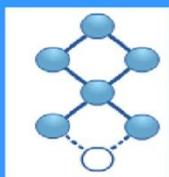
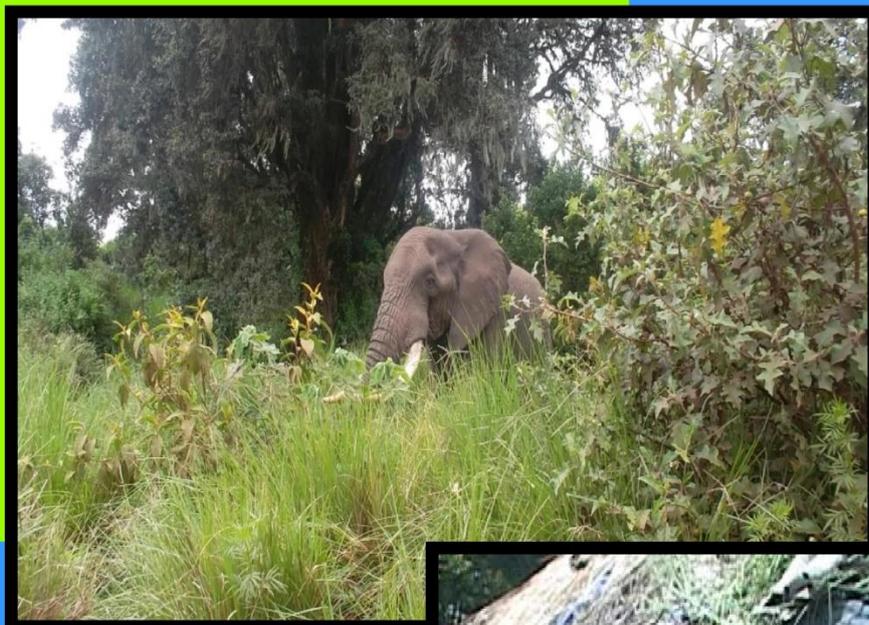


CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY IN THE WILDLIFE SECTOR

A CASE STUDY OF VILLAGES WITHIN AND NEIGHBOURING WILDLIFE
PROTECTED AREAS IN NORTHERN TANZANIA



ANGONET



JUNE 2015

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Tanzania has abundance of natural resources, including wildlife, cultural and tourism attractions that are in use or has a potential for development. It is expected that, wildlife resources should significantly contribute to the national development including welfare of communities living adjacent and within wildlife protected areas. It is for that reason, ANGONET with the support of the Finnish NGO platform (Kepa), undertook this study to assess the contribution of the wildlife sector under the concept of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in Northern Tanzania. Case study design was applied and the study combined the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods. In total, 566 respondents were sampled using stratified random and purposive sampling.

The study findings revealed that, lack of clarity about the concept of Corporate Social Responsibility as a form of benefit sharing mechanism is a contentious matter, whether it is voluntary or mandatory has contributed to add confusion in its implementation. About 50% of the respondents had an idea about the concept, however, not very familiar with its implementation procedures and how best performance can be measured in terms of success and challenges. Furthermore the findings revealed that about 75% of the respondents acknowledged the usefulness of wildlife in their areas, yet high dissatisfaction was expressed regarding socio-economic impacts of wildlife. Loss of life, properties and other forms of damages caused by marauding animals outweigh the benefits gains by communities living adjacent and within wildlife protected areas.

Lack of accountability, transparency and anti-corruption measures were reported and 39% of the respondents declared that government employees and those from the private investors are involved in corruption scandals in the wildlife sector. It is further claimed that most of leaders and staff in the government at all level, i.e. from the central government to village government, were not accountable and effective in providing appropriate measures towards investors and staff in public institutions to comply with the principles of good

governance and rules of law. Respondents reported on insufficient transparency regarding the terms and conditions of the agreements signed between the private companies investing in the wildlife sector and the government authorities. This is justified with the evidence from the case of Burunge Wildlife Management Area (WMA). During 2011 – 2012, the Maramboi Tented Lodge, a company operating in the Burunge WMA as accommodation provider, remitted TZS 568,507,200.00 to the Burunge WMA through Wildlife Division following the terms of the Memorandum of Understanding between the Burunge WMA and Accommodation Company. However, the report provided by the Burunge WMA shows that they have received only TZS 473,738,859.93 from the above mentioned company. There is a difference of almost TZS 95 million between the figures given by the private company and the Burunge WMA and no clear explanation was given for the missing TZS 95 million.

The study recommends on effective measures to address corruption practices, enhance accountability and transparency in wildlife management, promote benefit sharing and observe human rights. Disclosure of revenue earned and taxes paid by the investors and other stakeholders in the wildlife industry need to be more mandatory to ensure quality livelihoods are attained in Tanzania.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

On behalf of ANGONET and Kepa, the research team acknowledges the contribution and the support of all individuals and institutions which facilitated to the completion of this study. We are particularly, grateful to the Village Chairpersons, Village Executive Officers, Ward Councilors and Ward Executive Officers for their support and useful contributions.

We are thankful to Mr. Petro Ahham, from MESO, who also play role in the leadership of ANGONET, for his outstanding contribution to this study. Sincere appreciation is extended to Mr. Peter Bayo Executive Secretary, ANGONET for his contribution and commitment towards completion of this study. Many thanks to Ms. Jovitha Mlay for her distinctive and analytical views, and to Mr. Justice Joseph, Program Officer at ANGONET for his valuable and insightful contribution to this study. Special thanks go to Ms Linda Lönnqvist, Ms Eva Nilsson and Mr. Masud Hossain from Kepa for their support and encouragement towards accomplishment of the study. We are very much thankful to Dr. Victor Runyoro for his guidance and contribution in planning, designing and supervising the quantitative part of the report in collaboration with the research team. We also thank Dr. Theresia Olemako and Ms. Victoris Mushi for proof reading and editing the document.

Others who worked tirelessly as part of the research team include Ms Linda Mollel, Ms Martha Kaaya, Stella Laizer, Mr. James Makyao and Ms Prisca Mwakalasi. We are very grateful to all respondents both at the household level and group discussion, from the private sector to government institutions within the wildlife sector and all members who participated in the validation meetings. Thanks to different NGOs and CSOs working in Arusha and Manyara regions participated fully both in the field and during countless meetings where positive criticism were made towards shaping this work. We are also very grateful to Regional Secretariat of Arusha and Manyara regions, District Authorities for Ngorongoro, Karatu, Monduli, Babati and

Ward/ village leaders where this work was undertaken for granting permission for this study to take place in their areas of jurisdiction.

Last but not least, we highly appreciate and feel honored to have worked and shared knowledge with members of the community, government institutions and members of the private sector within the context of this study. Hopefully, the study will help us to gain some deeper insights of the wildlife sector in terms of its contribution to the socio-economic development of the local communities and thus enrich our knowledge about the nexus between wildlife sector and corporate social responsibility.

ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS

ANGONET	Arusha Non-Governmental Organization Network
AWF	African Wildlife Foundation
CAG	Controller and Audit General
CBC	Community-Based Conservation
CBO	Community-Based Organization
CCS	Community Conservation Services
CSO	Civil Society Organization
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
DG	Director General
ECF	East Coast Fever
GCA	Game Controlled Area
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GRs	Game Reserves
GMP	General Management Plan
ISO	International Organization for Standardization
IUCN	International Union for the Conservation of Nature
JUHIBU	Jumuiya ya Hifadhi ya Burunge
Kepa	The Finnish NGO Platform
Km ²	Square Kilometres
Kshs	Kenya Shillings
LGA	Local Government Authority
LMNP	Lake Manyara National Park
MCF	Malignant Catarrh Fever
MESO	Multi- Environmental Society
MNRT	Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism
NCA	Ngorongoro Conservation Area
NCAA	Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority
NEMC	National Environment Management Council
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NHFR	Northern Highland Forest Reserve

NPC	Ngorongoro Pastoralist Council
NRC	National Research Council
NSGRP	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
OBC	Ortello Business Corporation
PA	Protected Area
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
SCIP	Support for Community Initiated Projects
SENAPA	Serengeti National Park
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
TANAPA	Tanzania National Parks
TATO	Tanzania Association of Tour Operators
TAWIRI	Tanzania Wildlife Research Institute
TEMP	Tanzania Elephant Management Plan
TEPs	Tanzania Elephant Protection society
TNRF	Tanzania Natural Resources Forum
TRAFFIC	Trade Records Analysis of Flora and Fauna in Commerce
TZS	Tanzania Shillings
TWPF	Tanzania Wildlife Protection Fund
US\$	United States of America Dollar
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
USAID	United State Agency for International Development
VEO	Village Executive Officer
WCA	Wildlife Conservation Act
WD	Wildlife Division
WEO	Ward Executive Officer
WMA	Wildlife Management Area

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background Information

This study presents findings on the state of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in wildlife protected areas and adjacent communities in Northern Tanzania. CSR is the concept that is currently gaining attention and consideration in business throughout the world, nevertheless consensual definition of the model is lacking and conflicting debate with respect to its implementation. The motive behind this study is prevalence of extreme poverty in villages adjacent or within wildlife protected areas. The intention is to reverse the trend of resource curse to blessing. The role of wildlife sector is to ensure communities within and adjacent to conservation areas benefit and actively engage in conservation of wildlife resource.

The study was organized in a joint collaboration between ANGONET¹ and Kepa² and definition of CSR was adopted under International Standards ISO 26000. The definition highlighted CSR as the responsibility of an organization for the impacts of its decisions and activities on society and the environment through transparency and ethical behaviour. Further, it contributes practically to poverty alleviation and sustainable development including health, education and the welfare of communities living within and adjacent wildlife protected areas. Issues that were highlighted include adherence to human rights, stakeholders' participation in planning and decision making, corruption; free appropriate sharing of benefits among stakeholders, taxation, transparency, accountability and fair deal. For the purpose of this study, CSR refers to *the formal or informal*

¹ ANGONET is a regional network for the CSOs (NGOs/CBOs) which primarily addresses issues concerning policy advocacy, community development, natural resources & environmental conservation and other emerging issues in and outside Arusha region. Currently the number of its members stands at 86 organizations.

² Kepa, an umbrella organization for Finnish CSOs, previously in the year 2013 jointly conducted a CSR study in the mining sector through a case study of Tanzanite mining in Mirerani. Kepa is estimated to have 300 member organizations, ranging from small voluntary-based to major national organizations. Kepa's work mainly involves strengthening civil society organizations both in Finland and in developing countries with the ultimate goal of changing the socio-economic structures and processes that lead to impoverishment.

arrangement which aims to uphold responsibility of group or company's actions that promote a constructive impact through their activities on the environment, employees, communities and the public at large. This definition has been coined as a result of extensive literature review and consideration of practice on the ground in the Tanzanian context with a focus on ethical, economic and general development perspective.

Recognizing the broadness of CSR concept and how the notion is differently comprehended in Tanzania and other countries, this study examined specifically the state of CSR in the Wildlife Sector focusing on the influence of community participation in planning and decision making, benefit sharing mechanism, transparency, accountability, corruption free and human rights. These are the areas, which have mostly been contentious in the Wildlife Sector in Tanzania despite the presence of policies and administrative frameworks for protection and consumption of wildlife resources.

The trend revealed that low level of people's capacity both to effectively participate in decision-making processes and enforce accountability lessened the potential demand for improvement in standards of governance at local and central Government levels.

1.2 Problem Statement and justification

Structural complexity in the institutions responsible for wildlife management in Tanzania is blocking efforts towards a common guiding policy on the implementation of CSR in the country. Absence of guiding policy on the implementation of CSR in the wildlife sector has led to fragmentation of different approaches to execute CSR, a situation that poses great challenge to appraising its effectiveness towards realization of the national goals. Several benefit sharing schemes ranging from Government departments and agencies working under wildlife sector such as Wildlife Division, Tanzania National Parks, Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority (NCAA) to Authorized Associations for Wildlife Management Areas, and the private sector exist with unclear

regulations and guidance on the revenue generated against benefits shared with adjacent communities.

The study is justified as highlighted under the Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania (URT, 1977), the National Development Vision 2025 (URT, 2000), the NSGRP (URT, 2005), the wildlife policy (1998 revised in 2007) and the forestry policy (1998). Further, national policies and several Government reforms for good governance like the Public Service Reform and the Legal Sector Reform on the importance of research in influencing informed decisions and the legitimate role of involving community members in the course of alleviating poverty and economic development. Wildlife sector has been overwhelmed with numerous challenges, including lack of transparency, corruption practice and passive citizen engagement. The study therefore recognise the vital role of civil society such as ANGONET/Kepa in the efforts that address poverty and up-scaling CSR through enhancing good governance ,equitable benefit sharing mechanism, and citizen engagement in the wildlife protected areas and adjacent communities.

1.3 Study Objectives

1.3.1 Overall objective

To strengthen citizen engagement, private sector, Government, CSOs and other key partners towards good governance and management of wildlife resources.

1.3.2 Specific objectives

- (i)** To assess the understanding level of CSR and its implementation by communities, government institutions and the private sectors in the wildlife sector.
- (ii)** To examine the state of benefit sharing mechanism and other rights in promoting prosperity for the communities and key stakeholders in the wildlife sector.
- (iii)** To identify the missing link in implementing CSR within the wildlife sector and provide recommendations.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study anticipates contributing knowledge and understanding of CSR and hence paving ways for further research and means to respond to problem solving in the development and challenges that face the wildlife sector. Now and in the future the findings of this study will provide useful information to the government, NGOs, communities and specifically the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism, (including TANAPA, NCAA WMA and WD) as well as other stakeholders in preparing policies and strategies to transform wildlife sector to its role as a tool for promoting economic development to communities living within and adjacent to protected areas and the country at large.

