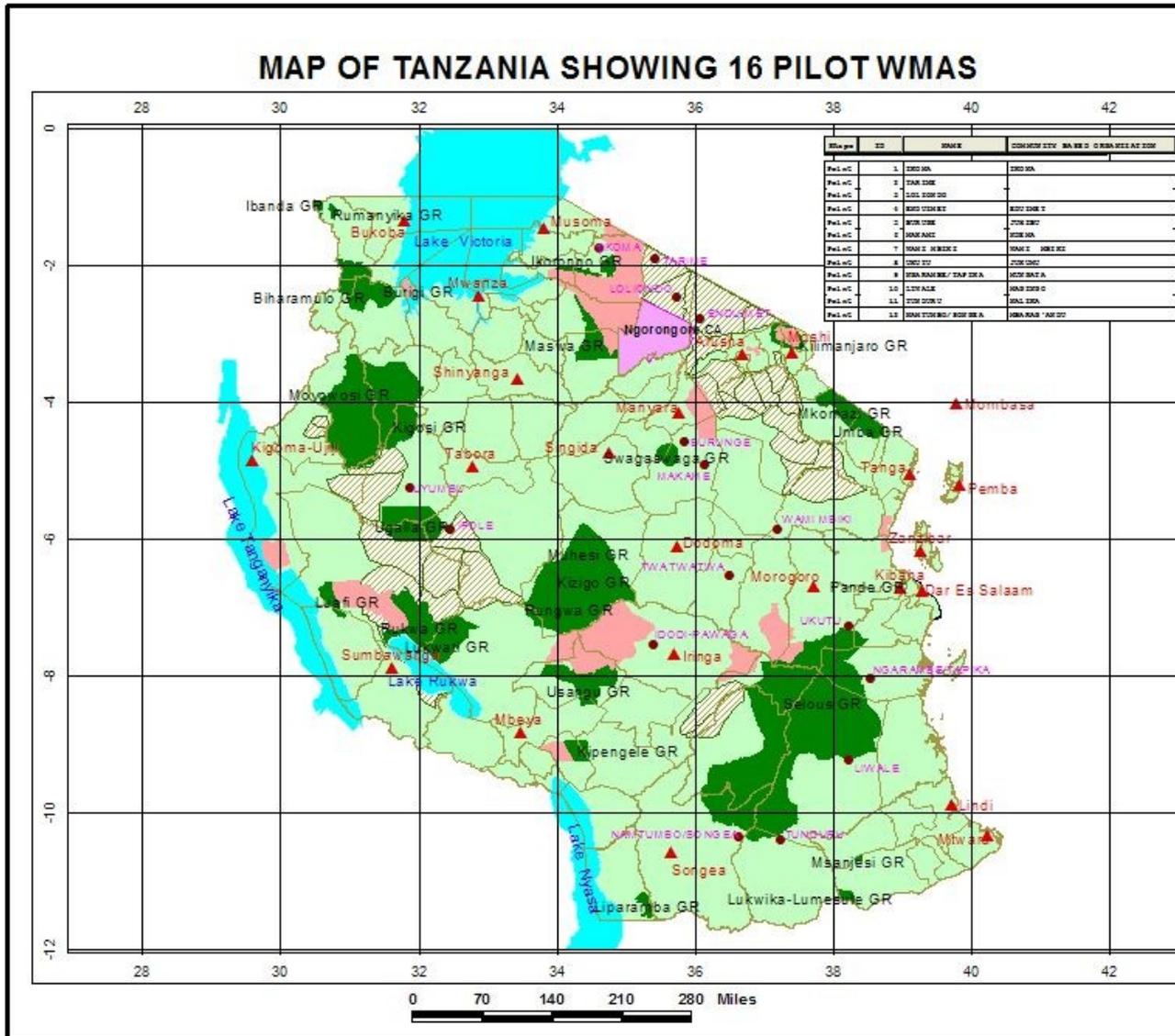
The evaluation is done in response to the WMA Regulations that require the pilot WMA to be assessed after the lapse of 36 months since the Regulations come to force. The assessment and evaluation aims to explore lessons learnt in order to provide a road map for WMA implementation in Tanzania.

This Draft Report presents the findings of literature review, fieldwork and consultations undertaken by the Institute of Resource Assessment (IRA). The Report starts with a brief introduction, followed by a discussion of the methodology used, presentation and discussion of the findings, a highlight of emergent issues and lessons learnt, as well as a charting of the way forward.

Scope of Work

The TORs indicate the following 11 tasks that need to be undertaken in order to realise the objectives of the assignment.

- Review relevant information pertaining to operationalization of the WMA concept;
- Assess the efficiency of the pilot WMA development process;
- Assess factors that have enabled 4 pilot WMAs attain formalization process against those that have not, and highlight on the positive lessons from these 4 pilot WMAs;
- Assess the performance of the 16 pilot WMAs in establishing WMA as per regulations;
- Evaluate the level of participation in decision-making in the pilot WMA process;
- Examine the relationship and linkages between village communities, CBO, private sector, facilitators and government at all levels in the implementation of pilot WMAs;
- Determine strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats to WMAs based on ecological, economic, social, legal, including governance and cultural aspects;
- Document lessons learned and best practices;
- Provide recommendations on operationalization of WMA concept in Tanzania;
- Suggest way forward for development of WMAs and for the overall policy initiative in Tanzania bearing in mind national policies and laws, and stakeholders' views and concerns; and
- Document challenges



2.0 METHODOLOGY AND APPROACH

This assignment involved assessment and evaluation of the 16 pilot WMAs in Tanzania. The assessment and evaluation process covered ecological, economic, and sociological aspects related to the pilot WMAs. The combination of these aspects necessitates the use of a variety of approaches in the collection of both primary and secondary information from the pilot WMAs. Table 1 presents a list of the 16 Pilot WMA distributed according to respective Zones and Districts.

Table 1: Pilot WMAs Visited by Zones and Districts

Zone	District	Names of WMA	Name of CBO/AA
Southern	Rufiji	Ngarambe-Tapika	MUNGATA
	Liwale	Liwale	MAGINGO
	Tunduru	Tunduru	NALIKA
	Namtumbo	Songea	MBARANG'ANDU
	Iringa	Pawaga-Idodi	MBOMIPA
	Kilosa	Twatwatwa	-
	Morogoro	Ukutu	JUKUMU
Western	Mvomero Morogoro Bagamoyo	Wami-Mbiki	Wami-Mbiki Society (WMS)
	Sikonge	Ipole	JUHIWAI
	Urambo	Uyumbu	UWIMA
Northern	Kiteto	Makame	INDEMA
	Monduli	Enduimet	ENDUIMET
	Babati	Burunge	JUHIBU
	Ngorongoro	Loliondo	-
	Serengeti	Ikona	JUHIWAIKO
	Tarime	Tarime	-

In order to accomplish the assessment exercise, the team started by reviewing relevant documents and consulting the various stakeholders as discussed below

Literature Review

The Evaluation Team reviewed relevant documents including policies, laws, and implementation reports at different levels of operation. Sources of such reports included the WD, MNRT, Donors (Development Partners), NGOs and various other stakeholders who are involved in WMA implementation in one way or another. Of special interest were the WMA baseline studies, Kulindwa *et al* (2003)¹; Malemari *et al* (2003)²,

¹ Kulindwa, K; Z. Mvena and V. Runyoro 2003. Baseline for the Proposed Pilot Wildlife Management Areas (WMA). Main Report Submitted to the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism

² Malemari, L. Madulu, N.F. and Isinika 2003. Baseline Study in Uyumbu, Ipole and Wami-Mbiki WMAs. Main Report Submitted to the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism, Vols 1-IV.

Maganga *et al* (2003)³ and Mung'ong'o *et al* (2003).⁴ In addition, the Evaluation Team reviewed of the most notable reports on WMAs, ranging from officially sanctioned studies (e.g. Booth *et al* 2000; Gamassa *et al* 2005 and Kessy *et al* 2004), preparatory studies undertaken by the USAID/EPIQUE initiative (e.g. Christophersen *et al* 2000 and Walsh, 2001); to independent studies by other interested stakeholders (e.g. Baldus and Cauldwell 2004; Kallonga *et al* 2003 and Nelson *et al* 2006). Section 3.1.3 provides detailed review of some of these reports.

Visiting and Consulting Various Stakeholders

Before visiting the respective WMAs, the Review Team visited and consulted various stakeholders at the national, regional and district levels, where it conducted interviews and discussed with the appropriate officials with the purpose of getting their views about the importance, capacity, and feasibility of the WMA concept. Also, the team consulted with the various donors for the respective WMAs to collect and assess data and information related to the facilitation process for the WMAs. Moreover, issues related to performance, strength, weaknesses and opportunities of each WMA and the WMA establishment process as stipulated in the WMA Guidelines were explored. The discussions with district officials enabled the team to assess and evaluate the technical, administrative, community involvement and management structures to each of the WMAs. The list of stakeholders consulted in the course of gathering background information and views from stakeholders is attached as Annex 3 of this report.

Field Visits

The Evaluation Team undertook fieldwork as shown in Annex 2. As indicated, the Team managed to visit all the targeted areas, except Sikonge District and Ipole WMA which was unreachable due to heavy rains and poor roads. However, the Review Team had a chance of discussing with stakeholders from Ipole and Sikonge District in Tabora, where they gathered attending another meeting. In addition to problems of reaching Sikonge, the Evaluation Team also faced other difficulties towards the end of the field visits. The Team's vehicle was stuck in the mud for a whole day near Loliondo, disrupting a planned meeting with Serengeti District officials in Mugumu. Attempts to re-schedule the meeting failed because afterwards the leaders were busy with a visit of European Union ambassadors to the area. The Team also encountered problems at Robanda village, where the village leadership refused to talk to the Team even after two days of trying to convince them (see Section 3.4.3).

Through literature review and field consultations, the team was able to establish the strengths, weaknesses and opportunities for the WMA process. While getting an understanding of the progress made for each WMA, the information obtained also highlighted challenges that face implementation of the pilot WMAs, and opportunities for enhancing WMAs implementation.

³ Maganga, S.L; F. Magayane; and E. Senkondo 2003. Baseline Information of Pilot Wildlife Management Areas in Tanzania. Report Submitted to the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism.

⁴ Mung'ong'o, C.; A. Mwakaje and A. Kijazi 2003. Baseline Survey of the Eastern Pilot Wildlife Management Areas. Report Submitted to the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism.

3.0 PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

Observations from Literature Review

This section presents a brief review of policies, laws, guidelines and reports related to WMAs. Apart from reviewing literature and other relevant studies, the Review Team also reviewed legal and policy documents touching on WMAs in Tanzania as presented below.

3.1.1 Review of Policies and Strategies Related to WMAs

This sub-section presents five of the most important policies and strategies that are related to the WMA process.

1. National Development Vision 2025: The Development Vision in Tanzania aspires to graduate Tanzania from a least developed country, to a middle-income country with a strong competitive economy. It encourages NGO engagement with communities. The economic benefits to communities from managing WMAs as a means of generating revenue for local development supports this Vision and enhances efforts towards equitable rural development. In essence, the WMA is envisaged to be a community run business for the benefit of community development.

2. The National Strategy for Growth and Poverty Reduction (MKUKUTA): The Cabinet and Parliament adopted the MKUKUTA, the second Poverty Reduction Strategy, in early February 2005. The MKUKUTA makes linkages with Tanzania's Vision 2025 and is committed to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)⁵ as internationally agreed targets for reducing poverty. The MKUKUTA aims at poverty reduction through three broad outcomes:

- Growth and reduction of income poverty;
- Improved quality of life and social well being;
- Good governance and accountability.

The MKUKUTA translated the MDGs by taking into consideration the national circumstances and priorities. It acknowledges the link between poverty (MDG 1) and environment (MDG 7), and gives specific targets in each of the three outcomes: 1) growth and reduction of income poverty has for instance targets (and strategies) on the contribution of natural resources to growth and poverty reduction; 2) improvement of quality of life and social well-being includes targets (and strategies) on environmental protection and pollution control, on environmental services such as water and

⁵ The [Millennium Declaration](#) was adopted in September 2000 by 189 world leaders who committed to "free all men, women and children from the abject and dehumanizing conditions of extreme poverty" by the year 2015. For that purpose, eight [Millennium Development Goals](#) (MDGs), namely: (1) Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger; (2) [Achieve universal primary education](#); (3) Promote gender equality and empower women; (4) Reduce child mortality; (5) Improve maternal health; (6) Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases; (7) Ensure environmental sustainability; and (8) Develop a global partnership for development; have been drawn to cope with a variety of issues such as promotion of education, maternal health care, gender equality, poverty reduction, child mortality, AIDS and other fatal diseases. These goals were set for the year 2015 with reference to the international situation prevalent in 1990.

sanitation, and vulnerability reduction; and 3) good governance and accountability has targets (and strategies) on equitable access and use of natural resources, general public participation, and transparent and accountable use of natural resources. Out of MKUKUTA's 108 targets, it is estimated that 15 are directly linked to environmental issues. The implementation of the WMAs is one of the strategies envisaged to translate MKUKUTA objectives at the community level by reducing income poverty and ensuring environmental sustainability.

3. Wildlife Policy (1998): The emergence of WMAs is based on the famous 1961 "Arusha Manifesto", whereby President Mwalimu Julius K. Nyerere first mooted Tanzania's wildlife conservation philosophy. The Wildlife Policy of Tanzania (WPT) of 1998 (URT, 1998) further facilitated the establishment of Wildlife Management Areas (WMA) as a new category of protected area. With Community Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) in mind, the policy had the following objectives: *"to promote the conservation of wildlife and its habitat outside core areas (i.e. NPs, GRs, GCAs, etc), by establishing WMAs". And, "to transfer the management of WMA to local communities thus taking care of corridors, migration routes and buffer zones and ensure that the local communities obtain substantial tangible benefits from wildlife conservation"*.

The Policy emphasise the importance of increasing local community participation in wildlife management. It states clearly that *"It is the aim of this policy to allow rural communities and private land holders to manage wildlife on their land for their own benefit."* Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs) are a main instrument provided by the Policy for the implementation of these CBNRM objectives. WMAs aim to provide local communities with the following:

- Responsibilities for wildlife management;
- Rights to use wildlife resources; and
- Opportunities to benefit from wildlife.

While the inauguration of the WMA Regulations in 2002 marked the implementation of the WP, the process of establishing pilot WMA gave various lessons that are discussed in this report (see Section 4.5). Important to note here is the high emphasis put on wildlife while leaving other related resources like land, water, mining, agriculture and livestock, and forestry to be managed under specific sectoral policies and Regulations. The WMA Regulations and the process to implement them calls for need to be integrative to facilitate sustainable management of natural resources and poverty reduction at the grassroots level.

4. National Environmental Policy (1998): The Environment Policy states that wildlife resources shall be protected with participation of local communities, and, that financial benefits from tourism activities should accrue to the local communities, and calls for equitable and sustainable use. Hence, the policy is supportive of the creation of WMAs but it requires the protection and monitoring of wildlife in an area to identify potential off-takes, and the undertaking of EIAs to accompany any developments like construction of hotels, lodges, roads, et cetera.

5. The Forest Policy 1998: encourages participatory forest management and seeks to integrate biodiversity values in forest management. Under the Land Act and Village Land Acts (1999), and the Forest Act (2002), communities can register unreserved

forest lands as village forests to gain ownership and user rights (Community-Based Forest Management). They can also enter into Joint Forest Management agreements with the government for devolved management on reserved forestland. However, the focus of WMA Regulations is mainly on wildlife, while the areas set aside for WMAs may have abundant natural resources such as forests, water, minerals, and land, which could equally contribute to poverty alleviation. The management of these resources call for an integrated approach. Hence, there is a need to harmonise these community based conservation initiatives that sometimes fall in the same geographical area (e.g. forest resources in Ipole and Uyumbu WMAs).

3.1.2 Review of Laws and Guidelines Related to WMAs

This sub-section presents five of the most important laws and guidelines that are related to the WMA process.

1. The Environmental Management Act (2004): The Environmental Management Act (EMA) was passed by Parliament November 2004, assented to by the President, February 2005 and became effective July 2005. EMA is a framework Act that overrides all current legislation related to environmental management. The EMA creates a conducive environment for the harmonisation of existing Acts. The EMA, being an umbrella for long-term environmental management:

- Defines mandates for national, regional and local level institutions; civil society; private sector; and other stakeholders.
- Contains provisions for the establishment of the National Environmental Advisory Committee.
- Contains provisions for the establishment of environmental sections/offices at all government institutions down to the village level.
- Provides VPO-DoE and NEMC with the overall coordination and overseeing responsibilities.
- Includes provisions for environmental planning at national, sectoral, and LGA levels.
- Includes provisions for management of the key environmental challenges: Land; aquatic systems including wetlands and coastal zones; pollution and waste; wildlife, forests and fisheries resources and biodiversity. This includes challenges occurring in WMAs (cf. the protection and monitoring of wildlife in an area to identify potential off-takes, and the undertaking of EIAs to accompany any developments like construction of hotels, lodges, roads, et cetera).
- Defines key environmental planning and management tools including EIA, SEA; and provides for environmental quality standards, economic instruments, and meeting of international obligations.
- Includes provisions for environmental analysis and record keeping, environmental information, education and research,
- Defines the mechanisms for public participation in environmental decision-making.
- Provides directives on enforcement and compliance.
- Contains provisions for the establishment of the Environmental Appeals Tribunal.
- Includes provisions for a National Environmental Trust Fund.

The implementation of the WMA Regulations has many notable linkages with EMA, especially on ensuring sustainable environmental and poverty alleviation strategies. Whereas the WMA bring in local communities as managers of wildlife and other resources, the EMA provides security of the environment through sustainable resource use and management approaches. The harmonization of Acts that seem to be the emphasis of the EMA will benefit the WMA process by addressing resource use conflicts, including wildlife, on the one hand, and agriculture, pastoralism and mining, on the other.

2. The Wildlife Act of 1974: This piece of legislation serves as the primary governing legislation for wildlife in Tanzania today. The Act creates three layers of authority in the management of the wildlife resources: the President, the Minister (of the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism), and the Director of Wildlife. The President is given powers to appoint the Director of Wildlife (S.3) the power to establish Game Reserves (s.5); powers to modify any restrictions in Game Reserves, Game Controlled Areas and Partial Game Reserves, and powers to declare any category of persons unfit for the grant of a game license (S. 22).

The WCA provides the basic framework for wildlife management in Tanzania and the allocation of existing rights and authority. It concerns itself primarily with:

- The creation of and provisions for certain protected areas (Game Reserves, Game Controlled Areas, Partial Game Reserves).
- The regulation of wildlife uses throughout mainland Tanzania.

The Wildlife Act (1974) has relevance to the WMA process as most of the pilot WMAs are in one way or another adjacent to existing protected areas under the Act, like Game Reserves (GRs) and Game Controlled Area (GCAs).

Game Reserves

GR are the foremost category of protected area under the WCA. Only the President, using his powers under section 5 of the Act, may establish this category of protected area. Entry into a GR without the express permission of the Director of Wildlife is prohibited by the WCA. The only people that are allowed to enter the GR without such permission are those who are ordinarily resident within the reserve, or persons travelling in a highway passing through the reserve. Under section 8 it is restricted for anyone to be in possession of a firearm or bow and arrows in a GR without the express permission of the Director of Wildlife. Section 9 restricts setting of fires, felling, cutting, burning, injuring, or removing any standing tree shrubs, sapling, seedling or any part thereof without the express permission of the Director of Wildlife. People ordinarily resident in G R are allowed to fell trees for the purposes of building dwellings for themselves, dependants and domestic employees. This permission is, however, not in prejudice of any written law restricting the felling of trees in any forest reserve or other areas.

No one is allowed to hunt, capture, kill, wound or molest any animal in a GR without the written permission of the Director of Wildlife. It is further restricted for any one to dig, lay or construct any pitfall, net, trap, snare or other device of whatsoever capable of killing and capturing or wounding an animal. Section 11 prohibits the carrying of weapon that may be used to hunt, kill, wound or capture any animals. Grazing of

livestock in GR is also prohibited without the written permission of the Director of Wildlife.

Game Controlled Areas

Game Controlled Areas (GCAs) are a less restrictive form of protected area created by the WCA. As in Game Reserves, in GCAs the hunting, killing, wounding, molesting and capturing of an animal is prohibited unless one receives the written permission of the Director of Wildlife. It is prohibited in the GCAs for one to dig, lay, or construct any pitfall, net, trap, snare, or other device capable of killing, wounding and capturing an animal without the express permission of the Director of Wildlife. These are the only restrictions. In GCAs, the entry of people is not restricted. Neither is grazing of livestock, cultivation or human settlement unlike in Game Reserves. Thus it is clear that in GCAs only wildlife consumption is regulated, and land use is not.

3. The Wildlife Conservation (Tourist Hunting) Regulations, 2000 - GN. No. 306/2000 (Revised Edition, 2002)

In 2000 the Minister for Natural Resources and Tourism, using her extensive powers under section 84 of the WCA to make regulations for the better performance of the Act and for the better conservation of wildlife, promulgated the Wildlife Conservation (Tourist Hunting) Regulations, 2000 i.e. GN. No.306/2000. The regulations are intended to establish procedures for the allocation of hunting blocks to tourist hunting companies and to attach conditions to each hunting company while performing its hunting activities. It imposes fines and the possible cancellation of a hunting block license for any company or person that conducts activities contrary to it. Regulation 16(5) of GN. 306 states:

No person shall conduct tourist hunting, game viewing, photographic safari, walking safari or any wildlife based tourist safari within a hunting block or within any wildlife protected area outside Ngorongoro Conservation Area, and National park, except by and in accordance with the written authority of the Director of Wildlife previously sought and obtained.

This regulation includes not only photographic tourism activities but also game viewing and walking safari as activities prohibited in hunting blocks. According to Kallonga *et al* (2003), even if all photographic tourism or photographing of wildlife by tourists fell under section 36 of the WCA, then GN. 306 would still be a major extension of the Ministry's regulatory powers under the WCA. Viewing game and walking in areas such as Game Controlled Areas is not addressed in any way by the WCA⁶. Thus Kallonga *et al* (2003) view GN. 306 as an attempt to regulate such activities using subsidiary legislation of the WCA. According to them, this goes contrary to the powers delegated to the Minister by the Parliament in the WCA and as a result the said regulation carries no statutory authority. In many Game Controlled Areas and nearly all Open Areas tourist hunting activities are administered by the Wildlife Division on lands which fall under the management of village governments according the provisions of the Village Land Act. An important legal matter in terms of land rights, economic opportunities, and the extent of central authority deals with the authorisation by the

⁶ The Evaluation Team has been informed that a draft of Photographic Tourism Regulation has been completed. Hopefully this Regulation will give proper direction when it comes out.

Wildlife Division of hunting activities on village lands - what is the extent of the Wildlife Division's power to license hunting on village lands.

The relevance of the Wildlife Conservation (Tourist Hunting) Regulations, 2000 to the WMA process is that it provides guidance to tourist hunting activities, which are envisaged as the main economic activity for most of the WMA. The Regulations provide a basis for managing and control of tourist hunting companies for the benefit of the local communities and the public in general.

4. Wildlife Conservation (WMA) Regulations of 2002: The WMA Regulations (subsidiary legislation under Section 84 of the WCA of 1974) provide for the creation of WMAs on village lands and implementation of the Wildlife Policy's objectives. The Regulations allows communities to become corporate entities and participate and benefit from wildlife utilization, in WMAs. However, in order to use any other natural resource products like fish, forest or bees, one needs to consult sectoral policies, laws and regulations regulating that particular resource. The Regulations spell out the process that the communities must follow in order to qualify for being granted wildlife user rights. This process can be summarized as follows:

- First, a Village Assembly meeting or meetings in the relevant village or villages must decide to form a WMA on the village lands. Once this has happened the villages must form a CBO to represent the community members and manage the WMA. This CBO must have a constitutions, rules of membership, qualifications of office bearers, financial management procedures, etc.
- Second, the CBO is to prepare Land Use Plans (LUPs) for the relevant villages. These LUPs should show where the proposed WMA will lie in the village or villages' lands, they should follow the procedures laid out by the National Land Use Planning Commission.
- Third, the CBO must form a General Management Plan, or alternatively as an interim measure (for up to five years) can compose a more basic Resource Management Zone Plan providing for the zonation of resource uses in the proposed WMA.
- Last, after completing the above prerequisites, the CBO can apply to the Director of Wildlife for the Minister to declare for the CBO to become an AA and gazette the WMA. If the application is approved by the Director, and the WMA is gazetted, the CBO becomes an Authorized Association (AA), which then applies for a user right.
- For those communities in Game Controlled Areas, another requirement is provided in the Regulations. The Regulations state that communities in Game Controlled Areas (e.g. Loliondo, Longido, Burunge and Ipole) must have their land moved from reserved/conservation land to village land prior to having WMAs established. This is because WMAs are only supposed to be established on village land, and not on any category of Protected Areas.

