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Conseil International de la Chasse et de la Conservation du Gibier
Internationaler Rat zur Erhaltung des Wildes und der Jagd
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Dedicated to the People and Wildlife of Africa

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Dear Reader,

The northeastern corner of Africa is one focal areas of this issue: Peter Flack's first hand report from a recent trip to Ethiopia (Article 2) makes grim reading and Fred Pearce's account on the agribusiness boom in Ethiopia does not provide comfort either (Article 10). The emerging nation of South Sudan faces serious challenges (Article 6). Tanzania's President Kikwete has now signaled that instead of the controversial Trans-Serengeti Highway, some unpaved roads will connect villages to the national road network and a southern bypass of the park is envisaged (News from Africa). Northern white rhinos, a distinct species and not a subspecies according to newest research may have received a new life-line (Article 5).

Mike Norton-Griffiths of Kenya produced a spellbinding account of the machinations of IFAW and allied non-governmental organizations in Kenya (Article 11). It's a lengthy piece, but well worth-while reading. When will the Kenyans finally take their conservation destiny into their own hands and stop being stooges bending to the utopian, emotional and unrealistic view of some arm-chair do-gooders from North America and Europe?

South Africa has a number of issues to solve. Still figuring highest on the agenda is the ongoing rhino poaching crisis. The country lost at least 193 rhino to poaching in the first 6 months of 2011 leading to 123 arrests with 6 convictions (2010: 165 arrests and four convictions). Whilst the arrest rate appears increasing, the conviction rate is appalling! A new threat looms for leopards with their spotted coats being in high demand for ceremonial purposes by members of a church (Article 12) Worrying news came from SANParks with the projected hotel developments in the southern part of Kruger National Park. I understand that KNP must be run as a profitable business venture, especially in view of ever diminishing government subsidies and should not depend on taxpayer handouts. Hotels are one potential solution but come with an enormous ecological footprint and high capital and running costs. Strictly regulated conservation hunting operations, if conducted in restricted wilderness/remote zones of suitable parks, would probably far surpass the monetary profits of hotels, have negligible ecological footprints and most of all would be sustainable through the years without incurring any significant

capital expenditure. David Mabunda, CEO of SANParks said not so long ago that "SANParks needs to find sustainable methods to fund the operations and protection of the entire national parks system and hence SANParks views responsible tourism as a conservation strategy." Maybe it is time to evaluate conservation hunting as one more option. SANParks could produce sustainable NET PROFITS in the region of 40 to 50 million Rand annually from very limited and strictly controlled hunting without compromising the SANParks Conservation Strategy. The National Treasury could apply the subsidies paid to SANParks in the past to service delivery on many fronts. My proposal will be challenged with all kind of moralistic assertions that hunting simply cannot take place in National Park; but those who argue against should please consider that successful and sustainable conservation strategies rest on THREE pillars: Ecology, Economy and Social Politics.

Sincerely
Gerhard R Damm

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The State Of Hunting In Ethiopia – My Impressions

Peter Flack

I like Ethiopia. I like the Ethiopian people. I like hunting in Ethiopia. In fact, I have spent nearly 100 days hunting in this fascinating country during four visits over the last 12 years but, of course, that does not make me an expert on things Ethiopian and, therefore, what you are about to read are the impressions of an Ethiopian fan – no less and no more.

Ethiopia is unique in so many ways. It operates on a Julian calendar and the year is 2004 while everywhere else it is 2011. New Year takes place on the 11th of September. They speak Amharic, a unique language with about 244 letters in its alphabet. I say "about" as new letters have been added to represent syllables and no one seems to be quite sure how many there are.

Ethiopia was the first African country to defeat a European power in pitched battle at Adua in 1882 where some 7,000 Italian soldiers, under the command of Count Baratieri, were slaughtered.

I can go on and on. The stone churches at Lalibella, the ark of the covenant, the country's mind blowing geographic features – Ethiopia is largely a 9,000 foot plateau which descends into deserts, rain forests and steamy swamps – ruled, for the most part, by a bunch of smart Tigreans, one of the many tribes which constitute the country although the Oromo tribe is the largest in number.

But it is the wildlife that is and always has been the largest attraction for me. Not only the unique species and sub-species such as mountain nyala, Menelik's bushbuck, tiang, Swayne's hartebeest, Abyssinian bushbuck, Guenther's dik dik, Walia ibex, gelada baboon, Simien fox (Ethiopian wolf) and so forth but also the outstanding quality of some of the non-endemic game such as Beisa oryx, lesser kudu, giant forest hog, northern gerenuk and Grant's gazelle.

The hunting industry in Ethiopia is small. There are only six outfitters of which Ethiopian Rift Valley Safaris (ERVS) is probably as big as the other five put together. The latest statistics (2008/2009) indicated that the industry as a whole sold only some 1 300 hunting days, turned over \$1,3 million and shot 450 animals in that year. There are about 40 professional hunters although probably only a dozen or so ever conduct safaris for the some 40 overseas hunters which annually visit the country. One of the many weird quirks of the regulations and practices which govern hunting in Ethiopia is that any person working for the Ethiopian Wildlife Conservation Authority (EWCA), is entitled to a full professional hunting license.

As an overall comment, it is my opinion that Ethiopian hunting is a severely threatened. Not because Ethiopians have anything against hunting but, firstly, because there appears little

understanding at government level, in general, and at the EWCA level, in particular, of the vitally important role hunting can play in protecting and conserving wildlife and wildlife habitats while, at the same time, creating employment and generating revenue for local people particularly in rural areas. At best, hunting is seen as a golden goose which needs to be squeezed as hard as possible to extract the largest number of eggs as quickly as possible regardless of the consequences for the goose. For example, EWCA believes the government is entitled to earn the same amount from every safari as the outfitter does, regardless of the fact that the outfitter builds the camps, employs the people and bears the costs of running the safaris while EWCA and the regions do little or nothing to earn what they do. In the last two years, EWCA has doubled attributable hunting fees payable to it and the regions and this has pushed up the costs of a mountain nyala safari (the most sought after hunt in the country) to about \$75 000 making it by far and away the most expensive two animal hunt in Africa and, from a situation where these hunts were booked up five years in advance, most outfitters currently sit with unsold safaris, with at least one outfitter not having sold a single one. From a situation where North Americans made up about 70% of overseas hunters, their numbers have dropped to about 20%.

Secondly, because of the rapid population growth in the country and the government's inability and/or unwillingness to address the root causes of this massive problem, widespread habitat destruction is an ever present and ever growing reality in Ethiopia. On my first trip to Ethiopia over ten years ago, the reports I read in preparation for the trip quoted 69 million as the population figure. Today, this number is closer to 85 million (officially 78 million) and growing exponentially. The number of people in the country, already one of the most densely populated in Africa, is set to rise to at least 160 million by the year 2050.

On the one hand, there is no concerted attempt to introduce even basic family planning. Given the scope of the problem, the single billboard erected in the capitol this year and advertising family planning, is almost a sick joke. When this is coupled to the government's policy of "re-village-ization", where people are picked up en masse and moved from an area which they have denuded and destroyed through over population coupled to bad animal husbandry and farming practices and moved to a much better one, often occupied by game and one or more small tribes, the bankrupt nature of government policies is plain for everyone to see. To me, this is like removing an alcoholic from a bar where he has drunk all the whiskey, taking him to another with a plentiful supply and telling him not to drink alcohol any more.

Moving people from one part of the country to another, particularly when the new area constitutes good wildlife habitat, is doing nothing to address the root causes of this problem. I believe that one day someone will write a case study on the desertification of Ethiopia and the current government will be held responsible.

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Thirdly, little or no will exists to control the rampant poaching in the country. To quote but two recent examples: A shot narrowly missed a safari vehicle. The outfitter sent vehicles to fetch the police and tribal elders to the scene of the crime and the offender was apprehended but set free the next day. The police explained that he had not intended to fire at the vehicle. "He was only poaching," they said.



Lion claws and Bohor Reedbuck skulls available for sale in a curio shop a few meters away from the offices of the Ethiopian Wildlife Conservation Authority

In the second incident, an outfitter caught the poacher of a mountain nyala bull red handed. This represented a loss to government of \$15 000 (the current trophy fee). They took him to the police with the damning evidence and laid a charge. He was released the next day as the police said he was only a poor man and they had no means of bringing him before a court.

Ethiopia has 18 controlled hunting areas and five open hunting areas. Six Controlled Hunting Areas have had to be abandoned in the past because the huntable species had been destroyed by uncontrolled poaching and habitat destruction

caused by illegal human encroachment.

There are 13 national parks and a number of game reserves in Ethiopia. While the parks are staffed and receive an annual budget, they exist largely in name only and as lines on a map. They are essentially devoid of wildlife but full of people and livestock. Bale Mountain National Park, home to the largest concentration of the indigenous mountain nyala, hosts some 37,000 people and over 50,000 head of livestock.



Buffalo poachers arrested by the ERVS anti-poaching squad in Dati where before the arrival of the safari company some 200 to 250 buffalo were being poached annually. This number was reduced by about 90% by the ERVS staff

Nechisar National Park is another case in point. After a public/private partnership agreement was entered into with African Parks to take over the management of the park, which I personally thought was a real breakthrough for wildlife and wildlife habitat in the country, the Ethiopian government snatched defeat from the jaws of victory by refusing either to fence the park or remove the

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For hunter-conservationists and all people who are interested in the conservation, management and the sustainable use of Africa's wild natural resources. The publication and distribution of African Indaba is supported by the International Council for Game and Wildlife Conservation CIC www.cic-wildlife.org



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people who streamed into it and the agreement was terminated by African Parks. The park, although by no means the worst example, is today full of people and livestock and game numbers are deteriorating rapidly.

Some years ago, during the course of a five and a half hour drive through Mago National Park, my diary recorded the sighting of a few hartebeest, a couple of warthogs and some two dozen dik dik. Cattle, sheep and goats were everywhere however and, at the park headquarters, slovenly game scouts lolled around in groups doing nothing.



One of the poacher's porters carrying out an illegally shot warthog.

On the other hand, the Oromia regional government has terminated the Dati hunting concession in order to convert it into a park. The fact that the area containing the only wildlife – Nile buffalo, hippopotamuses and waterbuck – is under water for half the year, that even when it is dry there are no roads through the area which is all but inaccessible to most 4x4s and Dati itself is far off the beaten track, seems to have gone unnoticed. All that has been done is destroyed a good hunting concession and the wildlife it contained without any benefit to themselves or their people. The poaching has already begun in earnest as the outfitter prepares to vacate the concession. In April it was reported that 40 donkeys were seen leaving the area carrying buffalo meat.

Fourthly, dubious agricultural schemes have been granted land (which is all owned by the government) – sometimes extensive tracts – containing scarce wildlife resources without any detailed study let alone an environmental impact assessment or cost benefit analysis being done. In a number of cases, the land has contained valuable rain forest habitat which has been cut and sold and the government then advised afterwards that the agricultural scheme has failed. The fraudsters are then allowed to repeat the exercise using a different front organization.

Fifthly, EWCA itself, and the leadership it fails to provide, is a major stumbling block.

The game reserves fall under the regions and are not staffed at all nor do they receive a budget and yet no one may hunt there. Why? Because they are protected areas according to EWCA although absolutely no effort is made to protect the wildlife in any of these reserves. The one exception is the Alledoghi game reserve, home to some Grevy's zebra and allegedly wild ass, which the Afar region, for reasons known only to themselves, has asked EWCA to manage.

Bale Mountain National Park is also home to the world's most threatened canid, the Simien fox or, as it is now more accurately called, the Ethiopian wolf. There are approximately 600 of these magnificent red animals left. Their biggest threats are rabies, distemper and hybridization, all brought about by their contact with domestic dogs which the people in the park have brought with them. Instead of shooting the dogs or allowing the outfitters to do so, the EWCA response has been to inoculate the dogs which have, therefore, dramatically increased in number thereby rendering the likelihood of hybridization ever more possible.