1.5 Limitation of the Study

The researchers managed to reach almost all intended areas for the study; however, they have encountered some limitations such as lack of willingness for some stakeholders' representatives (i.e. government and private sector) to cooperate fully in providing information on wildlife sector management and practices. "While some of the employees/ staff were cooperative within the same institutions others were not supportive," these include actors such as TANAPA, Ngorongoro Conservation Authority (With an exception of the conservator who was really cooperative), Wildlife Division, Photographic and hunting companies, for example Ortello Business Corporation provided insufficient information with a lot of difficulties which consumed a lot of time for researchers. Moreover, community members have developed fatigue due to multiple research and counters with no or little positive impact to bring a desired change. In addition, researchers have encountered sabotage and conspiracy to influence the study outcomes.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

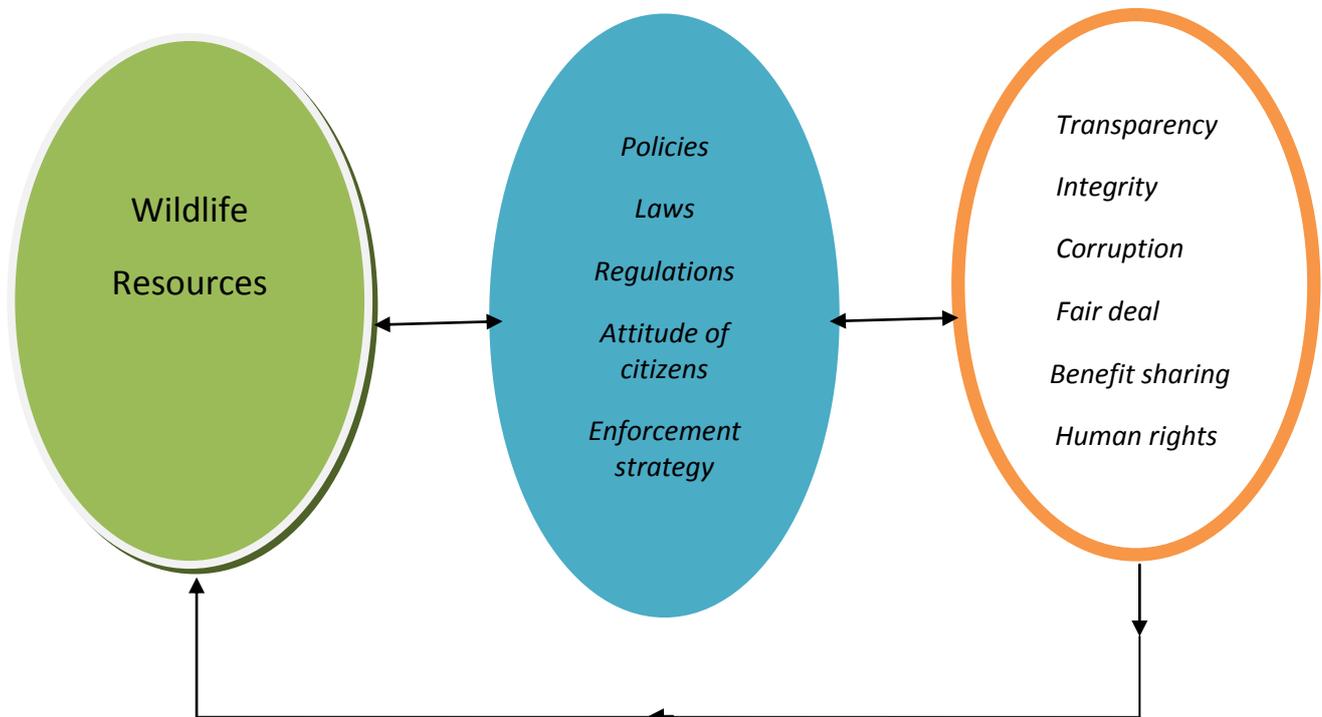
2.1 Conceptual Framework

This involves the researchers' perception of the research problem and the way it influences study direction. Under this study the researchers were interested in relating the variables to assess the understanding of CSR concept and its practical applicability by different stakeholders. The researchers identify CSR in the wildlife sector as independent variable and accountability, benefit sharing, human rights, fair deal, corruption free, transparency as dependent variables. However intervening variables which affect the wildlife sector such as policy, laws and regulations, enforcement strategy, people's perceptions and attitude were identified (Figure 1).

Independent Variable

Intervening Variable

Dependent Variable



Source: ANGONET

Figure 1: Relationship between variables on the state of CSR in wildlife sector in Northern Tanzania.

2.2 Corporate Social Responsibility: The Meaning and application

Studies present various definitions of CSR depending on context and location but the most common is 'the continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life for the workforce and their families as well as of the local community and society at large'. However, others believe CSR arises from deeply held view that business can and should play a role beyond making money or profits. It embraces an understanding that whatever company's actions, they have an effect inside and outside its operational parameters as they can cause either a positive or negative consequences to both societies and their work environment.

There are various definitions and perspectives towards Corporate Social Responsibility based on different schools of thoughts. This has contributed to increasingly further investigation of the CSR phenomenon with a focus on the roles and responsibilities between private companies, government, civil society organisations and other stakeholders. However, they all converge on the point that being "socially responsible" means that people and organizations must behave ethically and with sensitivity toward social, cultural, economic and environmental issues. Social Responsibility can be viewed as *"The responsibility of an organization for the impacts of its decisions and activities on society and the environment through transparent and ethical behavior that contributes to sustainable development, including health and the welfare of society; takes into account the expectations of stakeholders; is in compliance with applicable law and consistent with international norms of behavior; and is integrated throughout the organization and practiced in its relationships."* (International Standard ISO/DIS 26000: Guidance on social responsibility).

In real terms, the whole thing is about Corporate Responsibility that can be explained by applications of three scenarios (i) Obligatory or statutory requirements that is limited to meeting legal compliance (ii) Firm or corporations commitments that seek legitimacy to work in a particular environment where as requirements go beyond fulfilling legal functions. This particular one is referred to as Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) (iii) Philanthropy or pure Charity plays a role in Corporate Responsibility but it does not directly fall to Corporate Social Responsibility category though it keeps adding confusion to the second scenario.

CSR scope mainly focuses on; the community where business operates; environment in which business is conducted; welfare of the workforce or employees who work for a given business; governance matters that take into account principles of adhering to the rules of national and international standards and norms regarding environmental ethics; communities and human resources treatment including observance to human rights.

2.3 Wildlife sector: Policy Perspectives

2.3.1 Institutional arrangement

At independence in 1961, in spite of the government of Tanzania recognizing that the conservation of her rich and varied wildlife resources required both the protection of species and habitats, and the wise use of those resources for the benefit of her people and the world at large, it continued to establish more protected areas for the preservation of wildlife Tanzania covers a total land area of 945,000 km² and constitutes one of the world's most extensive networks of protected areas with about 44% of its land area managed in one form or another for conservation of wildlife (URT, 2011). At independence there were only three national parks in the country namely; Serengeti, Lake Manyara and Arusha; nine game reserves and Ngorongoro Conservation Area (NCA) (URT, 1998). Today the number of national parks has grown to 16 accounting for about 5% of the country's land surface, over 30 game reserves accounting for about 12%, a network of game controlled areas (GCAs) accounting for 10% and NCA, which contributes 0.8% to the total land area set aside for wildlife conservation (URT, 2011, see figure 2).

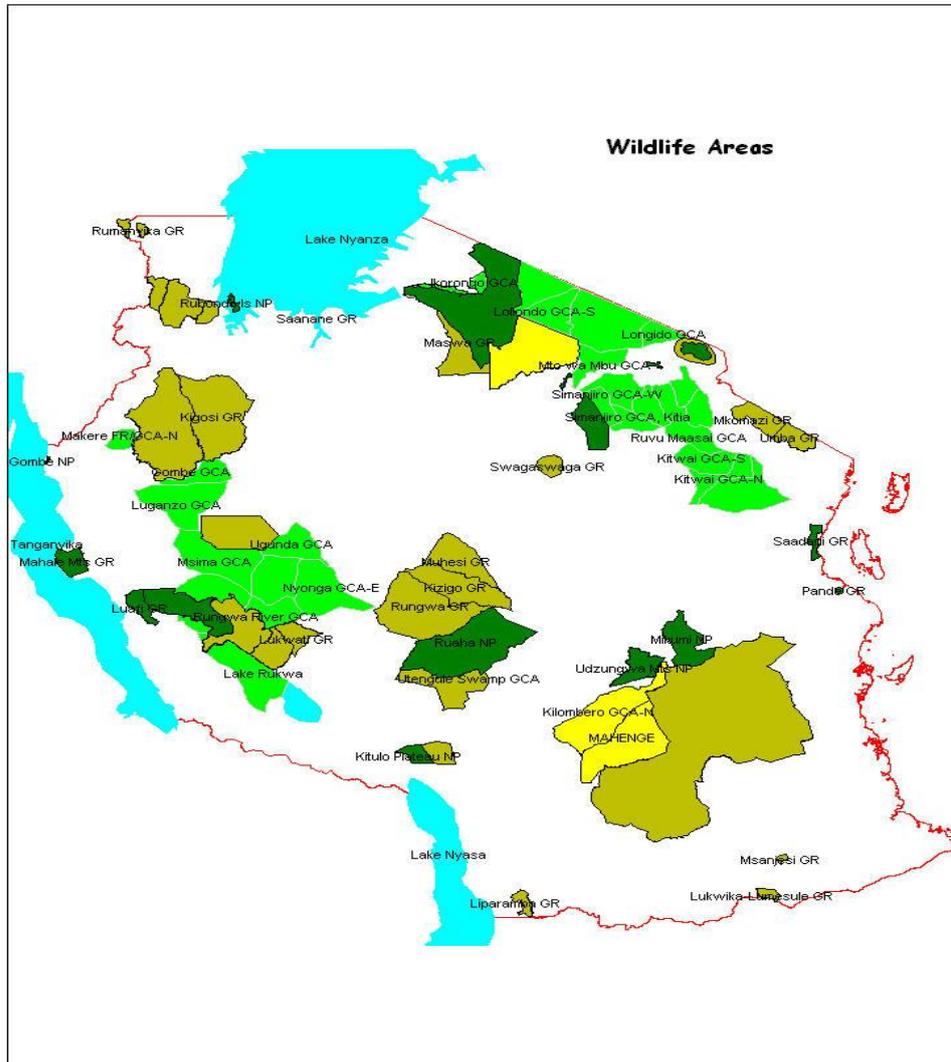


Figure 2: Location of NCA, National Parks, Game Reserves and some GCAs in Tanzania

In early 2000s new categories of protected areas including Ramsar Sites and Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs) were adopted. Ramsar sites are wetlands of international importance, designated under the Ramsar Convention for the conservation of habitats, which are vital for migratory water birds. Until 2011 wetlands accounting for 5.5% of the country’s area had been set aside for that purpose (URT, 2011). WMAs emerged as wildlife conservation option following the recognition by the Wildlife Policy of Tanzania of 1998 (URT, 1998) that the future of wildlife in Tanzania rests on the ability of wildlife to generate economic benefits to rural communities who live alongside wildlife, and its ability to

compete effectively with other forms of land uses, which are ecologically destructive (URT, 2002). Establishment of WMAs was later on formalized in the WCA of 2009 (URT, 2009). By 2011, fourteen WMAs accounting for about 10% of the country's land mass was legally designated (URT, 2011 and Figure 2). Some forest reserves, which are allowed under the forest legislation and account for about 3% of the territory overlap with wildlife PAs. Four categories of PAs in the country, namely national parks, game reserves, WMAs and forest reserves prohibit permanent human settlement whereas wildlife co-exists with humans but with use limitations in the NCA and GCAs. Restrictions, which are imposed, include crop production in NCA (NCAA, 2006) farming and livestock grazing in the GCAs except with written permission even where these areas overlap with village land (URT, 2009).

Tanzania National Parks (TANAPA) is strictly managed for wildlife conservation and tourism, and thus allows no consumptive use of wild animals, and are administered by a state organization; TANAPA which falls under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (MNRT), TANAPA has its own board of directors, and has full mandate to raise revenues and set its budgets. TANAPA also formulates its own implementation policies and it pays corporate tax to the Treasury. NCA is a multiple-land use area that integrates the conservation of natural resources with development for indigenous pastoralists residing therein. Permitted land uses include wildlife tourism, livestock keeping and permanent settlement. NCA is administered by the government institution; NCAA, which also falls under the jurisdiction of the MNRT. As with TANAPA, the NCAA has its own board of directors, full mandate to raise revenues and set budgets, formulates its operational policies and pays corporate tax to the Treasury.

Game reserves are managed primarily for conservation through consumptive use of wildlife by hunting tourism and photographic safaris. Livestock grazing, crop production and settlement are not allowed, only reserves' staff and researchers are allowed into game reserves. Game reserves fall under the jurisdiction of the WD within the MNRT. GCAs are multiple-use areas within

which wildlife resources are under the control of the WD. Hunting tourism is allowed in GCAs and owners of accommodation facilities including hotels, tented camps and cultural tourism operators also work in partnership with village authorities within GCAs.