If the WMA application is approved by the Director of Wildlife, and the WMA gazetted, the following conditions will apply to the WMA:

- The AA will apply for User Right After acquiring the User Right the AA cannot transfer it.
 - The AA can now enter into contracts with other entities for use of wildlife resources in the WMA.

For investments in WMAs, the Regulations state that all investments must be approved by the Director of Wildlife. In terms of tourist hunting, the AA can ask the Director to designate all or part of a WMA to be a hunting block. Regarding benefit sharing, in WMAs Section 73 states that benefit sharing will be determined by “circulars issued by government from time to time.” For the proportion that the AA does capture, the Regulations state that:

- At least 15% must be reinvested for resource development of the WMA.
- At least 50% must be given to member villages in the WMA.
- At least 25% must be reinvested in strengthening the AA.

The Regulations provide a leeway for the individual AAs to decide on the actual allocation within the above stipulated limits.

A new institution created by the WMA Regulations is the District Natural Resources Advisory Board, which is charged with advising the AA on wildlife and natural resource management in the WMA.

5. Land Act (1999) and Village Land Act (1999): Wildlife is dependent on what happens to their habitats, and there is a strong link between land and wildlife legislation. In 1999 the Land Ordinance of 1923, which used to be the principal governing statute regarding land tenure and management in Tanzania, was repealed and replaced by two pieces of legislation, the Land Act No. 4 of 1999 and Village Land Act No. 5 of 1999, which came into force on May 1, 2001. The Land Act establishes three categories of land: general land, reserved land and village land. The Village Land Act deals with the management of the latter category of land while the Land Act deals primarily with the management of reserved land and general land in line with the sectoral pieces of legislation that the reserved lands are established under.

Most of the areas established for wildlife management in Tanzania fall under the category of reserved lands. Section 6(1) of the Land Act defines reserved lands to include:

- (a) Land reserved, designated or set aside under the provisions of:
 - i. Forests Ordinance;
 - ii. National Parks Ordinance;
 - iii. Ngorongoro Conservation Area Ordinance;
 - iv. Wildlife Conservation Act, 1974,
 - v. The Marine Parks and Reserves Act, 1994;
 - vi. Town and Country Planning Ordinance
 - vii. Highway Ordinance
 - viii. Public Recreation Grounds Ordinance;
 - ix. Land Acquisition Act, 1967;
- b) Land parcel within a natural drainage system from which the water resource of the concerned drainage basin originates;
- c) Land reserved for public utilities and;
- d) Hazardous land.

Thus the Game Reserves, Game Controlled Areas and Partial Game Reserves which are established under the Wildlife Conservation Act of 1974 all qualify as reserved lands and the restrictions and conditions prescribed by that Act apply. The Village Land Act establishes and defines village land. This includes:

- Land within the boundaries of the village registered under section 22 of the Local Government Act No. 7 of 1982;
- Land designated under the Land Tenure Village Settlements Act, 1965;
- Land, the boundaries of which have been demarcated as village land under any law or administrative procedure in force before the coming into operation of the Act whether that administrative procedure based on or conducted in accordance with any statute law or general principles of either received or customary law applying in Tanzania and whether that demarcation has been formally approved or gazetted or not;
- The land the boundaries of which have been agreed upon between the Village Council claiming jurisdiction over that land: and in case that land is contiguous to the village land, the Village Councils of the contiguous village; in case of the land contiguous to the village land is the general land by the Commissioner, or in case of the land contiguous to the reserved land; the official or public authority responsible for that reserved land; for a land claimed as part of the land or surrounding it is the land which has been declared to be urban or peri-urban land then by the local authority having jurisdiction over that urban land or peri-urban land and lastly with a body or person who is occupying a land under the right of occupancy and that land contiguous or surrounding the village land.
- Land other than the reserved land that the villagers have been using for the last 12 years before the enactment of the VLA as village land in whatever manner including land lying fallow at any time during the said 12 years; land used for depasturing cattle belonging to villagers or to persons using that land with the agreement of the villagers or in accordance with customary law; and land customarily used for passage or land used for depasturing cattle

It is clear that certain reserved lands, including most GCAs, are mainly found within village lands. The use of the land in those areas will have to be in conformity with the restrictions imposed by the Wildlife Conservation Act of 1974 which do not take away the rights of the villagers and the Village Councils to utilize lands and resources found therein, except for wildlife resources. Section 8 of the VLA gives the Village Council authority and responsibility for the management of village land. It requires the Village Council to:

...exercise the functions of the management in accordance with the principles applicable to a trustee managing property on behalf of a beneficiary as if the council were a trustee of, and the villagers and other persons resident in the village were beneficiaries under the trust of the village land.

All applications to occupy village land are made in the prescribed form to the Village Council. The Village Council will determine the application for land and if satisfied, it will issue customary right of occupancy. For the purpose of occupying village land, the following are allowed to apply; a person (individual), family unit, group of persons or association, and primary corporative society. It should be noted that only citizens may apply to the village council for a customary right of occupancy. The term or duration or time within which one can occupy land may be, for indefinite term to a person who is citizen, or a period less than 99 years, or on a year to year basis determinable by the village council. Once a village council has approved the application, certificates for

customary right of occupancy are to be issued. Certificates have to be signed by the District Land Officer and either the Chairman or Secretary of the Village Council.

By virtue of section 23(2) of the Act, the law requires that any application for allocation of land by a non-village organization must obtain guidance or recommendations from the Land Commissioner. The Land Commissioner will have to consider the size of the area applied for vis-à-vis interest of villagers, whereby the interests of villagers must be given the first priority. The interests of villagers (or a village as a whole) include the need to reserve land for future village plans. Such future village plans may include the need to have sufficient land for the establishment of a WMA, public open spaces, areas for future village investments and the like. Village Councils are empowered to charge or vary any land premium and or annual rent to any landholder, the law also gives power to the Village Council to issue derivative rights⁷ to third parties.

It follows, therefore, that Village Councils may enter into a lease agreement or give licence to somebody else for term of certain years. All derivative rights are not assignable without the consent of the Village Council after obtaining approval of the Village Assembly. Derivative rights are classified into three classes, that is A, B and C, as shown in Table 2 below:

Table 2: Classification of Derivative Land Rights and Distribution of Authority

Class	Size of Land (ha)	Time/ Duration	Determining Authority to Issue Derivative Rights	Days to Determine the Application
A	5 or less	Not more than 5 years	Village Council alone	60 days after receipt of application
B	6 to 30	5-10 years	Village Council with approval of Village Assembly	90 days after receipt of application
C	30 and above	More than 10 years	Village Council with approval of Village Assembly and Land Commissioner	120 days after receipt of application, and 30 days after approval of Village Assembly to the Land Commissioner

⁷ Derivative rights are secondary rights or those rights derived or taken from other rights, and owe their existence to something foregoing but not in themselves.

Section 14 of the VLA states that village land may be held under a customary right of occupancy. The section also recognizes the right of different users of land in forests reserves, as regulated by the Forest Ordinance (now Forest Act of 2002), Ngorongoro Conservation Area where since the enactment of the Ngorongoro Conservation Ordinance customary residents were permitted to reside and use the land under the concept of multiple land use.

Section 14(9), however, retains the powers of the relevant authorities under the Forest Act of 2002 and Ngorongoro Conservation Authority to regulate the use of the land by the people holding their land under customary rights of occupancy. It is important to note that, although the role of the Wildlife Division to monitor and regulate the use of wildlife in areas outside Protected Areas is paramount, the VLA is silent on this aspect, and the Wildlife Conservation Act is not mentioned. This is an area which calls for harmonization between the VLA and the WCA.

3.1.3 Review of Various Reports on WMAs

This section presents a review of 15 of the most notable reports on WMAs, ranging from officially sanctioned studies (e.g. Booth *et al* 2000; Gamassa *et al* 2005 and Kessy *et al* 2004); to independent studies by other interested stakeholders (e.g. Baldus and Cauldwell 2004; Kallonga *et al* 2003 and Nelson *et al* 2006). An attempt is made to relate the reports to some of the findings of this assessment and evaluation.

1. Akunaay, et al (2003): This paper is important for analysing the prospects of community based tourist investments inside and outside WMAs. The authors argue that in order to employ tourism as an effective rural development and poverty alleviation tool it is important to ensure that the rural communities capture directly the financial benefits from community-based tourism. They say that in northern Tanzania, community-based tourism is currently realising some of these objectives and is one of the main sub-sectors of growth in regional tourism enterprises⁸. They note that CBT is hindered by local conflicts between land uses, confusing or contradictory policies and statutes, and limited local capacity for managing tourism as well as weak, local resource rights. They recommend that providing more support to CBT through policy and legal mechanisms is essential so that it can realise its potential as a poverty reduction component, as is reducing existing conflicts in a transparent and equitable way.

2. Baldus and Cauldwell (2004): This paper provides a critique of the current organisation of tourist hunting and points to one of the threats of the WMA process – the general reluctance of the hunting outfitters to accept and support the WMA process. The authors argue that, “the Wildlife Division has developed a command system of control that favours a select group of hunting outfitters⁹ with reduced income generation and the exclusion of rural communities who are the legitimate holders of the land upon which hunting takes places”. They claim that concessions are leased at fixed rates far below the market value, and many to companies without the necessary marketing capacity, leading to a system of subleasing mostly to foreigners. Low rates are achieved and much of the hunting income that is generated never enters Tanzania and cannot be taxed.

Tourist hunting is the land use option that will provide the major source of funds for WMAs. The development of WMAs is delayed and there is no effective schedule for sharing of benefits from tourist hunting with the rural communities on whose land much of the hunting occurs. Outfitters are vaguely required to contribute towards protection and support of local communities, but set in a manner that cannot be effectively evaluated. There is a general hesitation among outfitters to accept the WMA concept and effectively empower local communities. They recommend that the Wildlife Division needs to be proactive through implementing effective reform of the tourist hunting industry, but this is only possible if: (i) Effective market-based competition between outfitters for concessions is introduced; (ii) Control of subleasing is implemented; (iii) Local communities are the principal decision makers for

⁸ The Evaluation Team encountered examples in Minjingu (Burunge WMA) Sinya (close to Enduimet), Tungamalenga (Pawaga-Idodi) and Kisasi (Ukutu). However, all these pose threats to the survival of the WMAs

⁹ The Evaluation Team was struck by the omnipresence of the SHENI group of companies in all the WMAs situated near hunting blocks. For example, Game Frontiers were mentioned in Songea and Ngarambe-Tapika; Royal Frontiers in Makame; and Northern Hunting in Burunge, Enduimet and Ipole.

allocation of concessions and quota setting for hunting on their land, and they receive and manage the funds generated on their land.

3. Booth et al (2000): This study developed recommendations to facilitate local communities to entering into negotiations with the private sector, and recommended suitable contractual instruments to ensure protection of both parties. The report provides draft guidelines and contracts as well as options for making expert advice on contractual issues available to local communities. These recommendations are important for capacity building after the pilot WMAs attain AA status and gain their user rights.

4. Christophersen, and Jambiya (2002): This study on emerging economic opportunities in the Wami-Mbiki Wildlife Management Area addresses the economic consequences of devolving the management responsibility and authority for the WMA from the Wildlife Department to the local communities in the area. Under such an arrangement, the revenues collected from hunting and tourism in the area must be shared with the local communities in the future. At the same time, additional economic activities complementary with the ongoing tourism hunting activity will emerge for the local communities to pursue once the new WMA becomes a reality. The key issue is whether the net revenues collected from additional sources by the both the local communities and the District and Central Government under the new system will be at least equal to, or exceed the net revenues collected from one source under the old system.

The authors note that in most rural communities, the capacity for planning and managing business enterprises is very low—there is a legacy of failed communal enterprise initiatives in Tanzania. The focus must be on the structure of the AA—the needed expertise must be hired from the outside while local capacities are being continually strengthened. The WMA legislative framework should reflect that the AA is free to hire the best and most competent management expertise to be able to manage the WMA to the maximum benefit of the local member communities within the constraints imposed by the Guidelines. Such a structure is costed in the modelling framework developed for this study.

The recommendation to hire outside expertise was tried in Wami-Mbiki, but at the time of the Evaluation most members of the paid secretariat were suspended because the Wami-Mbiki Society (WMS) could not meet their costs, and Danida support was suspended. However, it is argued that, with an area of 2,500 km² Wami-Mbiki is one of the largest WMAs with most village members (24), and therefore needs a different type of institutional arrangement. It is unlikely, that without the help of a hired professional staff, WMS Executive as village volunteers, will have the time, nor the capacity and skills needed to run a protected area of this magnitude (John Balarin, pers. comm.). Still, efforts are needed to streamline the Secretariat to the most basic, practical size needed for a WMA of this size.

5. Christophersen et al (2000): This study identified economic opportunities emerging as a result of WMA designation and carried out feasibility analyses of these opportunities. The opportunities identified are 1) tourism (trophy) and resident hunting, 2) photographic (non-consumptive) tourism, 3) improved beekeeping and collection of honey, beeswax and other beekeeping products, and 4) natural forest management. Using a combination of financial and economic analyses, the study concluded that these activities are feasible. Further, under assumptions about revenue sharing, it concluded

that government would be able to recoup all the revenue lost in the initial years. The latter conclusion was reached after comparing revenues with and without the WMA.

6. Gamassa, et al (2005): This study addresses one of the obstacles to the WMA process – lack of capacity to push through the WMA process at different levels. Gamassa *et al* (2005) looks into the training needs for various Wildlife Management Area actors and stakeholders that would be involved in the operationalisation of pilot Wildlife Management Areas, and identified representative training service providers and examined their capacities to undertake training programmes for different Wildlife Management Areas actors. Also, the study made an exploration of a range of training courses, modules and topics for various actors.

The Evaluation Team found that there is general lack of capacity, and, although the District Councils are supposed to have officers with capacity to do Land Use Plans, natural resource zonation and preparation of maps, many of the visited pilot WMAs reported that they had to sub-contract experts from UCLAS or the ACWM, Mweka to facilitate these tasks on their behalf. Furthermore, there is little or no legal capacity to handle preparation of constitutions, and/or handle contracts negotiations. Discussions with villagers further indicated that they needed to acquire skills for managing and governing of CBOs and AAs, monitoring of wildlife, and entrepreneurship. At another level, it has also been observed that local communities not only lack the capacity to mobilize local resources for establishment of WMAs, but they also lack capacity to absorb and manage some of the investments. At the administrative level, village leaders lack capacity to write proper minutes and keep records.

7. Gastorn (2003): The purpose of this consultancy was to analyse and describe the legislative framework governing the process of allocations and investments on the village land. It identifies some existing weakness and proposes legal solutions on how best investment can be done on village land. More specifically it seeks to see how to curb the ongoing acquisitions of village land which does not benefit the local communities. The work focuses on the villages or areas around wildlife protected areas such as national parks and game reserves.

The author notes that many private investors are acquiring land in villages or areas around wildlife protected areas such as national parks and game reserves through the private selling to individuals with the intention to build tourist lodges or camps there before Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs) are created. This has the advantage that they do not have to pay the communities later or share the income with them. Land is presently cheap and more often than not such purchases and lodges constructions are not done according to the relevant Tanzanian legislation.

It is further noted that the Wildlife Policy of Tanzania 1998 and the Wildlife Management Area Regulations made under Wildlife Conservation Act, 1974 create opportunities for community investment, joint ventures, leases, wildlife management and other forms of community involvement in WMAs. However, many private investors are buying all lands potential for establishment of WMAs and other community investments. The ongoing acquisitions of lands, if not regulated, will render the communities losers and the surrounding villages will never benefit from the emerging tourism industry.

8. International Resources Group Ltd (2000): This study reports on CBNRM/CBC experiences in Tanzania by focusing on:

- the nature of CBC interventions; the impact of the interventions in terms of level and sustainability of resource use;
- the impact of the interventions in terms of level and sustainability of resource use;
- the impact of the interventions in terms of creating conditions which are expected to change patterns of resource use in a desirable way;
- the level and incidence of economic benefits and costs attributable to the interventions;
- any institutional, economic, social, legal and cultural constraints to successful CBC interventions, and promising approaches to addressing them; and
- the nature, extent and effectiveness of participatory processes in the development and implementation of CBC interventions.

The report argues that, in promoting successful CBC, new premises are sought which focus on a multidisciplinary approach in which the Government is obliged to surrender some of its obligations to allow the sharing of responsibilities and benefits with communities. The parameters for national sustainable development and economic improvement of local communities are being redefined.

9. Kallonga et al (2003): This report presents the proceedings of a workshop that held in Arusha between 6th and 7th May 2003 at the offices of Hakikazi Catalyst which was organised by the Legal and Human Rights Centre and the Wildlife Working Group. The workshop provided civil society organisations, including local community representatives, NGO's, researchers, and the private sector, with an opportunity to discuss options, opportunities, and constraints for community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) in Tanzania. The focus was on important laws and policies in the natural resource sectors, particularly wildlife and forestry, and how they enable CBNRM. The objectives were to provide information and education to the participants, as well as to promote joint analyses and discussion of local options and the way forward for CBNRM in Tanzania.

Presentations by legal experts dealt with wildlife laws and policies, with a particular emphasis on the new Wildlife Management Area Regulations of 2002, village rights in terms of land management and tourism and tourist hunting, and community forest management under the Community-based Forest Management Guidelines and the Forest Act of 2002. Group work by the participants focused on analysing the opportunities provided by these laws and policies and drawing comparisons between the sectors.

Workshop participants noted that, although the wildlife policy advocates community involvement and local benefit generation, the Wildlife Management Area (WMA) Regulations of 2002 are complex and difficult to implement and vests excessive power

with central authorities. General discussion focused on the importance of raising awareness at the local level and educating communities on WMAs, which they currently do not understand and “are being pressured on”.

10. Kessy et al (2004): This report presents the findings of work commissioned with the objectives of developing indicators and monitoring plans for ecological, economical, social and institutional/process oriented parameters for monitoring the WMA process. Baseline information from 16 pilot WMAs were analysed and summarised in a matrix in which the status and key issues for monitoring were identified. This information will serve as benchmark against future developments on the WMAs can be gauged. The information also contributed in the process of developing indicators and monitoring plans for the WMAs. Regulations guiding the implementation of the WMA concept including mandates and roles for different stakeholders were analysed and indicators to measure the same developed. A logical framework matrix was developed to refine the indicators as well as establishing means of verification and assumptions.

The findings of this assignment will be useful for measuring the impact of WMAs at the appropriate time. The current Evaluation is mainly about the process, and not the impact of the WMAs.

11. Mabugu and Mugoya (2001): This study was commissioned to provide information on alternative revenue sharing formulas that will provide adequate incentives for wildlife protecting land uses as well as yield sufficient revenues for district councils and the central government; stakeholders who are likely to win or lose as a result of changing the revenue sharing formulas; current tax structures, and the type and levels of taxes that the WMAs should pay for the purpose of ensuring that local communities, district councils and the central government receive sufficient revenues without raising rates so as to create disincentives to local communities and investors; and the best source(s) of revenue for the provision of supportive public services in conjunction with the establishment of WMAs.

The previous revenue sharing formulae in the tourist hunting activities conducted outside Game Reserves was as follows:

- District Councils: 25%
- Treasury: 18.75%
- TWPF: 25%
- Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism: 31.25%

According to information from the WD, the current revenue sharing formulae in the tourist hunting activities conducted outside Game Reserves in areas which are hunting blocks and WMAs with user rights is as follows:

- District Councils: 15%
- Treasury: 0%
- TWPF: 25%
- AA 25%

- Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism: 35%

There is, however, no clear rationale for the adoption of these rates. Also it is not clear whether these will be the rates of benefit sharing under the fully operational WMAs. There is need for WD to clarify on these issues and justify their adoption.

12. Majamba (2000): The study aimed to make recommendations and obtain country specific information on: 1) how the guidelines can be effectively incorporated into the existing national wildlife conservation policies and legislation, 2) the relationship between the proposed guidelines on WMAs and land tenure, as well as their relationship with international conventions on wildlife conservation and management, and 3) mechanisms to enforce the draft WMA guidelines. The report identified areas in which the 1998 Wildlife Policy of Tanzania is in conflict with existing legislation, namely, the Wildlife Conservation Act (WCA) and the Village Council Act of 1999. It recommended that the guidelines be urgently harmonised with the following legislation: the Village Land Act, 1999; the Wildlife Conservation Act, 1974; the Local Government (District Authorities) Act, 1982; the Law of Contract Ordinance, CAP 433; National Parks Ordinance, CAP 412; and the Tanzania Investment Act, 1997.

13. Nelson et al (2006): This report was prepared for the Tanzania Natural Resource Forum as a civil society analysis of progress in enabling community-based wildlife management at the local level through the WMAs initiative. The aim of the report was three-fold:

- To provide a thorough but succinct status report on the WMAs under development around the country, focusing on the 16 pilot areas established in the WMA Regulations of 2002;
- To draw key lessons from the process of developing WMAs in these areas, including both similarities and differences among a sample of different sites, and to learn from success as well as failure in implementing the WMA process;
- To produce practical recommendations for all stakeholders to improve the WMA policy and process on the ground in the interests of sustainable wildlife management, rural development, and economic growth.

According to the report, the key emerging issues from the experiences of the pilot WMA sites centre on matters of institutional design, facilitation, and political will. A major challenge to WMA implementation is establishing accountable and transparent community-based organizations (CBOs), which are the key management institution in the WMAs and must be created. Key issues of scale also face the WMAs and may need to be reconsidered, particularly as market factors and economic opportunities change in Tanzania. Facilitation of WMAs is critical to their success, and more attention needs to be given to broad community-level awareness of the WMA process, rather than focusing solely on training CBO members within the community. Ultimately the success of the WMAs depends largely on the ability of the community to hold the CBO management accountable and ensure transparent decision-making processes. The authors argue that the greatest barrier to implementing WMAs effectively has come from a lack of political will for supporting communities to fulfil the Regulations'

requirements and to grant local people full mandate for making management decisions in WMAs.

14. TANAPA (2002): This report argues that corridors and dispersal areas play a big role towards conservation efforts, and Protected Areas face an ecological threat if dispersal areas are completely farmed and corridors are closed. Without protection of corridors and dispersal areas, isolation will follow, leading to progressive loss of population for migrating species that spend much of the year outside national parks, and whose numbers cannot be maintained on park lands alone.

15. Walsh (2001): This paper provides an historical review of the involvement of local communities in wildlife conservation and management, and it reviews the extent to which the provisions of the Wildlife Conservation Act, 1974 and the Wildlife Policy, 1998 are consistent with the notion that local communities should actively participate in devising and implementing wildlife conservation and management. The paper also discusses notable shortcomings and constraints inherent in the Wildlife Conservation Act, 1974, and the Wildlife Policy, 1998, and the implication of these for local communities' participation in wildlife conservation and management initiatives.

The author warns about the dangers of making too detailed Guidelines. He admits that the drafters of the Guidelines are caught in a dilemma. Specificity is demanded by many of the challenges to community-based management which the Guidelines are designed to address, including the tendency of investors to slip through legislative loopholes to the disadvantage of community stakeholders. However, too much detailed direction may act to reduce the options available to communities and dampen the potential for innovation. He also cautions that there is a danger that the procedures outlined in the Guidelines for establishing WMAs will discourage communities by their cost and bureaucratic complexity, and that WMAs will only be formed in areas where significant external support can be obtained, since many game-rich communities are among the poorest and most underdeveloped in other respects.

3.1.4 Issues from the documentary review

A number of issues of relevance to the WMA process emerge from the above preview. These include the following:

- **The legal basis for private sector enterprises and village governments to enter into contracts for use of village lands:**

The Wildlife Policy of Tanzania 1998 and the Wildlife Management Area Regulations made under Wildlife Conservation Act, 1974 create opportunities for community investment, joint ventures, leases, wildlife management and other forms of community involvement in WMAs. However, many private investors seem to prefer to focus on entering deals with individual villages, instead of dealing with the CBO/AA as a collective body. This was the reason which caused Sinya village to refuse to be part of the Enduimet WMA. It is also the case in Minjingu village, where reservations are still held about Burunge WMA. There are also cases where village governments have sold land to outside investors contrary to the land policy and the Village Land Act. In some cases, the sold land is potential for establishment of WMAs and other community investments.