When attempts have been made to establish a breeding program for the Ethiopian wolf outside of the country where the necessary facilities, expertise and supplies are freely available, EWCA has refused to allow the exportation of a few breeding pairs. "These are Ethiopian animals. They will stay in Ethiopia even if they all die in Ethiopia," they are reported to have said.

In a similar vein, some years back, EWCA attempted to stop outfitters exporting mountain nyala skins as they were concerned that scientists might be able to clone these animals from the DNA. This ridiculous type of "dog in a manger" attitude is prevalent throughout EWCA and, when combined with their "not invented here" bias, which prevents them from adopting tried and tested, successful conservation strategies and tactics evident on their own doorstep in East and Southern Africa, I confess I have little hope for the future of Ethiopian wildlife and wildlife habitat in the country.

Hunting in Ethiopia is probably more strictly controlled than anywhere else in Africa and four officials in EWCA out of the 900 strong staff (set to rise to 1,400 in the near future), are dedicated to controlling the six outfitters. Concessions are evaluated every two years on foot and quotas changed, often severely reduced, on the basis of these brief and superficial visits. While counteracting poaching and habitat destruction is totally, and I do mean totally, neglected, should an outfitter shoot a mountain nyala, for example, that is 1/8 inch under the 29 inch minimum set by EWCA, he has to pay a fine of \$ 15 000.

The Addis Ababa University received a donation from the Japanese government to build a natural history museum in the capital. The university approached EWCA's forerunner for permission to shoot examples of all Ethiopian wildlife and an outfitter was found by them to assist with the practical

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arrangements. They refused and would only allow animals on quota in hunting concessions to be shot. To add insult to injury, any animal so shot would then be deducted from the outfitter's quota. Needless to say, the natural history museum is a largely devoid of taxidermied animal mounts.

In and around the Gambella region in western Ethiopia, the army and poachers shoot approximately 5 000 to 10 000 white-eared kob a year, amongst other game, and yet outfitters have been unable to obtain a license for a single kob. On a recent visit to the area, an outfitter was invited by a senior government official to lunch at a local restaurant. "Let's go and eat some kob," he said. "It's quite good you know." Another PH saw a military vehicle loading dozens of slaughtered kob.



White eared Kob (Photo: Ludwig Siege)

In the face of such uncontrolled slaughter, when EWCA was approached for reasons why they would not award a miniscule quota of say 10 animals to outfitters, they first said that the migration patterns of the kob needed to be studied, and then later, that to grant a quota might create an international incident with Sudan which might object to the hunting of "their" kob. So, it is fine to stand idly by while your own military illegally poaches thousands of kob but not to grant a license for 10 to be hunted legally. It is estimated that there are several hundred thousand kob in Gambella in the dry season.

Currently quotas are limited to between one and two per cent of male animals observed during the superficial two yearly on sight inspections. As a game rancher with 20 years of experience, I know that three to five per cent of the whole herd is a very conservative quota if you want to retain trophy quality. In general, my impression is that there is substantial scope to both increase the quotas of game on licence and the areas offered to outfitters if

only EWCA would get off its behind. This would also help increase revenue from hunting, add more jobs to the some 350 which have already been created, help combat poaching and improve the relevance of hunting in the conservation of wildlife and wildlife habitats.

Currently, hunting concessions are granted to outfitters for five years at an annual rental of between \$ 15,000 and \$ 20,000. Although this is a relatively short period and would appear to encourage short term exploitation, it is accepted that, if the outfitters is in good standing and wants to do so, he will be given the first opportunity to extend the lease for a further five years. Recently, however, a proposal has been mooted by EWCA to move to a two yearly auction of all new hunting concessions with the inevitable consequences that short term planning will bring for the wildlife in such concessions.

Prior to 1993, it was possible to buy a hunting license for an animal and hunt it anywhere in the country. Currently, the system imposed by EWCA is both unique in Africa and difficult to understand. A hunter must select and pay for trophy licenses before his hunt begins on a region by region basis. If he fails to shoot any of the animals on his license, he forfeits the monies paid. This has a negative effect on revenue generated. On the one hand, hunters are reluctant to buy expensive licenses if they are concerned that they may not have a chance to shoot the animal and, on the other hand, it prevents them shooting an animal they may come across on a hunt which they did not know about or did not want to hunt originally but, in respect of which they now have changed their mind. This must cost the country literally tens of thousands of dollars as, from personal experience, virtually every hunter on our own private game ranch, once he has arrived, has wanted to hunt additional animals once he has seen them and the quality available.

When I first hunted in the Omo Valley, there was little livestock as, being a controlled hunting area, livestock, people and weapons were, in terms of both the law and the agreement between the government and the outfitter, not allowed into the area. Today, the hunting camp on the banks of the Omo River and once in the middle of the concession is some 45 minutes by car from the nearest game. The area is awash with Hammer people and their livestock and almost every Hammer man has a firearm. In ten short years, Neumann's hartebeest and Beisa oryx have disappeared. The once mighty herds of Tiang, a damalisc and Topi look alike, have been cut off from water and reduced to a mere 200 in number in a buffer zone between the Nyanyatom, Dassanich and Hammer herders who frequently shoot one another as well as the game. The stench of cow dung is ever present on the plains which, except in the buffer zone, are all but devoid of grass and rapidly becoming a desert.

The next new and positive idea for wildlife, wildlife habitat and its conservation that EWCA comes up with is going to be the first. For heaven's sake, what about an annual international public auction for one or two licenses for Wallia ibex, Swayne's

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hartebeest, Grevy's zebra, Nile lechwe, white-eared kob, elephant or wild ass? They are all currently being poached and eaten by the locals or dying from old age and I suspect that the revenue generated would double the funds generated by all other hunting in the country combined, provide much needed funds for conservation and anti-poaching efforts and focus world and government attention on the plight of these animals. But maybe EWCA doesn't want the money because then they may be forced to show that they are doing something with it instead of sitting in their backsides in Addis Ababa doing nothing constructive.

The head of EWCA is a vet with limited wildlife experience and, other than one or two people (including the head), who have had some experience of darting and game capture; there is no one in EWCA with any hunting experience. Privately I am told that many of the senior EWCA staff agree on the urgent necessity for change, on the one hand, but then point to the difficulty of making the necessary changes, on the other hand.

While EWCA fiddles about at 9,000 feet in Addis Ababa, the country's wildlife and wildlife habitats continue to disappear at an alarming rate and no-one in government seems to care that they are unnecessarily destroying a precious, renewable natural resource which, if used wisely and sustainably, could provide opportunities to a wide cross section of people, particularly in the poor rural areas, forever. When the modern history of Ethiopia is written, the current government, in general, and EWCA, in particular, is going to be pilloried for the needless destruction they have wrought.

The Common Warthog and the Desert Warthog

Peter Grubb

Extracted from "Pigs, Peccaries and Hippos Status Survey and Action Plan (1993)"

The warthogs differ in proportions from the other Afrotropical suids. The lower tusks do not wear down the tips of the upper tusks, which are long and curved. The tusks of sows are relatively large in proportion to those of boars. The pelage is coarse and very sparse, except for a prominent dorsal crest of long bristles. In young animals especially there is often a fringe of white hairs on the cheeks. Both genal and rostral warts are present, the latter unsupported by bony excrescences.

1. Common Warthog (*Phacochoerus africanus*)

This species is very widespread, occurring in all nations, which extend into the Northern Savanna or the Southern Savanna

and the bordering arid zones. The following names would be available if subspecies were to be recognized: *africanus* (Senegal), *fossor* (Chad), *bufo* (Sudan), *aeliani* (Eritrea), *centralis* (eastern Zaire), *massaicus* (Tanzania), *sundevallii* (Natal) and *shortridgei* (Namibia). Systematic studies of the common warthog have been based almost entirely on skulls, as the sparsely-haired skins are rarely preserved and almost nothing is known about variation of the pelage. There is much variation in the form of the skull but very few biologists have studied warthog skulls to determine geographic variation in the species. Preliminary analysis of skull measurements indicates the following. West African skulls are very large. Specimens from the Sahel are smaller and may grade into the Eritrean population. Central African populations also have very large skulls. Kenya specimens are similar but smaller, and Southern African warthogs are smaller still. Samples from the following areas are sufficiently differentiated in at least one measurement to be regarded as subspecifically distinct: Senegal/Eritrea; Senegal/Kenya; Kenya/Eritrea; Eritrea/ Somalia; Natal/Malawi; Natal/Senegal. But relatively substantial samples from Zambia, Katanga, Kivu-Rutshuru and Kenya cannot be separated from each other or from Malawi or Natal.

Subspecies *bufo* and *centralis* are certainly redundant and synonyms of *massaicus*; *shortridgei* is almost certainly a synonym of *sundevallii*. Peripherally distributed *africanus*, *aeliani* and *sundevallii* are distinct from each other, but they appear to link up - perhaps clinally - with other supposed subspecies. It may prove necessary to regard this taxon as monotypic, exhibiting geographic variation of such a continuous nature that discrete subspecies cannot be identified. In the meantime, the following (four) subspecies may be recognized provisionally:

- a) **Northern Warthog, *Phacochoerus africanus africanus***
Range: Northern Savanna and Sahel region (including: Mauritania, Senegal, Guinea Bissau, Ivory Coast, Burkina Faso, Nigeria, Chad, Sudan, CAR, N. Zaire and S. Ethiopia).
- b) **Eritrean Warthog, *Phacochoerus africanus aeliani***
Range: Eritrea, Djibouti and Somalia only?
- c) **Central African Warthog, *Phacochoerus africanus massaicus*** (synonyms: *bufo*, *centralis* and (?)*fossor*).
Range: East and Central Africa (including: Kenya, Zaire, Rwanda, Burundi, Katanga, Zambia, Malawi and Angola).
- d) **Southern Warthog, *Phacochoerus africanus sundevallii*** (synonym: *shortridgei*).
Range: Southern Africa (including: Zimbabwe, Botswana, Namibia, Natal).

2. Cape and Somali Warthogs (*Phacochoerus aethiopicus*)

Two species of warthog have been recognized. The Cape warthog was distinguished principally by its lack of functional incisors. The natural distribution of the Cape warthog was never properly identified and few specimens ever became available, none after the mid-nineteenth century. The specific name of the

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The Common Warthog And The Desert Warthog

Cape warthog is the earliest one of the genus, so when all warthogs were considered to be one species, the characteristics of the better-known common warthog became associated with the name of the less well-known species. It became the accepted view among zoologists that the Cape warthog was no more than an extinct geographic representative of the common warthog. Paleontologists on the other hand have recognized two kinds of warthog in fossil material from South Africa and have treated *P. aethiopicus* and *P. africanus* as two different species, believing that the former is now extinct.

In 1909, Lönnberg noted that two male warthog skulls obtained in Somalia also lacked incisors. He created a new species, *P. delamerei*, on the basis of these specimens and noted other similarities with *P. aethiopicus*, though he was not convinced that these two taxa were immediately related to each other. Nevertheless, warthogs with a specialized incisor-less morphology and other characters were now known from South Africa and East Africa. Roosevelt & Heller (1922) noticed this discontinuous distribution between north-east and south Africa - between Somali Arid and Southwest Arid Zones. In the interim, however, Lydekker (1915) had grouped all warthogs into one species, *P. aethiopicus* - the specific name properly associated with the Cape warthog. There appear to be no acknowledgements in the literature of Roosevelt & Heller's (1922) perceptive observations nor of the anatomical features linking *delamerei* and *aethiopicus*.