WMAs are established on village lands and are managed by community-based Authorised Associations, which are in turn administered by the WD. Authorized Associations are mandated to enter into contracts with private investors intending to invest in WMAs and collect part of the revenue, which is spent on improving surrounding communities' livelihoods and part of it ploughed back for natural resources conservation (URT, 2002). The establishment of WMAs aimed at instilling a sense of ownership, and motivating local communities to conserve natural resources, in particular wildlife that utilize village lands (URT, 2002).

However, following the development of the Wildlife Conservation (Non-Consumptive Utilization) Regulations of 2008, which provided for revenue from photographic tourism in addition to that of the hunting tourism to be collected by the WD instead of respective WMAs as it used to be, (URT, 2008). The Regulations for establishment of WMAs were amended by the Wildlife Conservation (Wildlife Management Areas) Regulations, 2012, which were published in the Government Gazette (GN, No. 206) of 15/06/2012 (URT, 2012).

According to Regulation Number 4 of the Wildlife Conservation (Non-Consumptive Utilization) Regulations of 2008, all tour operators and owners of Tourist Lodges and Camp site outside National Parks and NCA are required to obtain a permit from the Director of Wildlife before conducting any tourism activities (URT, 2008). All other wild animals, which inhabits areas outside wildlife PAs including open areas, forest reserves, and Ramsar sites, are controlled by the WD and this is where licenses for resident hunting are mostly issued. Game ranching and farming, which have great potential for earning considerable local and foreign currency and provision of employment, are not yet-well-developed (URT, 1998). The management framework of wildlife PAs in

the country should therefore play a vital role of poverty alleviation and economic growth.

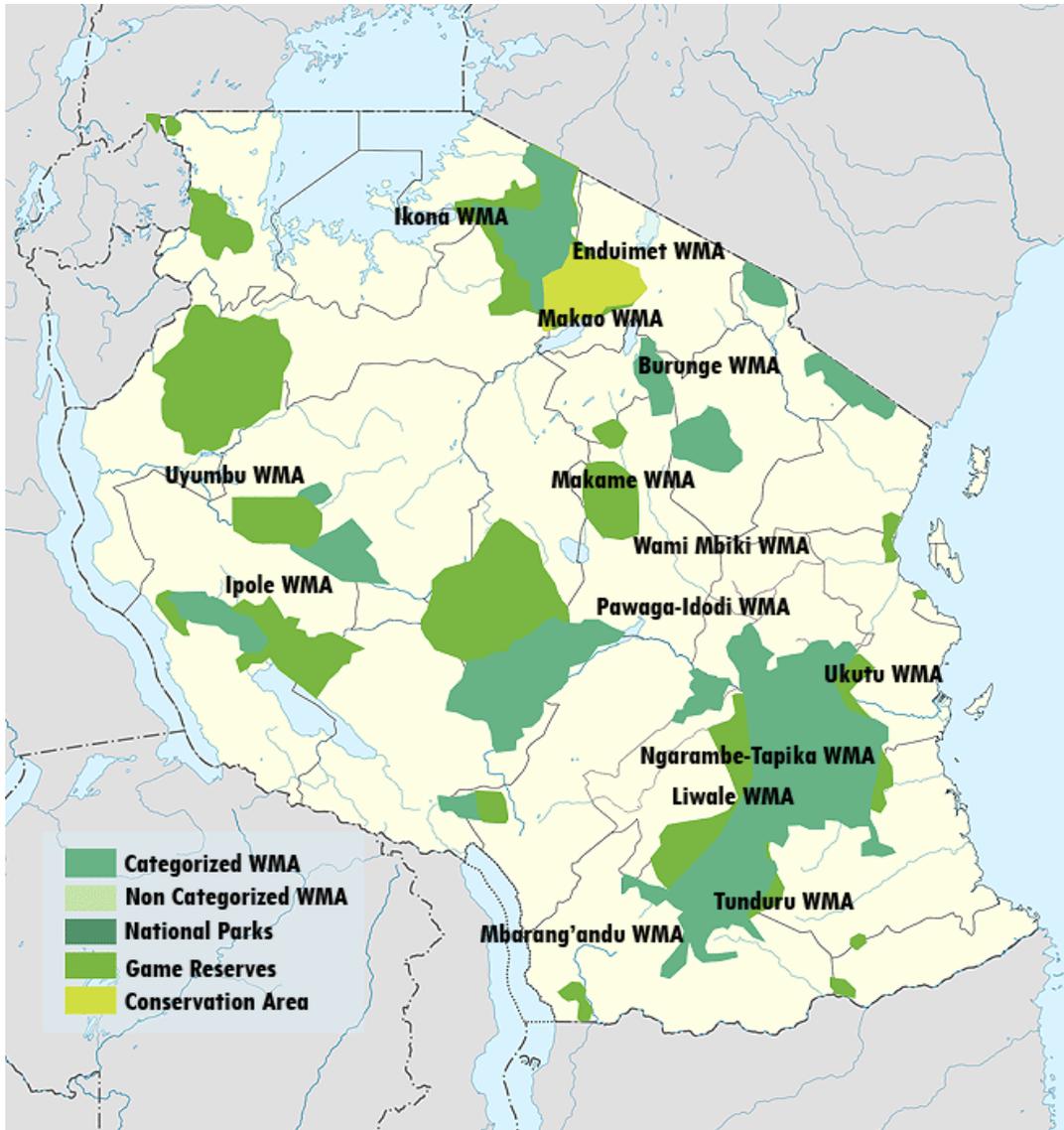


Figure 3: Location of WMAs in relation to other wildlife PAs in Tanzania

During the past 53 years of the “Arusha Manifesto”, Tanzania has formulated a number of policies, strategies, enacted laws and ratified international agreements and conventions in order to ensure that her wildlife species are effectively conserved and protected. The direction of wildlife conservation policies for post-colonial Tanzania became apparent three months before independence in 1961 by then Prime Minister, Mwalimu Julius Kambarage

Nyerere who delivered a statement that affirmed Tanzania's commitment to protect and cherish the country's spectacular wildlife. The statement, popularly known as "*Arusha Manifesto*", underscored the need to further conservation of wildlife habitats and species for the benefits of her people, the global community and all human generations.

The Manifesto, which has since then become an important statement for wildlife conservation in the country and, which is frequently cited by conservationists to demonstrate their commitment to conservation, reads; "*The survival of our wildlife is a matter of grave concern to all of us in Africa. These wild creatures amid the wild places they inhabit are not only important as a resource of wonder and inspiration but are an integral part of our natural resources and our future livelihood and well being. In accepting the trusteeship of our wildlife we solemnly declare that we will do everything in our power to make sure that our children's grand-children will be able to enjoy this rich and precious inheritance. The conservation of wildlife and wild places calls for specialist knowledge, trained manpower, and money, and we look to other nations to co-operate with us in this important task the success or failure of which not only affects the continent of Africa but the rest of the world as well*".

2.3.2 Wildlife Governance and Management

Tanzania is among the world's countries that are endowed with diverse natural resources both renewable including wildlife, forests and fish and non-renewable, which constitute minerals, gemstones and natural gasses. Despite the natural resources, which the country is bestowed with, and the apparent efforts of the post-colonial Tanzania Government for the past 53 years, the wildlife sector has been confronted with numerous challenges. Among those challenges are poaching, habitat/species loss, limited funding, donor dependency, poverty and high human population growth rate within the adjacent communities. These challenges are related in a sense that some of them are the underlying causes while others are the outcomes. Although rapid depletion of natural resources is mostly attributed to consumptive and demographic pressures, institutional arrangements that do not allow for sufficient local incentives to sustainably use

the resources could be a fundamental driving force. TNRF/TRAFFIC (2009) attributes inadequate moral management of natural resources and deficiency in good governance including poor accountability and transparency as some of the factors that impede the country's economic growth and thus hindrance to the spread of benefits from natural resources to citizens for poverty reduction.

In 2005, the Government launched an important strategy for economic growth and poverty reduction among Tanzanians, namely the NSGRP. The strategy among other provisions recognized the centrality of good natural resource management and governance as the basic aspects for attaining economic growth and poverty reduction in the country (URT, 2005). It also emphasize on improving the linkages between macro-economic drivers of growth including wildlife, forestry, fisheries and minerals with rural livelihoods at the micro-level. Further, NSGRP acknowledge that it is impossible to attain economic growth that spreads benefits to all Tanzanians without observing sound, accountable, and transparent governance of public resources. Thus, the strategy placed a strong general emphasis on improving macro-micro linkages in the economy and on improving governance with respect to local empowerment, participation in decision making and transparent use of public resources.

In spite of NSGRP launch in 2005 and its emphasis that is placed on observing good governance including transparency, accountability and the rule of law in natural resources management, Tanzania has continued registering relatively lower margin in economic growth and poverty alleviation than is expected. TNRF/TRAFFIC (2009) pointed out that, weaknesses in local rights and tenure over lands and resources, which reduce local incentives to conserve natural resources, could be among the major issues impeding good governance in natural resources management. The author noted further that, while resolving issues of governance has for so long been recognized as key to economic development, implementation measures that address these governance concerns have remained a challenge.

The prosperous habitats and ecosystems that harbour high concentration and greatest diversity of wildlife both in richness and endemism have made Tanzania to be classified as a “mega-diversity” nation, together with the Democratic Republic of Congo, Brazil and Indonesia (URT, 1995). Despite indigenous people in Tanzania having protected the wildlife for many years through customary systems, colonial regimes directed their conservation efforts to the establishment of Protected Areas (PAs), which mainly excluded local people from controlling resources that were once under their management. As a result of those challenges among others, renewable natural resources in the country have continued to decline. For example, elephant population in the country declined from more 300,000 at independence in 1961 to 55,000 in 1980s (TAWIRI, 2010) and forest depletion rate is reported to be quite high. It is reported that on average, 412,000 hectares accounting to about 1.2% of the total 35,257,000 hectares of forest cover in Tanzania was cleared for various reasons/uses every year between 1990 and 2000 (Bromley and Idd, 2009).

2.3.3 Wildlife Sector: contribution to poverty alleviation and economic growth

Despite the relatively inferior performance of the wildlife-based tourism in Tanzania, its economic potential was for so long recognized and this formed the main justification for wildlife conservation. Essentially, economic rather than ecological and sociological reasons prompted the conservation of wildlife resources in Tanzania. It is because of this reality that after independence the Tanzanian government endorsed uncritically continuation of colonial conservation policies (Borner 1993; Levine 2002). Mwalimu Julius Kambarage Nyerere, the Tanzanian President since independence in 1961 until 1985, regarded wildlife-based tourism as a vital economic engine and insurance in case of failure of other economic sectors such as agriculture and mining. He was quoted saying: *“I am personally not interested in animals and I do not want to spend my holidays watching crocodiles, nevertheless, I am entirely in favour of their survival. I believe that after diamonds and sisal, wild animals will provide Tanganyika with its greatest source of income. Thousands of Americans and Europeans have the strange urge to see these animals”* (Levine 2002).

Tourism industry, which is mainly wildlife-based in Tanzania attracted 783,000 international tourists and generated US\$ 1,279,000 million in 2010 (www.tradingeconomies.com) compared to 1,095,945 tourists excluding about 700,000 visitors who crossed land borders with Kenya with receipts totalling to about US\$ 1,000,000 (Kshs 73.68 billion) during the same year (www.tourism.go.ke, 2014). Despite its unsurpassed tourist attractions across the African continent and having been placed on the 7th position in the continent in terms of growth in number of tourists arrivals in 2007 (Rogerson, 2007), Tanzania has never capitalized effectively on wildlife potential to remarkably finance its economic development and alleviate poverty of her local communities who live alongside the resource. Tanzania has remained to be amongst the poorest countries in the world with only US\$ 27.0 billion GDP at purchasing power parity (PPP) in 2012 compared to about US\$ 77.0 billion of Kenya (www.indexmundi.com, 2014). The GDP per capita income in 2012 was US\$ 609 for Tanzania compared to US\$ 943 of Kenya (www.dataworldbank.org/indicator, 2014). The GDP at PPP is the sum value of all goods and services produced in the country valued at prizes prevailing in the United States (www.dataworldbank.org/indicator, 2014). This measure is mostly preferred by economists when looking at per capita welfare and when comparing living conditions or resources' utilization across countries.

TNRF/TRAFFIC (2009) attributed inadequate moral management of natural resources and deficiency in good governance including insufficient accountability and transparency as some of the factors that impede the country's economic growth and thus hindrance to spread benefits from natural resources to citizens for poverty reduction. Sulle (2008) reported that ill-informed and informed citizens on all issues surrounding wildlife business, lack of equitable benefit sharing among different stakeholders, corruption and lack of transparency could be among the reasons that propel local communities to abstain from participating effectively and willingly in wildlife conservation. With respect to that concern, the author concludes that the increase in poaching incidences is an indication of local frustrations because they are unconcerned.