The ongoing acquisitions of land, if not regulated, will render the communities losers and the surrounding villages will never benefit from the emerging tourism industry. Furthermore, it will, through fragmentation, undermine the whole concept of ecosystem management, which is the basis of WMA approach. The Evaluation Team encountered this challenge in Kisaki village (which in a tug-of-war with JUKUMU CBO in Ukutu pilot WMA); Minjingu village (where a number of people are campaigning to pull the village out of Burunge WMA); Sinya village (which pulled out of Enduiment pilot WMA); Tungamalenga village (in a tug-of-war with MBOMIPA in Idodi-Pawaga), Robanda village (whose leadership currently enjoy income from private investments, and where sentiments were expressed that benefits from Ikona WMA cannot be shared equally since some villages are less endowed than Robanda).

- **The legal basis for WD to regulate or control the conduct of tourism activities on village lands, and for central authorisation of tourist hunting activities on village lands without the consent of the village government:**

Here, there is a clash between the Tourist Hunting Regulations (2002) and Village Land Act (2001). Section 40 (1) of the WCA, 1974 states that no one is allowed to hunt or capture an animal on private land unless he is the holder of a valid licence, permit, or written authority, and that *the owner of that private land has given his/her consent thereto*. Private land is defined by section 2 of the WCA to be “land held or deemed by any written law to be held under a right of occupancy.” According to the Village Land Act, village lands are held under customary rights of occupancy. Therefore village lands fall under the unambiguous definition of private lands provided by the WCA.

Is it then legal for the Wildlife Division to license hunting companies to enter, occupy, and use village lands without the permission of the village government? Of course, the Director of Wildlife has the power to issue hunting licenses to any person to hunt an animal in the village land, but that person cannot enter into the village land without the permission of the village government. The person or company granted the hunting license can only do so if he is given the written permission by the Director of Wildlife exercising his/her powers under section 40(2) of the WCA, when the hunting or capturing of the said animal in the village land is done in the public interest. The person or company given this authority must present it to the owner of the private land- in this case the village government. Failure to present this authority is a criminal offence. It is also an offence for the owner of a private land to prevent the person given the written authority to hunt in the public interest from doing so.

The law does not, however, define what is meant by the public interest. Most hunting companies do not only bring their guides, clients, and vehicles into village land but also build temporary and permanent hunting camps. This is often done without the permission of the village government and the respective Village Assemblies. For example there are complaints in Loliondo GCA, that a hunting company has reportedly built an airstrip and several large houses without the permission of the relevant village governments. It is possible to argue that such actions are contrary to the VLA which under section 17 requires any non-village organisation that intends to use any portion of the village land for the better carrying on of its operations to apply for that land to the Village Council which will then

forward that application and its recommendation for approval or rejection to the Commissioner for Land.

Village governments have the power to prevent such activities from occurring on village lands. Permission for construction or erection of any structures on village lands must be authorised by the Village Council and Village Assembly. This is because the management of the village land is vested by section 8 (1) of the VLA to the Village Council. Thus it is illegal for any person to enter into any village and use that village's land without being so permitted by the Village Council, and where applicable by the Village Assembly. However, before jumping to premature conclusions, it is important to establish how much of the GCA falls under a certain village. Nevertheless, while the Director of Wildlife has powers to issue hunting license to any person to hunt wild animals but in the event the said animals are found in the village land whoever is given a license to hunt those animals must obtain the permission of the Village Council to conduct his activities in the village land.

It is suggested that the Director of Wildlife should liaise with the Village Council before deciding who should be allowed to hunt animals in the village land and the WCA must be amended to create a legal requirement for the Director of Wildlife to consult the Village Councils concerned whenever he issues a hunting license to any person to hunt wild animals on village lands.

The WMA Regulations provide some guidance on Resident Hunting activities. Regulation 52 (3) stipulates that resident hunters should be supervised by Village Game Scouts and Regulation 52(4) provides guidance on monitoring and control of resident hunting licences. However, the Regulations are silent on how the villages can control Tourist Hunting activities, and is a shortcoming that needs to be addressed.

Assessment of the Efficiency of the WMA Process

In addressing this task, the Evaluation Team was guided by the understanding that *efficiency* is the relationship between the outcome, i.e. a functioning WMA and the cost related to its establishment, operation and maintenance. Given this understanding, our general assessment of the pilot WMA establishing process has been slow and in some WMA the management has been hindered by withdrawal of the initial facilitators leaving a vacuum. At the commencement of this assignment only four pilot WMA had attained AA status. The pace has recently gained momentum, and currently four WMAs have managed to get AA and user rights; four have attained AA status without user rights, and another eight are still struggling to finalise the process. Of the latter, Loliondo, Twatwatwa and Tarime are very far behind schedule.

3.2.1 The cost of establishing the WMAs

“The cost for preparation of Resource Management Zone Plan was Tshs 20 million. We had to hire a consultant from College of African Wildlife Management ” (DED, Monduli District)

First of all, the cost of pushing the process through has proved to be exorbitantly high. The capital-intensive nature of activities like land use planning, natural resource management zoning, numerous consultative meetings in WMAs with many villages,

and patrols has made implementation of the WMA concept difficult without reliable source of funding and facilitation.

Apart from the cost of preparing a Resource Management Zone Plan cited above, another indication of the enormous cost is provided by the funding of Danish Hunters Association in Wami-Mbiki. Phase I of the project (1997-2001) was funded for DKK 7.2 million (US\$ 43.2 million); Phase II 2002-2006 had a budget of DKK 15.5 million (US\$ 93 million); while the planned Phase III (2007-2010) has a budget of DKK 11.7 million (US\$ 70.2 million)¹⁰. Information obtained from Africare indicated that it costs about 150,000 US\$ to facilitate one pilot WMA through all the stages up to attainment of AA.

Such funding has, on the other hand, led to donor dependency and a development implementation perspective that is project rather than process oriented. This perspective has alternately led to the creation of unrealistic expectations on the part of local communities. For example, the large amount of money poured in administering CBOs in Wami-Mbiki and Ngarambe-Tapika has to a large extent undermined local initiatives in mobilizing resources; so much so that the community at Ngarambe village are literally waiting for a donor to buy fuel for the village generator! The team suggests that the current funding should be also used to create an environment for sustainable management and self sufficiency of the WMA.

3.2.2 Different agendas and inclinations by the donors and facilitators

As different donors have different agendas/inclinations different WMAs are at different stages of implementation. Twatwatwa which has no donor at the moment is so far the least developed while Ngarambe-Tapika, Uyumbu and Ipole which have had constant donor facilitation have already acquired the AA status with user rights. USAID through Africare supported Uyumbu and Ipole since 1998. The change in donor priorities can adversely affect the process like it happened to the pilot WMAs that were being facilitated by GTZ. GTZ has been around the Selous since 1989 up-to 2004.

The same has occurred to Wami-Mbiki when Danida imposed a number of conditions before they could fund Phase 3 of the facilitation process. According to information from the Embassy, the application for Phase 3 support for Wami-Mbiki was put on hold until the AA status was granted and an official communication on the resolution of the then existing land use conflict (Kahana, pers. comm.). Up to the time of this Evaluation it was not certain whether Danida would release the requested funds. Hence, although some pilot WMA had longer donor support in the past, the pilot phase was more crucial with regards to WMA development process because most of the processes required consistent financial and technical support.

3.2.3 The duration of establishing WMAs

Discussions with the local communities and various stakeholders reveal that the process of establishing WMAs is unnecessarily long and cumbersome, as evidenced by the need to extend the piloting phase beyond the planned 36 months. Even after the extension, there are a number of pilot WMAs that have not attained the AA status.

¹⁰ Based on the following conversion rates: 1290 Tshs = 1 US\$; 1 US\$ = 6.0; 1 DKK = 215 Tshs

3.2.4 The capacity to push through the WMA process

Observations done in the visited districts and villages show that there is general lack of capacity to push through the WMA implementation process. Although the District Councils are supposed to have officers with capacity to do Land Use Plans, natural resource zonation and preparation of maps, many of the visited pilot WMAs reported that they had to sub-contract experts from UCLAS or the College of African Wildlife Management (CAWM), Mweka to facilitate these tasks on their behalf. Although government reforms allow outsourcing of some technical work to competent service providers, there is dire need of officers knowledgeable at the local level to undertake quality assurance on work submitted to independent service providers.

Furthermore, there is little or no legal capacity to handle preparation of constitutions, and/or handle contracts negotiations. In Tunduru, for example, it was reported that the CBO leaders, with assistance from the District Council, had to go to Songea in search of a lawyer to assist on the CBO constitution, and a cartographer to draw the land-use and resource zoning maps in the appropriate format. Many District Councils have no lawyers, cartographers and land use experts. Discussions with villagers further indicated that they needed to acquire skills for managing and governing of CBOs and AAs, monitoring of wildlife, and entrepreneurship.

At another level, it has also been observed that local communities not only lack the capacity to mobilize local resources for establishment of WMAs, but they also lack capacity to absorb and manage some of the investments (e.g. the defunct generator at Ngarambe; and the idle vehicles in Wami-Mbiki after the ending of Phase II of Danida support). At the administrative level, village leaders lack capacity to write proper minutes and keep records (Ms Rhoda Nsemwa, Bagamoyo DED, pers. comm.).

In addressing the problem of low capacity to facilitate the WMA process, the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism commissioned a study on Training Needs Assessment for Wildlife Management Areas actors in Tanzania (Gamassa *et al* 2005). This study looked into the training needs for various WMA actors and stakeholders that would be involved in the operationalisation of pilot WMAs, and identified representative training service providers and examined their capacities to undertake training programmes for different WMA actors. Also, the study made an exploration of a range of training courses, modules and topics for various actors.

Among other things, the study showed that:

- There were knowledge and skills gaps for the operationalisation of Wildlife Management Area actors particularly at the village level institutions. Therefore there was a dire need for capacity development of actors who would be engaged in the operationalisation of Wildlife Management Areas at this level.
- There was an overwhelming demand for training at all levels and it was estimated to be 293,290 actors. They would be trained from village assembly to national assembly, village government to central government, Community Based Organisations and private sector institutions.

- The capacity of the Wildlife Division and other partners to train about 293,290 actors in a variety of training programmes was unrealistic in terms of time, financial and human resources.
- The immediate estimated training demands for the 16 Pilot Wildlife Management Areas were 6,230 actors. Training would cover Village Game Scouts, Community Based Organisations, Village Natural Resources Committees, Village Councils, District Natural Resources Advisory Bodies and Protected Area Managers of Game Reserves and National Parks that share boundaries with the 16 pilot Wildlife Management Areas.
- Training programmes would cover the following broad areas of knowledge and skills: natural resources management, policies and legislation, organisational strengthening, planning, administrative management, financial management, enterprises development and governance.
- Training institution like the Community Based Conservation Training Centre at Likuyu Sekamaganga and Wildlife Training Institute at Pansiasi need support and facilitation to build their capacity in providing training in Wildlife Management Areas.
- There were issues seemingly tangential to the study but needed to be attended urgently in order to have effective operationalisation of the Wildlife Management Areas. They included land disputes and revocation and transfer of at least one game controlled area land into village land.
- Eight conservation partners, who had closely worked together with the Wildlife Division in the Wildlife Management Areas establishment processes, expressed willingness to facilitate the operationalisation of Wildlife Management Areas in several ways including supporting training programmes, building capacities of some of the training institutions and facilitating land use planning exercises.
- Village and district institutions neither had funds, funding mechanisms nor capacity to support training of Wildlife Management Area actors.

While some of these figures may need further justification, the major question is how to contextualize and finance the training programme. At the end of this Report it is proposed that the WD should take a more pro-active role in the facilitation and roll-out of WMAs, including issues of capacity building. The current initiatives of allocating a percentage of the tourist hunting fees to the WMA formation and implementation process are appreciable. However, other possible avenues of funding need to be explored. These avenues could include WMAs' own contributions, and contributions by other relevant stakeholders.

3.2.5 Issues related to the efficiency of the WMA process

From the above discussion a number of issues related to efficiency of the WMA process can be raised as follows:

- How to reduce the costs of establishing WMAs.
- How to reduce bureaucracy and accelerate the process of establishing WMAs.
- How to efficiently build the capacity of different actors involved in the WMA process.
- How to ensure sustainability and rollout the WMA process.

Some solutions to these questions are provided in the Way Forward Section of this Report.

Assessment of Factors Enabling or Constraining Attainment of Formalization

Under this Sub-Section the Draft Report summarizes the factors that have enabled or constrained attainment of formalization of the pilot WMAs as per Regulations, focusing on design of the pilot phase, the extent it has fostered participatory management and good governance and its impact on conservation and local livelihoods and issues of sustainability. In general, about nine factors can be identified as enabling and/or constraining the attainment of formalization of the pilot WMAs. These factors are as discussed in the paragraphs below.

3.3.1 History and participation in CBC

Heightened awareness has been a general feature in all of the advanced WMAs visited so far. The level of awareness was highest in WMAs surrounding the Selous Game Reserve (SGR), followed by those in Western Tanzania (Uyumbu and Ipole) and finally MBOMIPA. All of these have had a long history of participating in Community Based Conservation (CBC) programmes/projects and hence also being under constant donor facilitation for a long time (Ndunguru and Hahn, 1998).

Another fundamental challenge facing WMA facilitators is that the development of these community-based processes occurs within the context of past community experiences with wildlife and protected area management, and this affects the perception of the WMA process. For example, in Loliondo the pastoralist community's history with land loss and conflict with protected area managers, such as the adjacent Serengeti National Park, was another reason why the pilot WMA was rejected in that area. Facilitators were unable to present the WMA to those communities in a way which allayed their fears about further land loss through the WMA process. In Burunge WMA, similar fears about expanding national park lands have contributed to the internal conflicts in that WMA, as they have in Ilkiushoibor, in Makame WMA, where the village recently lost land to the newly created Mkungunero Game Reserve.

Tarime WMA is another area with a recent history of conflict over land alienation for parks and game reserves, and which probably contributes to the lack of progress on the WMA there. The past tensions between wildlife authorities and protected area managers and adjacent local communities need to be understood and accepted by facilitators, and should not be dismissed. For example, it is claimed that in Burunge WMA the attitude towards the concerns of Minjingu and Vilima Vitatu villages¹¹ by district level facilitators is a dismissive one, arguing that the community concerns are not legitimate or reasonable; this is not likely to resolve conflicts in that WMA and is more likely to contribute to the WMAs failure to meet both conservation and rural economic objectives (see Nelson *et al* 2006).

3.3.2 Community rights and benefits from wildlife

Rights and benefits from wildlife management outside protected areas to local communities has been the motivating factor behind the paradigm shift demonstrated by the 1998 Wildlife Policy. The Policy recognizes the issue of giving rural communities incentives for maintaining wildlife on their land as not only a matter of giving them

¹¹ The reasons and desire for Minjingu village intended withdraw from Burunge WMA are discussed in Section 3.4.1

benefits, but also transferring the right to make management decisions, which is essential in order for communities to have an ownership stake in the resource and a sense of security that they will be able to generate benefits over time (Nelson *et al*, 2006).

In the WMAs that had earlier on participated in CBC programmes/projects around the SGR, presence of demonstrable benefits to communities in the form of legal access to game meat and revenue derived from sale of quotas in WMAs has given an extra impetus to the process of establishing the WMAs. So has been the case in areas where individual villages had benefited from private tourist hunting and photographic safari companies that had entered into local agreements to provide development support to adjacent villages as in Western Serengeti (e.g. Robanda village in Ikona).

WMAs such as the Pawaga-Idodi WMA in Iringa District managed by the MBOMIPA association, have been able to earn income by selling wildlife quotas to resident hunters. In 2003, for example, MBOMIPA villages in the WMA earned over Tshs. 20m, or slightly more than one million Tanzanian shillings per village p.a., while in Ngarambe-Tapika WMA, Ngarambe village earned over Tshs. 4m p.a. from resident hunting sales until their area was allocated by the Wildlife Division as a tourist hunting block in 2005 (Nelson *et al*, 2006). Moreover, some tourist hunting revenues have recently been transferred to local communities by the Wildlife Division as a result of the WMA process. The Review Team was informed that this applies to the gazetted WMAs which are situated on hunting blocks.

Generally, however, it is important to note that it is possible to have WMAs which have been gazetted and issued with User Rights, but have not as yet allowed to earn income from doing wildlife business in their WMAs, as they will still need to apply and have a hunting block allocated to their WMA by the Director of Wildlife. These are those which are not yet situated on hunting blocks at the moment. Furthermore, ambiguity over benefit-sharing between the Government and the CBOs has contributed to the problem of completing the WMA process. Confusion exists over the transfer of control over hunting block revenues in gazetted WMAs to the CBOs. Benefit-sharing between the Government and the CBO, which the WMA Regulations state will rely on “circulars issued by the Minister from time to time,” (Regulation 73(1)) is a critical issue which has not been clarified.

Hence, while formal WMA gazettement has presently not resulted in substantial income being generated at the local level as a result of the WMA process, the process has led to a significant amount of land (16,000 sq.km.) being set aside for wildlife conservation by villages. Ipole and Uyumbu WMAs in Tabora Region, for example, together have resulted in the designation of 3,500 sq.km. between them, an area larger than Mikumi National Park (Nelson *et al*, 2006). Unless these WMAs generate direct benefits to the communities in these areas, such conservation gains may not be sustained.

3.3.3 Is small so beautiful?

Of the WMAs visited 8 had attained the AA status, while 5 had been granted User Rights. Of these Ngarambe-Tapika comprised two villages, both Ipole and Uyumbu had four villages each, while Ikona had five member villages. It would seem from this observation that the smaller a WMA is, the better. It is perhaps from this perspective

that some stakeholders have argued for the idea of creating WMAs on a village-by-village basis (Wildlife Sector Review Task Force, 1995b; Nelson *et al*, 2006).

However, the issue of scale makes the ecological validity of this perspective untenable. Wildlife moves over large areas, and many species require habitat which stretches over many village lands. There is, therefore, the need for the creation of a CBO as a new overarching inter-village institution to oversee the given User Rights to wildlife and as a management authority for the WMA. Thus the fewer number of villages involved, or the smallness of a WMA notwithstanding, other factors are also important in its success as discussed elsewhere in this Section.

3.3.4 Cultural homogeneity vis-à-vis heterogeneity

The issue of smallness discussed in Section 3.3.3 above also relates itself to the role of culture in the success or failure of the WMA process. It is often said that cultural heterogeneity enriches diversity of thought and development potential. But is it always the case? For many of the WMA visited, however, the opposite seemed to be the case. Other factors notwithstanding, cultural homogeneity seemed to be the basis of success for Ngarambe-Tapika, Ipole, Uyumbu and Ikona. All of these WMAs comprised one or two culturally related ethnic groups. Meanwhile, heterogeneity seemed to lie behind the problems of Wami-Mbiki and Burunge (pastoralists v/s agriculturists), and Ukutu (immigrants v/s indigenous people).¹² .

Different socio-economic and cultural lines demand different approaches. While, for example, zoning out livestock grazing from the WMA was acceptable to Ukutu, it was an anathema to the livestock keepers of Sinya village in the Enduimet WMA (Nelson *et al*, 2006). On the other hand, our discussions in Namtumbo, Tunduru, and Liwale with communities living around the SGR, clearly showed that one of the key values that wildlife provides to the villagers in that area is bush meat. Probably due to lack of livestock in this part of Tanzania, and certainly because of participation in CBC since the late 1980's, bush meat had become a very important livelihood ingredient, as opposed to financial benefits from wildlife.

However, in pastoralist areas such as Loliondo, Makame, and Enduimet, where people mostly did not consume wild meat due to abundance of livestock and cultural constraints/taboo, and where experience with doing both tourist hunting and photographic safaris with private companies was well established, financial benefits from wildlife were preferred and formed the basis of their decisions to participate or not to participate in the WMA process. There is, therefore, a need for flexibility in the process of WMA formation taking into account differences in cultural world view and ecological and socio-economic environments.

3.3.5 Conflicts, internal disagreements and limited awareness

Harmonious relationships between and within communities have been the hallmark of success in the successful WMAs. In all of them there was a remarkable lack of land use conflicts as was, for example, experienced in the case of Twatwatwa and Wami-Mbiki, or the village boundary disputes in Ukutu and Wami-Mbiki.

¹² Nevertheless, the case of Twatwatwa and Tarime provides an exception to this rule due to other compounding factors, as detailed in Section 3.4.

As observed in Section 3.4 below, by the time of this Evaluation Loliondo had withdrawn from the process, while two others have made relatively little progress in completing the WMA process requirements due to internal disagreements and limited awareness and understanding.

3.3.6 The champions of WMAs

The presence of influential individuals or organizations such as politicians, development oriented NGOs, et cetera, championing the cause of implementing the WMA concept has been another deciding factor in the success of some of the WMAs. For example, the concerted efforts of WWF and Africare in Ngarambe-Tapika and Uyumbu and Ipole, respectively, have been like a bouncing board to success for these 3 WMAs. So have been the efforts of the Babati District Game Officer in facilitating the gazettelement of Burunge WMA, MPs like that of Ismani in helping MBOMIPA in the Pawaga-Idodi WMA, or the late MP for Tunduru in helping NALIKA finalize its application for an AA status.

Nevertheless, some stakeholders have alleged that there insufficient political will on the part of the Wildlife Division and the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism to implement the WMA concept (Nelson *et al* 2006). In reaching this conclusion, they cite the experiences of several WMAs which have not received intensive facilitation from external NGOs. Tarime and Twatwatwa WMAs are mentioned as examples of WMAs that have not had facilitating NGOs, and have consequently made little progress in pursuing the WMA Regulations' requirements. In the absence of such NGO support resources, it is argued that there has been little commitment on the part of the Wildlife Division to assist these communities to proceed; communities which, respectively, occupy important ecological areas in the Serengeti and Mikumi ecosystems. However, this criticism can be countered by asking the question: How can the same Ministry/ Division that introduced the WMA concept proceed to undermine it? With regard to the examples of Twatwatwa and Tarime, the Review team was informed that it was the Kilosa District Commissioner who stopped the WD from proceeding with WMA activities in Twatwatwa until the conflicts were solved; while the funds to facilitate the preparation of LUP and RZMP in Tarime have already been released to the Serengeti Regional Conservation Project (SRCP). They are just waiting for the villagers to come to an agreement for the process to start.

Another criticism levelled against the WD and the MNRT is that, following the withdrawal of GTZ from the WMAs of Ukutu, Tunduru, Liwale, and Songea, there appears to have been limited commitment by the Wildlife Division to ensuring that these communities complete the WMA process, even though some of them had been pilot WMAs for more than a decade. It is further argued that even in cases where facilitating organizations have been successful in helping WMAs to be gazetted, this has only occurred in the face of significant resistance on the part of this important government actor to acceding to gazettelement (Baldus *et al.*, 2004; Baldus, 2006). With regard to this criticism, the Evaluation Team was informed GTZ who were facilitating the process in Ukutu, Tunduru, Liwale, and Songea were reluctant to follow the WMA Regulations, preferring to continue with their previous CBC approach. That is why even the land use plans which were previously prepared by these pilot WMAs did not follow the specifications suggested in the WMA Regulations.

Another criticism constantly mentioned by stakeholders has been that of Uyumbu WMA, where despite its establishment as a pilot WMA, the Ugalla Game Reserve (UGR) attempted to redefine its boundaries in a way which would have placed all the land in the villages' WMA inside the borders of the UGR. It is claimed that the conflict was resolved in 2004 in favour of the community, with the support of a Parliamentary Committee which visited the area. Although the UGR reverted to its historical boundary, the incidence is quoted to illustrate the apparent willingness of the Wildlife Division to disregard the interests of local communities and expand its areas of operation at the expense of WMA development.

Elsewhere, the confidence of communities in the WMA process is said to have been challenged as a result of the loss of rights extended to them and a lack of participation in key decisions despite the participatory spirit of the 1998 Wildlife Policy. An example is given of Ngarambe-Tapika WMA which was earning over Tshs. 4m annually from sale of a resident hunting quota before this quota was withdrawn and the area allocated to a tourist hunting operator without the villages' consultation (Dickinson, 2005).

Despite these criticisms, it should be noted that critical interventions by the government have also been made to support development of the WMA concept in the country. The most notable of these has been the resolution of a long-standing conflict between the villages in the Wami-Mbiki WMA and the Tanzania People's Defence Forces (TPDF), which had used land in the WMA for military training. This conflict had delayed the formalization of the WMA for several years, and was resolved earlier in 2005 by the President's Office in favour of the local communities, allowing the WMA to move forward with its application for gazettelement, which has since been submitted and an AA status offered. In a way, the solution to the Wami-Mbiki land conflict was made possible through interference of influential political champions.

3.3.7 Sustained facilitation

As already pointed out in the foregoing discussion, continued facilitation is imperative in the whole process of establishment of WMAs. Although it is rural communities who are the intended beneficiaries of the WMA process, and the management authority for the WMAs, the participation of local people in developing WMAs is dependent on outside facilitation. No communities have made progress in fulfilling the requirements of the WMA Regulations without outside facilitation, and all of the pilot WMAs have received a great deal of outside support from both district, national government agencies and NGOs.