My own studies not only confirm differences between the common warthog and the Cape species, but that the Somali warthog and the Cape warthog are so alike that they should be regarded as conspecific. The principle features of the Cape/Somali warthog, *P. aethiopicus*, in comparison to the common warthog, *P. africanus*, are:

- the skull is relatively small, but proportionately shorter and broader;
- the front part of the zygomatic arch is thickened by internal sinuses and swollen into a spherical hollow knob just in front of the jugal-squamosal suture (in the common warthog, the zygomatic arch may be robust but it is never quite so thickened and there is no formation of a knob);
- there is never any trace of upper incisors, even in relatively young individuals, and the lower incisors, even if present, are rudimentary and non-functional (whereas the common warthog always has two upper incisors, though these may be lost in very old animals, and usually six, functional lower incisors in the adult dentition, of normal suine form);
- in the Cape warthog (but not yet confirmed in the Somali form), the large third molars are very different from those of the common species in that no roots have been

formed by the time all the enamel columns have come into wear, so that the columns are able to continue growing and extend the life of the tooth; and

- in the common warthog the skull roof behind the internal nares is marked by two deep and distinct 'sphenoidal pits', not found in any other African suid, while in the Cape/Somali species, these pits have expanded enormously, disappearing as distinct entities, so as to contribute to two vaults between the pterygoids, separated by a deep vomerine ridge.

One could not have better morphological evidence for the existence of two species. Furthermore they may even be sympatric in some places. The two subspecies of desert warthogs may be described as follows:

a) **Cape Warthog, *Phacochoerus aethiopicus aethiopicus* (extinct)**

Cape warthog specimens in museums lack locality records but specimens subsequently identified as belonging to this species were obtained by Sparman between the Sondags and Boesmans rivers, eastern Cape Province, and by Burchell on the upper Orange River, south of Hopetown, again in the eastern Cape. The full extent of the Cape warthog's former distribution remains unknown. Possibly it was restricted to the Karoo. There is no mention of this subspecies being obtained after about 1860.

b) **Somali or Desert Warthog, *Phacochoerus aethiopicus delamerei***

This geographic representative of the Cape warthog is recorded from Somalia, both in the north and in Jubaland in the south, and from northern Kenya. Both this species and the common Warthog have been obtained in northern Somalia, where locality records for the common species form an enclave in the vicinity of Berbera, with sparse records of Somali warthog to the west, east and south.

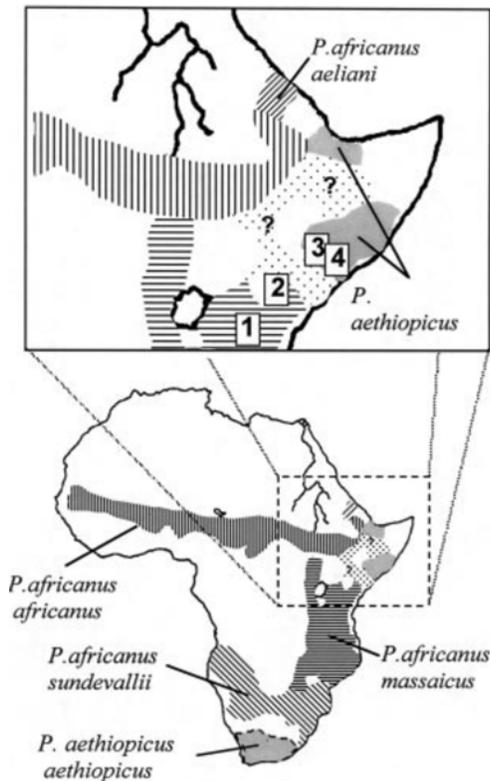
The two species may be parapatric or even partly sympatric and ecologically segregated in northern Somalia, but this has yet to be confirmed. Their relative geographical disposition in Kenya (or eastern Ethiopia) cannot be assessed at all in the absence of adequate specimens or information. Somali warthog from Kenya and Jubaland are larger than those from northern Somalia and it may be necessary to describe them as a separate subspecies. Not enough specimens are available, however, to determine whether this should be done.



Warthogs in Africa

Evidence Of Two Genetically Deeply Divergent Species of Warthog in East Africa

Randi, E., D'Huart, J.-P., Lucchini, V. and Awan, R.
(Mammalian Biology 67 (2002) 91-96)



Abstract

Two species of warthogs (*Phacochoerus*) differing by the number of functional incisors were described in the Holocene fossil record; the common warthog (*P. africanus*) widespread in sub-Saharan Africa and the Cape or desert warthog (*P. aethiopicus*) which was considered extinct since 1896, but was recently rediscovered in East Africa by morphological analyses. Mitochondrial and single-copy nuclear DNA sequences show that common and desert warthogs belong to two deeply divergent monophyletic lineages, that might have originated in the last part of the Pliocene. The finding of two divergent extant species of warthogs highlights the importance of molecular methods applied to the knowledge and conservation of biodiversity in Africa to uncover the tempo and mode of its species evolution.

Distribution Of The Common Warthog And The Desert Warthog In The Horn Of Africa

D'Huart, J. P. and Grubb, P. , East African Wild Life Society
Afr. J. Ecol. 39, 2001, 156-169

Abstract

The Somali warthog (*Phacochoerus aethiopicus delamerei*) is the surviving relative of the Cape warthog (*P. a. aethiopicus*) which formerly inhabited Cape Province but became extinct in the last century. It is only recently that these two subspecies of *Phacochoerus aethiopicus* have been restored to the status of a species – the desert warthog – distinct from the common warthog *P. africanus*. Mitochondrial DNA analysis has recently confirmed that the common and desert warthogs are two different and widely divergent species. This preliminary study maps their distribution in the Horn of Africa and discusses the significance of ecological barriers that limit these distributions. 133 skulls from 64 different localities in 5 countries –mostly from museum collections – were identified. New material was obtained from the field and reliable literature data were also recorded. Locality records suggest the optimal habitats of desert warthog are low altitude arid lands. The two species may overlap locally in northern Somalia, northern and eastern Kenya and southern and south-eastern Ethiopia, but the desert warthog's precise range is still not accurately established and basic data about its conservation status, ecology and behavior are still very poor.

A Photographic Guide To The Differences Between The Common Warthog And The Desert Warthog

D'Huart, P.-J. and Grubb, P. , Suiform Soundings, Volume 5, no. 2. December 2005

Introduction

The IUCN/SSC Pigs, Peccaries and Hippos Conservation Action Plan stressed the important gaps in our knowledge of *Phacochoerus aethiopicus* after the revelation of the existence of a "Somali Warthog", *Ph. aethiopicus delamerei*, a living representative of the Cape warthog, a taxon thought to be extinct since 1860. The Plan recommended a number of priorities for conservation action and for research, in view of clarifying the systematic and ecological relationships between *P. aethiopicus* and *P. africanus*. These recommendations included an assessment of their conservation status, of their ecological requirements and of their interaction at the edge of their respective distributions, as this should provide the basis for appropriate management and it would allow to determining whether allopatry,

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sympatry or intergradation occurs in these areas.

In recent years, several initiatives have been taken to follow up on some of those recommendations. Some preliminary results have been published on the respective distribution and habitat of the two species in the Horn of Africa, and a mitochondrial DNA analysis has revealed the deep genetic divergence between them. However, specific field studies have yet to be undertaken on the behavior, ecology and habitat requirements of *P. aethiopicus*; although the Desert warthog is a species still virtually unknown at the present time, it may indeed prove to be one of the most specialized of all suids.

While several papers have described in detail the differences between the skulls and teeth patterns of *P. aethiopicus* and *P. africanus*, no publication has yet illustrated them and reported the differences of external appearance between the two species. The differences between these two species that have lived side by side in vast areas (N Kenya, SE Ethiopia, Somalia) where a great deal of collection and scientific investigation took place in the last century, were rarely noticed in museum material and never noticed in the field. This suggests that no strikingly different features distinguished them in the field.



Detail of mandible: Top: *Ph. aethiopicus* (BM 50.8.24.25); Bottom: *Ph. africanus* (BM 36.3.30.12).

Note: *Ph. africanus* has usually 3 pairs of lower incisors; in *Ph. aethiopicus* lower incisors are absent, or vestigial and non-functional

However, the internet and contribution from a number of field investigators have now provided good photographic reference sources, allowing the comparison of large series of close-up pictures of these two species. The aim of this short note is to offer a visual reference framework which can help field observers and scientists to easily distinguish Desert warthogs from Common

warthogs, on the basis of a limited number of representative pictures. Two series of photographs are presented here: one illustrating the distinctive features of their skull and dentition, and a second allowing comparison of differences in their external morphology. The authors recognize that there may be additional permanent features that are specific of each species, but these would need further research. Other differences have been noticed, but they may be attributable to local variations or natural variability. The characteristic differences presented here are based on the morphology of adults (particularly adult males), and are the most prominent that should consistently be checked for identification.

The principal features of the Desert warthog, *P. aethiopicus*, in comparison to the Common one, *P. africanus*, are:

1. Differences in cranial and dental features

The skull is relatively smaller, but proportionately shorter and broader. **Thickened zygomatic arches:** the front part of the zygomatic arch is thickened by internal sinuses and swollen into a spherical hollow knob just in front of the jugal-squamosal suture (in the Common warthog, the zygomatic arch may be robust but it is never quite so thickened and there is no formation of a knob). **Enlarged sphenoidal pits:** In the Common warthog the skull roof behind the internal nares is marked by two deep and distinct "sphenoidal pits", not found in any other African suid, while in the Desert species, these pits have expanded enormously, disappearing as distinct entities, so as to contribute to two vaults between the pterygoids, separated by a deep vomerine ridge. **Absence of incisors:** there is never any trace of upper incisors, even in relatively young individuals, and the lower incisors, even if present, are rudimentary and non-functional, and reduced to 2 pairs maximum (whereas the Common warthog always has two upper incisors, though these may be lost in very old animals, and usually six functional lower incisors in the adult dentition of normal suine form);

2. Differences in external appearance

Several accounts of morphological differences in the external appearance of both species have been reported. Features like the paler color of the mane, lighter body size, or black markings on limbs, are not necessarily characteristic of the Desert warthog and do vary individually. On the basis of numerous pictures taken in the field in many parts of their range, the following features seem to be the best permanent and distinctive identification criteria:

Hook-shaped genal warts: in adult Desert warthogs, the genal (jugal) warts are always hookshaped, whereas they are cone-shaped in the Common warthog. There is, however, a large variation in the volume and the form of these warts, as well as in their orientation.

Tip of ears bent backwards: the tips of the ears in Desert warthogs are always bent backwards. This feature gives the impression that the animal have rounded or blunt tips to their ears

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and that the contour of the ear is angular. In contrast, Common warthogs have pointed, leaf-shaped ears, with a sinuous contour;
Swollen suborbital areas: the suborbital areas in Desert warthogs are swollen in the form of pouches that often extend to the base of the genal warts. These same areas in Common warthogs have never such a pronounced swelling;
Egg-shaped vs. Diabolo-shaped head: the comparatively broader skull of the Desert warthog and its shorter basi-occipital region give the impression that the head is more egg-shaped, whereas it looks more diabolo-shaped in the Common warthog. In addition to the following photographs, these various features are also illustrated by the comparative pictures of Common and Desert warthogs from NE Kenya and Ogaden shown in Boy (2002), the excellent pictures of Desert warthogs by Caron on [Pigtrop website](#) and the fine series of pictures of Common warthogs from Nairobi NP, published in Bradley (1972). respective projects in N Kenya and SE Ethiopia.