Literature shows that natural resources' management in Tanzania encourages short-term, open access consumption while discouraging investments in conservation as depicted by relatively small proportion of total revenue collected from wildlife-based earnings that is ploughed back for protection of the same resources. Thirgood *et al*; (2008) reported that conservation investment in Serengeti National Park (SENAPA), which covers 14,763km² was relatively smaller with an average of about US\$ 270/km²/annum for five years between 1997/98 and 2001/02 compared to about US\$ 1,800/km²/per annum and US\$ 3,000km²/per annum for Kruger and Yellowstone national parks in South Africa and America respectively, which have more or similar land size with SENAPA. This could be a result of, together with other factors, absence of the policy on CSR in the country and the Wildlife Sector in particular, which would have required public and private sectors to reinvest an established proportion of their revenue to wildlife protection.

2.3.4 Citizen Engagement and Benefit Sharing

To address the challenge of inadequate community involvement in wildlife management and benefit sharing among different actors, the National Wildlife Policy was developed in 1998. This policy pronounced that the State will remain the overall owner of wildlife in the country while accessing user rights to various stakeholders, providing clear policy and guidelines, stimulating public and private sectors' investment in the wildlife industry and providing support to investors (URT, 1998). Among important clauses with respect to poverty alleviation and economic growth, the policy provided that the government will allow wildlife authorities namely; the WD, TANAPA and NCAA to retain sufficient revenue from wildlife-based business for cost-effective management of protected areas, Also will allow rural communities to receive benefits from Community-Based Conservation (CBC) schemes and involve local people and other stakeholders in taking joint responsibility for sustainable management of wildlife and other natural resources (URT, 1998). In spite of the National Wildlife Policy expressing the government's desire to involve various stakeholders in determining proportions for benefit sharing and mechanisms for the distribution of the generated income (URT, 1998), earnings from wildlife-based businesses

have continued to be below their potential and the income that is collected has not been spent as appropriately as expected (URT, 2013).

In a revised National Wildlife Policy of 2007 the focus was placed on government management of wildlife while little emphasis was placed on participation, development and benefits for local communities (URT, 2007). This is why Sulle (2008) noted that, local communities are not pleased with the amount of money remitted to districts from the WD relative to what hunting activities are generating. There also existed lack of clarity on the mode of distribution among villages that overlap with or border hunting blocks. The author observed further that while communities were finding little incentive to value and protect wildlife resource due to the relatively little share they were receiving from wildlife industry, the numbers of certain wildlife species have continued to decline as anti-poaching activities have kept on receiving insufficient funding

The WD, TANAPA and NCAA manage the concept of “benefit sharing scheme” that started early in 1990s in Tanzania. The WD is required to remit 25% of the total hunting tourism to be shared among surrounding districts from hunting blocks in game reserves, WMAs, and GCAs (Sulle, 2008). Revenue from photographic safaris which used to go directly to villages through joint venture contracts with investors has, since 2010 being remitted by investors directly to the WD (URT, 2008). Wildlife Conservation (Non-Consumptive Utilization) Regulations of 2008 provide that 65% of the revenue from non-consumptive wildlife utilization in WMAs including income from photographic tourism shall go to CBOs responsible for managing those reserves (Benjamin *et. al.*, 2012).

TANAPA’s support for Community Initiated Projects (SCIP) through Community Conservation Services (CCS) department sets aside 7.5-10% of the total revenue generated by each park to community development projects (Sulle, 2008). Runyoro (2007) reported that on average 10% of the total NCAA budget was set aside to support community development projects and social services for four years between 1999/2000 and 2002/2003 to people living both within the NCA and neighbouring communities. In addition to the WD, TANAPA and NCAA

to supporting various projects and services for local communities within the above thresholds, the support to local people from investors in the Wildlife Sector has been voluntary except for the legal requirement as provided in the Wildlife Conservation (Hunting Tourism) Regulations of 2010, which obliges hunting companies to contribute US\$ 5,000 yearly for the implementation of community development projects in the neighbouring communities (URT, 2010). Nonetheless, the Controller and Audit General (CAG) report of 2013 on the audit performance in game reserves and GCAs in the country revealed that no one of the hunting companies was contributing that money (URT, 2013).

A civil case no.25 of 2011 on concession issues was opened at High court of Tanzania (Arusha) under Judge Mugasha J. whereby 1st plaintiff and other 16th Investors suing defendant, the trustees of Tanzania National Parks(TANAPA) for illegal imposition of the revised concession fees with effect from 1st August,2011 and defendants unilateral action of changing modality of payments of concession fees without involving plaintiffs as stakeholders. The plaintiffs were permitted to build and operate facilities within Tanzania National Parks on condition that they pay to the defendant 10% of the half board rate of the invoice value net of VAT with effect from 1st July 2008.Sometimes in July 2007 to defendant unilaterally and irregularly imposed a fixed concession per person on all tourist accommodation facilities in the National Parks from the existing 10% to 30-50 USD.

“Defendant’s failure to collect revised concession fees for a period of 8 years not only did it adversely impacted on the efficient operations of the trustees but also the national economy. The defendants who are entrusted with overseeing and maintaining National Parks and Tanzania Natural Heritage cannot meet the required objectives without collecting requisite fees or else, the trustees will ultimately fail to maintain the National Parks subsequent to which the tourists will opt to go to other well maintained Parks in other countries.

Despite the good arrangement of “benefit sharing scheme”, the three wildlife management authorities in the country were supposed to address complaints from local communities who have co-existed with wildlife for years have

persisted in most parts of the country. While local communities complain that benefits accrued from wildlife resource do not compensate for the cost incurred living with wild animals, Benjamin *et.al.*; (2012) argued that since there was no open and accessible information about total revenue generated from both hunting and non-consumptive utilization on lands managed or shared by communities with wildlife, it was difficult to verify whether the correct proportion of the generated revenue was actually remitted to CBOs. Further, that procedures regarding “benefit sharing scheme” in the wildlife sector including the 25% of the total revenue generated from hunting industry and publicised to be remitted to districts neighbouring hunting blocks was not clear. Stakeholders have continued to wonder time and again on whether the 25% is calculated from the gross revenue or after other deductions have been made. Another question, which was not fully answered, is how the 25% is distributed to the districts /villages neighbouring hunting blocks if they are more than one. Likewise, for TANAPA and NCAA it was not clear on who decides on the proportion of the total revenue to be provided to communities, whether the percentage is calculated basing on the cost stakeholders bear from living with wildlife and whether the disbursed money is spent exclusively for intended purposes. Whatever the case, the cost-benefit analysis that was conducted in areas surrounding PAs in the Serengeti ecosystem in mid-1990s revealed that the ratio of wildlife-induced cost to benefits received by local communities was 250:1 (Emerton & Mfunda 1997) and the benefits were often realized indirectly through community development projects although the cost was localized to individuals.

Akin to the Wildlife Sector, ANGONET/Kepa (2013) reported that benefit sharing as an important aspect for economic development amongst stakeholders participating in the Mining Sector particularly with regard to community development was also not clearly reflected in the successes so far achieved. TNRF/TRAFFIC (2009) attributed such a state particularly in the Wildlife Sector to continued expansion of direct governmental control over lands and revenues, to reduced economic opportunities for many local communities and to troubled governance issues and lack of transparency. This could be the reason why

TNRF/TRAFFIC (2009) contended that in a country where over 70% of people still live in rural areas and 80% of people depend on agriculture and natural resources for their daily needs, patterns of natural resource use were critical to the economy at all scales. Furthermore in a country where nearly 44% of the country's land area is managed in one form or another for wildlife conservation, which has a bearing on the way people utilize natural resources, schemes should be designed such that local people who bear cost of living with wildlife be compensated fairly for alleviating their abject poverty without compromising a room for economic growth.

Whereas the NSPGR of 2005 pleaded for increasing local incomes from wildlife, preventing illegal trade in wildlife products, supporting conservation, and increasing local control and earnings in wildlife management areas (URT, 2005), TNRF/TRAFFIC (2009) argued that although areas for wildlife protection have expanded in number and extent, it was not clearly known how effective these reserves were contributing to local incomes. Further that, since the establishment of WMAs was legally allowed in 2002, the formula for sharing revenues among stakeholders including the Government, local communities and investors was still not clearly stated by the government. Furthermore, whereas some hunting blocks continue to exist on village land where communities bear cost of living with wildlife, no formal regulatory changes have been put in place to increase local control of wildlife protection areas, as advocated by the NSPGR (TNRF/TRAFFIC (2009)).

The share allocated to wildlife management from wildlife-based revenue in Tanzania is also not appealing compared to allocation made to other expenditures. For instance, based on a protected-area network of 250,000km² in Tanzania excluding WMAs, GCAs and the Ramsar sites, government investment on wildlife protection, which contributes a large sum of income to tourism sector and which in turn accounts for slightly above 17.0% of the country's GDP was estimated to be US\$ 184/km²/annum. This excludes donor support and private investment compared to typical costs of US\$ 1,000/km²/annum (Thirgood *et al*; 2008). Little emphasis directed to

conserving wildlife resource was also substantiated by the smaller budget that was allocated by TANAPA and NCAA relatively to other expenditure items. Budget allocation for wildlife protection in national parks was the least of all other activities with an average of 5.8% per year of total revenue for five years between 1997/98 and 2001/02, and an average 4.9% per year of the total expenditure budget between 1998/99 and 2002/03 for the NCAA (Thirgood, *et al.*; 2008). This could be one of the major reasons as to why populations of critical wildlife species in the country have been more and more declining.

The two biggest threats that had befallen Tanzania's Wildlife Sector in the past 53 years since independence were poaching and habitat loss. The most serious illegal wildlife killing in the conservation history was recorded in 1970s and 1980s when the activity brought two of the Africa's charismatic species; the elephant and the rhino to the verge of extinction. The elephant population declined from 203,000 individuals in 1977 to 57,334 in 1991 (IUCN, 1998) and the rhino numbers dropped from 3,795 in 1981 to only 275 individuals in 1992 (Rolfes, 1997). Although some authors attributed this disaster to global economic recession which left the Government with too minimal financial resources to cater for effective control of commercial poaching (Yeager, 1986; Baldus *et al.*, 1987; Leader-Williams *et al.*, 1990; Borner, 1993), the problem of commercial poaching still persists to date. On August 24, 2011 the media reported a total of 1,041 elephant tusks stashed in a container with 114 sacks of dried sardines earmarked for export (<http://www.reuters.com/article/2011/08/24>, 2014) and one rhino was poached in SENAPA in January 2014 leaving behind her poor calf. Likewise depletion rates of forests, which mostly provide shelter and food for wildlife, continue to be quite high (URT, 2012).



Plate 1: A rhino carcass with chopped horns and her mourning calf in SENAPA –North Western Tanzania.

Human-wildlife conflict has also been a salient feature in conservation areas in Tanzania. Today, 53 years after independence rural communities still believe that wild animals are accorded higher priority–than human beings. The higher priority accorded to wild animals has often inflicted cost on humans. Conservation efforts, including establishment of wildlife PAs have, therefore, been blamed for causing poverty among local people through land alienation, crop damage, livestock depredation and diseases transmission to livestock (Emerton & Mfunda 1997; Holmern *et. al.*; 2002]. This, to a large extent, has contributed to negative attitude and, therefore, minimal support to conservation efforts (Kideghesho *et. al.*; 2007). A study that was conducted by Craig *et. al.* (2005) uncovered that more than 27% of lion attacks on people in Tanzania occurred in the fields, usually when people were sleeping in makeshift huts while protecting their crops. Information that was reported in the Tanzania Elephant Management Plan (TEMP) showed that between 2007 and 2010, fifty eight people were killed and 53 injured by elephants alone (TEMP, 2010).

Further, over 80% of the 280 villagers that were interviewed in Western Serengeti in 2004 cited disease transmission from wildlife to livestock as one of the key problems that constrained livestock production in the area. The most often transmitted diseases cited were rabies, anthrax, tuberculosis, trypanomiasis, Malignant Cattarah Fever (MCF) and East Cost Fever (ECF) (Kideghesho, unpublished data, 2004). The great migration of wildebeest between Serengeti in Tanzania and Masai-Mara in Kenya was said to worsen the situation as crop damage by those animals was not compensated, a situation that reduced the willingness to support conservation efforts. Subsequently, Kideghesho (2004) in an unpublished report noted that as a means of own compensating for the losses, the deprived people in Western Serengeti opted to engage themselves in economic activities, which were illegal and ecologically damaging since those pursuits remained to be important for their survival and sometimes were taken up as a retaliatory strategy.

2.3.5 Transparency in Wildlife Management and Utilization

Functioning markets and democracy require openness concerning corporation conduct. The paucity of information is the main barrier to the public, consumers, investors and all those whose lives are affected by corporate activities to require organizations to be responsible and accountable. Reporting improves accountability as well as competitiveness and operational stability. Since the enactment of the WCA of 2009, procedures for allocation and administration of tourist hunting concessions and distribution of revenue among stakeholders in the sector have continued to lack openness. The existing system whereby hunting concessions are allocated at the discretion of the WD has been widely criticized by stakeholders including the Parliament (Parliament Budget Session, 2012), the media, and CSOs as encouraging corruption, mismanagement, and loss of earnings to the nation. TNRF/TRAFFIC (2009) claimed that the WCA, which was enacted in 2009 following wide consultation, contains contents, which are not favourable to increasing local income from wildlife or local participation in wildlife management. Instead, the terms provided in the Act are likely to increase conflicts between local communities and the government over land tenure and resources management where wildlife and people co-exist, as it has

repeatedly been occurring in Loliondo. While the NSPGR supports pastoralists as a sustainable economic activity that has potential to sustain livelihoods also with prospects to contribute to the national economy (URT, 2005), the WCA runs contrary to this strategy (URT, 2009). The Act focuses on increasing the land area for wildlife conservation purposes, yet the authority over that land remains under the jurisdiction of the WD. It gives the Director of Wildlife authority to prohibit all farming and livestock grazing in GCAs and also grazing in most of the WMAs. Such a situation impacts directly the livelihoods of many Tanzanians who live in wildlife reserves, which overlap with village lands in most parts of the country.