We have seen how discontinuity in facilitation by GTZ negatively affected the development of WMAs around the SGR. Such WMAs have an uncertain status due to the withdrawal of this key donor. We have also seen how the WMA in Wami-Mbiki has been affected by Danida's suspension of financial support to Danish Hunters Association.

On the other hand, lack of proactive-ness on the part of some District Councils (e.g. Tarime and Kilosa) to support the WMA process has left WMAs such as Tarime and Twatwatwa like helpless orphans. These WMAs have made very little progress due to the absence of committed facilitation by either governmental or non-governmental actors.

All of these facilitation issues reflect the reality that, given Tanzania's contemporary history, top-down planning based on centralized norms of decision-making and directives remain a large part of the culture in the district and national agencies which are responsible for leading WMA

facilitation. This issue is by no means solely characteristic of the wildlife sector, but is pervasive in central and district institutions in Tanzania and most other countries as well. But while top-down planning and facilitation may be the norm, WMA processes which operate in this manner are unlikely to produce the community level institutions required to manage the WMAs in a participatory and accountable manner. This is a fundamental and overarching challenge which the WMA process must cope with over time.

3.3.8 Costly and cumbersome procedural steps

As noted by one study (International Resources Group, 2000:11), reconstructing the negative and antagonistic relationship between conservation authorities and local communities after a legacy of exclusion and fortress conservation is a difficult task. Some of the communities have remained sceptical and suspicious of Government's long-term intentions (e.g. Loliondo, Tarime, etc.), while the Government, on the other hand, is finding it difficult to devolve real power and responsibility to local communities, expressing doubt in their capacity to manage wildlife resources. Clearly, the Government cannot afford to make mistakes in this respect, and hence the elaborate, paternalistic, and highly regulatory Guidelines and Regulations.

However, according to a majority of the stakeholders consulted the complex nature of the WMA procedures has made the process time-consuming and costly. Table 3 highlights the usefulness, effectiveness and necessity of various WMA formalization steps. While all the steps are useful and necessary, some of them have not been effectively implemented due to their cost, tediousness and bureaucratic nature. For example, Africare estimates the cost of fulfilling these procedures for one WMA at about US\$150,000 at the minimum. This means that without major sources of external support, local communities, and indeed the Government itself, cannot effectively carry this process through (see Section 3.2). It is thus that many of the WMAs have failed to complete the process required by the WMA Regulations.

Table 3: Assessment of Usefulness, Effectiveness and Necessity of Various WMA Formalization Steps

Steps of Forming WMA	Usefulness	Effectiveness	Necessity	Remarks
1. Awareness Raising	YES	YES	YES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Forms a base for communities to understand the WMA concept Enables villages to make decision of joining or not joining (e.g. Sinya Village in Enduimet WMA) Awareness raising efforts inadequate and biases e.g. Difference between CBC and WMA not well explained in WMAs like Songea pilot WMA
2. Village Assembly endorsing application for WMA designation in village	YES	YES	YES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Evidence of acceptance by village community

land				
3. Application made by village(s) to Director WD for designating part of village(s) land as WMA along with:				
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Certified copy of Village Assembly minutes endorsing application of WMA designation 	YES	YES	YES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evidence of Village Assembly's endorsement of application
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dully completed information data sheet as completed by District Council 	YES	YES	YES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assists the Director to make proper decision
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A certified copy of registration of CBO 	YES	YES	YES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evidence of existence of registered CBO
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A land use plan approved by Village Assembly 	YES	NO	YES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evidence of acceptance of land use plan by village community • A major hindrance to the formalization process • Land use planning very expensive (in terms of money, time, personnel) • Requires expertise that is often not available in districts
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resource Management Zone Plan 	YES	NO	YES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assists the Director to make proper decision • A major hindrance to the formalization process • Very expensive (in terms of money, time, personnel) • Requires expertise that is often not available in districts
4. Director WD approves or rejects application for WMA	YES	NO	YES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 8 Bureaucratic and cumbersome steps need to be followed (see Box 1)
5. Director WD forwards to Minister (within 14 days) successful application of WMA for publication in Gazette	YES	NO	YES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Process takes longer than the time prescribed by the Regulations
6. Director issues certificate of authorization to the CBO	YES	YES	YES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evidence of acquiring AA status
7. AA applies for User Right	YES	NO	NO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This step could be combined with step # 3 • Certificates of User Right

				could also be issued together with AA certificate
8. AAs situated outside hunting blocks apply for hunting block	YES	NO	NO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The step could be combined with step # 3 • Hunting block permits could also be issued together with AA and User Right certificates
9. AA enters into investment agreement with prospective investors	YES	NO	YES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inadequate negotiation skills among AAs/CBOs • Inadequate information on market value of available resources

In general, the most difficult procedural requirement for the WMAs to fulfil to the satisfaction of the Wildlife Division appears to have been the land use planning provisions. According to the WMA Guidelines and Regulations, the land use plans must be completed according to the provisions of the National Land Use Planning Commission, which involves surveying and registering the village land use plans with the Mapping Division in the Ministry of Lands and Settlements Development. In many of the WMAs fulfilling these land use planning requirement has taken a considerable amount of time and resources, and been further hindered by lack of capacity at the district level for facilitating the plans' completion. This has been particularly the case in many of the WMAs adjacent to the SGR.

Even after accomplishing all the requirements for WMA registration, there is still the government bureaucratic process of gazetting the WMA which is illustrated in Box 1 below.

Box 1: Bureaucratic Steps for Gazetting WMAs

1. The Director of Wildlife sends the proposal to MNRT
2. The MNRT drafts the Government Notice (GN).
3. The Draft GN is sent to the Parliamentary Draughtsman at the Ministry of Justice and Constitutional Affairs.
4. The Parliamentary Draughtsman scrutinizes the GN before approving it.
5. The GN goes back to the MNRT for the Minister's signature.
6. The GN goes back to the Ministry of Justice and Constitutional Affairs.
7. Ministry of Justice forwards the GN to President's Office (Public Service Management) to get the GN number.
8. The GN is sent to the Government Printer, where it joins the queue waiting to be printed.

Source: Interviews with Wildlife Division, April 2007.

3.3.9 WMAs' Capacity to Foster Participatory Management and Good Governance

Rather than transferring rights to village councils and village assemblies, the WMA process requires the creation of a new institution, the CBO/AA, which is given User Rights to wildlife and is, as the 'Authorized Association', the management authority for the WMA. The main reason for this is that Wildlife often moves over areas larger than one village lands; hence the need for a management authority that is larger than single villages. According to WMA Regulation 22, the CBO/AAs are supposed to be accountable institutions to the Village Government and Village Assembly members of the villages participating in the WMA. If the CBO/AA is not accountable to the community the community may not feel the wildlife resources in the WMA as theirs, thus causing the problems of poaching and spread of alternative land uses such as agriculture to continue in the WMA.

Thus while in some WMAs (e.g. in Tunduru and Liwale) the CBOs are so well respected and trusted that District Councils and local communities are actually contributing money to pay for their administrative costs, in others (e.g. Ukutu and Namtumbo) local communities were of the opinion that their CBOs (JUKUMU and MBARANG'ANDU, respectively) had distanced themselves too much from the Village Councils and hence also from the local communities. Stakeholders in Namtumbo proposed that members representing the villages be recruited from among the Natural Resources Management Committees rather than from the rank and file in the villages.

The failure of the CBO/AA to keep its constituents in the village apprised of the CBOs activities is implicated in the current state of conflict in the Enduimet and Makame WMAs. In other cases, such as Ikona, tensions between the CBO/AA and the Village Councils over their respective roles in village level resource management are emerging

(Mr. Jumanne, Nyakitono Village Chairman, pers. comm.). Even in more successful WMAs, potential problems are evident. In Ipole, for example, the CBO/AA's constitution calls for elections of the CBO management to be held every three years, but five years down the road, no second election has been held. Although this may be justified by the fact that the CBO has only recently been given AA status, it nevertheless underscores the grey area of rights and responsibilities that govern CBO/AA operations and lines of accountability.

According to the WMA Guidelines, the following institutions are mentioned as the main players in the management of WMAs:

- Authorised Association
- Village Council
- Village Assembly
- District Council
- District Natural Resources Advisory Board
- Wildlife Division
- Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism
- TANAPA; NCAA, TAWIRI
- Non Governmental Organisations

The Village Assembly is not mentioned in the Administrative Structure that appears in the Guidelines (see the organogram in the Guidelines). However, Regulation 41 (p.23) states: "An Authorised Association may subject to the approval of the village assembly surrender its user rights to the Director". According to the guidelines and regulations, once awarded with AA status, the CBO is answerable to the villagers that have formed the CBO. The CBO could form a separate committee/extension of the CBO to administer the AA status, i.e. this internal institution could form the economic wing of the CBO that may enter into agreements with potential investors for business relationships etc.

In a number of cases, the Evaluation Team established some tensions that resulted from power struggle between the CBOs and the village councils. This tension can be cited as one of the threats facing the AAs, and they can be illustrated by the following quotation from the Wami Mbiki Society Project Document:

Box 2: Power Relations in Wami-Mbiki Pilot WMA

The foundation of WMS are the 24 villages with approximately 65,000 inhabitants. The overall decision making body in the village, the Village Assembly, elects two representatives to the Wami Mbiki Society Council, also known as the “Baraza”. Among its 48 members, the Baraza elects a Chairman, Vice Chairman, Secretary and Treasurer as the Central Committee. The Baraza also elects an Executive Committee with 12 members of which the WMS Chairman, Vice Chairman, Secretary and Treasurer are members. From its members the EC can elect representatives for Sub-Committees, Project Steering Committees overseeing project cooperation, Joint Venture Agreements with private sector, and District Natural Resource Advisory Bodies. During the Baraza a number of sub committees report to the Council, who then report back to their respective Village Governments.

The WMS is governed by the WMS Constitution which was revised in 2005 to comply with the Wildlife Conservation (WMA) Regulations (2002) and is operating according to a WMS Strategy 2004-2014, a General Management Plan 2006-15 and a Business Plan.

All meetings of the WMS are obliged to report to the villages through the village representatives. A weak point in the earlier organizational structure of WMS however, has been the lack of a formal connection between the WMS and the Village Council. The 2005, revised WMS Constitution, now means that the Village Governments are obliged to include WMS matters in the Village Government and Village Assembly Agendas. In addition, WMS had no patron, and no Board of Trustees to champion their cause. This was resolved in 2005, and helped greatly to overcome some of the land hurdles the WMS was facing.

Source: Wami-Mbiki Phase 3 Project Document

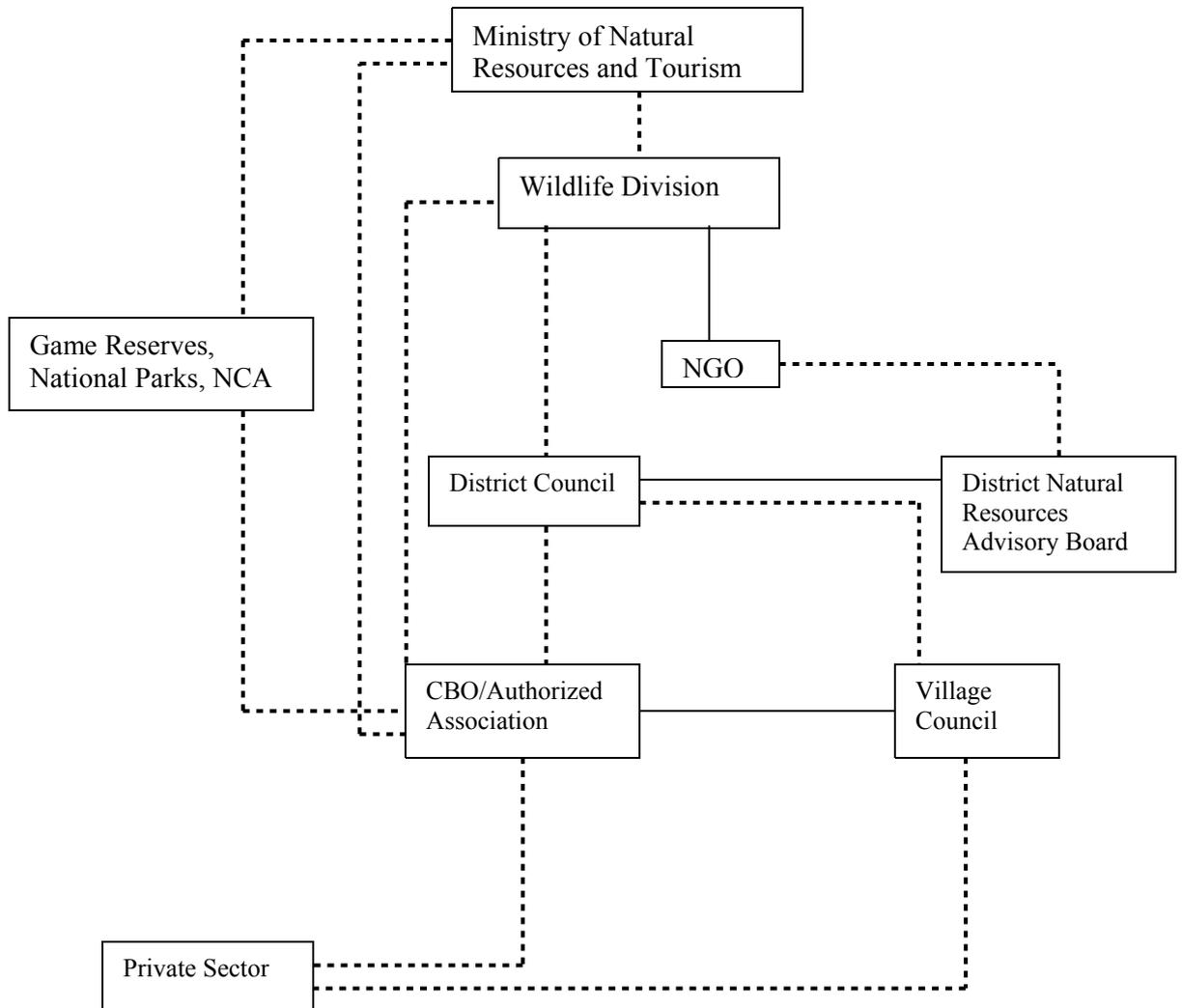
The Ministry of Home Affairs is not mentioned in the Administrative Structure, but it plays a crucial role in the registration of the CBO. A community is required by law to register a Community Based Organisation not with Wildlife Division but with the Registrar of Associations, under the Ministry of Home Affairs. This process will give the CBO the right to form an AA in terms of the WMA regulations. During the fieldwork the consultants were informed that facilitators like Africare played a crucial role in assisting the WMAs in registering their CBOs.

The absence of the District Natural Resources Officer from the District Natural Resources Advisory Board was mentioned as a problem, as the DGO who is the secretary of the body is junior to the DNRO. However, according to WD the District Natural Resources Advisory Board is a technical body while the DNRO is not a technical officer of wildlife matters. Hence they have no right to be represented in the WMA administrative structure.

Different key informants kept on highlighting the powerful position of the Director of Wildlife vis-à-vis the WMAs. The power of the DW remains even after a CBO has fulfilled the stringent legal requirements for obtaining AA as outlined in the WMA regulations (land use plans, general management plans etc.). The AA still has to apply to the DW for acquisition of user rights over the wildlife in the WMA. User-rights allow the AA to undertake economic/business activities related to the utilization of animals (e.g. enter into an agreement with a commercial safari operator). However, the dilemma is that WD has the responsibility for monitoring

the use of wildlife resources all over the country, and it is not easy just let go and hope that the resources will be utilised sustainably without some kind of control.

Fig. 1 WMA Administrative Structure (Source: WMA Guidelines, 2002 Annex 2a)



Assessment of Performance of the 16 WMAs

The status of the WMAs can be categorized into four groups. In the first category are those WMAs which have acquired AA status and User Rights. These are five and they include Ngarambe-Tapika (Rufiji District), Burunge (Babati District), Ikona (Serengeti District), Ipole (Sikonge District) and Uyumbu (Urambo District). The second category includes three pilot WMAs which have acquired AA status, but without User Rights. These three have applied for User Rights from Wildlife Division and they are yet to receive them. They include Wami-Mbiki (Bagamoyo, Mvomero and Morogoro Districts), Pawaga-Idodi (Iringa Rural District) and Enduimet (Longido District).

The third category includes five WMAs that have made significant progress, but are yet to finalize the formalization process. They are at different stages of the preparations for the formalisation process. The WMAs in this category are Ukutu (Morogoro District),

Songea (Namtumbo District), Tunduru (Tunduru District), Liwale (Liwale District) and Makame (Kiteto District). The fourth and last category comprises of three pilot WMAs which have not accomplished much on the ground with regards to the WMA establishment process. These are Twatwatwa (Kilosa District), Loliondo (Loliondo District) and Tarime (Tarime District). The following Section provides a detailed profile of each of the 16 WMAs visited.

3.4.1 WMAs with AA and User Right status

1. Burunge WMA - Babati District

Initially the WMA had six villages, which were later increased to nine after three sub-villages had been raised to the status of full-fledged villages. This WMA was gazetted in March, 2006, and has been facilitated by the African Wildlife Foundation (AWF) and Babati District Land Area Management Programme (LAMP), although the lead facilitator in terms of expertise has been the Babati District Game Officer.

Burunge WMA is of considerable conservation value because it occupies the land and migration corridors between Tarangire, Lake Manyara, and the adjacent Manyara Ranch. The WMA contains Lake Burunge, which is an important area for water birds such as greater and lesser flamingo and a range of ducks and shorebirds, and also hosts a large buffalo population that moves in and out of Tarangire. The Burunge WMA is highly heterogeneous ethnically, with mostly Wambugwe in the southern villages and a mixture of Waarusha and Maasai in Minjingu. There is also a significantly large migrant population who have recently settled in many of the villages lying along the main Arusha-Dodoma road (Nelson *et al.*, 2006).

The most prominent issue in the Burunge WMA after attaining the AA status and user rights is conflicts, which threatens the sustainability of the WMA. It is important to note that while the Burunge WMA covers an extensive area, only Minjingu and Vilima Vitatu villages are located on the main corridor between Lake Manyara and Tarangire National Parks, and thus contain some of the best wildlife land and most important conservation area in this WMA (Nelson *et al.*, 2006). Initially these two villages were planning to withdraw from participation in the WMA and their withdrawal would have a negative impact on both the WMA's earning capacity and on its conservation value within the overall Tarangire ecosystem. However, later on Vilima Vitatu village changed its mind from not joining the WMA and therefore only Minjingu is still persisting to come out of the WMA. The reasons that village leaders and other members of the community gave for their desire to withdraw include that:

- They never agreed to join in the WMA or reserve land for it.
- They have been conserving the forest even before the concept of WMA came in while other villages have degraded their natural resource and therefore have nothing to offer for a WMA.
- With two national parks (Lake Manyara and Tarangire) adjacent to them, they do not see the reason for setting aside more land for wildlife, and also fear that the WMA will be an avenue to effectively expand the land set aside in parks for wildlife.
- The Village leaders' claim not to recognize the signatures in the constitution. They argue that their signatures were forged.

However, our preliminary assessment shows that Minjingu village participated in whole process of forming the WMA, but they only fear about losing the prominent income they are currently earning. The village is gaining a big amount of money from the current investors and there are more promising investments in future. Also our literature review shows that villages of Mayoka, Magara, Sangaiwe and Mwada, earlier had conflicts with TANAPA with the perceptions like that TANAPA was intending to evict the villagers (Magara village), taking grazing lands (Sangaiwe village) and annexing land belonging to the villages like Mayoka. Nevertheless, these conflicts seem to have been resolved at the moment

2. Ikona WMA - Serengeti District

Ikona WMA is located in Ikoma Open Area. It is an area of land adjacent to Serengeti National Park in the Fort Ikoma area, and located between Ikorongo and Grumeti Game Reserves. The WMA comprises five villages: Robanda, Park Nyigoti, Nyichoka, Nyakitono-Makundusi, and Natta-Mbisso. The area is a key border zone to the Serengeti National Park, and much of the Serengeti-Mara wildebeest migration passes through the area in June-July on its way from southern Serengeti to the Maasai-Mara in Kenya. The area is also known for historically high levels of bush meat hunting, and has been a focus of efforts to prevent poaching in the Serengeti Ecosystem for many years (Nelson *et.al* 2006).

The Ikona WMA is facilitated by Frankfurt Zoological Society (FZS), in collaboration with Serengeti District Council, and has been under development since 1999. Also the Serengeti Region Conservation Programme (SRCP) with funding from NORAD assisted in the sensitization process.

The major concern in the area revolves around the relationship between the villages and the private investor, the Grumeti Game Reserves, which is the leaseholder for the hunting block that includes Ikona WMA. There have been conflicts between the villages in this area, particularly Robanda, and the hunting block leaseholder as a result of the former entering into contract with photographic investors in the latter's block leasehold. Also this conflict has been exacerbated by the fact the Robanda villagers have a feeling that their village has to be relocated.

Indeed, because of this perception there is bitterness and mistrust for visitors in the village, especially researchers/consultants. During this review mission the Robanda villagers were hesitant to talk to the Evaluation Team because they presumed that the visit was in the same spirit of trying to establish reasons to evacuate them. Even after visiting them for a second day, which was mutually agreed upon, between the Review Team and the villagers, they changed their minds and refused to talk to the team. Another complaint is that the human-wildlife conflict is high because of Ikorongo Game Reserve. Wild animals are destroying crops.

Nevertheless, the AA leadership agreed to talk to the Evaluation Team. It seems the main issue of concern here is centred on benefit sharing modalities among villages. Villages have contributed different land size to the WMA and the contributed land have different resources base in the respective villages. Robanda village has a notable resource base and has been benefiting from various investors and visitors to the village. There is a fear of losing this income through the establishment of the WMA.

On the other hand, discussions with the Grumeti Reserves Ltd administration indicated that their land-use in the concession is based on a high-income low impact strategy. The investor is willing to negotiate with the WMA in order to agree on the modalities of benefit sharing in a win-win situation from the investment but without hunting activities. The Grumeti Reserves Ltd targets to collect income from tourists from around the world who are coming to experience nature, excellent scenic value and tranquillity.

The lodge rates range from USD 1,300 per head per night and the whole profit has to remain in the area for poverty alleviation and conservation. Grumeti Reserves Ltd is also getting frustrated because of many investors who are allowed to invest in their hunting block concession without their knowledge and according to them these investors are paying nothing to the ecosystem conservation effort. They cite companies like Thompson, Zahara and Single Safaris as doing nothing to wildlife conservation but are exploiting individual benefits. Their plea to the government is for the latter to protect investors according to the prevailing policies and laws.

3. Ipole WMA – Sikonge District

Ipole WMA is located in Sikonge District, Tabora Region, and is composed of four villages (Utimule, Ipole, Msuva, and Idekamiso) with a total of 8,808 residents. All the four villages are located in Ipole Ward. Majority of the residents are Wanyamwezi with other tribes coming from Usukuma, Buha, Unyaturu and Ufipa.

Ipole WMA covers 2,500 sq. km. of village land, much of which was formerly under Uganda GCA. The Ipole WMA lies adjacent to Ugalla Game Reserve. This WMA therefore has one of the largest land area compared to other WMAs. As part of the process of creating this WMA, the Uganda GCA was de-gazetted and the land was formally transferred to villages as village land.

The Ipole WMA was legally formed through a gazette order issued on March 31, 2006, conferring AA status on the CBO JUHIWAI.

The Ipole WMA has one designated hunting block, and the hunting operator who was granted the Uganda GCA concession has remained operational in the area, with limited relationship to the CBO or WMA in general. Payments are made to the Wildlife Division as in the past, with no legal relationship to the CBO JUHIWAI or the villages.

Community Conservation activities in Ipole could be traced back to the period when the Ugalla Community Conservation Project was operational under Africare, and funded by USAID. This project also provided support to Ugalla Game Reserve and facilitated the formation of the nearby Uyumbu WMA in Urambo District. Africare focus has been on conservation and poverty alleviation. It began working with communities to develop WMAs in this area in 1999. By 2001, the JUHIWAI CBO formed by all the member villages was registered.

The wildlife resources in the area include animals like elephants, lions, zebras, buffaloes, warthogs, wild dogs, baboons, antelopes, hyenas, hippos, and giraffes. Ipole WMA is endowed with large reserves of honeybees that provide significant amount of honey to the villagers. This forest product is a major source of income to villagers.

The Ipole WMA has 36 VGS who are being supervised by the DGO. Currently, the VGS operate on voluntary basis and are not paid any salary. Communities reported a substantial recovery of wildlife in the WMA, including species characteristic of the miombo-floodplain mosaic such as topi, waterbuck, roan antelope, and sable antelope (Nelson *et.al* 2006). However, although the formation of the Ipole WMA has reportedly reduced poaching, relatively high levels of poaching for bush meat continues and is carried out by few people from the member villages (*ibid*).