Desert Warthog Found In Tsavo East National Park And Tsavo West National Park

De Jong , Y. A., Culverwell, J. and Butynski, T. M. Suiform Soundings Vol 8(2), 2009

Both species of warthog, the common warthog *Phacochoerus africanus* and the desert warthog *Phacochoerus aethiopicus*, occur in Kenya. The desert warthog may be Africa's least known non-forest large mammal as its distribution is poorly understood and it has never been the focus of an ecological or behavioral study. None of the earlier books and field guides on the mammals of eastern Africa mention the desert warthog, and no game laws recognize this. Kingdon (1997) is the first major work to recognize the desert warthog as a full species and to bring this species to the attention of a large audience. The preliminary distribution map for the desert warthog compiled by d'Huart & Grubb (2001) presents only four localities for Kenya. They show the southern-most locality as Mkokoni, 60 km northeast of Lamu Island (north coast of Kenya). d'Huart & Grubb found no evidence for desert warthog south of the Ewaso Ng'iro River in central Kenya or west of the Tana River in eastern Kenya. They questioned whether the common warthog and the desert warthog might be sympatric at some sites.

D'Huart & Grubb (2005) produced a photographic guide that highlights the diagnostic differences between the common warthog and the desert warthog. Some of the main diagnostic phenotypic characters used to identify the two species of warthog in the field are as follows: common warthogs have pointed ear tips, cone-shaped genal warts, a 'diabolo-shaped' head (when viewed from the front), and the suborbital areas are not swollen (fig. 1); desert warthogs have ear tips that are lax and flipped back, hook-

shaped genal warts, an 'egg-shaped' head (when viewed from the front), and swollen suborbital areas (fig. 2).



Figure 1: Adult male common warthog *Ph. africanus* on the plains of the Laikipia Plateau, central Kenya. Note the pointed ears, the cone-shaped warts, the 'diabolo-shaped' head, and the lack of swelling of the suborbital area.



Figure 2: Adult male desert warthog *Ph. aethiopicus* in medium-dense shrub in Tsavo West National Park, southern Kenya. Note the flipped-back ear tips, the hooked warts, the broad, 'egg-shaped', head, and the swollen suborbital area

In 2005, we started to opportunistically collect distribution data for both species of warthog in Kenya. TMB and YdJ found desert warthogs 15 km and 80 km west of Garissa town in 2005 when they encountered two solitary individuals in medium-dense Acacia bushland during a primate survey. These are the first records west of the Tana River and extend the geographic

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range to ca. 265 km northwest of Mkokoni, the nearest locality mentioned by d'Huart & Grubb (2001).

In 2007, JC, J. Feely, and S. Bell-Cross visited Tsavo East National Park south of the Voi River. Although they encountered no common warthogs during this trip, they did observe two sounders of desert warthogs in low bush on the edge of the Dika Plains, ca 13 km north and northwest of Buchuma Gate. Photographs were taken and sent to experts for confirmation. Some of these photographs are available on an [online digital map](#).

These observations considerably extend the known geographical range for the desert warthog (ca. 310 km south from the nearest Garissa sighting and ca. 320 km southwest from Mkokoni). JC made two further visits to the Tsavos in 2007. He found both species of warthog in Tsavo West National Park and desert warthog north of the Voi River in Tsavo East National Park. In 2008, TMB and YdJ visited Tsavo West National Park and observed several sounders both of common warthogs and desert warthogs. In the northwest of the Park, in low bush on the edge of riverine forest, they found a sounder of six common warthogs only 150 m from a sounder of four desert warthogs. This locality represents not only the south western-most site in the range for desert warthog (ca. 390 km from Mkokoni, the southern-most point of d'Huart & Grubb 2001), but it also provided the first evidence that common warthog and desert warthog are at least narrowly sympatric over this part of their geographic ranges. Although we have yet to find the common warthog in Tsavo East National Park, it would be surprising if this species were not present there. If not present, however, the common warthog would need to be deleted from the list of large mammals known for Tsavo East National Park. As concerns the desert warthog, Tsavo East National Park and Tsavo West National Park can now add one more species to their already impressive list of large mammals.

Northern White Rhino: Now *Ceratotherium cottoni*?

Using genetic data and re-assessing physical evidence, scientists write that they have uncovered a new species of rhino (*Ceratotherium cottoni*), long considered by biologists as merely a subspecies (*Ceratotherium simum cottoni*). Researchers write in an open access PLoS ONE paper published last year that evidence has shown the northern white rhino is in fact a distinct species from the more commonly known—and far more common—southern white rhino (*Ceratotherium simum*, formerly *Ceratotherium simum simum*). If the scientific community accepts the paper's argument it could impact northern white rhino

conservation, as the species would overnight become the world's most endangered rhino species with likely less than ten surviving.



The researchers found that the skull of the northern and the southern white rhino are 'readily distinguished' and that the animals can be differentiated simply by looking at them. In addition, the genetic study found that the northern and southern white rhino diverged around a million years ago. "Its taxonomic distinctiveness argues strongly for its conservation, as its demise will mean the permanent loss of a unique taxon that is irreplaceable," write the authors.

Currently 8 northern white rhinos are confirmed to survive, however four of these though are no longer able to breed. The last four northern white rhinos capable of saving the species were transferred from Dvur Králové Zoo (Czech Republic) in 2009 to Ol Pejeta Conservancy in Laikipia/Kenya where they are guarded around the clock (the photo shows Suni, a male northern rhino, arriving in Africa).

While dire, the situation may not be utterly hopeless. "The admirable success of the conservation histories of the Southern white rhino and the Indian rhino, both of which were brought back from the brink of extinction by successful conservation efforts, does, however, hold out hope that the northern white may yet be saved for posterity," write the authors.

Conservationists hope that by providing the four rhinos—two males and two females—with their natural habitat will provide a better chance for breeding. Rhinos are notoriously difficult to breed in captivity.

CITATION: Groves CP, Fernando P, Robovský J (2010), The Sixth Rhino: A Taxonomic Re-Assessment of the Critically Endangered Northern White Rhinoceros. PLoS ONE 5(4): e9703. Download complete article: <http://www.plosone.org/article/info:doi%2F10.1371%2Fjournal.pone.0009703>



Southern Sudan Wildlife

Editor's Note: James Deutsch, Executive Director, Africa Program Wildlife Conservation Society, sent out an urgent appeal to the US Government to continue the support for conservation in South Sudan. African Indaba certainly supports the conservation of this largely unknown crown jewel of African Wildlife. However, organized tourism and the plans South Sudan becoming an eco-tourism hub will not happen soon. The parks and protected areas will largely remain paper parks. We suggest that incentive-driven-conservation, in other words a combination of extractive and non-extractive sustainable use options (I hate the words consumptive and non-consumptive, since eco-tourism sailing often under the flag of being non-consumptive, is probably at least as consumptive as any extractive use, probably more so) are undoubtedly the best solution for the new country. Incentive driven conservation, as practiced for example by the Namibian Government includes the rural inhabitants and provides tangible benefits, not only for rural livelihoods but also to the socio-cultural fabric of the people and last not least to wildlife and wild areas. The WWF-LIFE program in Namibia (once also supported by USAID) is a glowing example on how African governments, international conservation NGOs, professional hunting outfitters and their clients, international hunting associations and advocacies and last not least the main stakeholders – the rural people who live together with wildlife – can successfully work together for a sustainable future.

The world's second largest remaining terrestrial wildlife migration – the awe-inspiring mass movement of more than a million graceful gazelles, white-eared kob and tiang – somehow managed to survive 25 years of brutal civil war in Sudan. Now, these wonderful creatures stand on the brink of more change. On July 9th, South Sudan will be the world's newest democracy – and wildlife, along with the country's landscape and abundant natural resources, could be either its crown jewel or collateral damage during a time of massive change. Unfortunately, it's at this crucial juncture that the U.S. government is considering significantly reducing funding for the very programs that will help ensure the [migration]. Funding from the USAID program supports critical development opportunities in the region that include:

- Training local communities and government officials in natural resource management and wildlife law enforcement.
- Conserving key migratory routes and habitat for wildlife through supporting the establishment of national parks and corridors.
- Collecting information on wildlife, livestock and natural resource use in order to develop sound and sustainable environmental policies and land-use management systems.

But foreign aid for conservation is on the [chopping block]. The US government has made a sound investment in South Sudan's wildlife, natural resource management and landscapes. With [one of the world's last great migrations at stake], we can't turn our backs.

Background Information

After [South Sudan] voted overwhelmingly for [independence], one of many tasks facing the nation's nascent leaders is the conservation of its stunning wildlife. In 2007 the Wildlife Conservation Society (WCS) surveyed South Sudan. They found 1.3 million white-eared kob, tiang (or topi) antelope and Mongalla gazelle still roamed the plains, making up the world's second largest migration after the Serengeti. Sudan's great wildernesses are also inhabited by buffalo, giraffe, lion, bongo, chimpanzee, and some 8,000 elephants.

"There is a historic opportunity, perhaps unprecedented, for wildlife conservation, sustainable natural resource management and environmentally friendly ecotourism to be integrated into the nation-building process," said Steven Sanderson CEO of WCS. With some of the continent's biggest herds—and therefore some of the best wildlife viewing in the world—South Sudan could become an eco-tourism hub. "The case for conservation is clear: The protection of parkland and wildlife must be a rallying point. Animal migrations, along with pristine savanna and wetland habitat, could become one of the greatest tourism attractions in Africa and a key component of Southern Sudan's growth and economic security," Sanderson added.

One of the nation's key problems will be how to preserve its stunning migration. The world's land-migrations have largely vanished over the last century, and even today Tanzania is threatening its famed wildebeest migration with a cross-country road project. South Sudan should learn from this: every development project should be weighted carefully over whether it would negatively impact the migration, the main draw for tourism. But wealth could come from more than tourism and should be measured as more than GDP. Protecting watersheds and forests will greatly benefit the people of South Sudan, who are mostly agriculturalists and herders, by preserving precious ecosystem services. Smart partnerships with open-minded NGOs could help the people of Sudan grow more food, gain improved health care, receive education, improve infrastructure, and essentially live better while preserving their ecosystems. Already the South Sudan government is showing optimistic foresight. Last month, it asked investors to support its underfunded parks with \$140 million. "We want to create another source of income other than oil," Daniel Wani, undersecretary for wildlife at the Ministry of Wildlife, Conservation and Tourism, told Reuters. "The potential of tourism can encourage people to come." The \$140 million would help fix-up South Sudan's vast network of parks and add infrastructure for what it hopes will be its first tourists, including guard posts, roads, airstrips, and hotels. Of course, such infrastructure must be smartly planned, so it doesn't degrade the ecosystems people have come to visit. The country has also recruited 16,000 former soldiers for wildlife guards. Given poaching and bushmeat rates across Africa, park guards are essential to protecting South Sudan's wildlife.

(Original WCS text slightly shortened for space reasons)



WARNING! Rhino Thieves: CIC Warns Museums And Owners Of Rhino Hunting Trophies

CIC Press Release

Rhino thieves are on the road. Internationally active gangs steal rhino trophies from hunting and natural history museums - cases are reported from Germany, Great Britain, Italy and South Africa. The stolen horns are obviously smuggled to Southeast Asia, where the horn is used for medical purposes, although there is no scientific evidence of their medical effectiveness. The International Council for Game and Wildlife Conservation (CIC) has warned all hunting and private museums with rhino trophies. Also Africa-hunters who possess such trophies should be careful. Precautions against theft are advised. Legal owners are warned against offers to purchase trophies. All rhinos are on Appendix I of CITES, and the horn trade is banned internationally and will be prosecuted. Taxidermists should also be warned and should alert their national authorities, if the casting of horns and demand of fibre glass copies are ordered. This could be for the preparation of illegal sales.

Sustainable hunting has greatly contributed to the population increase of the once almost extinct white rhino in southern Africa to over 20,000 animals. Even individual black rhinos may be hunted in South Africa and Namibia under CITES permits, since the hunting revenues are used for species conservation. "Controlled hunting has played a significant role in the conservation of rhinos and this must continue," said CIC President Bernard Lozé during the CIC General Assembly in St. Petersburg in May, at which increasing rhino poaching was discussed. In view of the current enormous increase of poaching, possibilities of a monitored and regulated trade by CITES should be analysed.