Issues pertaining to how local people perceive wildlife management in Tanzania and how they influence their livelihoods are detailed in Sulle (2008) and Benjamin *et. al.*,(2012). ANGONET/Kepa (2013) attributes corruption, greediness and mismanagement of funds generated from natural resources to inadequate transparency in the Mining Sector in some parts of the country. Lange (2006) quoted in ANGONET/Kepa (2013) explained the case of Geita Gold Mines where corruption prevailed between District officials and mining workers when they were effecting cash compensations to resettled individuals. The author asserted that compensation valuations that were undertaken at the district level were not transparent to stakeholders particularly at the grass root level, which resulted into frequent grievances by the people who claimed to have received unfair compensation for their properties they sacrificed. It therefore imperative that stakeholders in any business including local communities should clearly know actions that affect their livelihoods and organizations need to take their requirements into account, and respect their rights.

2.3.6 Corruption in the Wildlife Sector

Leader-Williams (2009) quoted in Benjamin *et. al.*, (2012) raised his concern that institutionalized corruption in the hunting sector had negative consequences on wildlife populations and biodiversity because it allowed room for widespread overshooting in allocated hunting quotas. In her article in the TANAPA Today Magazine (Issue number 014) the LMNP Ecologist reported that commercial and destructive mining was being undertaken illegally in Marang' Forest. The mined area is a crucial link between the former park and the annexed forest. This link was cited to be the only site in the southern part of the park with a gentle slope to allow easy movement of elephants and buffaloes between the forests and the escarpment floor within the park, which is the dry season refuge of the park's wildlife (Kiwango, 2013). One remains to wonder, if those acts taking place in LMNP were not corruption, why TANAPA, which has abundant resources including money, personnel, transport and ammunition fails to stop those malpractices, which continue to threaten the existence of LMNP? Corruption practices in Tanzania are not confined in the Wildlife Sector alone. ANGONET/Kepa (2013) attributed tax evasion and avoidance through false invoicing to among other constraints in the Mining Sector to corruption. The authors gave an example that between 2007 and 2012 period, a total of TZS 60.1 million service levies were not paid by mines' operators at Mirerani as the Mining Act of 2010 provides due to turnover underestimation and between 2002 and 2006, a total of TZS 202.5 million was deliberately unpaid as service levy. This is the reason why ANGONET/Kepa (2013) presumed that failure to adequately translate natural resources into economic growth and poverty reduction in Tanzania was a result among other factors towards corruption and greediness by few individuals in the society including the public and private sectors.

2.3.7 Violation of Human Rights

At best organizations both public and private in the Wildlife Sector provide local people with jobs and some sort of contributions to development projects and social services. At worst, the opinions of locals are ignored and organizations destroy the environment or take up sometimes without their involvement in the land that has been the source of subsistence for many generations. For example, the decision that was made by the Minister responsible for Natural Resources and Tourism in the country of transferring the 1,500km² of land legally owned by existing villages located in Loliondo GCA to the control of the MNRT without local people's consent violated the principles of good governance and democracy. That decision was an indication of human rights abuse as it would have sounded better if that land was put under conservation in a peaceful manner through either purchasing or leasing and ultimately benefit the concerned community. TNRF/TRAFFIC (2009) pointed out that abuse of human rights, weaknesses in recognizing customary land tenure systems and negligence in traditional institutional arrangements have increasingly reduced local incentives for sustainable use of wildlife found in their areas. In other words the system has deprived the local people of their basic rights to the resources around. Thus, this could be one of the fundamental driving forces among other challenges that impede good governance in natural resources management. As a result, these natural resources particularly the renewable ones including wildlife populations, forest cover, and fish stocks have continued to decline

3.0 METHODOLOGY

3.1 Study Area

The study was conducted in four districts namely; Babati, Karatu, Monduli, and Ngorongoro. The districts endowed with diverse species and abundant wildlife populations in northern part of Tanzania. A total of 9 villages accounting for about 5% of the total population from the four study districts were quantitatively surveyed (Table (I), where 15 villages (including 9 villages that participated in quantitative study) were subjected to qualitative survey (Table (II)). Karatu District is unique in the sense that it experiences a competing multiple land use that accelerates land scarcity, it is engulfed by wildlife PAs in almost all directions including Ngorongoro Conservation Area to the north, Lake Manyara National Park to the south and south-east and Mto wa Mbu GCA to the east (Figure 4).

Table I: Stratified random sampling (225 respondents- from 9 villages)

District(s)	Neighbouring Conservation Category	Village Name	Stratification Characteristics
Babati	Tarangire National Park	Minjingu	Situated to the western side of the park but within Burunge WMA (JUHIBU) with regular reports of human-wild life conflicts
		Sangaiwe	Extended from north to the south of Lake Burunge within the Burunge WMA (JUHIBU) along an important wildlife movement route between Tarangire National Park and LMNP
Monduli	Mto wa Mbu GCA	Barabarani	Located between LMNP , Mto wa Mbu GCA and occupied by multi-ethnic tribes who are mainly crop producers
		Selela	An important traditional route for elephants and other animals from NCA to Upper Kitete Corridor to LMNP and Tarangire which is occupied by pastoralists but increasingly with farming activities.
	Lake Manyara National Park	Esilalei	Located within an important wildlife movement route between

			LMNP and Mto wa Mbu GCA which is settled by Maasai pastoralists
Ngorongoro	NCA	Nainokanoka	Situated in the highlands of NCA; South East bordering NHFR And on the West, it extend towards the crater rim.(NCA is a multiple land use area).
	Loliondo GCA	Ololsokwan	Situated in wooded-grassland to the eastern side of SENAPA within Loliondo GCA
Karatu	NCA and LMNP	Slahhamo	Situated on the rift valley plateau, to the North it has a boundary with NCA dominated by agricultural activities
		Kansay	Neighbouring the recently annexed Marang' forest to LMNP the village land uses are mainly agriculture and community based forestry

The remaining six villages are either located within or adjacent to various categories of wildlife PAs in northern Tanzania, which are national parks, NCA, GCAs and WMAs. The features which influenced village stratification are shown in Table (I) above. Barabarani, Selela and Esilalei villages fall administratively in Monduli District. Whereas Barabarani is occupied by multi-ethnic groups practising mainly crop production and lying between LMNP and Mto wa Mbu GCA, Selela is an important traditional route for elephants and other animals from NCA through Upper Kitete Corridor to LMNP, which is mainly settled by pastoralists but who are increasingly turning to crop production. Esilalei lies within an important wildlife movement route between LMNP and Mto wa Mbu GCA and mainly settled by Maasai pastoralists. There is one hunting tourism concession in Mto wa Mbu GCA and several accommodation and cultural tourism operators who work in partnership with individual villages.

Nainokanoka and Ololosokwan villages are administratively located in Ngorongoro District. While Nainokanoka is situated in NCA, Ololsokwan is located within Loliondo GCA. Villages forming the NCA are recognized to be situated in the reserved land by the Land Act No. 4 of 1999 and all villages comprising Loliondo GCA are recognized by the Village Land Act No. 5 of 1999

and the Local Government (Urban and District Authorities) Act No. 7 of 1984 to be under the jurisdiction of the village authorities. Enactment of the WCA No. 5 of 2009 did not alter the legal status of land ownership in GCAs or transfer the ownership to the WD of the MNRT. There is one tourist hunting concession in Loliondo GCA and several accommodation and cultural tourism operators who work in partnership with individual villages. Two villages namely Sangaiwe and Minjingu fall within Burunge WMA. There is also one photographic company in Burunge WMA and several accommodation and cultural tourism operators who work in partnership with individual villages.

Table II: Qualitative Approach (341 Respondents –Includes previous 9 villages)

No	Village/Institution	Number of People Consulted
1.	Kansay	25
2.	Kambi ya Faru	25
3.	Slahhamo	35
4.	Upper kitete	15
5.	Kambi ya Simba	30
6.	Nainokanoka	20
7.	Ololsokwan	25
8.	Irkepuusi	15
9.	Sangaiwe	34
10.	Minjingu	15
11.	Burunge-juhibu	3
12.	Vilima vitatu	3
13.	Selela	27
14.	Esilalei	20
15.	Mto wa Mbu	25

16.	TANAPA	3
17.	NCAA	2
18.	WD	3
19.	AWF	2
20.	KIBO GUIDE	2
21.	Burunge	2
22.	OBC	2
23.	FCF	3
24.	TATO	2
25.	TTB	1
26.	TAH	1
27	NEMC	1
	Total	341

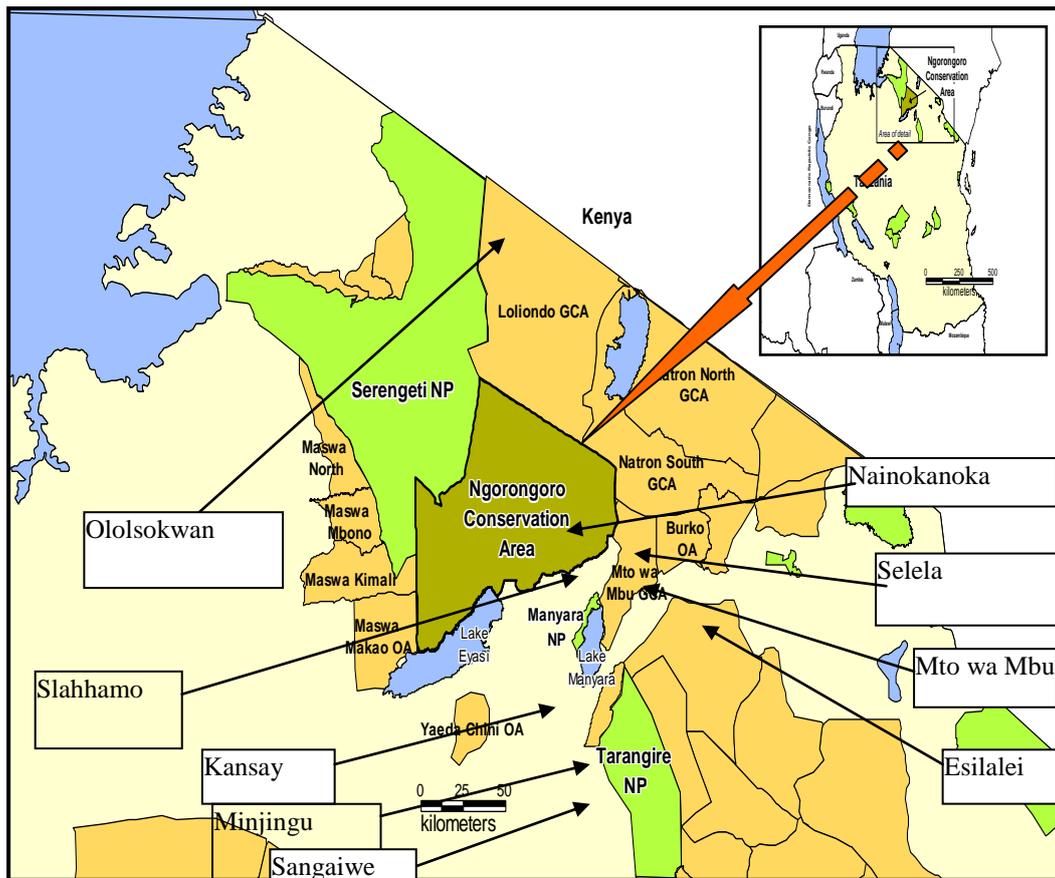


Figure 4: Location of quantitatively surveyed villages in the four study districts

3.2 Sampling Procedure and Sample Size

The selection of the study districts was based on the fact that, these areas which have remained with abundant and diverse wildlife species in northern part of Tanzania, are expected to strongly practice and adhere to CSR initiatives. A stratified-random sampling was employed to determine villages and households for sampling and 225 respondents were sampled. Villages were chosen to represent different geographical, ecological, physical and demographic characteristics within respective districts. 5% sample is recommended as a minimum representation of the total population (Boyd, et al.; 1981) the reason why a total number of villages, which were surveyed, accounted for approximately that proportion (Table I). Twenty five households in each sampled village were randomly selected from a list of household members available at the respective village office for interviews and questionnaire administration.

Twenty companies out of 50 were sampled using a mixture of random sampling technique and purposive sampling. A questionnaire designed for private investors in the wildlife sector was applied. Most of the companies' respondents were from tour operators, few tourist accommodation facilities' operators and photographic safaris. Efforts to communicate with hunting companies proved difficult as very few companies responded in the study questionnaire. Another set of questionnaire was designed to collect information from government institutions in the Wildlife Sector including the WD, TANAPA, NCAA and WMA (JUHIBU) some of them responded through arranged discussion and meetings with researchers (Appendix 2-4).