On the other hand, the villagers are querying the whole process of establishing the WMA on a hunting block. Available information shows that the existing hunting leases will continue to run until 2009. This causes them to doubt whether or not their WMA will actually enable them to manage and benefit from the wildlife therein. Also there is a lot of forest encroachment. Most villagers enter into the forest and clear land for tobacco cultivation and ownership. This situation suggests a threat for the sustainability of this WMA should the expected economic gains fail to materialize, especially at the household level.

4. Uyumbu WMA - Urambo District

Uyumbu WMA is located in Urambo District, Tabora Region, and is composed of four villages (Izimbili, Nsongolo, Izengabatogilwe, and Isongwa). The WMA development process started in 1998 with a funding from Africare. Initial activities undertaken included building capacity for VG officials, VGS, facilitating meetings. A Community Based Conservation named Uyumbu Wildlife Management Association (UWIMA) has been registered. The announcement appeared in the Government Gazette of 30 November 2005, but the certificate was formally handed over on 28th June 2006.

The wildlife resources in the Uyumbu WMA include elephant, lions, leopards, giraffe, buffalos, antelope, warthogs, wild pigs, dikdiks, monkeys, baboons, hare/rabbits, hyenas, and other minor species.

Although Uyumbu WMA has been gazetted, the community has yet to enter into contracts with investors. In order to benefit from tourist hunting, the WMA has to apply for a hunting block to be allocated in their WMA, and the Director of Wildlife must allocate it to an investor after an assessment of the potential of the area for Tourist Hunting purposes.

The WMA is one of the big producers of honey, but it is facing a serious problem of marketing. The WMA also borders villages that are in Uyui District. Initially, these villages were not members of the WMA and created an opening through which poachers passed to create harm to wildlife within the WMA. Efforts have been made to convince the villages in Uyui District to join the WMA, at least for security reasons.

5. Ngarambe-Tapika WMA – Rufiji District

The WMA process started in the mid 1990s through the CBC programme. The WMA has 2 villages with an area of 13,339 sq.km of which 1,844 sq.km are gazetted forest reserves and 3,468 sq.km falls within the Selous Game Reserve. Out of the area of 81,996 ha, the village have proposed to set aside some 73,129 ha as wildlife management area. This is 93% of the total area of the two villages. This is a non-agricultural and non-settled land.

The Ngarambe-Tapika WMA was initially funded by GTZ, which helped to build capacity for VG officials, VGS, facilitating meetings. Later on WWF came in and facilitated the WMA to the point of acquiring the AA and User Rights. Currently there is an investor who has informal arrangements with the AA. The investor has a hunting block license from the government. This agreement between the villages and the investor was supposed to expire when the WMA status was achieved.

At the time of the Evaluation, the following were yet to be accomplished:

- No legal contracts between AA and investors for using WMA resources but there was interim agreement before the establishment.
- Activities after attainment of AA and User Rights are not yet started. Skills are lacking on contractual agreement negotiations, entrepreneurship, administration, and bookkeeping.

During the discussion with villagers there was an argument that the income of people is declining because of increase in wildlife numbers which destroy crops. The villagers also are complaining that while the number of wildlife has increased in the WMA, the quota has remained the same for the two villages, which affects their livelihood.

3.4.2 WMAs with AA status but no User Rights

1. Wami-Mbiki WMA – Bagamoyo, Morogoro and Mvomero Districts

In terms of the number of people and villages, Wami-Mbiki WMA is the largest among all the pilot WMAs. It has 24 villages and about 65,000 people, spread over three districts in the two regions, Coast and Morogoro. The WMA itself comprises over 4,000 sq.km. of miombo woodland and plains with significant wildlife, fisheries, and forestry resources.

Since 1995 the Danish Hunters Association (DHA) with funding from DANIDA have been facilitating the people of 24 villages surrounding the 2,500 km² core protection to form the Wami-Mbiki WMA. The Wami-Mbiki Society was formed in 2002 as the CBO for the area, and now manages an equipped and mobile anti-poaching unit that works hand in hand with 48 VGS.

The WMA has benefited from 2 phases of DANIDA support, which came to end in 2006. Currently an application has been submitted to DANIDA for phase 3 support, which aims to ensure that the WMA engages in economic activities, becomes commercial and that people begin to see benefits. Creating critical mass of understanding amongst 65,000 people in Wami-Mbiki, solving land conflict between neighbouring communities, and in particular between the community and the TPDF, has taken much time. This delayed the application for AA status, and compromised anti-poaching and community development efforts.

Development Committees have been established in the 24 villages. These have been trained to formulate and oversee development projects. Up to late 2006 the WMS maintained an office in the core protection area, in Morogoro, and as the DANIDA support for phase 2 was coming to the end, the WMS was in the process of establishing 3 zonal offices. The CBO was staffed by a professional Secretariat, which ran the Society affairs, but at the time of the evaluation funds for paying this Secretariat had dried and the WMS could only afford to pay some allowances to the VGS.

A number of factors seem to indicate that awareness-raising efforts in Wami-Mbiki have been adequate. Nevertheless, the evaluation team was informed that a village close to the core protection area has refused to join the WMS, while another village, Lubungo, is set to join after the settlement of border conflicts with its neighbours. It was also established that, although LUPs for the first 24 villages have been completed, boundary problems still persist in villages like Kambala, which is settled by Maasai pastoralists and borders the Mtibwa Sugar Company. After dismantling the former Dakawa Ranch, Mtibwa Company was allocated land which almost separated Kambala village from the WMA, denying the livestock keepers' access to the Wami River to water their livestock. Other villages with boundary disputes include Kidudwe, Mlumbilo and Mkono-wa-Mara.

Wildlife has reportedly increased as a result of increased investments in conservation and anti-poaching activities, to the point where commercial hunting may once again become a viable option in the area. The signs of increasing wildlife population is also signalled by increasing human-wildlife conflicts. According to information obtained from the WMS Advisor, anti-poaching efforts have seen wildlife populations grow 4 fold; also the WMS activities have seen a great reduction in tree cutting. The WMA hopes to develop a mixture of resource-based enterprises, including tourist hunting, photographic tourism, fishing, and forestry products sales. Also Wami-Mbiki WMA community expressed frustration at having spent a great deal of time conserving the resources in the WMA but not yet having significant tangible benefits from those efforts.

2. Pawaga-Idodi - Iringa Rural District

The Pawaga-Idodi WMA covers about 776.65 sq.km, and involves 21 villages. The WMA initially was facilitated by DFID between 1997 and 2002. Later in 2004 WWF and WCS took over the facilitation role to support the MBOMIPA CBO, after DFID ended/stopped its facilitation. The main activities undertaken include building capacity for village government leaders and village game scouts. The Evaluation Team found evidence that awareness-raising efforts were adequate, as there were adequate meetings and presentations before the villagers adopted the WMA process. Local communities are conversant with the process. However, there are problems in trying to establish the distinction between investments related to the WMA and other investment on villages' land was unclear. In Tungamalenga village, this problem is causing resentment and some villagers are wondering if it was at all worthy for their village to continue being a member of MBOMIPA when even other investments on village land aimed for village income generation are considered to belong to the CBO.

The area is potential for investment and there are several investments already taking place in the area. However, most of these activities are undertaken without any EIAs, which may threaten the sustainability of the investments and the WMA in general.

There are signs of wildlife increasing as indicated by the easily seen and increased human-wildlife conflicts, especially in Tungamalenga village, which was visited by the Evaluation Team. There were a lot of complaints about the negative impact of the increased wildlife (especially elephants) in destroying farm crops and therefore affecting livelihoods.

3. Enduimet WMA - Longido District

Enduimet WMA lies in Ol Molog and Tinga Tinga Wards in the West Kilimanjaro Basin of Longindo District. The pilot WMA contains nine villages, and was originally conceived in 1997 following a wildlife survey conducted by elephant researchers and national and district wildlife authorities (Poole and Reuling, 1997). The WMA covers an area of 128,179ha, of which 86% has been set aside as a WMA. The area has a tourist hunting block. Other existing activities include photographing, camping, walking safaris, specialized bird watching and wildlife viewing.

The WMA faces several challenges. Sinya village has refused to join the WMA, partly because the village was already earning large revenues from non-consumptive tourism. This is the largest village in the proposed WMA, it is adjacent to the Kenyan border, and has an abundant population of large mammals such as elephant, giraffe, zebra, wildebeest, impala, and gazelle, much of which moves back and forth between Sinya and Amboseli National Park in Kenya. Sinya has developed photographic tourism enterprises in the village, starting around 1998, and by 2004 was earning about \$40,000 per annum from this tourism (Nelson *et al* 2006). Despite a study tour to MBOMIPA, Sinya village has not been convinced to join the WMA.

3.4.3 WMAs at Middle Stages of Development

1. Ukutu WMA - Morogoro Rural District

Ukutu WMA is one of the pioneers of CBC in Tanzania. In 1996, 22 villages in Ukutu were facilitated to form a CBO with the aim to introduce conservation and the sustainable utilisation of natural resources. According to Baldus *et al* (2004), this initiative was supported by the Wildlife Division, the District Council and GTZ under the Selous Conservation Programme. The CBO was registered under the name “Jumuiya ya Kuhifadhi na Matumizi Bora ya Maliasili Ukutu” (JUKUMU). The CBO fulfilled the requirements and became the first pilot WMA in country to apply for the AA status. However their application was rejected and over time they have been overtaken by other WMAs, which have managed to fulfil the conditions for formalisation.

Although the Ukutu WMA is facing a number of huddles before succeeding to pass the formalisation process, Baldus *et al* (2004) have listed the following achievements attained by the five WMA pilot areas that were being facilitated by GTZ:

- All participating villages have already prepared land use plans although not adhering to the National Land Use Planning (NLUP) guidelines and regulations.
- The villages have set aside areas for wildlife conservation but maps did not show the amount of land contributed to WMA by each village.
- Each pilot WMA around the Selous receives an annual hunting quota from the Wildlife Division: The revenue generated by the utilisation of the quotas is used for wildlife conservation and community development.
- On the job training of villagers and village leaders on management, accountability, awareness and sensitisation on CBC and WMA Regulations is ongoing and making excellent progress. Formal training of village game scouts has been carried out.
- Crop protection has been improved in all areas due to increased involvement of villages and their scouts.

- There are material benefits from the quota and in the case of 'Jukumu' from a hotel lease. Income would be increased more than tenfold, if the WMA would receive the full user rights and could tender or auction the hunting rights.
- Poaching has been reduced significantly and wildlife has come back to areas where it was absent before.

The Evaluation Team found evidence to show that there was adequate level of awareness-raising. Several meetings and presentations were made to raise awareness before the formation of the WMA. However, it was evident that some issues are not clarified in the JUKUMU constitution. For example, the distinction between investments related to the WMA and other investments on village land was unclear. In Kisaki village this problem caused resentment and some villagers wondered whether it is worthy for their village to continue in the WMA or better go their own way alone!

Ukutu did apply for AA but the application was sent back to enable the CBO in collaboration with member villages to correct the maps. The funds to undertake the job have been provided by the WD.

2. Makame WMA - Kiteto District

Makame WMA is comprised of the three villages of Makame, Ndedo, and Ilkiushoibor in Kiteto District, Manyara Region. Makame WMA is located in a very remote area with poor road networks and social infrastructure. The WMA is a very important dispersal area for the Tarangire National Park. It is located in the southern Maasai Steppe southeast of Tarangire, it is a wildlife-rich area with large numbers of elephants, antelope, greater kudu, lions, and even wild dogs.

The WMA is ethnically homogeneous, comprised almost entirely of Maasai pastoralists. This WMA has been facilitated by AWF and the LAMP. This WMA has a CBO and village land use plans but there is no Resource Zone Management Plan. According to district authorities, funds and resources to accomplish the remaining work will be provided by the AWF.

It is hard to know with certainty the level of awareness and participation in this WMA. Despite the good attendance at the meeting with the Review Team, it was only the Maasai leaders who were talking. In spite the attempt to translate the discussion the majority of the villagers could not respond.

Unlike the other WMAs, the main objective of this WMA is to protect their livestock from wild animals, and economic motives is probably second or third ranked. The villagers believe that by forming a WMA, wildlife will increase, hence will provide satisfactory prey ground. In this way, their livestock will be protected from being attacked by wildlife.

3. Songea WMA – Namtumbo District

As part of the Selous Conservation Programme, the Songea WMA started in 1989 and it involves 7 villages. The member villages have formed a CBO known as MBARANG'ANDU. The WMA initially was funded by GTZ, which helped to form natural resource committee and training of VGS. GTZ pulled out in 2004. LUP and resource use management plans have been designed but not yet mapped. WD has set aside funds for the completion of their land use plans, the existing LUPs expired in 2006.

One of the major threats of the WMA process in Namtumbo District is the prospects for minerals and exploration work has started by private investors. How the two activities (i.e. wildlife conservation and mineral prospecting) could be accommodated without causing conflicts is not clear.

The Evaluation Team was satisfied that awareness-raising efforts were adequate. Also, it was established that there are signs of wildlife increasing as indicated by the widely reported and increased human-wildlife conflicts.

The main motive for this WMA is improving livelihoods especially through increasing income from investors and available meat for consumption.

4. Tunduru WMA – Tunduru District

The WMA process in Tunduru started in 2002 but the area was already part of the Selous Conservation Programme. The WMA has 10 villages. Like in the other WMAs surrounding the Selous Game Reserve, The WMA process in the Tunduru WMA was funded by GTZ, Tunduru District Council, and one of the members of the Board of Trustees, who is also a Councillor. Together, the three sources of funding have helped to build capacity for VG officials, VGS, facilitating meetings.

The Evaluation Team has established that awareness-raising among the communities is adequate. Member villages have managed to form and register a CBO named NALIKA which is active, and VGS have been appointed and trained. The Village Land Use Plans are available in all 10 villages, although not yet finalised. The AA application has been submitted; the CBO and District Council staff is working upon comments received from the WD with the funding from the District Council before re-submission for AA status consideration. The Resource Management Zone Plan has already been finalized by incorporating all required amendments

There are signs of increasing wildlife as indicated by the easily seen and increased human-wildlife conflicts.

The Review Team was informed that local communities are finding it difficult to understand their constitution because of the legal language used. There is therefore a need to translate the constitution into a simple and understandable language that will enable the local communities to understand what it means.

5. Liwale WMA – Liwale District

The WMA process in Liwale started in the mid 1990s. The WMA has 9 villages. It has formed a CBO known as MAGINGO. The WMA was formally funded by GTZ, which helped to build capacity for VG officials, VGS, facilitating meetings. GTZ facilitated maps drawing process although the maps produced did not meet the WD requirements. Major work is still needed to be able to meet the requirements. The local communities through their CBO are in a process of writing a proposal for funding to WD and other donors.

The Evaluation Team established that awareness raising activities in Liwale were adequate, and a CBO named MAGINGO has been registered. The VGS have been appointed and trained, but the land use plans have not been completed in all the villages. The GMP or RMZP has been done but the maps are not yet ready. The AA

application has been submitted, and comments received that require major re-work and funding. The source of funding for this activity is not yet established.

3.4.4 WMAs at initial stages of development

1. Twatwatwa WMA – Kilosa District

The activities to facilitate the formalisation of Twatwatwa WMA started in 1997 with the funding from Irish Aid. The WMA was proposed to have an area of 30,830ha and to involve 4 villages, namely Twatwatwa, Mbwade, Rudewa, Mbuyuni and Msowero. The Irish Aid helped the initial awareness raising campaigns, but it withdrew during the very early stages of the WMA establishment process and since then there is no external facilitation to the WMA. This is an area which has experienced a lot of conflicts between cultivators and livestock keeping communities, and late in 2000 about 30 people were killed in clashes between these communities, making it questionable whether they can really cooperate to manage the Twatwatwa WMA jointly.

The District Council wrote a letter to WD requesting for stopping the WMA activities until when the land use conflict between the pastoralists and cultivators is resolved. Until now there is no response from the district regarding this issue. Consequently, there are no activities that are going on to facilitate the formalization of the WMA.

During fieldwork for this assignment, the Evaluation Team could clearly see that the level of awareness is inadequate and tensions are still notable although awareness raising efforts were made with the previous village level leadership. The village leaders reported that some of the villagers who were trained to be VGS have now turned to be the leading poachers in the area. Since there is no facilitation, villagers are not in a position to manage the new wave of poaching alone.

2. Loliondo WMA - Ngorongoro District

Loliondo is found in Loliondo Division in Ngorongoro District, Arusha Region. It was a former GCA and covers an area of 4,000 sq. km. This WMA is the most promising WMA both ecologically and economically. It is the richest WMA in terms of wildlife population. Other advantages are that it is thinly populated, semi-arid and therefore most appropriate for wildlife kind of land use. The Loliondo WMA borders the most potential SENAPA, NCAA and Maasai-Mara ecosystems. The most rewarding economic activities are tourist hunting and photographing.

Loliondo is one of the most challenging WMAs. The WMA has six villages, and three villages out of the six have rejected the idea of forming a WMA. These are Ololosokwani, Oloipai and Arashi. There are different reasons for rejecting the WMA formation. These include:

- Inadequate awareness raising,
- Tribal conflicts between the Sonjo and the Maasai.
- There are significant benefits at village level from the current investors¹³.

Discussion with district authorities indicated that other problems with the Loliondo WMA include the uncertainty for investors regarding the whole issue of WMA. The area has many investors who, because of the uncertainty regarding the WMAs strategy, they are corrupting the communities not to accept the formation of the WMA.

¹³ Although a considerable part of income goes into individuals' pockets.

In addition, there are strong counter-WMA establishment sentiments by individual investors and conflicting interests from many NGOs in the area. There are a lot of NGOs in the area, which are self-claimed activists for Maasai welfare. They have convinced the Maasai communities not to form the WMAs, because they are likely to lose. We were told that most of these NGOs are run by Maasai elites who are getting a lot of support from donors within the country and abroad. There is also a misconception that the formation of a WMA is just another mechanism of extending the SENAPA boundaries. People in the area still have fresh memories regarding the 1959 evacuation of the Maasai communities by the British colonial administration.

3. Tarime WMA – Tarime District

This is another WMA that has made little progress in the process of forming a WMA. Most of the time local communities have been fighting between the two clans of the two villages, Gibaso and Mrito. The day we visited Gibaso village a number of VG leaders were not in a conducive situation to be able to talk. However, the VEO managed to talk to the Review Team and gave some useful insights. According to the VEO, villagers were resisting to join the WMA because SENAPA and Masai-Mara surround the village, which has increased human-wildlife conflicts.

Gibaso village has the largest population of livestock in the district and they argue to having limited land for grazing. However, a study tour to Ikona WMA by the village leadership has been quite successful. According to the VEO, 70% of the villagers in Gibaso now are accepting the idea of forming a WMA. He is confident that by July 2007 even the remaining 30% will accept the idea of forming a WMA in the two villages.

This information should, however, be taken with caution as the person we talked to was not sober and it was difficult to countercheck some of the information provided because of the time limitations. For example, the VEO indicated that the other village is willing to form a WMA but at the same time he was warning us not to discuss anything about socio-political relations between the two villages.

Table 4 provides a summary of the status of the 16 WMAs by district, facilitators and remaining tasks.

Table 4: The Status of the 16 WMAs by April, 2007

Name of WMA	District	Facilitators	Status	Remaining tasks/Next	Other comments
Burunge	Babati	AWF and LAMP, District Council (DC)	Have AA & User Right	Capacity building in EIA, Governance, contractual skills, business and entrepreneurship skills.	Minjingu village wants to quit from the WMA possibly because of rich resource base and high level of investors. Most investments are undertaken without EIAs

Ikona	Serengeti	FZS, SRCP/ NORAD, DC	Have AA & User Right	Capacity building in EIA, Governance, contractual skills, business and entrepreneurship skills.	Village is entering into contracts with other investors in the Grumeti Game Reserve Concession land. Most investments are undertaken without EIAs
Ipole	Sikonge	Africare, DC	Have AA & User Right	Capacity building in EIA, Governance, contractual skills, business and entrepreneurship skills.	Continue existence of tourist hunter causes doubt on the ownership of the WMA, Forest encroachment. Threatens WMA sustainability.
Uyumbu	Urambo	Africare, DC	Have AA & User Right	Capacity building in EIA, Governance, contractual skills, business and entrepreneurship skills.	High producer of honey but limited markets, It borders a village in Uyui district which is not part of the WMA
Ngarambe-Tapika	Rufiji	GTZ later WWF DC	Have AA & User Right	Capacity building in EIA, Governance, contractual skills, business and entrepreneurship skills	No legal contracts between AA and existing investors but only interim agreement, Activities after AA are not yet started.
Wami-Mbiki	Morogoro Rural, Mvomero and Bagamoyo	Danish Hunters Association/ DANIDA DC	Have AA and applied for user right	Capacity building in EIA, Governance, contractual skills, business and entrepreneurship skills	Increased wildlife, Increased human-wildlife conflicts, Two villages have boundary conflicts and are yet to join the WMA
Pawaga-Idodi	Iringa Rural	DFID later WWF, Wildlife Conservation Society,	Have AA and applied for user right	Capacity building in EIA, Governance, contractual skills, business and entrepreneurship skills	Un-clear benefit sharing formulae for village of different land and resources contribution to a WMA (e.g. Tungamalenga), Increased wildlife,

					Increased human-wildlife conflicts which leads to poverty.
Enduimet	Longido	AWF DC SNV	Have AA and applied for user right	Capacity building in EIA, Governance, contractual skills, business and entrepreneurship skills	Sinya village with rich resources and investors, has refused to join the WMA
Ukutu	Morogoro Rural	GTZ later WD DC	No AA	Maps for both LUP and Resource Use Management Zones are not yet completed- WD has facilitated the remaining work, but not yet completed.	The CBO seem to be above the VG in terms of authority, Un-clear benefit sharing modalities (e.g. Kisaki village),
Makame	Kiteto	AWF LAMP, DC	No AA	Have LUP but no maps for resource use management zones-AWF will facilitate	Not clear level of awareness as they did not respond to the Evaluation Team except their leaders.
Songea	Namtumbo	GTZ later WD	No AA	LUP and Resource use management plans have been designed but not yet mapped. WD will facilitate the remaining work	Prospects of minerals and exploration work by private investors raises a query on how the two will be accommodated without causing conflicts is not clear. Loss of game meat since the establishment of a CBO is a critical issue and creates hatred to the CBO, There is a mistrust of the CBO.
Tundururu	Tundururu	GTZ DC	No AA	Applied for AA but rejected, The LUPs are available in all villages, but not yet finalised the GMP or RMP.	Increased wildlife, Increased human-wildlife conflicts.

Liwale	Liwale	GTZ DC	No AA	Applied for AA but returned with major re-work and funding. The source of funding for this activity is not yet established. GMP or RMP has been done but the maps are not yet ready.	They are frustrated by the Un-ending WMA authorisation process.
Twatwatwa	Kilosa	Irish Aid DC	No AA	Very little work on the ground, no LUP, GMP, inadequate awareness	Seem to have cultural mistrust. VGS have turned into poachers. No institutional knowledge. The former VG were trained on WMA strategy, while the current leadership is not aware.
Loliondo	Ngorongoro	FZS DC	No CBO/AA	Very little work on the ground, no LUP, GMP, inadequate awareness	Half of the villages have rejected the formation of WMA, Investors and NGOs seem to be not in favour of the WMAs establishment because of the uncertainty, The facilitator is not trusted because of the past legacy-Masai evacuation from SENAPA.
Tarime	Tarime	WD	No CBO/AA	Very little work on the ground, no LUP, GMP, inadequate awareness	Land use conflicts and clan mistrust is still a problem. Limited land for grazing

Source: Fieldwork Data and Literature Review

Evaluation of Level of Participation in Decision Making in the WMA Process

Under this sub-section the Draft Report evaluates the level of participation in decision making in the WMA process as observed in the visited WMAs. The sub-section assesses participation in decision making, focusing on the description of the decision making process, how the local communities involved in decision making, and analyzing the different levels of participation by different social groups.

3.5.1 The participatory process in establishing and implementation of WMAs

According to Oakley (1991) and Pimbert and Pretty (1994) participation in the development process can occur in seven different levels as summarized in Table 5 below.