News From Africa

Congo DR

A survey of Kahuzi-Biega National Park in the Congo DR turned up 181 Grauer's gorillas (*Gorilla gorilla graueri*, also known as the eastern lowland gorilla), up from 168 in 2004 and 130 in 2000. The number may actually be higher — the researchers were only able to assess the highland areas of the park due to guerrilla activity. Grauer's gorilla, which can weigh up to 500 pounds, is one of four recognized gorilla sub-species, which also include mountain gorillas, western lowland gorillas, and Cross River gorillas. Grauer's gorilla is listed as "Endangered" on the IUCN's Red List and lives exclusively in the eastern DR Congo.. Its population is estimated around 4,000. Hall et al. (1998) identified 11 populations across its 90,000 km² range and estimated the total population to be approximately 16,900 individuals. The gorillas found in the

Kahuzi-Biega National Park lowland area and the Kasese region represented 86% of the subspecies' total population in 1998. The mountain and lowland populations of Kahuzi-Biega are not in reproductive contact. Newman's Own Foundation has awarded the Wildlife Conservation Society a \$150,000 grant to help eco-guards re-establish control of the lowland sector of Kahuzi-Biega.

Kenya

Residents of Narok South District claim that zebras and elephants from Maasai Mara GR have destroyed 150 acres of maize plantation. They said Kenya Wildlife Service is doing little to deter wild animals.

Kenya

Wildlife in the Masai Mara has shrunk by over 70% in the last 30 years and the drop is continuing according to the Journal of Zoology. The number of cattle grazing illegally in the reserve has increased by more than 1,100% per cent.

Kenya

A poacher died in Tsavo East national park in June after eating meat from an elephant that was killed using poisoned arrows. The poachers roasted and ate some meat and, after a few hours, started experiencing severe abdominal pains; one of them died later.

Namibia

Deputy Prime Minister Hausiku warned that cross-border rhino poaching could reverse the big success made in rhino protection in southern Africa. "Rhino poaching is a cause for concern for all the range states and it needs all our attention and focus to address it," said Hausiku when he opened a meeting of SADC ministers in Windhoek in May. He said the region was successful in bringing rhino species back from the brink of extinction, but poaching may reverse this success.

Rwanda

The government in partnership with the African Parks is pumping a \$10m investment to restore Akagera National Park biodiversity, improve its financial viability and increase tourism receipts. The park management trains rangers in counter defense and offensive, rescue tactics and enemy engagement skills to safeguard Park and its territorial boundaries.

South Africa

A bitter debate is raging on the proposed upmarket hotels with conference facilities in Kruger National Park at Malelane and Skukuza. Apparently the hotel developments are planned to achieve financial self-sufficiency for SANParks and to partially off-set the cut-backs of subsidies and government grants.

South Africa

The latest rhino poaching figures are showing a decline in the KNP but an increase in both Private and Provincial reserves with a YTD figure of 182 animals killed in 2011 (as per 21st June). A survey by the Rhino Management Group (RMG) and sponsored by WWF-SA is attempting to assess the number and distribution of

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white rhino on private land. The 2008 WWF white rhino survey estimated that private owners accounted for about 23% (4,300 animals) of the country's white rhino population.

South Africa

The Western Cape Government decided to allow permit bearing farmers to cull 1,800 each jackal and caracal every 6 months. CapeNature will be issuing hunting permits to landowners valid for six months. Light hunting and the use of artificial lights are allowed under the new permit, but not hunting predators from a helicopter or using dogs or gin traps. According to CapeNature there had not been a large demand for the permits. To be issued another permit, farmers have to provide details on losses caused by predators, as well as their stomach contents.

South Africa

CapeNature, with input from the South and Western Cape game industry, has recently completed a new mammalian translocation policy, officially titled the 'Game Translocation and Utilization Policy for the Western Cape Province'. See www.capenature.co.za

South Africa

Limpopo Province is South Africa's leading hunting area according to research of M. Saayman and P. van der Merwe from the Tourism Focus Area at the North-West University, Potchefstroom. The total economic impact of hunting in the province is R2.6 billion. The hunting industry directly employs 9,778 workers, of which 95% are black and 5% white. For more information, contact van der Merwe or Saayman by e-mail at peet.vandermerwe@nwu.ac.za or melville.saayman@nwu.ac.za

South Africa

South Africa does not have a CITES quota for cheetah trophies. Wildlife ranching and trophy hunting industries are calling for that to change. The Endangered Wildlife Trust arranged a workshop in 2010 to determine whether current hunting quotas for leopards (150 trophies) and the lack of hunting quotas for cheetah were justified. The ETW supports the retention of the leopard quota but considers it inadvisable to issue a cheetah quota.

South Africa

Anyone who wishes to comment on the recently published Norms and Standards of Hunting Methods in South Africa, can view the Government Gazette, no 34326, volume 551, published on 27 May 2011.

South Africa

SANParks received 1 000 DNA kits to ensure effective prosecution of rhino poachers in order to link carcasses found in the veld with confiscated horns. "The ability to obtain a full DNA profile from rhino horn allows us to match recovered horns to specific poaching incidents," said Dr Cindy Harper

South Sudan

South Sudan's tropical montane forests which are part of the Eastern Afro-montane ecosystem are fast disappearing according to new analysis by PRINS Engineering. At current rates, Mount Dongotomea, located in South Sudan's most biodiverse ecosystem, could be completely stripped of tree cover by 2020. Read the full article at http://news.mongabay.com/2011/0605-moukaddem_southsudan.html

Tanzania

In a letter dated 22nd June 2011 to the Directors of the World Heritage Center in Paris, the Tanzanian Minister of Natural Resources and Tourism, HE Ezekiel Maige stated that the proposed tarmac road in northern Tanzania will be constructed in two sections: "The eastern stretch of 214 km from Mto wa Mbu to Loliondo; the western stretch of 117km from Makutano-Natta-Mugumu. The stretch of 12km from Mugumu to Serengeti NP western border will not be tarmac. The 53 km section traversing Serengeti NP will remain gravel road and continue to be managed by TANAPA mainly for tourism and administrative purposes as it is currently." The letter continues saying that "this decision has been reached in order to address the increasing socio-economic needs of the rural communities in Northern Tanzania while safeguarding the Outstanding Universal Value (OUV) of Serengeti NP. The Government of United Republic of Tanzania is also seriously considering the construction of a road from Mugumu to Arusha running south of Ngorongoro Conservation Area and Serengeti National Park.

The International Herald Tribune writes in an Editorial on 27th June however "Unfortunately, the letter announcing the change in plans is too ambiguous to celebrate, and it leaves the ultimate fate of Serengeti unresolved. Tanzania now proposes to build roads right up to the edge of Serengeti. The letter ... announces that the controversial route across the park "will remain gravel road" But such a gravel road does not now exist, since much of this section of the park is maintained as wilderness. By conceding its hopes for an asphalt road across Serengeti, Tanzania gets a gravel road by sleight of hand. In fact, it was a plan for a gravel road across the park that caused worldwide protest last year. Serengeti lies directly on a route from Uganda to a Tanzanian port called Tanga, on the Indian Ocean. The pressure to develop this route is intense, thanks largely to mining and other extractive industries in Uganda. Tanzania has a right, of course, to pursue its economic future. A major part of its economic present is revenue from tourism, mostly related to Serengeti. It is time for the Tanzanian government to do the right thing, economically and environmentally, and declare its unequivocal commitment to protect Serengeti's integrity.

Tanzania

Jeremy Hance wrote "from the Serengeti to the Eastern Arc montane forests", an article for the Joint ATBC-SCB Africa

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conference to introduce attendees to some of the recent conservation news from Tanzania. The content comes from a number of different articles published on mongabay.com, which has closely followed events in Tanzania over the past year. Read the full article at http://news.mongabay.com/2011/0602-atbc_tanzania.html

Tanzania

Ivory seizures involving Tanzania between 1989 and 2010 represent one third of all ivory seized globally. Tanzania ranks first among African countries in terms of the total volume reported by large-scale seizures. Recently, an investigation by a panel of international and local experts implicated senior government officials in the illegal ivory trade and the rise in elephant poaching in Tanzania.

Rural Communities And The Implementation Of CITES In Developing Countries

Max Abensperg-Traun, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, Environment and Water Management, Dept. Species Conservation and National Parks, CITES Management Authority, Vienna, Austria

About 70% of global biodiversity, most of it in developing countries of the southern hemisphere, exists outside of national parks and other protected areas, sharing space and resources with rural people. Based on a 2010 report by the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), a comparable percentage of the developing world's 1.4 billion extremely poor people live in rural areas, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. So it is the poor of the world who are and will continue to be among the main custodians of many threatened or endangered species. Conservation through rural communities, or "Community-based natural resource management" (CBNRM), or "Community-based conservation" (CBC), is a strategic response to the interconnected issues of biodiversity conservation and poverty alleviation, and has been developed as a complementary strategy to Protected Areas like National Parks and Game Reserves. It generally involves the decentralization of ownership or user rights over wildlife, and of the decision-making processes, with the aim to maximize livelihood benefits from the sustainable use of species as an incentive to conserve wildlife, particularly outside of protected areas where governments have limited capacities to influence the sustainable

use of resources. This may involve ecotourism and hunting tourism, both of which have the potential to significantly contribute to the income of rural people and the conservation of species. Equally, both can, of course, be unsustainable.

CITES is a trade convention that serves the interests of conservation by trying to ensure that international trade in specimens or products and derivatives is sustainable. Because poverty in exporting countries can be a primary cause of unsustainable trade, the effectiveness of CITES instruments to help conserve species listed in its Appendices is profoundly influenced by economic development in such countries. Effective implementation of CITES can therefore not be achieved if it goes against the economic interests of affected communities. Apart from moral considerations, it would thus be in the strategic interest of CITES to gain rural communities as real partners in our conservation efforts. This is supported by the fact that for many terrestrial, CITES-listed species, and particularly those of high commercial value, traditional measures to effectively conserve them have often not been very effective, both inside and outside on protected areas (e.g. tigers, rhinos, elephants). Rural communities would thus act as an additional strategy for the national implementation of CITES, supporting national legislation and enforcement.

Because the poor can not be expected to carry the burden of our conservation expectations in the absence of economic incentives, the sustainable commercial use of populations of wild species is central to the philosophies and strategies of international conservation organizations such as those of the CBD, the IUCN as well as CITES (e.g. CITES Resolution Conf. 8.3 Rev. CoP13; <http://www.cites.org/eng/res/index.shtml>). CBNRM provides a suitable vehicle to address both conservation and poverty alleviation goals, but remains controversial for a variety of CITES-relevant reasons:

- because of reservations about the achievements of CBNRM;
- because of insufficient, or even lack of, knowledge about the possibilities of community-based conservation;
- because the rural poor and the urbanized industrial west have different cultural and ethical values regarding the use of species (e.g. opposition to trophy hunting by some politically powerful animal protection NGOs where saving the individual animal, rather than the species, is their primary concern); or
- because of the argument that poverty amongst rural communities is irrelevant to CITES as it is not part of its mandate and is something that should more appropriately be dealt with by the Convention on Biological Diversity.

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Rural Communities And The Implementation Of CITES In Developing Countries

CITES is unique amongst Multilateral Environmental Agreements. Its decisions on international trade in species and their products made at CITES Conferences of the Parties are binding and legally enforceable. Because CITES has a strong compliance mechanism, its decisions are implemented and can therefore have an almost immediate impact on affected species and rural communities. Currently, the process of listing species on the CITES Appendices, allowing either less or more international trade, is based on the listing criteria of CITES Resolution Conf. 9.24 (Rev. CoP15), and these are restricted to population and trade data. While Res. Conf. 8.3 (Rev. CoP13) on "Recognition of the benefits of trade in wildlife" deals with minimizing detrimental impacts on rural livelihoods in the *implementation phase* once a species has already been listed, the potential effects of a listing on the income of rural people is not considered *prior* to a listing proposal at a CITES Conference of the Parties is voted on.