3.3 Data Collection Methods

Relevant documents and research papers on the same or similar subject, regulations, policies and legislation were reviewed. Literature review facilitated the development of research questions and improved the background information and analysis. Interviews with respondents were guided by a pre-tested questionnaire mainly focusing on local people from respective study villages (Appendix 2). Questions in the questionnaire are semi-structured with open-ended answers that enabled respondents to freely express their opinions and interact with researchers in order to assure close collaboration and empowerment to implementing study recommendations. Interviews involved household heads or any household member aged 18 years male and female above who had stayed with the family consecutively for the past 12 months. Interview lasted on average of 30 minutes. Some residents from study villages were involved in data collection by accompanying enumerators from ANGONET office and assisted in translation to overcome language barrier.

Focus group discussions (FGD) involved between 17 and 30 members in each of the surveyed villages including some village leaders, traditional leaders, influential people in the community and some invitees from neighbouring villages. Group discussion sessions aimed at getting elaboration and validating information gathered from household surveys. They also provided some information that was not revealed in household surveys. A validation or

authentication meeting, which was attended by more than 60 participants from surveyed and adjacent villages and different stakeholders including village leaders, community members from various social groups such as women and youths, traditional leaders, was convened at Karatu Town. Other participants in the meeting were representatives from NGOs, Monduli District Council and the Executive Officers for Karatu Ward. Feedback on what transpired from household surveys and focused group discussions at the villages' level was given to the validation meeting aiming at having communities understand their surroundings for the purpose of building their capacity to counteract existing challenges.

A second set of questionnaire (Appendix 2-4) for gathering specific information from wildlife management authorities in the country including WD, TANAPA and NCAA was developed and submitted to respective institutions. Questions in the questionnaire sought to obtain information on the proportion of revenue allocated to natural resources protection and communities' development and social services, benefit sharing mechanism its implementation and systems for local people employment within the wildlife sector. Additional information gathered was on the management of funds allocated for community development, social services and CSR issues communities' involvement, levels of transparency and corruption, accountability and adherence to human rights. In general the questionnaire sought to assess the understanding of CSR concept within the government and modes of its operation (Appendix 3)

A third set of a questionnaire was developed for the investors in the wildlife sector, which aimed at assembling more or less similar information intended to be collected from the wildlife management authorities (Appendix 4). ANGONET/Kepa study team arranged and met relevant staff from respective organizations (AWF, WD, TANAPA, NCAA, and TTB). It can be recorded that most of institutions that participated in the meetings responded to the questions verbally while providing or citing some written documents. The meeting to be recalled include, the one with Conservator of NCAA, acting Director General, Head of Community Outreach and Manager of Community Outreach, Public

Relation Manager for TANAPA, In charge of the WD Hunting Office located in Arusha City and Managing Director for Maromboi Tented Lodge who is also the owner of Lake Burunge Tented Lodge.

In addition, ANGONET held discussions with relevant CSOs, NGOs and other advocacy groups with interest in the management of wildlife in Tanzania and poverty alleviation with the purpose of obtaining their views and experience on CSR in Tanzania. Information from local people, wildlife management authorities, the investors and other relevant stakeholders gave light on the understanding of CSR and approaches in implementing the concept. The information was useful for suggesting the best approach on how CSR implementation could be harmonized and form a benchmark for its application in the Wildlife Sector and other sectors in general.

3.4 Data Analysis and Presentation

Information and data collected from FGD, key informants interview, personal communication and observations have been applied to the categories of questions in the study area. Among others, examining the following issues namely; benefits sharing, human rights, corruption, accountability, transparency, community participation and fair deal. The results obtained from FGD, key informants and individual interviews have been **triangulated** (involved 566 respondents) against the results of household survey. Statistical analyses for both quantitative and qualitative data were done using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 14.

4.0 STUDY FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 The Situation of Corporate Social Responsibility

A household survey, conducted to assess the status of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in the wildlife sector and involving 225 family members, 61% of them being male, 39% female and the majority accounting for 46% of all the respondents aged between 36 and 50 years (Appendix 1: chart 1). On average 57% of all the respondents revealed they had an idea of CSR (Appendix 1: chart 2). The understanding varied from recognising at least one component of the CSR to knowing the entire paradigm. CSR constituents, which corporations are expected to take into consideration and be implemented, which were prioritized by this study are, involvement of stakeholders in planning, decision-making and business implementation, equitable sharing of benefits among stakeholders, accountability, transparency, non-involvement in corrupt practices and adherence to human rights (see section 2.3). 75% of all the respondents acknowledged that the presence of wildlife in their areas was somehow beneficial.

Public institutions, non-governmental organizations and investors working in the wildlife sector within their areas supported many development projects and social services ranging from education, health, water, roads and electricity infrastructure to paying school fees for children from poor families and supporting income generating activities undertaken by women groups (Appendix 1: chart 3). Notwithstanding that appreciation, majority pointed out that CSR was a voluntary practice. Tour companies and photographic safaris, whom responded to the questionnaire, stated that CSR was a system of giving back some percent of accrued benefit to help adjacent communities where business was taking place as an involvement in the development of that society. The engagement was voluntary because the practice was more or less a help to the needy.

Conversely, government institutions including the Wildlife Division (WD), Tanzania National Parks (TANAPA) and Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority (NCAA) stated that although there was no clear guidance on its implementation, CSR was an obligatory practice. Apart from corporations being required to compensate accordingly the people who actively participate in natural resources conservation, they were also obliged to respect human dignity and other rights. The Wildlife Conservation (Tourist Hunting) Regulations of 2010 require hunting companies to contribute US\$ 5,000 yearly towards the implementation of community development projects in neighbouring communities (URT, 2010). However, the Controller and Audit General (CAG) report of 2013 on the management of wildlife in game reserves and GCAs admitted that no hunting company had remitted such an amount by 2012 (URT, 2013). Lack of realization of this benefit to inhabitants surrounded with wildlife could have been one of the factors that increased the risk of illegal activities in Game Reserves (GRs) and Game Controlled Areas (GCAs). It was hard to validate whether CSR within the hunting industry in Tanzania was voluntary or obligatory because out of the 20 companies involved in wildlife-based investment, a very few responded.

Article 9 (i) of the Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania of 1977 (URT, 1998) states; “that the use of national resources places emphasis on the development of the people and in particular is geared towards the eradication of poverty, ignorance and diseases”. In support of this constitutional provision, the WCA of 2009 stipulates clearly that the wildlife resource should contribute to sustainable development of the country, benefit the present and future generations without discrimination and should foster sustainable and legal use of the resource by taking appropriate measures to prevent its illegal use (URT, 2009). This provision could be easily achieved through among other strategies increased stakeholders’ involvement in the management and utilization of wildlife, equitable sharing of benefits accrued from wildlife resource among stakeholders including local communities, accountability, transparency, non-involvement in corrupt practices and non-violation of human rights; all of them being components of CSR adopted in this study. Nonetheless, the CAG report

on the management of wildlife in GRs and GCAs of 2013 (URT, 2013) and results from this study indicate that despite the WCA of 2009 being into force for almost five years since it was enacted, all the pillars of CSR described above have never been fully realized as discussed in subsections 4.1.1 to 4.1.6 of this report.

The qualitative part of study enclose views, concerns and remarks presented during focus group discussions, with villagers, influential people, village councils, WD, TANAPA, NCAA, WMA. These came into practice as their views and suggestions together with validation meeting held in Karatu to testify preliminary findings. Qualitative part of the study where a total of 341 respondents participated (Table: II). Therefore, these were accompanied with 60 representatives from government institutions, companies and people from study area in validation meeting held at Karatu. Detail of findings and analysis are presented under issue sections, summary of concern, messages and recommendations from stakeholders. The quantitative approach findings revealed that at least 57% of the respondents understood the concept of CSR as the way companies, investors and institutions support the surrounding communities socially and economically, but to what extent as well as the procedures to be followed are not clearly understood by respondents. Despite this study showing awareness of the people and the community in quantitative findings, after testing qualitative approach against quantitative, the qualitative approach out weight the other as majority of respondents provokes the consequences caused by investors, companies and government bodies especially in areas of parks and reserves boundaries, marauding animals and compensation, social services, human rights and fair deal.

4.1.1 Citizen Engagement

According to the Wildlife Policy of 1998 amended in 2007, the MNRT is required to ensure that all stakeholders in the sector including local communities are effectively involved in conservation, management and development of wildlife (URT, 2007). Indicators of citizen engagement adopted by this study, which included initiation of projects, budgeting and follow-up on implementation showed that the level of community participation in planning and decision-making was very low. Whereas 56% of all the respondents claimed that initiation of projects and budgeting were done by village leaders without community involvement (Appendix 1: chart 4) whilst, 70% said that follow-up on the implementation of community's projects excluded the society (Appendix 1: chart 5). However, in areas where villagers insisted on the significance of local people's involvement towards creating harmony, a situation had increasingly changed to village leaders and funders discussing and working together to initiate projects to be supported according to local people's priority. This state was exemplified by 32% of all respondents from Ololosokwan-; who stated that projects were initiated by village leaders in collaboration with funding agencies. In Nainokanoka, 28% said that the Ngorongoro Pastoralist Council (NPC) members who most of them happened to be village leaders and who had been mandated by the community to initiate projects needing support were sitting together with NCAA, which is the major funding agency to approve projects for funding (Appendix 1: chart 4).

The WD through informers collects information to support their intelligence work. These are individuals with good faith supplying information that leads to the arrest of offenders who violate the country's wildlife laws. The CAG report on the management of wildlife in GRs and GCAs of 2013 revealed that about 70% of the arrested poachers resulted from information provided by informers (URT, 2013). Negligence by some wildlife staff to make follow up on information regarding offences, poaching and other crimes by wildlife authorities was confirmed by majority of respondents at the household level, focal group discussions and during the validation meeting. For example, it was reported that before the Marang' Forest was annexed to LMNP in 2013 where villagers used

to collect firewood and fetch water under proper Village Council arrangement and control, the resource was of benefits to communities but since forest annexation, the level of degradation is at alarming rate, despite the information on illegal use of the forest, which was given to LMNP Management. Serious illegal tree cutting, unlawful mining within the forest and wildlife poaching has increased since 2006. The elephant population of Tanzania's vast Selous Mikumi ecosystem, once hosting one of the largest elephant population in the world numbered 70, 000, but last year there were only 13,000 (Source: Tanzania Elephant Protection Society (TEPS)). Study respondents concluded that the requirement of community participation in conservation, management and development of wildlife provided in both the Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania and the WCA was more theoretical and not functional. This is because while cases of natural resources abuse by few individuals that were reported to public employees were not attended to as promptly as expected, wild animals continued to damage their crops, and injure or sometimes kill people and livestock without any proper compensation or consolation. Similar complaints were raised from fifteen (15) surveyed villages that poachers were well known but when information about poaching activities was given to relevant institutions such as the NCAA, TANAPA and District Authorities, no actions were taken against perpetrators. Instead, in most occasions informants are boomeranged, harassed and sometimes ended to be victimised, an implication those poachers and some village leaders were operating in complicity with unfaithful government officials to undertake evil activities within the Wildlife sector. No clear incentives for communities or general public participation in conservation, management and development of wildlife was further attested by either delaying or not at all effecting rewards to informants who gave tips that resulted to successfully committing the WCA offenders in the courts of law. The WCA of 2009, requires informants to be rewarded an amount equivalent to 10% of the value of the trophy caught. A reward is supposed to be effected when the case in the courts of law has been completed and judgment made (URT, 2009). Whereas some respondents claimed that they were paid less than 10% of the value of trophies that were presented before courts of law while others complained that rewards were either delayed or not paid at all.

The CAG report on the management of wildlife in GRs and GCAs of 2013 noted that, the MNRT has not set a suitable system for allowing GRs and anti-poaching units to allocate the budget for rewarding informants (URT, 2013). The process for payment was done directly from the WD head office. Although the process was taking an average of not less than 30 days, there was no standard processing time provided by the MNRT. The report revealed that such delays had resulted into loss of interest and decline in providing useful information by the informers. Such a situation was expressed by respondents from the surveyed villages that, due to insufficient motivation and encouragement with respect to providing useful information on malpractices in the Wildlife Sector. Informants retreated from supporting the government in favour of the poachers. In view of the foregoing discussion, it is certain that communities felt to be poorly involved in the management, development and utilization of wildlife resources, a situation that contributed to discouragement in the involvement of wildlife protection pursuits.

4.1.2 Benefit sharing mechanism

The wildlife sector in Tanzania is administered by three government organizations in terms of wildlife management and revenue generation, which ultimately fall under the command of the Ministry of natural resources and Tourism (MNRT). These are the WD, TANAPA and NCAA, which their mandate and obligations are discussed in section 2.3.4 of this report an example hereunder, is all about the direct benefits that the villagers of Oltukai and Esilalei get and what the situation is currently after Manyara Ranch Investment, During a validation meeting one participant from Esilalei commented that before 45,000 acres had been taken by Manyara ranch villagers directly benefited from that land i.e. for pasturing, cultivating and healing herbs; but after being taken away, they saw no benefit ,although AWF Spokesperson put forth a statement that villagers of Esilalei and Oltukai each receive a total of TZS 17,493,470.70 which participant from Esilalei strongly objected. Again the issue of International NGOs to turn from conservation to investment firm and generate revenue, and still call it conservation, attract extra attention of its

essence and objective towards Natural resources, that in turn seen as a curse and not a blessing.