Table 5: Possible Levels of Participation in Development Projects

S/N	Levels of Participation	Characterization
1	Passive participation	Participants only told of what will or has already happened. Top-down flow of information. Knowledge is privileged to professionals.
2	Extractive participation	Participants provide information to professionals/researchers via extractive research methodologies. Participants not able to influence outcomes.
3	Consultative participation	Participants consulted on externally defined problems and solutions. But not involved in final decision-making.
4	Participation by enticement	Participants enticed by provision of material incentives. Participation ends when incentives end.
5	Functional participation	Participants organize to fulfil predetermined objectives. Done after major project decisions are made.
6	Interactive participation	Participants facilitated to take joint analysis of problems, leading to joint solutions. Participants enabled and empowered to joint actions. Formation of new local institutions or strengthening existing ones. Participants with stakes in maintaining emergent structures or practices.
7	Self mobilization	Empowered participants take joint analysis of problems and take decisions independent of external facilitation. May or may not challenge existing inequitable distribution of wealth and power.

Source: Compiled from Oakley (1991) and Pimbert and Pretty (1994).

Ideally, the crucial objective in the successful implementation of the WMA concept is the initiation and eventual progression of participation towards levels 6 and 7 of this typology. From the observations in the field, however, it is obvious that the WMA process was initiated from above and it brought local communities into wildlife conservation mainly through promises of socio-economic benefits. But, as noted above, these promises have not so far been forthcoming due to the numerous, costly and often cumbersome procedural steps in the establishment of WMAs. Hence, despite the 8

WMAs which have acquired AA status and the 4 that have obtained User Rights, participation by local communities in the implementation of the WMA concept remains dangerously stuck at level 4 of the Oakley/Pimbert & Pretty typology.

3.5.2 The decision making process in establishing and implementation of WMAs

The process of decision making in establishing and implementation of a WMA begins when, according to the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (2003), the Village Council recommends to the Village Assembly what village land should be used to form a WMA. After deliberations the Village Assembly may then decide to form a WMA on the proposed land. Several adjacent villages must then form a representative Community Based Organization (CBO), which has a constitution and is registered with the Ministry of Home Affairs.

The number of village representatives to a particular CBO varies according to the number of member villages. It, however, ranges between 2 representatives in MBOMIPA, to 6 representatives in NALIKA, Tunduru. Gender and age representations have also been taken on board in most of the CBOs. For example, the Constitution of the AA of Wami-Mbiki clearly stipulates in this respect that “The CBO Council shall be made up of 2 representative volunteers from each of the Member Villages, encouraging that at least 5 of the total number are of a different gender” (p.14). Nevertheless, reality from the field shows that, despite the well intended attempt to attain gender balance in representation, women are yet to be well represented in CBOs. This is for well known historical reasons.

The CBO meets after quarterly to deliberate on issues of concern to the WMA. It also holds an Annual Meeting to report on income and expenditure of the CBO and discuss on the budget of the coming year. While the village representatives to the CBO link the CBO to the Village Council and often take back the CBO quarterly meetings’ deliberations, Village Chairpersons and Village Executive Officers of each member village are usually invited to participate in the annual meetings as ex-officio members.

At the national level, however, the CBO has no power to decide anything regarding the utilization of wildlife in a WMA without the express approval of the Director of Wildlife, including getting an AA status and a User Right for the utilization of wildlife. To get a User Right the CBO has to prepare Village Land Use Plans including the proposed WMA. This has to be done by Village Councils and Village Assemblies in accordance with the provisions of the Village Land Act of 1999 and following the National Land Use Planning Guidelines. The District Council advises the CBO on the preparation of these plans.

After that the CBO composes a General Management Plan, or as an interim measure (for up to five years), a Resource Management Zone Plan. This plan zones the uses of different resources within the village lands and within the proposed WMA. The above steps completed, the CBO can now apply to become an AA, which means that the Director of Wildlife and the Minister formally gazette the WMA if they approve the application.

After the WMA is gazetted, the benefit flows from the wildlife are developed through the concerned AA applying to the Director for User Rights to the wildlife or applying to the Director to have a hunting block designated in the WMA in case it is suitable for

Tourist Hunting; but after an AA gets the user right it is authorised to enter into contracts with investors.

3.5.3 Opinions of stakeholders and local communities

Opinions of stakeholders and local communities on issues of participation in decision-making regarding the implementation of WMAs vary between WMAs. Generally, however, many observers believe that, apart from the representation provided for at the CBO and village levels, there is little or no participation at all by local communities in decision making in the utilization of wildlife in a WMA. Despite the 1998 Wildlife Policy calls for giving the communities full mandate for managing wildlife in the WMAs, in a number of areas the rights of the CBO for making management decisions are restricted. The Director of Wildlife and the Minister have absolute power in this respect.

The most notable restriction of CBO managerial authority lies in the issue of utilizing the wildlife in the WMAs through tourist hunting activities. The WMA Regulations establish that the CBO does not have authority for granting hunting rights in the WMAs, which remain under the authority of the Director of Wildlife. The Director of Wildlife also chooses the investor in such hunting blocks according to established procedures for allocating tourist hunting concessions within the Wildlife Division.

Such provisions greatly curtail the ability of the CBO to develop private joint ventures based on tourist hunting in the WMA, as the CBO cannot choose its own investors, and cannot use such important management tools such as putting out a tender for its hunting block, which might increase prices of the WMA's wildlife substantially over time. These restrictions are critical because in many parts of the country outside of the northern circuit, tourist hunting is clearly the most significant commercial opportunity for converting wildlife into community revenues through the WMA process (Nelson *et al*, 2006).

The restrictions in the regulations also curtail the opportunities for hunting operators to develop contractual partnerships with the WMA communities, as they become accountable partly to the Wildlife Division and partly to the CBO. Thus overall, the design of the WMAs as provided in the WMA Regulations is one that gives communities limited rights for wildlife management decisions in the WMAs, with important decision-making authority being retained at the Wildlife Division and Ministerial levels.

As observed by one study (Nelson *et al*, 2006) a main driver of this confusion is the complexity of the WMA Regulations and the fact that the WMA is presented as a community-owned initiative, but in fact key powers are not given to the communities. It is argued that due to the limited nature of the rights conferred on the CBO, and the degree of control over investments in WMAs maintained by the Director of Wildlife, the CBO will be in many ways dependent upon the Wildlife Division for all key management decisions. This may make the CBO accountable to a great extent to the Wildlife Division rather than to its village constituents.¹⁴

¹⁴ For example, according to Regulation 22(1) an AA cannot engage competent experts in any task in the WMA without previously seeking and obtaining the approval of the Director of Wildlife.

Examination of Relationships and Linkages Between Various Stakeholders in the Implementation of WMAs

According to the WMA Guidelines (2002) and Regulations (2005), several institutions are mentioned as the main players in the management of WMAs. At the local level, these include the Authorised Association, the Village Council, the Village Assembly, the District Council and the District Natural Resources Advisory Board. At the national level they include the Wildlife Division, the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism, TANAPA, NCAA, and TAWIRI, Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs). (Fig.1). The rights, responsibilities and linkages between each of these institutions and to other stakeholders in the implementation of WMAs are outlined below.

3.6.1 The Village Council

According to Regulation 21(a) to 21(h) the Village Council (VC) has several responsibilities in the management of WMAs. These responsibilities include providing land for designation of a WMA, preparing village land use plans, coordinating natural resources activities at village level and formulating natural resources management by-laws.

Other responsibilities include approving mechanisms for benefit sharing among member villages, monitoring of the activities of the AA and report to the Village Assembly (VA) and the District Council, and ensuring that there exists a secure and favourable business environment in a WMA. Lastly, the VC is expected to ensure that the AA implements relevant sector policies while entering into agreements with the VC and the private sector.

3.6.2 The Authorised Association

In the context of the WMA process an AA is “a community-based organization whose primary objective is to conserve wildlife resources for the benefit of local community members ordinarily residing in that particular area, and given the mandate by the Director to do so on village land” (p.6). Both the Guidelines (2002:15), Regulations 22, 36, 37 and 38 outline the functions of the AA to include acquiring User Rights through preparation of a 5-year General Management Plan (GMP) or Resource Management Zone Plan (RMZP) and submission of the same to the Director of Wildlife for approval. Other administrative functions include entering into agreement with the VC on the management of a WMA, managing a WMA in accordance with existing GMP/RMZP and the current Regulations, and cooperating with the Director of Wildlife and the authorities of TANAPA and the NCAA in the management of a WMA. Others are maintaining proper records and providing quarterly, semi-annual and annual reports to the VA, acquiring and disposing of the AA’s property, recruiting and training some of the AA staff, and engaging competent experts in any task assigned by the AA, with the approval of the Director of Wildlife previously sought and obtained as and when required.

Other responsibilities relate to maintaining ecological integrity of a WMA. These include reviewing the GMP/RMZP of the WMA, recruiting and training of Village Game Scouts (VGS) in accordance with the relevant Regulations, lobbying and providing a supportive role in the making of wildlife conservation by-laws of member villages, undertaking basic resource monitoring in accordance with the provisions of the Regulations and submitting the data to the wildlife management authorities, and proposing quota to the District Natural Resources Advisory Board. Others include protecting biodiversity resources, supporting control of problem animals, issuing

permits for utilizing resources in a WMA, and keeping government trophies in safe custody.

Functions related to wildlife business include negotiating and entering into contractual agreements regarding the utilization of resources and investment in a WMA, seeking authorization of investment from the VA, overseeing investment and development activities, collecting and remitting fees to relevant authorities and managing finances according to the laid down procedures. And lastly, the AA has the responsibility of developing and implementing mechanism for equitable benefit sharing between the AA and member villages.

Three observations can be made in relationship to these responsibilities/functions:

- (a) The Regulations have given the AA a mixed bag of responsibilities which require vast capacity, experience and skills to manage the various physical, ecological, financial and human resources inherent in the relevant WMAs. However, observations in the field show that these institutions are generally weak in human capital; lacking in both technical capacity and skill to take off and later manage their resources and operate successfully. As pointed out by one study (International Resources Group, 2000), there is a glaring gap in skills such as obtaining access to market information and making decisions based on such information, accessing capital to finance community wildlife enterprises, good entrepreneurship, how to form community-private sector partnerships, and how to negotiate and enter into joint ventures.

The role of facilitators in this respect needs to be clearly defined. Organizing a Facilitators Meeting on this issue by the Wildlife Division is imperative. The resultant capacity building programmes should be based on local needs assessments as the one done by Gamassa *et al.* (2005). They should also consider how opportunities can be created for local communities to exercise and practice the skills obtained to alleviate poverty at the household level in simple, cheap and sustainable ways.

- (b) The Regulations tend to contradict themselves with regard to when the CBO/AA should produce a GMP/RMZP. While Regulations 36 and 37 outline the functions of the AA to include acquiring User Rights through preparation of a 5-year GMP or RMZP and submission of the same to the Director of Wildlife for approval, Regulation 6 gives this mandate to the registered CBO. Recent practice has in fact used the latter definition and approach. There is need to harmonize these rather confusing Regulations.
- (c) The overall control over the WMA process maintained by the Director of Wildlife is absurdly evident in Regulation 22 where the AA cannot even engage competent experts in any task assigned by the AA without *the approval of the Director of Wildlife* previously sought and obtained as and when required (emphasis added). There is need to devolve such administrative decisions to intermediate institutions such as the District Council or the District Natural Resources Advisory Board.

3.6.3 The Village Assembly

Despite its obvious importance as the highest democratic institution in village governance, the VA is not mentioned in the official Administrative Structure that appears in the Guidelines (Fig. 1). Apart from the role of vetting village representatives to the CBO, the VA has also not been assigned with any responsibilities as are the Village Council and the AA. Thus although Regulation 41 states that: “An Authorized Association may subject to the approval of the village assembly surrender its user rights to the Director” (p. 21), in general the VA remains a tertiary institution that is just reported to by the Village Council and the AA.

3.6.4 The District Council

Both Guidelines (2002) and Regulations (2005) place an important role on the District Council, via the District Game Officer (DGO), as a primary facilitator for the implementation of the WMA concept in Tanzania. In this respect Regulation 26 outlines 9 facilitation responsibilities, including facilitation of application by a CBO to become an AA and to establish a WMA, establishment and facilitation of the District Natural Resources Advisory Board to carry out its functions, and to link the AA and the Director of Wildlife on issues specified in the Regulations.

Legal functions include approving of village natural resources by-laws, advising and giving guidance on the village Land Use Plans, monitoring enforcement of wildlife laws in and outside WMAs, monitoring investments in the WMAs, and issuing resident hunting licenses to AAs. The District Council also has the responsibility of conducting problem animal control in collaboration with the relevant AAs.

3.6.5 The District Natural Resources Advisory Board

This is an advisory Board established at the district level by the District Council. It is established according to Regulation 27 for matters relating to the coordination and administration of WMAs in the district. Regulation 28 spells out the composition of the District Natural Resources Advisory Board (DNRAB). Generally, it should comprise of no more than 12 members, including:

- District Commissioner (Chair),
- District Executive Director (Member),
- District Game Officer (Secretary),
- District Land Officer (Member),
- District Forestry Officer (Member),
- District Community Development Officer (Member),
- District Fisheries Officer (Member),
- District Planning Officer (Member), and
- Representative from AA.

Where applicable:

- Representative from a Game Reserve (Member),
- Representative from a National Park (Member),
- Representative from Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority (Member), and
- Other co-opted experts resident in the district.

Where a WMA comprises more than one district, as is the case with Wami-Mbiki, the officials mentioned above meet and decide who will sit on the Board. Co-opted experts have no voting powers, but the Regulations do not say whether these are over and above the 12 mandatory members or not.

The absence of the District Natural Resources Officer (DNRO) from the Board was mentioned by several stakeholders as an unfortunate omission that emphasized the sectoral approach of the WMA process, and hence led to slowing down the implementation of the WMA concept in districts such as Morogoro and Namtumbo. It has been argued that as the overseer of the natural resources portfolio in the district the DNRO's role is more overarching than the DGO and should thus be incorporated in the Board as the secretary. The DGO could remain as a simple member like the other line officials from forestry, fisheries, etc.

The absence from the DNRAB of elected representatives to the political institutions within and outside the district was another glaring omission pointed out by the stakeholders. Political will has remained a constant refrain in the success of implementation of the WMA concept. Proper use of political representatives to push the agenda of WMA has proved to be productive in several areas (e.g. MBOMIPA, NALIKA, etc). It was recommended, therefore, that local MPs and/or Councillors be incorporated in the DNRAB.

The functions of DNRAB are outlined by Regulation 30 (p. 20). They include acting as a forum for arbitration and conflict resolution, providing and coordinating provision of technical and legal advice to the AA, especially in relation to contractual undertakings by the AA. Other responsibilities include scrutinizing proposed quotas from the AA and forwarding them to the Director of Wildlife with recommendations. And lastly, the Board appraises the District Council Standing Committee on Natural Resources on the deliberations of its meetings.

3.6.6 The Wildlife Division

Regulation 31 outlines the responsibilities of the Director of Wildlife. They include facilitating the initiation process for the designation and gazettelement of WMAs, entering into contractual agreements or MoU with AAs on the management of WMAs, and overseeing the performance of the AA in the management and conservation of the WMAs, and determining the continuation of a particular WMA. Other responsibilities of the Director of Wildlife include setting and allocating animal quotas and approving of prospective investors in the WMAs, designating WMAs as tourist hunting blocks and issuing permits for tourist hunting.

In the maintenance of ecological integrity in the WMAs the Director of Wildlife has the responsibility of providing support in the protection (including anti-poaching activities) and utilization of natural resources, supporting resource monitoring, evaluation and inventory development trends, and supporting problem animal control.

In capacity building in the WMAs the Director of Wildlife has the responsibility of supporting training of VGS by developing a syllabus and setting standards for training in all institutions providing training in wildlife conservation.

As already observed elsewhere, the Director of Wildlife has absolute control over the WMA process, including utilization and protection of natural resources other than wildlife (Regulation 31(j)). Different key informants kept on highlighting the powerful position of the Director of Wildlife vis-à-vis the WMAs. The power of the Director of Wildlife remains even after a CBO has fulfilled the stringent legal requirements for obtaining AA as outlined in the WMA Regulations. The Evaluation Team encountered

a lot of frustration in the WMAs that have already acquired AA about the continued delays in granting User Rights, while those that had recently acquired User Rights did not know what to do with them.

3.6.7 The Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism

Regulation 32 outlines the responsibilities of the Minister responsible for natural resources and tourism in the implementation of the WMA process. The responsibilities include declaring WMAs by notice in the Gazette, declaring a CBO to become an AA, approving a duly registered NGO to provide financial and technical assistance to the AA. And finally, if need be, to de-gazette a WMA. All of these are done in consultation with the Director of Wildlife.

The Regulations are, however, silent on the role of two other ministries in the implementation of the WMA process. The first one is the Ministry of Home Affairs which plays a crucial role in the registration of CBOs. A community is required by law to register a CBO not with Wildlife Division but with the Registrar of Associations, under the Ministry of Home Affairs. This process will give the CBO the right to form an AA in terms of the WMA regulations. The other is the Ministry of Justice and Constitutional Affairs which deals with legal details of gazettelement or de-gazettelement of WMAs. Inadequate coordination between the three ministries has often led to bureaucratic inertia that has delayed the implementation of the WMA process.

3.6.8 Government Facilitating Institutions

TANAPA and the NCAA have been identified by the Regulations as important facilitators in the implementation of the WMA process. Regulation 33 states, in this respect, that where applicable the two institutions shall consult and cooperate with the Director of Wildlife in facilitating the designation and development of WMAs, participating in the DNRAB, supporting resource monitoring and inventory, supporting in anti-poaching activities and problem animal control. The Regulations are, however, silent on the role of research institutions like TAWIRI and Mweka College of Wildlife, especially in supporting resource monitoring and inventory.

3.6.9 Non-Governmental Facilitating Organizations

The role of NGOs, both local and international, in facilitating the implementation of the WMA process is not very well spelt out in the Regulations. However, according to Regulation 32 the Minister responsible for natural resources and tourism can “approve a duly registered NGO to provide financial and technical assistance to an AA”. Indeed during the fieldwork the Evaluation Team were informed that facilitators like WWF, Africare, AWF, GTZ, et cetera, had played a crucial role in assisting the WMAs from registering their CBOs to the acquisition of User Rights.

Post-User Rights capacity building remains perhaps the most daunting task that awaits these organizations. The Wildlife Division should be pro-active enough to engage these and other relevant NGOs in laying down a flexible capacity building programme for those WMAs that have attained User Rights.

4.0 ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The main objectives of this assignment were to evaluate the implementation of the process to establish a WMA; to evaluate the design of the pilot phase for the WMA looking at the extent to which the design has facilitated the implementation of WMAs, and to identify factors that can enhance sustainability of WMAs. Hereunder the Report provides an analysis and discussion of the findings outlined above in line with these objectives. For the sake of brevity the analysis and discussion will dwell mainly on the prominent issues that require some recommendations for action, as much discussion on the other issues has been done while presenting the results in the previous sections.

4.1 The Design of the Pilot Phase for the WMA

Three major issues have arisen in this context and need to be further commented upon hereunder. These are the sectoral approach in design of the WMA process, the complexity of Guidelines and Regulations governing the WMA process, and the responsibilities and functions given by the Guidelines and Regulations to the CBO/AAs.

4.1.1 The sectoral approach of WMAs

It has already been noted in the previous sections that the focus of Regulations is on wildlife management only, while the areas set aside for WMAs may have other resources such as forests, water, minerals, and land, which could equally contribute to poverty alleviation. It has been argued, therefore, for an integrated approach to the management of these resources and to the formation of resource management teams at the AA, district and national levels.

On the other hand, and more important, there are also different socio-economic conditions and cultural lines that need to be properly understood as they demand different approaches to planning. The case of zoning out livestock grazing from the WMAs is a case in point. While it has been acceptable in villages with little livestock such as those of Ukutu and Ngarambe-Tapika, it is unthinkable among the Maasai livestock keepers of villages in the Enduimet, Loliondo and Makame WMAs. To them livestock grazing has always been compatible with wildlife conservation. In fact the latter has been deliberately encouraged in pastoralist rangelands to protect livestock from predators; as they will have enough food from the teeming wildlife.

Elsewhere, the perception of benefits from wildlife conservation has been taken by planners to be uniform whereas it is place specific. As clearly demonstrated by cases in communities living around the SGR in Namtumbo, Tunduru, and Liwale, bush meat has always been the key value that wildlife provides to the villagers. Probably due to lack of livestock in this part of Tanzania, and certainly because of participation in CBC since the late 1980's, bush meat had become a very important livelihood ingredient, as opposed to the financial benefits from wildlife espoused by the designers of the WMA process. Obviously, the designers of the process overlooked this culturally differentiated perception and ignored bush meat as an important benefit from wildlife conservation.

4.1.2 Comments on the Guidelines and Regulations

In line with the above, it is evident that the Guidelines and Regulations are generally too detailed and complex. Whereas both field observations and comments by various stakeholders demonstrate an understanding of the need for specificity which is demanded by many of the challenges to community-based management which the Guidelines and Regulations are designed to address, including the tendency of investors

to slip through legislative loopholes to the disadvantage of community stakeholders (Dr. Kahurananga, pers. comm.), it is also noted that too much detailed centralized control may act to reduce the options available to communities and dampen the potential for innovation.

Walsh (2001) and other observers have pointed out, for example, that there is a danger the procedures outlined in the Guidelines and Regulations for establishing WMAs may discourage communities by their cost and bureaucratic complexity, and raises the fear that WMAs will only be formed in areas where significant external support can be obtained, since many game-rich communities are among the poorest and most underdeveloped in other respects. These fears have in fact been vindicated during this evaluation exercise.

Apart from the complexity discussed above, some Regulations tend to contradict each other. This is the case, for example with regard to when the CBO/AA should produce a GMP/RMZP. While Regulations 36 and 37 outline the functions of the AA to include acquiring User Rights through preparation of a 5-year GMP or RMZP and submission of the same to the Director of Wildlife for approval, Regulation 6 gives this mandate to the registered CBO. As already pointed out, recent practice has in fact used the latter definition and approach. Such conflicting Regulations need to be harmonized if only to rid them of the confusions and ease their implementation.

4.1.3 CBO/AA responsibilities/functions

The Regulations have given the AA a mixed bag of responsibilities which require vast capacity, experience and skills to manage the various physical, ecological, financial and human resources inherent in the relevant WMAs. However, observations in the field show that these institutions are generally weak in human capital; lacking in both technical capacity and skill to take off and later manage their resources and operate successfully. As pointed out by one study (International Resources Group, 2000), there is a glaring gap in skills such as obtaining access to market information and making decisions based on such information, accessing capital to finance community wildlife enterprises, good entrepreneurship, how to form community-private sector partnerships, and how to negotiate and enter into joint ventures.

The role of facilitators in this respect needs to be clearly defined. Organizing a Facilitators Meeting on this issue by the Wildlife Division is imperative. The resultant capacity building programmes should be based on local needs assessments as the one done by Gamassa *et al.* (2005). They should also consider how opportunities can be created for local communities to exercise and practice the skills obtained to alleviate poverty at the household level in simple, cheap and sustainable ways.

The overall control over the WMA process maintained by the Director of Wildlife is absurdly evident in Regulation 22 where the AA cannot even engage competent experts in any task assigned by the AA without *the approval of the Director of Wildlife* previously sought and obtained as and when required (emphasis added). There is need to devolve such administrative decisions to intermediate institutions such as the District Council or the District Natural Resources Advisory Board.

4.2 The Implementation of the Process to Establish a WMA

4.2.1 Conflicting policies and legislation

A major issue in this part of the evaluation has been conflicting policies and regulations. As already pointed, not only is the approach to the establishment of the WMAs focused on wildlife management and utilization, the Wildlife Policy and subsequent legislation are not in tandem - and sometimes even conflict – with other policies and legislation such as the Land Acts, Forest Policy and Forest Act, Tourism Act, the Local Government Act, et cetera. Such lack of harmonization of policies and legislation has made harmonization of the management and exploitation of the natural resources inherent in a WMA riddled with uncertainties and conflicts, as has been the case of forest resources in Ipole and Uyumbu WMAs, or the licencing of mineral exploration in the Songea pWMA.

Another example of conflicting policies and regulations is illustrated by the situation in Robanda, where photo-tourism investors are licensed and have been allowed to invest in a Tourist Hunting Block of another investor. Here the village leadership has used the Village Land Act to allow photo-tourism activities to take place as licensed by the Director of Tourism through issuance of a Tourism Agent (TALA). Meanwhile, the WD has designated the same area as a hunting block and given a hunting concession to another investor. Hence, there is a need to harmonise all the community-based conservation initiatives that sometimes fall in the same geographical area so as to ensure, in an integrative way, optimal community benefits and cost effectiveness.

Moreover, it has also been noted that the Wildlife Policy (1998), WMA Guidelines (2002) and Regulations (2004) are not as yet supported by principal legislation. The Wildlife Act 1974 is yet to be amended to accommodate these new developments.