That CITES does not explicitly address the socio-economic consequences of species listings, or trade in general, is a serious flaw as it can profoundly hamper the effective implementation of the convention. The successful conservation of endangered species is expensive, particularly (low volume – high value) species involved in traditional use for artefacts (e.g. elephants/ivory) or medicine (rhinoceros/horn) where illegal hunting necessitates high levels of enforcement. Countries that have ratified CITES (currently 175) have had to bear the considerable costs of establishing and maintaining legal frameworks as well as management and enforcement authorities. While many donors have invested substantial financial resources to support national implementation in developing countries, such as the current European Commission CITES capacity-building project, many member states find it difficult to maintain effective enforcement and implementation of the convention. However, in the absence of effective enforcement (e.g. to control illegal hunting), unsustainable use and illegal trade, often involving members of impoverished rural communities, is frequently the inevitable outcome.

One way to assist implementation problems is (1) the effective involvement of rural communities in conservation programmes to provide them with a sense of ownership over resources and earning economic incentives to prevent alternative, unsustainable land-uses or illegal hunting, and (2) recognition by the international CITES community that while biological and trade data, based on sound science, are the principal criteria for the evaluation of a listing proposal, socio-economic considerations need to be formalized if the listing of a species (CITES Appendix I/no commercial trade or Appendix II/controlled commercial trade) can actually be implemented and hence result in real conservation benefits.

The symposium on CITES and CBNRM in Vienna

From the 17th to the 20th of May 2011, the Austrian Ministry of the Environment, and the European Commission, held a symposium in Vienna, Austria, on „The relevance of community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) to the conservation and sustainable use of CITES-listed species in exporting countries“. It was the first international initiative of its kind that aimed at synthesizing the achievements of community-based conservation to CITES-listed species, with working groups focusing on strategic issues associated with community conservation and CITES implementation consequences. With the support of the Secretariats of the Conventions on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES) and on Migratory Species (CMS), the World Conservation Monitoring Center (UNEP-WCMC), the Convention on Biological Diversity, the International Council for Game and Wildlife Conservation (CIC), as well as FAO, TRAFFIC (Trade Records Analysis of Fauna and Flora in Commerce), IUCN-SSC, WWF and IIED (International Institute for Environment and Development), 80 participants from around the world gathered to inform, or be informed, about the global context of conservation conducted by rural communities, and on case studies from countries like Namibia, Tanzania, Kenya, Ethiopia, Pakistan, Tajikistan, Kazakhstan and the Andean countries of South America. The focus was on terrestrial species, including the Crocodylians. The symposium included high-caliber speakers such as the Secretary-General of CITES, John Scanlon, the Director of UNEP-WCMC, Jon Hutton, and Hugo-Maria Schally from the European Commission and Rolf Baldus from the CIC. The aim of the symposium was to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of CBNRM and hence to contribute to a better understanding of the EU CITES community whose positions at CITES Conferences of the Parties often determine success or failure of a listing proposal.

Four working groups had one and a-half days to synthesize issues around characteristics of successful CBNRM; income generation and conservation implications of CITES species listings; impacts of trade restrictions and other EU policy measures; and the relevance and interdependence for CBNRM of international goals, policies and biodiversity initiatives. Working group chairs included well-known experts like Rowan Martin (CAMPFIRE initiator) and Holly Dublin (Wildlife Conservation Society) to guide very mixed groups of participants. This included CBNRM experts, CITES representatives from the European Union, representatives from a range of species and nature conservation organizations, and, contrary to several claims in the local written media, animal protection organizations like IFAW, Humane Society International, Whale and Dolphin Conservation Society and ProWildlife, ensuring broad representation of positions on CBNRM and sustainable use of species. The symposium agenda, terms of reference for the working groups and working group reports can be

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accessed at www.umwelt.net.at/article/articleview/87449/1/8023.

Where to from here?

Symposium working groups provided conclusions on a wide range of relevant issues and have noted that conserving endangered species in developing countries in the absence of effective community involvement can not be achieved, and that many CITES-listed species have significantly benefited from CBNRM (including trophy hunting). CBNRM is no panacea, and many Governments have so far been unwilling to devolve economic power over natural resources, including wildlife. But it is now up to the international CITES community and relevant organizations, to provide the necessary support for CBNRM to become established, or to assist in its further development. Further, given adherence to other relevant (non-CITES) national legislation, the use to which species are put is not to be dictated by western ethics but, subject to meeting the criteria of sustainability, by local necessities and cultural traditions.

In preparation for the 62nd meeting of the CITES Standing Committee in 2012 (SC62), and the 16th CITES Conference of the Parties in 2013 (CoP16), the symposium has provided the necessary knowledge base for a broad, more balanced policy discussion within the European Union regarding the role of rural communities in CITES decision-making processes, as well as options to enhance the current CITES Strategic Vision once it will be extended beyond 2013. Working group reports will form the basis for an EU position paper which, once agreed on by the member states of the European Union, will form the basis for strategic steps for the EU to take at SC62 and CITES CoP16. Overall, the symposium output should allow for more informed positions of the European Union at CITES Conferences of the Parties on species listing proposals as well as on proposals to change the annotations of species listings (e.g. specifying trade options). In addition, it has identified important links between CITES and other relevant multilateral instruments, especially within the CBD, or the proposed Intergovernmental Panel for Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES), to further strengthen rural communities in developing countries. And it provides guidance on how best to proceed with existing Memoranda of Understanding between CITES and other organizations like the IUCN, CMS, FAO and UNCTAD (UN Conference on Trade and Development), to maximize relevant synergies with these organizations.

The emphasis should not so much be on how rural communities can serve CITES, but rather what CITES needs to do to better address the livelihood interests of rural communities and, by extension, to achieve more effective implementation of the Convention. In combination with international trade controls and national enforcement, this supports the spirit of the preamble of the CITES convention text where it states that *"peoples and States are and should be the best protectors of their own wild fauna and flora"*.

Agribusiness Boom Threatens Key African Wildlife Migration

Fred Pearce

Unreported, an environmental tragedy is unfolding in a remote corner of Africa, on the borders of the newly-designated state of South Sudan that could imperil the second-largest mammal migration on the African continent. Most of us know about Africa's largest migration, the millions of wildebeest and their attendant predators who race across the Serengeti plains of east Africa in search of water each year. It is the stuff of countless photographs and hundreds of TV natural history programs. But how many have heard of the second-largest migration? I certainly hadn't until I stumbled on it last month in the Ethiopian region of Gambella.

As we drove into the bush, the track ahead was alive with large animals. From the far distance they looked like cattle, but it soon became clear they were antelope. As we drew closer, their numbers grew, and they began running. I could see a dense column stretching in all directions. They numbered many thousands, with warthogs in among them, darting through the tall wet grass between a series of ponds and heading toward the Baro River, a tributary of the Nile. But as the antelope ran I saw, not far away on the horizon, bulldozers and plumes of smoke. Someone else wanted this rich grassland and its water. This bush would soon be transformed — and the future of the great migration in grave doubt.

My guides said the antelope were white-eared kob. Along with the Nile lechwe, another endangered antelope, and the giant shoebill stork, they were the main reason for the creation back in 1974 of the Gambella National Park. The 5,000-square-kilometer park occupies much of Gambella, which is a thinly-populated appendix to the far southwestern corner of Ethiopia. Geographically and ethnically, the swampy lowlands of Gambella look as if they should be in the neighboring new state of South Sudan, which was formed in January when Sudan was formally divided in two. Gambella's tall, jet-black skinned Anuak and Nuer tribes are very different from the lighter-skinned peoples of highland Ethiopia. And the vicissitudes of war in Sudan and pogroms in Gambella have seen a constant flow of refugees across the border.

South Sudan is where most of the white-eared kob I saw came from, traveling across the open woodland bush at the end of the dry season in search of Gambella's open water and wetlands. More than a million of them are estimated to come this way each year, along with a scattering of elephants and giraffes. But the park that is supposed to protect them is little more than a mark on the map. Two years ago, the Ethiopian ministry of agriculture declared that, whatever its wildlife credentials, the park had "a huge agricultural investment potential." And now the ministry is seeking

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to realize that potential through a series of major leases to foreign agribusinesses. Some 400,000 hectares, an area 80 times the size of Manhattan, much of it within the 1974 boundary of the park, has been promised so far.

Drive west from Gambella town, the capital of the region, and for most of the two hours it takes to reach Nyininyang near the Sudanese border, you are in the concession of the Indian firm [Karuturi Global Limited](#). Take the road south and the bush suddenly gives way to the vast compound of the other large investor, Saudi oil billionaire Sheik Mohammed Hussein Ali Al Amoudi. Both concessions are being developed at a breakneck pace with heavy machinery everywhere, clearing forests, draining swamps, and installing irrigation systems. Bush along the roads is burned and, as the dry season ended in late February, smoke plumes dotted the horizon. Al Ahmoudi's company, Saudi Star, is constructing a 30-km canal from an old unused state reservoir to irrigate tens of thousands of hectares of rice paddy. But so far the lead actor is Karuturi. The Indian company is the world's largest grower of roses, claiming 10 percent of the global market. But when we met in Karuturi's compound by the road an hour west of Gambella town at Iliya, its local project director, Karmjeet Singh Sekhon, resplendent in turban and long twirling moustache, told me the world rose market was now saturated. So Karuturi is moving into other products. And that is bad news for the white-eared kob and much else.

Until recently, there were no roads around Iliya, except the main dirt road west. But the Karuturi concession will soon have 600 kilometers of roads. Within a couple of years, Sekhon expects to have 100,000 hectares under cultivation, with another 200,000 hectares awaiting the go-ahead. Every square meter of bush has been surveyed. His 15 huge John Deere tractors are ploughing 500 hectares a day. "This May we will plant 35,000 hectares of rice, 10,000 hectares of maize, and 10,000 hectares of sorghum," he told me. Some 20,000 hectares of oil palm and sugar cane will be added soon. This is land clearance on a gigantic scale.

"The soil is excellent," he said. "It's virgin land. You can grow anything here. We have no land like this in India. There you are lucky to get 1 percent of organic matter in the soil. Here it is more than 5 percent. We don't need fertilizer or herbicides."

Within five years, Sekhon expects to have 50,000 people living within the concession area, working its fields and operating processing mills in three townships. But locals expect most of the jobs to go to highlanders, which they contend routinely happens when businesses come into this region.

There is also growing concern about what is happening to the land. One former ranger at the park told me that Karuturi's engineers were draining the large Duma swamp 30 kilometers south of the highway and deep inside the Gambella National Park. It is one of the last refuges of the endangered Nile lechwe. And there is the kob migration, which appears to run right through Karuturi's concession.

I asked Sekhon about the wildlife. Yes, he said, the animals on his land were a "problem." What about the park? On my map all the land for the 60-km stretch from Baro River in the north to the Gilo River in the south is part of the national park. At least part of that is on the concession. But he said he knew of no rules that prevented Karuturi from cultivating its concession. He may be right. It turns out that the park, though marked on maps, has never been formally gazetted. In any case, according to Cherie Enawgaw of the [Ethiopian Wildlife Conservation Authority](#), a government agency, the park may have a handful of rangers but it has "no management plan and no clear indicated boundary."