4.1.2.1 WD- Hunting Tourism

The wildlife conservation in Tanzania dates back in 1891, when laws controlling hunting were first enacted by the German rule. These laws regulated the off take, hunting methods and trade in wildlife. The British Government established the Game department in 1921, its primary role was to administer game reserves enforce hunting regulations and protect people and crops from problem animals. Wildlife division has the mandate in administration and regulations of Wildlife and wetland laws, Formulation of sound policy, strategies and programs for policy implementation, issue and administer all types of wildlife resources user rights, trading licenses and administer management plans for wildlife PA's and Ramsar sites.

The major source of income for WD has been hunting tourism. Revenue from hunting tourism is generated from game fees, block fees, capture permit fees, certificate of ownership, trophy dealer license and trophy export certificate. Others are permit fees, conservation fees, observer fees, trophy handling fees, hunting block application fees, professional hunters' license fees and penalties. In order to control hunting activities efficiently and effectively, the hunting regulations require a person applying for hunting block for hunting tourism to submit a formal application. The hunting company is also required to apply for a permit for the client and fill required details and pay for permit. The permit shows the animal species, number of animals to be hunted and the fees to be paid (URT, 2010). With the exception of Selous Game Reserve, all the revenue collected from hunting tourism throughout the country is deposited to the MNRT account, which in turn is managed by the Tanzania Wildlife Protection Fund (TWPF). Funds are distributed among stakeholders including the Local Government Authorities (LGAs) with wildlife populations based on the percentage of amount collected. TWPF retains 25% of revenue collected from game fees, block fees, capture permit fees, certificate of ownership, trophy dealer license, trophy export certificate whereas the remaining 75% is deposited

to the Treasury (URT, 2013). The 25% retained by TWPF of the total revenue collected from the above sources is the direct income for the WD meant for supporting and facilitating wildlife conservation and protection in the country. The budgetary allocation from the Treasury, which percentage varies annually depending on Parliament's approved budget is another source of income to the MNRT. This means that the proportion of funds received by the WD from TWPF and from the MNRT varies yearly depending on how much the Ministry receives from Treasury. The Treasury also distributes 25% of all the revenue generated from GCAs to all LGAs where hunting tourism was conducted whereas revenue collected from resident hunting in the LGAs is retained by respective District Councils as own source to facilitate management of wildlife activities in their areas (URT, 2013).

LGAs are responsible for the implementation of wildlife policy within their jurisdiction by formulating and enforcing laws, preparing sound physical and development plans that protect wildlife and wetlands. This means that anti-poaching activities in GCAs are supposed to be funded by LGAs in their respective areas. According to existing guidelines on the allocation of funds sent to LGAs, 40% of the 25% allocated by the Treasury is supposed to fund wildlife conservation and protection activities (URT, 2013). However, the CAG performance audit report of 2013 disclosed that less than 40% of the 25% received from the Treasury was spent on conservation and protection activities, which indicated lack of seriousness and commitment by respective LGAs in protecting wildlife. Instead, a bigger proportion of funds that were meant for wildlife conservation and protection in LGAs were financing other district activities including administrative matters and travelling allowances (URT, 2013). When consulted to comment on whether the 25% that was remitted to LGAs was spent as appropriately as required, officials at the hunting office of the WD located in Arusha city, stated that the centre was responsible for revenue collection from hunting tourism and photographic tourism but was not involved in budgeting, distribution of revenue and follow up on use of the disbursed funds.

In 2002 when WMAs were established, revenue collection from photographic tourism was allowed and distributed among TWPF, respective District Council(s) and relevant WMA in 20%, 15%, and 65% proportions respectively (URT, 2002). However, since 2010 following the development of the Wildlife Conservation (Non-Consumptive Utilization) Regulations of 2010, revenue from photographic tourism has been collected by the WD and distributes the income to respective stakeholders particularly to the WMAs and LGAs where the activity has taken place using a formula not known to beneficiaries. On one hand, the CAG report on the management of wildlife in GRs and GCAs revealed that the system on benefit sharing from photographic tourism was not working well compared to that of hunting tourism (URT, 2013). On the other hand, local communities were confused and demoralized to the extent of considering the government to be greedy by retaining a larger percent of revenue from wildlife business conducted on their land. Study respondents contended that the distribution formula of the revenue generated from hunting tourism and photographic safaris among stakeholders was complicated and cumbersome to be grasped by even those who were implementing it. Furthermore, the 25% of the total revenue from tourist hunting, which is meant to be distributed among all LGAs in the whole country where hunting tourism is undertaken reasonable revenue should be set aside to assure equitable sharing of benefits among stakeholders particularly to the local communities, which bear high cost of living with wildlife. For example, for the period of three years between 2009/2010 and 2011/2012 only TZS 3.8billion was distributed among 41 LGAs meaning that each LGA received an average of TZS 30,894,310 annually (URT, 2013). Assuming the 40% of that amount was set aside for wildlife protection in respective LGA as guidelines require, it means that only TZS 18,536,585 went to villages where hunting was conducted irrespective of their number. The proportion ploughed back into villages where hunting and photographic tourism take place is therefore relatively meagre when compared to the revenue that was generated from wildlife based business and the cost incurred by people living adjacent to wildlife areas.(refer: table IV).

4.1.2.2 NCAA- Multiple land use system

NCAA revenue amounting to TZS 60bn/= annually, should be subjected to all costs incurred by both community residing within and outside NCA that need for clear benefit sharing and compensation or consolation mechanism. Moreover different laws such as conservation laws, village establishment and village land use law should be harmonized so as to accommodate the uniqueness of the setup, which allows human and wild animals to live together.

4.1.2.3 Tanzania National Parks

The Tanganyika National Parks Ordinance CAP (412) of 1959 established the Organization now known as Tanzania National Parks (TANAPA). Serengeti became the first National Park. TANAPA is also referred to as “The organization or the Institution.” TANAPA has expanded to 16 National Parks, depending on nature based or wildlife tourism as the main source of income that is ploughed back for management, regulating and fulfilment of all organizational mandates in the National Parks. Tanzania has always been named as one of the mega biodiversity country and is second to Brazil in terms of attractiveness.

Through outreach Program Department, TANAPA Has continued to carry its functions of creating awareness to local communities living adjacent to Parks on the importance of conservation and benefit sharing from revenue accrued from tourism.

However, challenges have now resulted from poaching. Almost 70% of information about poaching comes from villagers, at the same time 74% of respondents claimed that benefits from wildlife resources are not sufficient, although TANAPA records show that about 7.5% of its annual budget is set aside for supporting development projects, which was also relatively small compared to the loss that communities incurred from crops destruction to loss of people’s lives by predation and problem animals, 56% of respondents during a study of CSR in wildlife sector said that initiation of projects is done by leaders and not the communities. Exclusion of community participation in conservation has resulted into poor relationship between park managements and surrounding communities. Human rights abuse practices have been reflected in most of villages that bordering parks, such as sexual abuses to women, fabricated

cases and illegal fines to human or livestock's once trespass into PA's but again there is no clear boundaries or demarcations of Parks eg in Kansay and Ololsokwan villages bordering LMNP and SENAPA respectively,

Habitat degradation (e.g. Marang' Forest mining activities in Kansay village), lack of buffer zones, blockage of wild animals corridors and inadequate skills and resources (human and material) contributing to unethical conduct by some of TANAPA officials, wardens and park rangers, Increased of human-wild animals conflicts , unclear compensation mechanism and stringent bureaucracy of Headquarter officials as far as there is requirement of information or clarifications of issues no client service charter concern observed.

4.1.2.4 Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs)

The wildlife policy of 1998, advocates the establishment of WMA's as a means to effectively implement community based conservation (CBC) activities in Tanzania. WMA's represent new wildlife conservation areas whose management will be done by communities in collaboration with the WD, District councils and other wildlife sector institutions such as the Tanzania National Parks (TANAPA), NCAA and Tanzania wildlife research Institute (TAWIRI).WMA's will run as business entities parallel to other protections systems in the village land, as will be determined by the village land use plan. One of potential highlight toward the community economic welfare is stipulated by the wildlife policy ,that is transferring the management of WMA's to local communities thus taking care of corridors, migration routes and buffer zones and at the same time ensuring that local communities obtain substantial tangible benefits from wildlife.

Information from Burunge WMA (Jumuiya ya Hifadhi Burunge-“JUHIBU”) indicated that there were five investors in the area, who apart from operating accommodation facilities some of them were running photographic safaris. These are Maramboi Tented Lodge (24 beds), Lake Burunge Tented Lodge (40 beds), Tarangire River Camp (40 beds), Osopuko Lodge (20 beds) and UN Lodge (12 beds). Although the owner of Maromboi Tented Lodge who also owns Lake Burunge Tented Lodge reported to have remitted a total of TZS 568,507,200 in 2011/2012 (Source:Maromboi tented lodge) to the WMA through

the WD, JUHIBU reports show that only TZS 473,738,859.93 was received during the same year. However analysis of JUHIBU report indicates amount of TZS 94,768,340.07 is a deficit with no clear explanation. If the remaining three companies remitted the fee to WD at the proportion rate as Maromboi Tented Lodge did, it can be projected that a total of TZS 1,137,014,400 is supposed to be received by the JUHIBU “WMA”. Based on that trend it can be concluded that, a total of TZS 663,275,540 accounting for 58% of the total disbursement, which supposed to go directly to the WMA but was retained by the Wildlife Division during 2011/2012. Some of respondents acknowledged the support that was extended to villages by NCAA, TANAPA and some private investors but not the WD. While 57% of all the respondents acknowledged that NCAA, TANAPA and some private investors supported education including construction of classrooms, teachers’ quarters, laboratories, teachers’ offices and paying school fees for children from poor families, 18% and 9% appreciated the support that was extended by the same institutions to the health and water sectors respectively (Appendix 1: chart 3).

Although respondents from pastoral communities stated that NCA pastoralists through the NPC received TZS 600 million in 2012/2013 as subsidy for supporting development projects and social services in the area, the Ngorongoro Authority clarified that the money that was spent on supporting the community both directly and indirectly during the same year totalled TZS 9 billion, whereas TZS 2.3 billion is directly injected through NPC to support community development projects. Generally speaking TZS 2.3 billion was relatively meagre accounting for less than 5% of about TZS 60 billion generated by NCAA during that period 2012/2013. Likewise TANAPA records show that about 7.5% of its annual budget is set aside for supporting development projects and social services to communities surrounding national parks, which was also relatively very small when compared to the loss that was incurred by people who are residing adjacent to wildlife PAs.

Majority of companies that responded to the questionnaire did not reveal figures on their business revenue and expenditure, the few disclosed that information indicated that between 2008/2009 and 2012/2013 on average 3.13% of total revenue was paid as corporate tax to the treasury, 3.12% was directed to supporting local people's development projects and social services to villages where business was conducted. Two percent was paid as levy to LGAs and 3.5% was spent on issues such as annual subscriptions to tour operators' associations, supporting Uhuru Torch races and conservation campaigns like the "Stop Poaching" that was organized by the MNRT in collaboration with the Tanzania Association of Tour Operators (TATO) in 2014. The proportion that was spent on the above items to the total revenue the investors generated differed from one company to another depending on the length of period a company had been in the business, contracts entered with either districts or villages other factors is the willingness of Board of Directors or Company's Management to support local people's development projects and social services and availability of funds. Major areas, which many private investors supported, were education, health and construction of village office buildings. Since supporting local people was a voluntary phenomenon with no clear guiding policy, some companies argued that employment to local people happened when companies were connecting visitors (tourists) with communities (cultural bomas), whereby visitors buy some traditional ornaments and gifts. Some of the visitors showed interest to support these communities materially and financially mostly to projects or activities like orphanage centres, schools and hospitals considered as part of CSR implementation.

Tanzania's Northern Circuit is a leading stronghold for private investors in the wildlife-based tourism business with many companies dealing with tour operations, photographic tourism, hunting tourism and accommodation service. Although in case of support towards construction of buildings, number of companies donated construction materials and in some cases employed contractors to ensure the quality support is not compromised.

The degree to which the surveyed villages suffered from living with wildlife varied according to their geographical locations and differences in production systems. However, 74% of the respondents mentioned crop raiding by wildlife as the major factor that constrained crop production as most of them were living either within proximity or close to wildlife areas where the government failed to control marauder animals. 48% of all respondents attributed livestock production failure to land scarcity (Appendix 1: chart 6), which was associated with expanding land for wildlife conservation areas and allocation of land to investors for hunting tourism, photographic safaris and establishment of tourist accommodation facilities. Whereas crop production was legally prohibited in the NCA, livestock grazing was not allowed in the Ngorongoro, Empakaai and Olmoti craters, and in the Northern Highland Forest Reserve (NHFR). Cattle were further excluded naturally from the plains during the months of January to April to avoid MCF; a fatal cattle disease that is transmitted by calving wildebeest and in June to October during dry seasons.