4.2.2 Bad experience with history

Another area of contention has been in areas with a recent history of conflict over land alienation for parks and game reserves. Such bad experience with land alienation has probably contributed substantially to the lack of progress on the establishment of WMAs in areas such as Tarime and Loliondo. As already pointed out, the past tensions between wildlife authorities and protected area managers, on the one hand, and adjacent local communities, on the other, need to be understood and accepted by facilitators, and ways to resolve the resultant conflicts found. The case of Burunge WMA and Loliondo where there are strong counter-WMA establishment sentiments by individual investors and conflicting interests from many NGOs in the areas need not be dismissed by facilitators. Innovative and flexible ways need to be devised to raise awareness among the local communities and make the WMA option a more attractive and viable economic venture.

4.2.3 Role of non-governmental facilitating organizations and the private sector

The role of NGOs, both local and international, in facilitating the implementation of the WMA process is not very well spelt out in the Regulations. However, according to Regulation 32 the Minister responsible for natural resources and tourism can “approve a duly registered NGO to provide financial and technical assistance to an AA”. Indeed during the fieldwork the Evaluation Team were informed that facilitators like WWF,

Africare, AWF, GTZ, et cetera, had played a crucial role in assisting the WMAs from registering their CBOs to the acquisition of User Rights.

Post-User Rights capacity building remains perhaps the most daunting task that awaits these organizations. The Wildlife Division should be pro-active enough to engage these and other relevant NGOs in laying down a flexible capacity building programme for those WMAs that have attained User Rights.

4.3 Factors that can Enhance Sustainability of WMAs

Instead of relying solely on the resources (and whims) of the donors, the WD should take a more pro-active role in the facilitation and rollout of WMAs. The current initiatives of allocating a percentage of the tourist hunting fees to the WMA formation process are appreciable. However, other possible avenues of funding need to be explored. Inclusion of other players such as TANAPA, NCAA and the Tanzania Wildlife Protection Fund (TWPF) is encouraged. The TWPF was established by the Act of Parliament, which also stipulated its mode of revenue collection. Besides wildlife protection, TWPF supports other activities that strengthen the protection of wildlife throughout the country. TWPF may, therefore, become a window of opportunity for the AAs to benefit from the support of wildlife protection activities in and outside WMAs.

4.3.1 Governance and participatory management

Thus while in some WMAs (e.g. in Tunduru and Liwale) the CBOs are so well respected and trusted that District Councils and local communities are actually contributing money to pay for their administrative costs, in others (e.g. Ukutu and Namtumbo) local communities were of the opinion that their CBOs (JUKUMU and MBARANG'ANDU, respectively) had distanced themselves too much from the Village Councils and hence also from the local communities. Stakeholders in Namtumbo proposed that members representing the villages be recruited from among the Natural Resources Management Committees rather than from the rank and file in the villages.

The failure of the CBO/AA to keep its constituents in the village apprised of the CBOs activities is implicated in the current state of conflict in the Enduimet and Makame WMAs. In other cases, such as Ikona, tensions between the CBO/AA and the Village Councils over their respective roles in village level resource management are emerging (Mr. Jumanne, Nyakitono Village Chairman, pers. comm.). Even in more successful WMAs, potential problems are evident. In Ipole, for example, the CBO/AA's constitution calls for elections of the CBO management to be held every three years, but five years down the road, no second election has been held. Although this may be justified by the fact that the CBO has only recently been given AA status, it nevertheless underscores the grey area of rights and responsibilities that govern CBO/AA operations and lines of accountability.

4.3.2 Provisions for villages to opt out of WMA

WMA Regulations and Guidelines conflict with Village Land Act. A village that decides to opt out (e.g. Minjingu) is not allowed to take back the land that was contributed to the WMA. This can result in the village that opts out to sabotage the WMA, or if forced in a "marriage of convenience" the village may not support the WMA process as expected. There is a need to find mechanisms to reward and encourage the well-endowed villages, either to remain in or join the WMAs.

4.3.3 Capacity-building after attainment of AA and granting of User Rights

One of the main issues emerging after the WMAs have attained an AA status and resource user rights, is capacity building. Generally there is poor governance with little transparency and accountability. Most of the villages lack transparency in income and expenditures. WMA do not have business and strategic plans to manage the WMAs and run business.

While many villagers in WMAs have high expectations on raising incomes, most of these expectations lie on the revenues coming from investors through royalties and taxes. Such money is mainly for community projects development (e.g. schools, health facilities, roads, water etc), but will have little impact on household incomes and livelihoods. At household level, entrepreneurship skills to tap benefits of the upcoming WMAs investment opportunities (e.g. employment, SMEs, SACCOS, etc) is lacking. Such skills are important to improve income and livelihood at household level. It should be noted that even if the income from WMAs will provide social services such as schools and health centres, people must have income to pay for school fees, uniforms, books and treatment charges. People also need income to improve their livelihoods including good houses, assets, quality and quantity food etc. All these have to come through individual efforts to raise money at household using WMAs emerging opportunities.

4.3.4 The cost of increased wildlife – who should pay?

In almost all the pilot WMAs visited the number of wildlife was seen to have increased. This is a positive achievement as one of the objectives of the WMAs policy is to conserve wildlife. As pointed out, increased wildlife may lead into increased village incomes for community services (schools, health services and roads) and household income. On the other hand, however, increased wildlife has had negative impact in some of the WMAs. Wildlife (especially elephants, baboons, monkeys wild pigs) have increased and they destroy crops. According to villagers, this contributes to poverty at household levels. Crop destruction by animals is more obvious in WMAs such as MBOMIPA and Tunduru. Also, the DED for Bagamoyo District mentioned the problem, observing that the destruction has been high, and that the district does not have the capacity to compensate the villagers whose crops have been destroyed. Increased Wildlife is also threatening lives of the people surrounding WMA.

In some WMAs, there have been initiatives to address the problem such as chasing of wildlife or applying some of the traditional methods e.g. burning of elephant dung. However, this may only mean more work to already overburdened farmers. There should be mechanisms of control of problem animals in the established WMAs.

4.3.5 Investments in WMAs and EIA

While the WMAs are a likely to attract investments, the knowledge and/or awareness of EIA/SEA and its role for sustainable development are not there. This has started bringing negative impacts in some of the WMAs. For example, a swimming pool constructed at one of the tented camps in Pawaga-Idodi has been attraction centre for wildlife, which threatens lives of tourists and local communities. EIA was not undertaken for this development. In many areas visited projects are developed without undertaking EIAs.

4.3.6 Resource endowment, benefit sharing and formation of WMAs

Our findings show that villages with rich wildlife and/or potential for investors are either refusing to join in forming WMAs or they are intending to withdraw. This is the case of Oloolosokwan, Oloipai and Arashi in Loliondo pilot WMA, Minjingu in Burunge WMA, Tungamalenga, in Pawaga-Idodi WMA, and Sinya in Enduimet WMA.

Another issue is about benefit sharing among villages with different land size contributed to the WMAs or with different resource base. Villagers propose that income from investments outside WMAs should not be transacted through the AA account (e.g. Kisaki village, Ukutu WMA). Also villages which are just outside the WMAs should be getting more share than others because they are the most impacted by the wildlife e.g. more investments but also more risks of threatening lives.

The most prominent issue in the Burunge WMA after attaining the AA status and user rights is conflicts, which threatens the sustainability of the WMA. It is important to note that while the Burunge WMA covers an extensive area, only Minjingu and Vilima Vitatu villages are located on the main corridor between Lake Manyara and Tarangire National Parks, and thus contain some of the best wildlife land and most important conservation area in this WMA (Nelson *et al.*, 2006). Initially these two villages were planning to withdraw from participation in the WMA and their withdrawal would have a negative impact on both the WMA's earning capacity and on its conservation value within the overall Tarangire ecosystem. However, later on Vilima Vitatu village changed its mind from not joining the WMA and therefore only Minjingu is still persisting to come out of the WMA. The reasons that village leaders and other members of the community gave for their desire to withdraw include that:

- They never agreed to join in the WMA or reserve land for it.
- They have been conserving the forest even before the concept of WMA came in while other villages have degraded their natural resource and therefore have nothing to offer for a WMA.
- With two national parks (Lake Manyara and Tarangire) adjacent to them, they do not see the reason for setting aside more land for wildlife, and also fear that the WMA will be an avenue to effectively expand the land set aside in parks for wildlife.
- The Village leaders' claim not to recognize the signatures in the constitution. They argue that their signatures were forged.

However, our preliminary assessment shows that Minjingu village participated in whole process of forming the WMA, but they only fear about losing the prominent income they are currently earning. The village is gaining a big amount of money from the current investors and there are more promising investments in future. Also our literature review shows that villages of Mayoka, Magara, Sangaiwe and Mwada, earlier had conflicts with TANAPA with the perceptions like that TANAPA was intending to evict the villagers (Magara village), taking grazing lands (Sangaiwe village) and annexing land belonging to the villages like Mayoka. Nevertheless, these conflicts seem to have been resolved at the moment.

The major concern in the area revolves around the relationship between the villages and the private investor, the Grumeti Game Reserves, which is the leaseholder for the hunting block that includes Ikona WMA. There have been conflicts between the villages in this area, particularly Robanda, and the hunting block leaseholder as a result

of the former entering into contract with photographic investors in the latter's block leasehold. Also this conflict has been exacerbated by the fact the Robanda villagers have a feeling that their village has to be relocated.

Indeed, because of this perception there is bitterness and mistrust for visitors in the village, especially researchers/consultants. During this review mission the Robanda villagers were hesitant to talk to the Evaluation Team because they presumed that the visit was in the same spirit of trying to establish reasons to evacuate them. Even after visiting them for a second day, which was mutually agreed upon, between the Review Team and the villagers, they changed their minds and refused to talk to the team. Another complaint is that the human-wildlife conflict is high because of Ikorongo Game Reserve. Wild animals are destroying crops.

However, although the formation of the Ipole WMA has reportedly reduced poaching, relatively high levels of poaching for bush meat continues and is carried out by few people from the member villages (*ibid*).

On the other hand, the villagers are querying the whole process of establishing the WMA on a hunting block. Available information shows that the existing hunting leases will continue to run until 2009. This causes them to doubt whether or not their WMA will actually enable them to manage and benefit from the wildlife therein. Also there is a lot of forest encroachment. Most villagers enter into the forest and clear land for tobacco cultivation and ownership. This situation suggests a threat for the sustainability of this WMA should the expected economic gains fail to materialize, especially at the household level.

4.4 Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats to the WMA Process

Key issues from the experiences of the WMAs visited centre on matters of institutional design, facilitation, and benefit sharing. Table 5 below presents a SWOT analysis of the WMA process based on these matters.

Table 5: SWOT Analysis of the WMA Process

S/N	Strengths	Weaknesses	Opportunities	Threats
1	Widespread community acceptance of the WMA Concept	Lack of a new Wildlife Act to support the Wildlife Policy (1998), WMA Guidelines (2002) and Regulations (2004)	Many communities experienced with CBC investments, joint ventures, and village land leases for wildlife management	WMAs establishment process is time consuming, costly; needing a high level of expertise in areas like LUP and RMZP
2	Supportive Wildlife Policy (1998), WMA Guidelines (2002) and Regulations (2004)	Parts of wildlife related policies and legislation being in conflict with other policies and laws of the land	A number of pilot WMAs have attained AA status and granted User Rights; can serve as role models for others	Dependence on donors/external funding threatening sustainability
3	Many ecologically viable areas for possible WMA establishment	Inadequate coordination between the MNRT, Ministry of Home Affairs, and the Ministry of Justice and Constitutional	Some private investors already operating in the pilot WMAs; ready to do business with the	Private investors acquiring or investing on land in villages or areas surrounding prospective WMAs

		Affairs has often led to bureaucratic inertia that has delayed the implementation of the WMA process	CBOs/AAs	
4	Many institutions (TANAPA, NCAA, Local Govt., NGOs, etc.) identified and ready to act as important facilitators in the implementation of the WMA process	Lack of a fully staffed and budgeted WMA Project Management Unit at WD	-	Ambiguity over benefit-sharing between the Government and the CBOs/AAs
5	The overall control over the WMA process maintained by the Director of Wildlife	Sidelineing of the Private Sector in the implementation of the WMAs	-	The AAs are generally weak in human capital; lacking in both technical capacity and skill to take off and later manage the WMA resources and operate successfully.
6	-	Lack of flexible post-User Rights capacity building	-	Initiation of the WMA process from above and bringing local communities into wildlife conservation through promises of benefits so far not forthcoming

4.5 Lessons Learned

From the foregoing analysis and discussion of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats to the WMA design and implementation process, we can draw up at least nine major lessons, as follows:

- 4.5.1 The process of establishing WMAs is long and cumbersome. This does in many ways not only discourage communities by the resultant cost and bureaucratic complexity, but also lead to successful WMAs being formed only in areas with significant external support. The capital-intensive nature of activities like land use planning, natural resource management zoning, numerous consultative meetings in WMAs with many villages, and patrols make implementation of the WMA concept difficult indeed without donor support. Hence, continued facilitation is imperative in the whole process of establishment of WMAs.
- 4.5.2 Recent history of conflict over land alienation for parks and game reserves has contributed substantially to the lack of progress on the establishment of WMAs in areas such as Tarime and Loliondo.
- 4.5.3 Capacity building is the main issue emerging after the WMAs have attained an AA status and resource User Rights. All such WMAs do not have business and strategic plans to manage the WMAs and run business.

- 4.5.4 Poor governance with little transparency and accountability is the general condition of many of the local level institutions. In some villages CBOs have distanced themselves too much from the Village Councils and hence also from the local communities. On the other hand, some of the Village Councils lack transparency in income and expenditures.
- 4.5.5 In villages with rich wildlife and/or potential for investors there are strong anti-WMA establishment sentiments often fostered by individual investors and conflicting interests from some NGOs. Innovative and flexible ways need to be devised by facilitators to raise awareness among the local communities and promote the WMA option as a more attractive and viable economic venture.
- 4.5.6 Benefit sharing between the Central Government and the local communities, and between villages with different land sizes contributed to the WMAs or with different resource bases, is still not so well defined.
- 4.5.7 The focus of Regulations on wildlife management ignores the importance of other resources such as forests, water, minerals, and land, which could as well contribute to poverty alleviation. The situation calls for an integrated approach to the management of these resources and to the formation of resource management teams at the AA, district and national levels.
- 4.5.8 Lack of harmonization of policies and legislation has made harmonization of the management and exploitation of the natural resources inherent in a WMA riddled with uncertainties and conflicts, as has been the case of forest resources in Ipole and Uyumbu WMAs, or the licencing of mineral exploration in the Songea pWMA.
- 4.5.9 WMAs are not homogeneous. There are different socio-economic conditions and cultural lines within and between WMAs that need to be properly understood as they each demand different approaches to planning.

4.6 Best Practices

Although none of the 16 pilot WMAs had been operational by the time of this Evaluation, there are a few best practices that need to be documented.

- 4.6.1 In the WMAs that had earlier on participated in CBC programmes/projects around the SGR, presence of demonstrable benefits to communities in the form of legal access to game meat and revenue derived from sale of quotas in WMAs has given an extra impetus to the process of establishing the WMAs. So has been the case in areas where individual villages had benefited from private tourist hunting and photographic safari companies that had entered into local agreements to provide development support to adjacent villages as in Western Serengeti (e.g. Robanda village in Ikona). WMAs such as the Pawaga-Idodi WMA in Iringa District managed by the MBOMIPA association, have been able to earn income by selling wildlife quotas to resident hunters.
- 4.6.2 Commitment at the macro or meso level is crucial for establishing vibrant links between the micro and the macro. Wildlife Division has involved local government authorities in planning and implementation of WMA programmes. In this case local government's commitment is demonstrated through direct

participation and through the institutionalization of the Wildlife Division /Local Government relationship. As already pointed out earlier on, most of WMA interventions have been scaled up to the meso level vis-à-vis the District Strategic Action Plans so as to ensure conformity and avoid duplication of activities. Meso level institutions, e.g. the DGO, DCDO, etc., have also done the district level training, received feedback and given out recommendations for improvement. This relationship needs to be enhanced and promoted.

- 4.6.3 Though not very well spelt out in the Regulations, the role of NGOs, both local and international, in facilitating the implementation of the WMA process has in many cases been exemplary. Facilitators like WWF, Africare, AWF, GTZ, et cetera, have played a crucial role in assisting the WMAs from registering their CBOs to the acquisition of User Rights. This Government/CSO relationship also needs to be enhanced and promoted.

5.0 THE WAY FORWARD

After all is said and done, the Report hereunder suggests the way forward for development of WMAs and for the overall policy initiative in Tanzania bearing in mind national policies and laws, and stakeholders' views and concerns given during this Evaluation. The following recommendations for improving the WMA process focus on the three objectives of this assignment, as follows:

5.1 Recommendations for Improved Implementation of the Process to Establish a WMA

- In order to ensure effective implementation and roll out of the WMA process, it is recommended that there should be a fully staffed and budgeted WMA Project Management Unit at WD.
- In order to ensure that the Wildlife Policy (1998), WMA Guidelines (2002) and Regulations (2004) are supported by a principal legislation, it is recommended that the new Wildlife Act be finalised as soon as possible.

5.2 Recommendations for the Design of the Pilot Phase for the WMA

- Harmonizing wildlife policies and legislation with the Land Acts, Forest Act, and Tourism Act, the Local Government Act and the Local Government Reform Programme and other laws of the land so as to minimize resource use conflicts.
- Harmonizing the management of the natural resources inherent in a WMA call for an integrated approach to ensure optimal benefits and cost effectiveness. Hence, there is a need to harmonise these community based conservation initiatives which sometimes fall in the same geographical area (e.g. forest resources in Ipole and Uyumbu WMAs).
- In order to reduce bureaucracy and accelerate the process of establishing WMAs, applications by CBOs for AA status, User Rights and hunting blocks should be combined.
- The conflicting Regulations need to be harmonized to rid them of the confusions and ease their implementation.

5.3 Recommendations for Enhanced Sustainability of WMAs

- Put in place a flexible post-User Rights capacity building programme, based on local needs assessments of the AAs and the communities in general, as these institutions are weak in human capital; lacking in both technical capacity and skill to take off and later manage their resources and operate successfully.
- In order to clearly define the role of facilitators in this respect a Facilitators Meeting should be organized on this issue by the Wildlife Division. The resultant capacity building programmes should be based on local needs assessments.

- Opportunities should be created for local communities to exercise and practice the skills obtained to alleviate poverty at the household level in simple, cheap and sustainable ways.
- Strengthen the WMA Regulations by clarifying the issue of benefit-sharing and granting communities' greater control over wildlife utilization activities such as tourist hunting and photo tourism.
- Instead of relying solely on the resources (and whims) of the donors, the WD should take a more pro-active role in the facilitation and roll-out of WMAs. The current initiatives of allocating a percentage of the tourist hunting fees to the WMA formation process are appreciable. However, other possible avenues of funding need to be explored. Inclusion of other players such as TANAPA, NCAA and the Tanzania Wildlife Protection Fund (TWPF) is encouraged.

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ANNEXES

Annex 1: Terms of Reference for the Assignment

1.0 . Background

The Government of Tanzania is committed to effectively managing the wildlife resources for the benefit of its citizens. In 1998 the Government adopted the Wildlife Policy of Tanzania (WPT). The WPT identified has listed challenges facing the wildlife sector, some of which pertains to local communities' participation in wildlife conservation as follows:

- a) To conserve areas with great biological diversity which are representative of the major habitats of Tanzania;
- b) To promote involvement of local communities participation in wildlife conservation in and outside the protected network;
- c) To integrate wildlife conservation with rural development;
- d) To enhance recognition of intrinsic value of wildlife to rural people;

The WPT urges the adoption of best practices (sustainable development) for wildlife management in Tanzania. In December 2002, the Government issued the WMA Regulations (2002), which identify 16 areas that are referred to as pilot WMA where the Regulations are applied. The pilot WMAs are governed by among others laws, the Wildlife Conservation Act of 1974, the Village Land Act, 1999 and Local Government Act (District Authorities) 1982. Collaborators in the management of pilot WMAs are: the Authorized Association, the Communities in the pilot WMAs, the Wildlife Division, District Councils and other wildlife sector institutions such as TANAPA, NCAA and TAWIRI. Other partners include private sector and NGOs such as WWF, AWF, and FZS. Development partners such as USAID, GTZ and Danida have support the Government in this initiative.

WMAs represent a paradigm shift from the traditional state run conservation initiatives to one that is based on and developed by the people themselves. The WMA process therefore is a cutting edge initiative that is pioneering the development of Community Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM), in particular wildlife management in Tanzania.

The overall goal:

Secured and productive wildlife outside core protected areas.

Main objective:

To conserve and manage wildlife outside wildlife protected areas, in view to maintain environmental quality and improve livelihoods.

The strategy:

To devolve management responsibility of wildlife outside wildlife protected areas to village communities through establishment of WMAs.

In so doing the following WPT objectives are being addressed which are:

- a) To promote conservation of wildlife and its habitats outside core areas (National Parks, Game Reserves, Ngorongoro Conservation Area) by establishing WMAs.
- b) To transfer management of WMA to local communities thus taking care of corridors, migration routes and buffer zones, and ensure that local communities obtain substantial tangible benefits from wildlife conservation
- c) To create enabling environment, which will ensure that legal and sustainable wildlife schemes directly benefit local communities.

According to the WMA regulations pilot WMAs are to be assessed after the lapse of 36 months since the Regulations came to force. The Government for eight months extended this period. The pilot WMAs are now due for assessment as from 1st September 2006. Further, through enforcement of the WMA regulations, the Government has gazetted 4 pilot WMAs of Tapika-Ngarambe, Ipole, Uyumbu and Burunge and their Community-based Organizations (CBOs) have been given Authorized Association status.

Based on the aforementioned, the Government is now undertaking a detailed assessment and evaluation to explore lessons learned in order to provide road map for WMA implementation in Tanzania.

The main objectives of this assignment are as follows:

- a) To evaluate the implementation of the process to establish a pilot WMA
- b) To evaluate the design of the pilot phase for the WMA looking at the extent to which the design has facilitated the implementation of WMAs
- c) To identify factors that can enhance sustainability of WMAs.

2.0. Activities

The consultants will perform the following activities but not limited to:

- Review relevant information pertaining to operationalization of WMA concept (including National policies, laws, guidelines and various reports and studies generated to enable initiation and implementation of WMAs)
- Assess the efficiency of the pilot WMA development process
- Assess factors that have enabled 4 pilot WMA attain formalization process against those that have not and highlight on the positive lessons from these 4 pilot WMAs
- Assess the performance of the 16 pilot WMAs in establishing WMA as per regulations focusing on design of the piloting phase, extent it has fostered participatory management and good governance and its impact on conservation and local livelihoods and issues of sustainability.
- Evaluate the level of participation in decision-making in the pilot WMA process
- Examine the relationship and linkages between village communities, CBO, private sector, facilitators and government at all levels in the implementation of pilot WMAs
- Determine strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats to WMAs based on ecological, economic, social, legal, including governance and cultural aspects.
- Document lesson learned and best practices
- Provide recommendations on operationalization of WMA concept in Tanzania

- Suggest way forward for development of WMAs and for the overall policy initiative in Tanzania bearing in mind national policies and laws, and stakeholders' views and concerns.

- Document challenges

4.0. Methodology

- a) Conduct preliminary consultations with key stakeholders to generate further issues of concern to be added to the terms of reference
- b) Involve sufficiently all stakeholders in pilot WMA operationalization including but not limited to District Councils, Facilitators, Donor Community, Wildlife Division, Villagers, CBOs, private sector (including hunting and tourism industry), Associations, Academicians and Members of Parliament in relevant areas. Observe gender.
- c) Assess the 16 pilot WMAs.
 - d) Present an inception report to stakeholders' meeting to be organized by WD detailing the following:
 - i. Interpretation of the Terms of Reference
 - ii. Additional issues of concern to the terms of reference
 - iii. Methodologies of how the work will be conducted
 - iv. Outline of the report
 - e) Incorporate comments from stakeholders' meeting on the inception report
 - f) Present draft findings to stakeholders' workshop to be organized by WD, WWF, and other partners.
 - g) Incorporate comments from the WD and other stakeholders
 - h) Provide the list of stakeholders consulted and their comments.
 - i) Provide list of the reviewed literature.

5.0. Expected deliverables

- a) Inception report including the detailed work plan and issues raised above to be discussed by in stakeholders' meeting before commencement of the fieldwork.
- b) Submit Five (5) hard copies and five (5) soft copies (CDs) of the Revised Inception report to WD and WWF respectively before commencement of the fieldwork.
- c) Five (5) hard copies and five (5) soft copies (CDs) of the draft report to be submitted to the Wildlife Division for discussion with stakeholders
- d) Five (5) hard copies and five soft of the final report to be submitted to the Wildlife Division and similar number of copies to be submitted to WWF.