What angers Ethiopian environmentalists are that alternative economic uses such as tourism have not been explored. Sanne van Aarst of the [Horn of Africa Regional Environment Centre](#) at Addis Ababa University says Gambella has the same potential as the Serengeti and Maasai Mara tourist "hotspots" in Kenya and Tanzania. Instead, the government has asked the conservation authority to "re-demarcate" the park's boundaries. There are three options, according to Enawgaw. Each involves moving the park boundaries south and west by several tens of kilometers to make way for the new concessions. But his own maps of sightings of wildlife, produced to help with the demarcation, show that the plan will allow migration paths to be blocked and "wildlife core areas" ploughed up.

Many of the local Anuak people, who farm small areas and hunt in the park, are not happy. I talked to a small group that had refused to move from their village right next to the Saudi Star canal and a road that ran right through their old fields. "We used to hunt with dogs, but after the farm came the animals here disappeared," said Omot Ochan, sitting by an open fire on an old waterbuck skin and eating corn from a bowl. "Two years ago they began chopping down the forest and the bees went away. We used to sell honey. Now we only have fish." He insisted the company had no right to be there. "Everything for two days' walk from here is ours," he said. But nobody is listening. Another truck rumbled past his straw hut, shattering the silence of the bush and creating a cloud of dust. After it had gone, I noticed a large, dead stork in the road.

Park rangers sporadically chase Anuak hunters through the swamp grasses, which can grow up to three meters high. On the road to Nyininyang, I spotted a small gang with dogs, rifles and a couple of chestnut-colored kob slung over their shoulders. Elsewhere, we drove through dense smoke and flames that darted across the road, set by hunters trying to corral their prey.

Back in Gambella town in the evening, as power gave out in the old government hotel, I spoke to a park official. He took note of my report on the hunters. He would send his people out in the morning to check if they were still there. But on the subject of the land grabbers — the real threat to wildlife in the park — he could only shrug his shoulders. It wasn't his business. And what is happening in Gambella is probably just the start for this forgotten corner of Africa. Across the border, the emerging government of

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the soon-to-be official nation of South Sudan is entertaining would-be agricultural investors in its capital, Juba. As in Gambella, the land of South Sudan is fertile, well watered and, by modern standards, hugely under-populated. It is ripe for land grab. Environmentalists fear that the crown jewel of the upper basin of the White Nile could be under threat — the vast swampland known as the Sudd. Investors are eyeing its water to irrigate huge plantations, says Jane Madgwick, the head of Wetlands International, a Dutch-based NGO that wants a global campaign to resist the move.

In recent decades, few outsiders have visited these areas. They have become almost mythical gardens of Eden, surrounded by civil war. But, now that peace has broken out in southern Sudan, the economic dividend may be wholesale ecological destruction.

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The Growing Involvement Of Foreign NGOs In Setting Policy Agendas and Political Decision-Making In Africa

Mike Norton-Griffiths

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Introduction

Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and civil society organizations (CSOs) are big business in Kenya (IDS, 2007), growing from some 840 organizations in 1997 to some 4,100 in 2005. Although statistics are a bit vague, the entire sector would appear to provide some 300,000 full-time jobs, equal to almost 50% of the entire public service workforce, and contributing some 3% of GDP. More than 80% of all NGO funding in Kenya is provided by multilateral and bilateral donors (IDS, 2007).

There has been a marked trend since the 1990s for NGOs and CSOs to evolve from primarily service delivery organizations to direct action, advocacy and involvement with setting government policy agendas and other political decision-making. This gradual involvement of NGOs in the body politic rather than the body civic raises a raft of questions concerning representation and accountability – especially when the NGOs and/or CSOs in question are foreign or are funded by foreign organizations.

Two contemporary case studies from Kenya illustrate the potential dangers that arise when foreign NGOs become too

involved in the formulation and drafting of domestic policy and political decision-making. The first deals with the recent review of current wildlife conservation policy, the drafting of a new wildlife conservation policy, and the drafting of a new wildlife conservation and management Bill. The second deals with the formulation and drafting of the Draft National Land Policy.

In both cases, the involvement of foreign NGOs has gone past what many would deem appropriate, especially in promoting their own special agendas rather than those of ordinary Kenyans. They also demonstrate how fine the line is that divides super-efficient political lobbying from malfeasance.

Case study 1: wildlife conservation and management policy

Despite hundreds of millions of dollars of wildlife rents captured by the tourism industry and tens of millions of dollars pumped into conservation by donors and NGOs, Kenya today is facing a genuine conservation crisis. Eighty per cent of her wildlife has vanished over the last 30 years, indicative perhaps that all is not well with conservation policy (Norton-Griffiths *et al.*, 2008; Western *et al.*, 2009). There is a strong economic component to this loss of wildlife. Loss rates are lower where tourists go than where they do not; lower on adjudicated compared with unadjudicated land; lower where there is transparent revenue-sharing between protected areas and surrounding communities; and there are no losses – indeed even increases in wildlife – where landowners manage their own tourism ventures rather than rely on outside agents

The diversion of the great majority (certainly 95%) of wildlife rents away from the producer side to the service side of the industry undermines incentives to conserve wildlife. The uncompetitive returns from wildlife compared with those from livestock or agriculture create incentives for landowners to convert any rangeland with agricultural potential to cultivation, with the elimination of wildlife

These perverse incentives are created, or at least exacerbated, by restrictions on landowners' ability to benefit from investments in conservation, especially by the ban on all consumptive uses of wildlife. Since 1977 it has been illegal to use wildlife for sport hunting, cropping, ranching, live capture and sale, or any of the value-added industries of taxidermy, trophies and souvenirs. Although the great majority of wildlife in Kenya is found outside the state-owned Protected Areas on the 500,000 km² of land owned and used primarily by Kenyan pastoralists, the wildlife-based, photo-tourism sector is restricted to just 5% of this wildlife habitat. Outside this small area wildlife became purely a cost to landowners and users.

These costs are high: wildlife adds 17% to livestock operating costs and reduces operating profits by 50%. The first effort to improve matters came in December 2004 when the national assembly passed the Wildlife (Conservation and Management) (Amendment) Bill (2004). Key amendments to the

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existing 1976 Act were that the Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) should be answerable to its Board rather than to the government; that landowners and users should have Board representation and more influence in running the KWS; and that compensation for wildlife damage to life and property should be increased.

The response of the animal welfare lobby in Kenya was immediate: 'spontaneous' street demonstrations erupted and 'million-signature petitions' were submitted to State House, supported (and funded) by the International Fund for Animal Welfare (IFAW), ActionAid and the Born Free Foundation along with a plethora of local conservation NGOs.

The President was also subjected to intensive lobbying by IFAW and the US-based Humane Society. These groups argued that the Bill would lead to the reintroduction of sport hunting and they threatened to use their influence to dissuade tourists from visiting Kenya if that happened.

The lobbying was successful. The Bill was presented for Presidential assent on 31 December 2004, but assent was refused on 3 January 2005. Clearly, the overseas animal welfare lobby had more power in Kenya than did the Kenyan parliamentarians themselves.

In September 2006 the government announced a major review of conservation policy with the objective of drafting a new policy and a new bill. A steering committee was established, the National Taskforce on Wildlife Policy, along with a drafting team, and opinion was sought throughout the country in the course of two national seminars and 22 regional meetings.

From the outset it was clear that the animal welfare lobby was already well prepared. Not only did they achieve a strong over-representation on the National Taskforce but ActionAid (which in Kenya is vehemently anti private landowners and supports extreme minority land rights issues) brought in paid activists that reduced each of the national seminars and most of the regional meetings to sterile shouting matches about the reintroduction of sport hunting.⁴ IFAW also orchestrated a genuinely brilliant anti-sport hunting media campaign on television, radio and in the press, with anti-hunting posters in the streets and at Nairobi's international airport. Equally effectively, they were able to deny access to the media for mainstream conservation organizations to present their views.

Finally, there appeared as if from nowhere, a plethora of grassroots conservation NGOs, all with strong anti-sport hunting agendas. For example, the Kenya Wildlife Conservation and Management Network and the Kenya Coalition for Wildlife Conservation and Management shared between them 70% of their NGO members, not one of which had been registered with the Kenyan NGO Co-ordination Board. Bizarrely, neither had IFAW itself registered so it was technically operating illegally within Kenya.

Nonetheless, the still largely independent drafting team did produce a draft Wildlife (Conservation and Management) Policy (2007) which recognized the need for economic incentives for landowners to husband and invest in wildlife conservation. The door was left open for the reintroduction of a whole range of consumptive uses, although sport hunting itself was specifically placed far away in the future.

The response of the animal welfare lobby to the new policy document was chilling. At a meeting of the Kenya Wildlife Conservation and Management Network held at the Nomad Hotel on the Kitengela on 13 March 2007, funded by ActionAid, it was resolved that were sport hunting to be reintroduced into Kenya then field militia would be armed to track down the hunters in the field and shoot them to death. The response of the animal welfare lobby was also very practical. The drafting team of the Steering Committee, which was by then working on the draft Bill, was summarily dismissed and the Bill was drafted by a single IFAW consultant. The resulting draft Wildlife (Conservation and Management) Bill (2007) in no way expressed the spirit of the Policy, pandered solely to the interests of the animal welfare lobby and completely ignored the very real conservation issues facing Kenya.

In discussions with the animal welfare lobby it was clear they had no real interest in wildlife conservation. If wildlife continues to disappear because of the lack of incentives to land users they are indifferent, just so long as consumptive use is not reintroduced. And if the Bill perpetuates rural poverty by denying wildlife revenue streams to marginalized, pastoral communities they are indifferent so long as sport hunting, bird shooting and sport fishing is not allowed.

Case study 2: the National Land Policy

The Draft National Land Policy (DNLP) started as Chapter 7, the 'land chapter', in the 'Bomas' draft constitution which was rejected in the national referendum in November 2005. There was strong cross-party rejection of Chapter 7 which was widely seen to represent an outright attack on private property and tenure rights by shifting the control over land from owners and users to central government.

An important actor in drafting the Land Chapter was ActionAid which was instrumental in creating and funding the Kenya Land Alliance (KLA), an umbrella group of NGOs all active in the field of poverty alleviation, land issues, gender issues, youth and HIV/AIDS. However, not only is the KLA itself not listed on the NGO Co-ordination Board database,⁸ only 20 of the 60 NGO members listed on its website⁹ are registered.

The Ministry of Lands established in 2005 a National Land Policy Secretariat, working through six thematic groups and sub-groups. These groups were technically open to wide participation by government agencies, NGOs and CSOs, but always with the Kenya Land Alliance playing a prominent,

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gatekeeper role. As a result, private sector interests were rarely represented.

In the course of 2005 and 2006 some 14 Regional Consultations on land issues were held around the country, the results of which were '... subject to extensive commentary from stakeholders and considerable publicity and broad public consultation ...' (KLA, 2008). A final draft on the DNLP received 'unanimous approval' at a stakeholder symposium in Nairobi in April 2007 and, despite the expression of significant reservations by a number of parties, the Draft National Land Policy (2007)¹⁰ was approved by the Ministry of Lands in May 2007.

In addition to this, the KLA held a further five regional workshops, and formulated for the Land Policy Secretariat a Civil Society Position Paper and five Policy Briefs on a range of issues including historical injustices, land management and administration, community and minority rights issues.

The Ministry of Lands was clearly of the opinion that it had opened the policy formulation process as widely as possible to all stakeholders, that it had publicized the process both to the body politic and the body civic, and that it had run a genuinely participatory process. Yet despite the claimed wide consultative process, more than 87% of the population at large, especially those in the commercial agricultural, banking, legal and manufacturing sectors, remained completely unaware that any land policy formulation process was even under way.

Many are now of the opinion that the over-reliance by the Ministry on a single organization, the Kenya Land Alliance, created either by accident or by design a self-selecting group with a restricted and unbalanced agenda and which actively excluded the participation of those with different and conflicting views.