6.0. Expertise required

Competent individuals or institutions with proven knowledge and experience in CBNRM issues in general and WMA issues in particular in Tanzania, with experience in these matters for more than 5 years.

WD will provide resource person to work with the team.

7. Time frame

The assignment must be completed within 90 calendar days as from 1st September 2006.

8.0 Oversight.

The Wildlife Division (WD) is responsible for the implementation of the Wildlife Policy of Tanzania and is responsible for this assignment. WWF is responsible for facilitating implementation of this "Wildlife Policy Programme" under USAID support, in collaboration with WD and other donors and facilitators. WWF will facilitate this evaluation process. The Consultants will therefore report to the Director of Wildlife and work very closely with WWFs' NRM Policy Implementation Programme Coordinator.

9.0. Illustrative budget (to be provided by the selected consultant in the financial proposals)

Annex 2: Field Work Schedule for the Assessment and Evaluation Team

Date	Districts	Names of WMA
16 Jan 2007	Travel to Morogoro	
16 Jan 2007	Mvomero	Wami-Mbiki
17 Jan 2007	Morogoro	
18 Jan 2007	Morogoro	Ukutu
19 Jan 2007		
20 Jan 2007	Kilosa	Twatwatwa
21 Jan 2007	Travel to Iringa	
22 Jan 2007	Iringa	Pawaga-Idodi
23 Jan 2007		
23 Jan 2007	Travel to Songea	
24 Jan 2007	Namtumbo	Songea
25 Jan 2007		
25 Jan 2007	Travel to Tunduru	
25 Jan 2007	Tunduru	Tunduru
26 Jan 2007		
27 Jan 2007	Travel to Liwale	
27 Jan 2007	Liwale	Liwale
28 Jan 2007		
29 Jan 2007	Travel to Rufiji	
29 Jan 2007	Rufiji	Ngarambe-Tapika
30 Jan 2007		
30 Jan 2007	Travel to Dar es Salaam	
01 Feb 2007	Bagamoyo	Wami Mbiki: Discussions with District Council Officials
02 Feb 2007	Bagamoyo	Compilation of Field Data from the Southern and Western Zones and Preparation of Progress Report
05 Feb 2007		
06 Feb 2007	Travel to Tabora	
07 Feb 2007	Tabora (Could not travel to Sikonge)	1. Ipole: Discussions with Sikonge district officials, Africare and Ipole informants in Tabora
08 Feb 2007		2. Uyumbu: Discussions with Urambo district officials and Uyumbu informants in Tabora
8 Feb 2007	Travel to Urambo	
08 Feb 2007	Urambo	Uyumbu
09 Feb 2007		
09 Feb 2007	Travel to Dar es Salaam	
Date	Districts	Names of WMA
22 March 2007	Kiteto	Makame
23 March 2007		
23 March 2007	Travel to Arusha	

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24 March 2007	Monduli	Endimet
25 March 2007		
26 March 2007	Arusha	Consultations with Stakeholders
26 March 2007	Travel to Babati	
27 March 2007	Babati	Burunge
28 March 2007		
28 March 2007	Travel to Ngorongoro	
28 March 2007	Ngorongoro	Loliondo
29 March 2007		
29 March 2007	Travel to Mugumu	
30 March 2007	Travel to Tarime	
30 March 2007	Tarime	Tarime
31 March 2007	Serengeti	Ikona
1 April 2007		
01 April 2007	Travel to Arusha	
02 April 2007	Travel to Dar es Salaam	

Annex 3: List of Stakeholders Consulted

- DANIDA (Danish Hunters Association)
 - USAID
 - GTZ
 - Africare
 - WWF
 - Wildlife Division (WD)
 - Wildlife Conservation Society of Tanzania (WCST)
 - Sable Mountain Lodge
 - WCS Officials, Iringa
 - Selous-Niassa Wildlife Corridor Project
 - Likuyu-Sekamaganga Training Centre
 - Selous Game Reserve
 - Ugalla Game Reserve
 - AWF
 - TAWIRI
 - TANAPA
 - NCAA
 - TNRF
 - Ikoma Bush Camp
 - Grumeti and Ikorongo Game Reserves
 - SRCP
 - Frankfurt Zoological Society
 - SHENI
 - Councilors
 - DCs: Namtumbo; Liwale, Tunduru, Urambo, Kiteto
 - DEDs: Morogoro Rural; Mvomero; Tunduru; Rufiji; Bagamoyo, Urambo, Kiteto, Monduli, Tarime, Ngorongoro
 - DNROs: Morogoro Rural; Mvomero; Tunduru; Liwale; Sikonge; Urambo, Tarime, Ngorongoro
 - DFO: Kilosa District
 - DGOs. Morogoro Rural; Mvomero; Kilosa; Iringa Rural; Namtumbo; Tunduru; Rufiji; Bagamoyo, Monduli, Babati, Ngorongoro
 - Villagers (Village Council): Kambala; Kisasi; Mbwade; Twatwatwa; Tungamalenga; Likuyu-Sekamaganga; Mchomoro; Namwinyo; Barikiwa, Chimbuko; Ngarambe; Ndendo, Tingatinga, Minjingu, Gibaso, Robanda
 - Wami-Mbiki Society
 - JUKUMU Society
 - MBOMIPA Society
 - Mbarang'andu Society
 - NALIKA Society
 - MAGINGO Society
 - MUNGATA Society
 - JUHIWAI Society
 - UWIMA Society
 - JUHIBU Society
 - IKONA Society
-

Annex 4: List of People Met

Date	Institution	People Met	Position
3/1/2007	WD	M. Zacharia W. Minja E. Sungusia	Principal Game Officer Pilot/Senior Game Officer Game Officer
	WCST	L. Malemari P. Nyiti	Coordinator/ CEO Conservation Officer
5//1/2007	WWF	Dr. Mwageni Steven Mariki George Jambiya Hussein Sosovele Wilhelm Kiwango	Director, WWF Tanzania TPO Conservation Director Policy Officer NRM Policy Implementation Coordinator
01-Sep-07	USAID	Kajuni	
	DANIDA/Danish Hunters Association	Kahana Lukumbuzya	Programme Officer
17/1/2007	DED-Morogoro	I. Mushi A. Malango Eng. Anna Mwahalemebe	District Game Officer (DGO) District Land, Environment and Natural Resources Officer District Executive Director (Morogoro)
17/1/2007	DED-Mvomero	T. Macha Abel Mamboleo	District Natural Resources Officer (DNRO) District Game Officer (DGO)
17/1/2007	DED-Morogoro	A. Malango	District Land, Environment and Natural Resources Officer
18/1/2007	DED-Mvomero	T. Macha Abel Mamboleo	District Natural Resources Officer (DNRO) District Game Officer (DGO)
		Kiyungi Sanyangwa Koita	Chairman, Mvomero District Council DED-Mvomero Chairman, Wami-Mbiki Society
18/1/2007	Wami-Mbiki Society	John D. Balarin Remi	Technical Advisor, Wami-Mbiki Society Secretary, WMS
18/1/2007	Kambala Village	Jumanne Salum Said Ole Mones Papayai Rijuwa Kaya Rijuwa Isaya Kumbuni Kandurui Chukuri Kashu Moreto	VEO Chairman (Development Committee) Member, Village Government Member, Village Government Member, Village Government Village Advisor Village Chairman
19/1/2007	JUKUMU Society (Ukutu WMA)	Ramadhani Iddi Kibali Abdul Kizua Athmani O. Zingizi Zamoyoni Zuberi Josephina Damasi Athuman Masseneka Hashim Mnemo Riziki Kitangu Nassoro A. Mbande Rashid Holea Haji M. Kizunge	Chairman Secretary Committee Member, JUKUMU Society Committee Member, JUKUMU Society Committee Member, JUKUMU Society Committee Member, JUKUMU Society Committee Member, JUKUMU Society Board Member Accountant Committee Member, JUKUMU Society Committee Member, JUKUMU Society
19/1/2007	Kisaki Village (UKUTU pilot WMA)	Abdalla Burukutu Yolam Daimoni Sultan Diwinge Ally Mgonzi Hatibu Hengo	Village Chairman Member, Village Government Villager Member, Village Government Villager

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			Miraji Mwenga	Villager
			Ismail Swalehe Ng'anji	Villager
			Maua Abdala Kitogo	Villager
			Fakihi Natosa	VEO
			Shaaban Mgohamwelu	Village Chairman
			Halid Holeta	Member, Village Government
19/1/2007	Sabble Lodge	Mountain	Hassan Mwinyijuma	Acting Manager
20/1/2007	Kilosa Council	District	Celaphin Mgala	Ag. District Natural Resources Officer
			Nestory Makale	District Game Officer (DGO)
20/1/2007	Mbwade (Twatwatwa WMA)	Village	Ally Shaaban Mkawa	Village Game Scout / Chairman, Environmental Committee
			Mauya Mkoruga	
			Kikole Kiringa	
			Karaita Seketo	Sub-village Chairman (Madoto Ranch)
			Msamau Ndega	Church Elder
			Edward Ngeke	Village Chairman
			Mananguni Makata	Villager (Parakuyo)
			Moses Sikeita	Church Leader
20/1/2007	Twatwatwa Village		Lekaleng'o Kibasisi	Village Chairman
			Petro Mkamilo	VEO
			Mwananguri Makale	
			Shanga Kisambi	
21/1/2007	Iringa Council	District	Ngomelo	Principal Wildlife Officer
			I. Kimaro	District Game Officer (DGO)
22/1/2007	Iringa Council	District	Kawili	District Administrative Officer (DAS)
			Hante	District Land and Environment Officer (Ag. DED)
22/1/2007	MBOMIPA Society		Josephat Kisanyage	Secretary - MBOMIPA
			Leonard Chengula	Ass. Chairman
			Zakaria Lutangilo Ndongole	VEO
			Ndelwa	Village Chairman
23/1/2007	Tungamalenga Village		Zakaria Lutangilo Ndongole	VEO
			Raphael Mbembati	Member, Village Government
23/1/2007	Wildlife Conservation Society		Mr. Mbano	
			Peter Kopolelo	
			Alloys Mpinga	
24/1/2007	Namtumbo District		Nalimi Madata	District Wildlife Officer (DWO)
			Rudolf Hann	Project Advisor (SNWC)
			David Stepher Mgala	Chairman - CBO
			Ali Kombo	Secretary - CBO
			Saiba Sanane	Tresurer - CBO
24/1/2007	MBARANG'AND U		David Stepher Mgala	Chairman - CBO
			Ali Kombo	Secretary - CBO
			Saiba Sanane	Tresurer - CBO
24/1/2007	DC-Namtumbo		Gabriel Kimolo	District Commissioner
24/1/2007	Sekamaganga-Likuyu Taining Centre		John Msela	Principal
			Johnson Kanankila	
			Jacob Ulomi	
24/1/2007	Likuyu		Rashidi Mabukusela	Village Chairman

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	Sekamaganga Village	Aidani M. Ponero	V.E.O.
		Zaina Faraji	Secretary
		Saidi Likoyega	Member
		Faraji Kaiwembe	Member
		Awanu Kuyeweleka	Village Chairman
		Hassan Mgaya	Member
		Ally Kimiba	Member
		Twomba Mamjongi	Member
		Hasani Makitu	Member
		Faraji Alshamu	Primary School Headteacher
		Abdallah Haule	Member
		Hasani Kindamba	Member
		Hasan Kiwichilo	Member
		Nasibu Ponera	Member
		Juma S. Kindamba	Member
24/1/2007	Namtumbo	Nalimi Madata	District Game Officer
		Rudoff Hann	Advisor - SNNC
		David Stephen Mgata	Chairman - MBARANG'ANDU CBO
		Ali Komba	Secretary - MBARANG'ANDU CBO
		Saiba Sanane	Treasurer - MBARANG'ANDU CBO
25/1/2007	Mchomoro Village	Issa Lutumbo	Village Chairman
		Abedi H. Kikwata	Member
		Yusufu Maji	Member
		Rashidi A. Malamaye	Soldier
		Shaziri Adamu	Member
		Ramadhani Hatibu	Farmer
		Yusuph Mohamed	Farmer
		Chande Hashimu	Farmer
		Salum Mashaka	Farmer
		Saidi Hamisi	Farmer
		Hamisi Salumu	Farmer
		Hasani Kalimu	Farmer
		Nasoro Saidi	Farmer
		Hassani A. Kitunda	Farmer
		Bakari Omari	Farmer
		Rashidi Saidi	Farmer
		Abdala Abed	Farmer
		Mohamedi Amiri	Secretary - CCM Party
		Rashidi Nasoro	Member
		Mustafa Gomuno	Member
		Issah I. Kitunda	Member
		Selemani A. Ponera	Farmer
		Amila C.F.	Farmer
		Kado Khatifu	Farmer
		Mohamedi Mgaya	Farmer
		Hassan Kifaru	Member
		Salimu Mbahiya	Member
		Hassan Nihuka	Member
25/1/2007	Tunduru	Eng. Mrema	Ag. DED Tunduru
		Brown Kanjenje	Beekeeping Officer
		Ebahada Halla	Environment Officer
		Dickon Koishwa	District Game Officer
26/2/2007	Diistrict Office	A. Mnali	District Commissioner
	Namwinyo Village	Omari Mohamedi	Village Chairman
		Kazi ya Mungu	Farmer
		Juma Kulima	Member
		Jaffari Mohamedi	Member

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		Hassani Mchopa	Member
		Halifa Sefu	Member
		Hassani R. Masudi	Member
		Saidi M. Mango	Member
		Salum Msoza	Member
		Yusufu Kachekura	Member
		Upepo Salim	Member
		Kasimu Halfa	Member
		Anoti Bakari	Member
		Abdala Rashidi	Farmer
		Mohamedi Sefu	Member
		Selemali Matembo	Member
		Mzee Mpelula	Member
		Ally M. Alendo	Member
		Mohamedi Nassoro	Member
		Omary A. Mpelula	Member
		Hasani Mkachekula	Member
		Musa B.Kaondo	Member
		Mohamedi S. Thabiti	Member
		Sadiki Mtuma	Member
		Omary Mikila	Member
		Rashidi Mohamedi	Member
		Hamisi Isumaili	Member
		Ibadi Masese	Member
		Issa M. Abdala	Member
		Rajabu Rajabu	Member
		Saidi M. Matemanga	Member
		Nambanga R.H.	Chairman
		Kazembe Said Kazembe	Member
		Zuberi Omari Ngoma	VEO
		Saidi M. Matemanga	Member
		Halla E.S.	UDEM - Co
		Saidi Issa Ally	VEO
27/1/2007	Liwale District	Anna Magowa	DC
		Nasoro Mzui	DFO
		Francis Rusungula	DGO
		Abasi Kiganja	CBO Member
		Issa Mwembe	Ag. Assistant Chairman - CBO
281/2007	Chimbuko Village	Abilai Ahamadi Ndawa	Village Chairman
	Barikiwa Village	Ally M. Kamuna	Village Chairman
	Magingo CBO	Issa Mwembe	Assistant Secretary
	Chimbuko Village	Sadiki J.C.	Member
		Abdalah Hika	Member
		Kaimu Mandandu	Member
		Abdalah Makaktau	Member
		Mwazana Chite	Member
		Mohamed Mandadu	Member
		Ally Mwanda	Member
		Hassani Ngumbila	Member
		Habibu Kijambilo	Member
		Kibunda Mnoche	Member
		Esha Linyamanda	Member
		Hemedi Libihi	Member
		Saidi Mangitu	Member
		Kassimu Kwima	Member
		Omary Maganja	Member
		Sofia Upinde	Member
	Barikiwa Village	Hasani Lwamba	Member
		Hashimu Mapui	Member

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		Nassoro Kapanya	Member
		Abbas Kiganja	Member, Magingo CBO
		Kasimu Kamuna	Member, Magingo CBO
		Abeid Onela	Member, Magingo CBO
		Sofia Kilemba	Member
		Amina Kiganja	Councillor (Special Seats)
		Mohamed Ndengwike	Member - Natural Resources
		Mikidadi Bambaku	Councillor
29/1/2007	Utete	Jackson John	DGO
		Juma Mkungure Ohi	Assistant Game Officer
30/1/2007	Ngarambe Tapika WMA MUNGATA AA	- Salum Mkere	Chairman - MUNGATA
		Yasini Mkuku	Secretary
		Salumu K. Njenge	Assistant Secretary
		S.K. Mjombe	Member
		Elewani Mayolo	Member
		Asha Makumba	Member
		Amadi Mofthah	VGS
		Hashimu Nyanile	VGS
		Ally S. Miwili	VGS
		Hamza S. Marunda	VGS
		Hashim A. Nambara	VGS
		Seif S. Muba	Member
		Ramadhani Kibuki	VGS
		Kidawa Kibuki	Accountant
		Salim H. Malendenda	Soldier
30/1/2007	Ngarambe Village	Hamisi Mandandu	
		Kawaida A. Mayoro	VEO
		Zainabu S. Miwili	Member
		Adam S.Kapimilila	Member
		Amina M. Chwembi	Member
		Ally Moh. Kibuka	Chairman
		Zahia A. Mima	Member
		Edwina d. Kinawilo	Member
	Selous Game Reserve	Ashraf Juma Shenda	Ag. Sector Warden
07-Feb-07	Tabora Region Sikonge District Council	Byarugabe T.P.L. Kasola, H.	Community Development Natural Resources Officer
		Morice Siwango	DGO
	Urambo District	Adam H. Malunkwi	Chairman
		Hellen Richard Kaniji	Secretary - UWIMA
		Said Hamisi Membele	Chairman - UWIMA - CBO
		Henry Uboya	Rep. Beekeeping Officer
		Doto Mbogo Makelemo	Farmer
		Zabron L. Donge	Natural Resources Officer
	Africare	Shidumu Mawe	Coordinator - Community Landscape Conservation Project
		Eliya Mgalihya	FCO - Mpanda
		Linus Salema	FCO - Africare Sikonge
		Edward L. Massawe	FCO - Africare Urambo
		Jabiri Nassaro	Facilitator
		Reuben D.Kassanda	Chairman - JUHIWAI - Ipole
		Hassan M. Kasonta	Facilitator
		Mwamvua Saidi	Secretary - JUHIWAI Ipole Community
		T.P.K. Byarugaba	Community Development Officer
		Morice K. Siwango	Forestry Officer
		Hawethu S.Kasola	Natural Resources Officer
		Linus A. Salema	FCO - Africa Sikonge

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		Adam H. Malunkwi	Chairman - Uyumbu
		Hellen Richard	Secretary – UWIMA, Uyumbu
		Awadhi Mayazi	DNRO - Mpanda
		Christopher Sizyo	Chairman - BOT JUHIWAI
		Elya Mahiliyo	FCO - Africare Mpanda
		K.M. Kachelema	TACODEA
		Mussa Kasya	Member JUHIWAI
		Edward L. Chanawe	FCO - UCLCP URN
		Said Membele	Chairman - UWIMA
		Henry H. Uboya	Secretary - UWIMA
		Dotto Mbogo Makelelemo	Member
		Zabroni L. Donge	Natural Resources Officer - Urambo
08-Feb-07	Uyumbu Village	Adam H. Malunkwi	VEO
	Izimbi Village	Nasibu M. Mdumla	Chairman
	Issongwa Village	Rashidi S. Bihogora	Chairman
	Issongwa Village	Hamidu Usantu	Chairman - Land and Environment
	Issongwa Village	Ally I. Kayege	VEO
	Issongwa Village	Malando M. Malando	Member
	Nsogolo Village	Jumanne Kitemo	Member
	Nsogolo Village	Mashaka H. Ismaki	Member
	Nsogolo Village	Hamisi M. Malunuwi	VEO
		Fundikira Mussa	Member
		Omari K. Maganga	Member
		Mamunywa Hussein	Member
		Ramanedi Nasolo	Member
		Subiani H. Mhamadi	Member
		Salumu Saidi	Member
		Laurent Kalawe	Member
		Ernest A. Mualas	Member
	Izimbili Village	Haruna I. Kaombwe	V.G.S
		Daudi John	V.G.S
		Bushiri Haruna	V.G.S
		Edwuni Masau	FCO - UCKP Urambo
		Zabron L. Donge	Natural Resources Officer
23/3/2007	Ndendo Village	Meliyo N.Sanini	VEO
		Hussein Maingwa	Member
		Ngunyinyi Lekilepo	Member
		Patimayo Singarde	Member
		Martini Lembutwa	Member
		Lengohoge Ndipoya	Member
		Teyan Lyamala	Member
		Nemburas Lemuharo	Member
		Nakwatikya Parsiato	Member
		Musumba Mokole	Member
		Leyani Bakari	Member
		Kileli Kanunga	Member
		Nerenyu Siaiti	Member
		Baraka Sabukulukunya	Member
		Yassi Kambaine	Member
		Leilelai Taleki	Member
		Moses Lemunge	Member
		Lazaro Ninayai	Member
		Laipelani Loloisologi	Member
		Kerai Tiriakoni	Member
		Nailoji Ng'ushani	Member
		Maingwa Tiriakoni	Member
		Tikaine Lailupa	Member
		Kilimbei Tikoi	Member
		Marambwi Ngaibani	Member

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		Lesikani Tikoi	Member
		Leyam Tiriakon	Member
		Kisota Mainga	Member
		Ngadege Paulo	Member
		Neiyai Ndito	Member
		Noa Paulo	Member
		Oning'oi Beleti	Member
		Ngirumu Kibya	Member
		Olendulingo Lerateti	Member
		Meiju Lengohoje	Member
		Emanuel Lembulis	Member
		Kurunju Tikoi	Member
		Oltapwai Mamela	Member
		Michael Mainga	Member
		Koronyo Sewa	Village Chairman
		Kamwane D.N.	Secretary
26/3/2007	TAWIRI - Arusha	James Kahurananga	Programme Director
		Steven Kiruswa	Director, Maasai Steppe Heartland
		Mercy Kyamba	Legal Officer
	TANAPA- Arusha	Anna Grace Kyoma	Manager, Outreach Programme
		Sekela Mwangote	Programme Assistant
	TAWIRI-Arusha	Dr. Mduma	Director-General
		J. Kaaya	Principal Game Officer
		M. Mwita	Researcher
	Monduli District	I Munisi	DED
		Mawanja	DGO
27/3/2007	Babati District	David Holela	DC
		N. Macokecha	DGO
	Mwada Village Council	Omari Bakari	Village Chairman
		Daniel Clement	Ag. VEO - Mwada
		John Mongoda	Member
		Jastin Mshana	Member
		Elias Augustino	Member
		Casmiri Minja	Member
		Swalehe Ismaili	Member
		Prospa Mbisha	Member
		Saidi Mukya	Member
		Richard Masunya	Member
		Andason Munuo	Member
		Patrick P. Monjare	Member
		Anatalia Daniel	Member
		Theresia Wilibroid	Member
		Hilaria Aloyce	Member
		Adam H. Ipingika	Ward Councillor - Mwada
		Anastazia Augustino	Ward Councillor (Special Seats)
27/3/2007	JUHIBU AA	Noah L. Teveli	Speaker
		Tadey W. Gway	Secretary
		Tatu R.Chimbalambala	Treasurer
		Magdalena P.Motambi	Secretary Speaker
		Ramadhani Ismail	Member
		Augustino Peter	Chairman
		Renatus Bruno	Secretary
27/3/2007	Minjingu Village	Israel Saitoti	Village Chairman
		Omary Garamet	Member
		Mariam Tolaga	Member
		Marwa Saiboku	Member
		Walter Monya	Member
		Wilson Sangayo	Member

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		Julius Abel	Member
		Phusindawa Ngolalei	Member
		Julius Sabore	Member
		Simon Abel	Invitation
		Maimuna Saidi	Member
28/3/2007	NCAA	B.M. Murunya Dr. Mkumbo Dr. Runyoro	Ag. Conservator
28/3/2007	Ngorongoro District	Z. Mbyana	DED
		M. Tumbaya N. Ngowi	Ag DNRO DGO
30/3/2007	Tarime District	J. Kayange M. Bakebula S.J. Mkoyongi	DED DAS DNRO
	Gibaso Village	I Gisiri Marwa Mwita	VEO Member, Village Council
31/3/2007	Ikoma Bush Camp Ikona AA	Jurie van Riel S. Banagi J.M. Nyangeti W. Nyarancha	Manager Member Memeber Chairman, Ikona AA
	Grumeti Reserves		Manager
01/4/2007	SRCP	J. Muya B. Kijika	Manager
	Frankfurt ZS - Seronera	M. Borner C. Schelten J. ole Kuwai G. Matilya	FZS Head of Africa Programme Programme Officer Projects Director CBNRM Technical Advisor
02/4/2007	TNRF - Arusha	A. Williams C. Sianga	Coordinator Programme Officer
04/4/2007	SHENI - Dsm	Mohsin Abdallah	Chairman and Managing Director