By concentrating primarily on minority rights, social issues and historical injustices, an imbalance has been created in the DNLP, especially with regards to the rights and expectations of private leaseholders and freeholders in agricultural lands, and of customary, group and private land users in pastoral lands.

Specific provisions of real threat to economic well-being and to the protection of property rights¹¹ include the confiscation (without compensation) of all pastoral land rights and their transfer to a centralized bureaucracy; the confiscation (without compensation) of 999-year leaseholds, and conversion to 99-year leaseholds; the confiscation (without compensation) of all freeholds owned by non-citizens and conversion to 99-year leaseholds; the imposition of severe encumbrances on the transfer of freehold titles; and the repeal of the Registered Land Act (1963),¹² thus opening every land title to legal challenge.

The DNLP thus stands a good chance of alienating some nine million pastoralists and the 36 MPs making up the Pastoral Parliamentary Group, along with some 3.5 million holders of agricultural, commercial and domestic freehold titles. In a way,

each of these provisions does address a real injustice or problem, but there is now a very real danger that, to redress the misfortunes and injustices of the few, the DNLP will create even greater misfortunes and injustices for the many.

A major consequence of many of the provisions in the DNLP will be to seriously weaken the property rights of landowners and landusers, whether pastoral, agricultural, commercial or domestic, and concentrate the ownership, management and control of land within a centralized government bureaucracy. Perversely, the DNLP will be creating the very conditions under which political and economic elites find it easiest to alienate and appropriate land (i.e. steal it) from their rightful owners and users.

Lessons from the case studies

We are dealing here at best with circumstantial evidence: smoke and mirrors rather than smoking guns. Each individual action of these NGOs is in a way above reproach, just the sort of thing NGOs should be doing. Yet when looked at as a strategy they present a more malign picture.

The same four key elements are present in both case studies: the foreign NGOs; the façade of local organisations to give a semblance of political legitimacy; embedding in the body politic; and controlling the policy formulation process by manipulating access to meetings and to the media.

Foreign NGOs: In both case studies the policy agendas were in reality being driven by well-funded and highly motivated foreign NGOs rather than by the hopes and aspirations of Kenyan citizens. The draft Wildlife (Conservation and Management) Policy (2007) and the Wildlife (Conservation and Management) Bill (2007) were driven by the determination of the International

Fund for Animal Welfare and their allies not to allow consumptive use of wildlife to be reintroduced into Kenya, whatever the consequences might be for wildlife conservation or rural poverty. Similarly, the main provisions of the Draft National Land Policy (2007) were driven by ActionAid, working through the façade of the KLA, which in Kenya campaigns viscerally against the private ownership of land while supporting extreme minority land rights issues through advocacy and direct action.

The façade of local NGOs and CSOs: 'Upper-case' NGOs are assumed to represent the public interest. To create a semblance of political legitimacy for their policy agendas both IFAW and ActionAid established close networks with existing local NGOs: IFAW established them with Born Free, Youth for Conservation and the Sheldrick Trust; and ActionAid established them with the Kenya Land Alliance.

More controversially, both were instrumental in creating and funding a plethora of new local NGOs, all looking and sounding good and all promoting the same policy agendas. However, on closer inspection, many of these NGOs seem to exist on paper only and few appear to be registered with Kenya's NGO Council or elsewhere. These unregistered NGOs, including IFAW

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and the KLA themselves, are technically acting illegally in Kenya. The KLA also claimed widespread endorsement for the DNLP from 'lower-case' NGOs, a wide range of professional bodies, associations and trades unions. Too often, the endorsement of a professional body for the DNLP turned out to be that of an individual member speaking solely on his own behalf. There was no evidence that the membership of any of these professional associations had in fact been polled.

Embedding in the body politic: Both IFAW and the KLA became deeply embedded within the body politic. IFAW did this within the Kenya Wildlife Service and the Ministry of Forestry and Wildlife by providing funding for projects and programs, equipment and salary supplements; the KLA did so within the National Land Policy Secretariat of the Ministry of Lands by providing (donor-funded) logistical support for the 14 regional seminars and five regional workshops, and drafting a Civil Society Position Paper and five Policy Briefs.

Acquiring control over the policy formulation process: From these privileged positions it proved straightforward to obtain control over the policy formulation process. In both cases, access to the body politic was closely controlled especially for groups with alternative ideas and agendas. There was over-representation on the policy Steering Committee (IFAW) and on the Policy Drafting Team (KLA); control of access to the policy and drafting meetings (KLA); disruption to national and regional seminars and meetings (both ActionAid and IFAW); and launching 'on behalf of the government' a strong media campaign while simultaneously denying media access to those holding contrary views. Finally, in the case of IFAW, there was actual involvement in drafting the new Wildlife (Conservation and Management) Bill (2007).

The role of donors: The National Land Policy Secretariat in the Ministry of Lands and Housing has received significant and consistent support from the donor community. The position of the donors is very straightforward: they claim to be 'enabling' the policy formulation process with financial and logistical support, all as part of agreed bilateral or multilateral support for the government of Kenya. What Kenya actually does with the funds and logistical support is up to them, and they (the donors) have no input at all into the policy itself, just to the formulation process.

In arguing this the donors are disingenuous in two respects. Firstly, when donors openly boast of their support and sponsorship for a policy formulation process, and when this process goes so disastrously wrong, as this one clearly has, then errors of commission and omission on their behalf are near certain, despite protestations to the contrary. Secondly, as the groundswell of opinion challenging a number of provisions in the DNLP developed and formalized, first through the somewhat unlikely vehicle of the Machakos and Makueni Ranchers' Association and later through the Kenya Landowners' Association (KELA), the

response of the donor community, especially the UK government's Department for International Development and also UN Habitat, was at first dismissive but rapidly became actively hostile, to the extent of denying admittance to representatives of the Kenya Landowners' Association at key meetings and seminars, and actively lobbying against KELA within the body politic.

Despite protestations to the contrary, the donor community (with the notable exception of USAID) was in fact highly biased against and partisan with regard to any meaningful involvement by private sector interests in the policy formulation process.

Issues of NGO governance in Kenya

NGOs are regulated in Kenya under the Non-Governmental Organizations Co-Ordination Act (No. 19 of 1990) and the Non-Governmental Organizations Co-Ordination Act Regulations of 1992. Under Section 10 of this Act it became mandatory for all NGOs and CSOs to register with the Non-Governmental Organizations Co-Ordination Board and illegal to operate an organisation that fell within the definition of an NGO or CSO unless it had been so registered. After registration they must apply for membership of the NGO Council, a national umbrella organisation responsible for representing the interests of its members, for devising self-regulation policies and for enforcing compliance. To date, only 606 of the 4,100 NGOs are registered with a further 620 in the process of registration.

The 1995 Code of Conduct for NGOs issued by the NGO Council was very general, stipulating, for example, that '... every registered organization shall observe the cardinal values of probity, self-regulation, justice, service, co-operation, prudence and respect ...'. These were defined in such vague terms as to be not very useful. Further guidelines dealing primarily with the constitution and operation of NGO Boards were issued in 2001.

The current Act, and its regulatory infrastructure, is by general agreement now seen to be badly outdated and simply unable to cater for the contemporary numbers, growth and diversity in the NGO sector. Matters have been made worse by the endless wrangling for position within the NGO Council; by a marked decline in professional standards throughout Kenya; and by the continuing dependence in the NGO sector for finance from outside the country: as noted in the introduction, more than 80% of all NGO funding is provided by multilateral and bilateral donors (IDS, 2007). In Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2006/22,23 the government created the legal basis for reviewing and replacing the current Act and the regulatory environment, and for harmonizing the overlapping and often contradictory legislation under which different kinds of NGOs and CSOs can register and operate.

The paper also recognizes the need to significantly strengthen the abilities of the regulatory committee of the NGO Council both to set standards and to monitor and enforce compliance. To this extent, the government of Kenya is in tune

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with worldwide trends in the regulation of NGOs and CSOs. However, while all these initiatives primarily address issues of accountability to beneficiaries and supporters, quality and effectiveness of programs, financial management and governance, there seem to be no moves to address the problems of representation and accountability when NGOs and CSOs become involved with setting policy agendas and political decision-making.

There is little doubt that, in both case studies, these foreign NGOs have deliberately pushed through their single-issue agendas which will result in unbalanced policies and legislation that are not in the real interest of either Kenya or of its citizens. This focuses on an important point concerning governance. These NGOs have power without accountability. This is a heady and dangerous mix. They fail the most basic test of good governance in that they are neither elected nor transparent, nor are they accountable to those whose interests they claim to represent. It is this matter of representation that is so critical, for people who are not elected and who are not accountable to any duly elected and broadly representative legislature simply cannot claim any representative status. The notion that an NGO or CSO – whether international or national – has any rights to speak 'on behalf of' the people of a country has no basis, especially when that country has a democratically elected and responsible Government. The most they can claim is to speak on behalf of a special-interest group with all that implies.

By what right can the million or so members of IFAW in North America and Europe impose on Kenya their views on the consumptive use of wildlife, especially if wildlife then continues to decline from a lack of economic incentives to landowners and users? Similarly, by what right can ActionAid impose on Kenya its views on the socialization of land, especially if weakened tenure and weakened property rights lead to even more corrupt land deals by a centralized and unaccountable bureaucracy. What redress does Kenya have if these policies turn out to be 'wrong'.

Why did this happen in Kenya?

The impact of corruption is more than the mere diversion of public or donor funds to meet private ends. This is relatively trivial. The true legacy of the Kenyatta and Moi eras has been the gradual degradation of the body politic into a tight network of complicity, supported and shielded by lazy and compliant donors, the gradual erosion of the legal system to create a culture of impunity; and the degradation of the body civic, primarily through the erosion of educational standards.

This legacy of corruption has had two major impacts on Kenya. Firstly, a massive Diaspora of more than a million of the best educated and most entrepreneurial of Kenyans. Secondly, a political and moral vacuum within Kenya into which foreign NGOs with their single-issue agendas find it easy to insinuate themselves.

To Skin A Cat: Southern Africa's Leopards In Peril

According to Bandile Mkhize, chief executive of, Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife, leopard skin regalia are traditionally reserved for chiefs but apparently now many members of the Shemba Church want them. Kings and chiefs, including President Jacob Zuma, are required to follow certain procedures and obtain permits if they wanted to wear the pelts of protected species.

Each year, massive numbers of skins are procured by members of the Shembe Nazareth Baptist church for traditional ceremonies; most of these leopard pelts apparently are supplied through muti traders without permits. The church, only 100 years old, is deeply rooted in the Zulu culture. A witness who attended several Shembe events saw more than 2,000 members wearing real leopard skins

Enoch Mthembu, the spokesperson for the Shembe church, sees nothing wrong with muti traders supplying church members. "God gave us the environment and control over the animals. We wear leopard skins to worship God, not to enrich ourselves," he said according to an article by Fiona McLeod. The Shembes wear leopard regalia for dancing ceremonies, not for traditional purposes in the manner of Zulu nobility, he said. "It's wrong to point fingers at the Shembe; this is part of our culture." The religion, with an estimated 4.5-million followers, is based on reverence for nature and uses various animal skins for positive, peaceful purposes, Mthembu added. A ceremonial outfit made of leopard skin, which includes an apron, headdress and armbands, costs more than R 6,000.

Local leopard researchers said they respected the church's traditional practices and that there is a need to win over Shembe Church leaders to protect Southern Africa's leopard populations. Experts are exploring solutions which would not trample the Shembe's traditional practices. "The approach has always been to find a solution-based approach and the strongest tradition that we have come up with is to produce a high quality fake fur at a reasonable price, which would then take the demand off people having to own the real thing," said Greg Lomas, who is part of a team filming a documentary called *To Skin a Cat*. For more on this project visit www.toskinacat.org.