Confinement of livestock in the highlands for longer period of time exposed cattle to tick-borne diseases. Respondents in NCA disputed that pastoralists have reached a point where they can no longer sustain livelihoods depending on livestock production economy due to decreasing grazing land and the ultimate cattle deaths caused by diseases, drought and predatory. That situation undermines the re-stocking programme. In October 2013 the government through the Prime Minister acknowledged the difficulties the NCA community was facing and therefore promised to supply 10 bags of maize per household each year. Despite the huge revenue which NCA collects from tourism, the organization had never fulfilled the government's promise by the time this study was conducted. From Barabarani village, 60% of the respondents engaged as crop producers and settled in close vicinity of LMNP declared crop raiding to be highly impacting livelihoods of the village dwellers. (Appendix 1: chart 6)

In other villages respondents informed that in the recent time most of the land which used to be communal for livestock grazing has now been legally protected and managed by the government for wildlife conservation. For example the Marang' forest, which local people from Kansay village used to draw water,

collect firewood and graze livestock under village regulation systems, was annexed to LMNP in 2013. Villagers have also been relocated from a portion of village land where a community forest has been established. Villagers are restricted to enter those areas and utilize sustainably both the Marang' and community forests. In Slahhamo and other villages neighbouring NCA, people are stringently restricted to enter the NHFR; a water catchment forest managed by NCAA even for drawing water and collecting dead woods. In addition it is claimed that surrendering the Upper Kitete Corridor and allow free movement of wild animals between NCA and LMNP was done without any compensation or very little consolation. Ololosokwan villagers have been felt victim of wildlife conservation because the whole 4,000 km² encompassing the Loliondo Division overlap with a GCA, which its utilization is legally and controlled by the WCA of 2009. Most of the land has been further outsource or contracted/leased to OBC. SENAPA is further expanding eastwards to create vast corridor and buffer zone, that seems to claim about 15 km.

In addition, allocating more land for wildlife conservation and wildlife-related businesses, drought, human influx and livestock diseases are combining to exacerbate the problem of land for livestock grazing. Traditionally, pasture lands are diminishing as other competing uses flourish that increases scarcity of land, demarcation for private use has now become evident (Appendix 1: chart 6). For example, in Slahhamo, private land ownership has risen to 60%. It was claimed by respondents that as more land is taken up for conservation purposes, hunting tourism, photographic safaris and tourist accommodation facilities, land demarcation is exacerbated resulting into intensive land use conflict between agriculturalists and pastoralists on one hand and local people and conservation agencies/investors on the other hand. Respondents from Ololosokwan, Selela, Esilalei, Minjingu and Kansay reported that the traditional rotational grazing system, which ensued, diseases and pasture contamination avoidance, and access to nutritious fodder has increasingly disintegrated. They further stated that in pastoral areas traditional leaders used to settle land disputes but such cases are today handled by government institutions including government leaders and mostly by the Courts of Law. Since government procedures usually take long

time to conclude, the disputes and in most incidence the cases are settled in favour of investors and relatively richer individuals in the society, a situation, which has compelled local people to mistrust the government. Predatory, which was mentioned by 27% of all the respondents as a limitation for livestock production was above average in Ololosokwan, Esilalei and Nainokanoka. These are pastoral areas where wildlife-livestock interaction was also above average (Appendix 1: chart 6). In addition to predatory the interaction caused high livestock mortality rates from infectious diseases and MCF was mentioned by majority of the respondents in the three villages.

In areas where majority were engaged in crop production, most respondents contended that food shortage in their areas was a serious problem attributing the situation of wildlife raiding. On average 74% of all the interviewees claimed that raiding was very high and more than three quarters of their farms planted with different crops ranging from beans, maize, banana, vegetables and potatoes were raided (Appendix 1: chart 6). In Nainokanoka where people depended on maize supplied by NCA and other food relief agencies like church organizations were in state of despair. They claimed that food was not timely supplied and when it was brought, it was seriously meagre and relatively expensive to buy taking into consideration that most of the people in the area lacked reliable source of income.

During this study there was no maize in the grain store located at the village centre. Whereas respondents in all villages except Nainokanoka, lack a mechanism devised by the government to protect crops from animals raiding, as they don't have a reliable support such as game rangers were compelled to guard their farms overnight from makeshift huts by setting fires and making noise. Sometimes the fire overpowered them and thus spread to the protected areas. Some respondents in Slahhamo village said that they erected thorn fences around their farms and those from Kansay village dug big enough trenches to prevent bigger animals like elephants from crossing to their farms. Whereas some respondents from Slahhamo acknowledged that rangers from NCAA responded when they were informed of marauders by coming and

chasing them away, it was seldom for those from LMNP to respond and when they responded it was late. Since animals get used to traditional methods employed to scare them, maintaining the same techniques have sometimes ended up fruitless and therefore people are seriously injured and at times killed in particular by ferocious like elephants and buffaloes.

Due to the fact that crop production in surveyed villages depended mostly on rainfall with few farmers in Selela and Barabarani villages who practice some irrigation, most of the respondents pointed out that increasing variability in weather and in particular prolonged dry seasons undermined people's confidence in fully co-opting to crop production. They said that each year was different and weather forecast was difficult for them to concentrate on crop production. Crop raiding by wild animals and volatile weather conditions were mentioned as main constraints, which among others hindered economic growth of the inhabitants.

For the reason that living with wildlife entails risks to human life, economic loss to local pastoral and farming communities through livestock predatory and crop damages on one hand, and loss of wildlife populations through persecution and retaliatory killing by people on the other hand, 74% of all the respondents argued that benefits from wildlife resource that was directed to both local communities and wild animals' protection was not sufficient (Appendix 1: chart 7). Whereas communities received an average of only 5% of the money generated by the WD, TANAPA, NCAA and private investors as discussed in the previous section, the CAG report on the wildlife management in GRs and GCAs revealed that there has recently been increasing poaching activities in Tanzania with the Wildlife Division efforts failing to fix the situation. Respondents from the private sector said that despite various taxes, fees, levies that were paid in addition to other contributions that were made by hunters and other business people in the Wildlife Sector and which they claimed to be on the higher side, the government has persistently challenged to accomplish one of the important objective as stated in WCA of 2009, which is to strengthen law enforcement in management of the wildlife resource in the country (URT, 2009).

The CAG report on anti-poaching activities among other factors, pointed out insufficient and delay in funding, as setback in combating poaching , a situation that was considered to increase the likelihood of WD staff to collude with poachers and leakage of intelligence information. At the same time other respondents pointed out that unethical behaviour of some wildlife officers and staffs hinders the anti-poaching operations. Literature and respondents views on the wildlife management in GRs and GCAs concluded that many poachers were aware of the government's inability to avail regular transport and funds for anti-poaching activities; a weakness which motivated them to increase illegal hunting pursuits (URT, 2013).

On the other hand, community members stated that the benefits they realized were very little than the costs they were bearing to live in wildlife areas as compared to what the corporations were generating out of wildlife resources; a situation that compelled them not to fully participate in management and protection of wildlife.



Plate 2: A building of a maternity ward in Kambi ya Simba built jointly by Villagers and NCAA 2012/13

4.1.3 Transparency and Accountability

Timely, detailed, accessible, accurate, relevant reports and information are some of the appraisal parameters for transparency in any business. Whereas an average of 47% of all the respondents acknowledged that reports on income and expenditure given by government institutions and private investors in the Wildlife Sector and status on projects' implementation were given while 46%

claimed that those reports were not given (Appendix 1: chart 5). Nonetheless most of those who admitted that reports were read before village meetings and in other villages posted on notice boards, they said that most of the information was irrelevant with many errors and doubts, in most cases they were delivered late and in some villages they were availed at most once after every two years on demand. Most of the reports lacked crucial information such as status on adherence to human rights and environmental violations. This response attested that there was insufficient transparency among leaders to the extent that the local people felt to have been denied the right to freedom, justice, fraternity and accord with regard to information acquirement. The situation was relatively terrible in Selela, Barabarani and Nainokanoka villages where 84%, 72% and 64% respectively of all the respondents asserted that reports were not given at all (Appendix 1: chart 5). In addition to failing to know on exactly what was taking place in the wildlife business within their areas and the benefits accrued therein, 70% said that there was no any mechanism that enabled ordinary villagers to monitor and evaluate performance of public institutions and private investors with regard to wildlife utilization. In other words, no intentional means of participatory have been taken so far. Seventy percent of all the respondents attested that monitoring and evaluation on the status of projects' execution was undertaken by wildlife officers from the districts, rangers from NCAA and TANAPA in cooperation with villages' natural resources and environment committee members (Appendix 1: chart 5).

Respondents admitted that they could watch some projects being implemented but so long as there was no established mechanism for the ordinary members in the community to get relevant information particularly with regard to donations that were given by investors and contribution by the government institutions, 39% of all the interviewees believed that there was mismanagement of funds (Appendix 1: chart 8). 22% of all respondents did not respond to this matter because they were ignorant of whether projects were being supported by income generated from the wildlife resource, from villagers' contributions or from both the local and central governments. Secrecy in selecting investors' business agreements, land allocation, limited the possibility for local people to

track activities of leaders at different levels and the business, and where appropriate to require them to account for their actions.

For example, Selela Village identified Ormesera Tented Camp as the major investor in wildlife-based tourism in the area. The investor operated on the village land under the contract entered between the investor and the Village Council to pay land rent of US\$ 2,400 per year regardless of how much it generated. During this study the investment was in its third year of the five years' contract. In addition to that, the investor had for a period of three years of his operation paid school fees for two students every year at the secondary level of education and employed an average of four people per year from Selela community.

Intercon Hunting Company was another investor with a contract signed between the Company and the MNRT without local people's involvement. Group members were also proud of continued cooperation with TANAPA and NCAA to ensuring the corridor popularly known as "Upper Kitete", which is used by elephants to migrate between LMNP and NCA being left free of human activities. Although 56% acknowledged that there was relatively good relationship between the local people and Ormesera Tented Camp; an investment that was transparent to its operations due to the fact the community was involved in negotiation and signing of the contract, they were not in support of the hunting business. Business contract with the hunting company did not involve the community.

In the case of Park authorities, study respondents declared that negligence by WD, MNRT and Park authority to fulfil compensation or consolation, including the mode of consolation payments when crops were raided, livestock predated and humans injured or sometimes killed by wildlife is delayed or ignored completely. With that situation, respondents contended that local people had developed negative attitudes towards TANAPA. The CAG performance audit report of 2013 also disclosed that lack of transparency and accountability to actors in the WD.

Lack of transparency and accountability at different levels of actors in the Wildlife Sector, could be one of the factors which discourage local communities from participating in the management and protection of the wildlife resources. In most of the surveyed areas respondents complained against corrupt leaders signing contracts with investors to own land without their involvement. Respondents from Ololosokwan village contended that the root cause of all land disputes within Loliondo Division lie within contradicting laws which are passed by the Parliament. They said that, the Local Government (Urban and District Authority) Act of 1984 recognizes all villages which fall in the division as registered under the law. Unfortunately the same villages overlap the Loliondo GCA, which need to abide to clauses provided in the WCA of 2009. The Village Land Act of 1999 gives power to the Village Assembly to manage and put under any use all the land, which fall under the jurisdiction of registered villages. All villages in Loliondo Division, which also overlap with the GCA including Ololosokwan, are legally registered.

That confusion has led to different Ministries which are mandated to oversee the above laws to issue different statements. The Local Government (Urban and District Authority) Act is overseen by the Minister for Local Government and Regional Administration under the Prime Minister's Office. The Village Land Act is supervised by the Minister of Lands and Housing Development, and the WCA is administered by the MNRT. Land ownership in Ololosokwan village was therefore mentioned as the major issue, which has increasingly resulted into endless tension for the inhabitants of the area. Land use contracts that are entered between the MNRT and investors without local people's involvement particularly the allocation of a hunting block to Ortello Business Corporation (OBC), which started its hunting operations in the area since 1992 seem to have no lease limit. Following the above, OBC believes that villagers have no say about their land and therefore can do whatever it feels is appropriate to themselves. In signing contracts OBC pledge to hire local labour, provide quality welfare services and generate new sources of income. However, since local people are not involved they become powerless to act when the company

defaults on the promise they had made to the government. As a result local people in Ololosokwan village were severely harassed by the investor (OBC). Villagers complained of harassment including being beaten and sometimes shot to death, their dwellings blazed and livestock killed. Leaders at all levels including the village, district, region and all ministries responsible for overseeing land use issues in Loliondo Division were not accountable to dishonest deeds the investor was involved in. When, decisions by government were taken in favour of OBC (source: respondents, FGDs and validation meeting). In 2009 during the hunting season Ololsokwani residents were evicted by the government using the Police Force from their 1,500km² piece of land. Their dwellings were put under fire, livestock killed and some people believed to have been shot dead (source: respondents, FGDs and validation meeting). Despite the obvious harassment, lack of accountability, they shunned away from any complain that was raised by villagers against OBC. Members in the focused group discussions said perpetrators are not apprehended and not accountable. This concludes the fact that their land is grabbed by investors with support from some of government officials and that every piece of land in the village has now under wildlife conservation area. "They shall keep on fighting and ready to die rather than moving from their motherland" one of respondent from Ololsokwan commented bitterly.

Respondents from Minjingu village reported that one investor in the neighbouring Vilima Vitatu village signed a contract with Burunge WMA to construct a lodge on the village land. Although the land in question belonged to the village, villagers were not involved according to the requirements of the Village Land Act, No. 5 of 1999 when Burunge WMA leased the land in question to the investor. Informants asserted that the ruling that was concluded in 2013 by the Court of Law with regard to the land lease dispute that lasted for about four years confirmed that the WMA had no legal powers on the land use management of the village. One of the reporters claimed that despite the court order, livestock keepers have continued to be harassed by lodge security guards by burning down their dwellings, beating them and taking away their possessions including livestock in pretence that they were trespassing within

the disputed land. All those harassments are taking place without relevant authorities at all levels including village, district and regional organs taking any action. Due to lack of accountability among leaders, TANAPA which used to support development projects in Minjingu village decided to freeze the assistance partly due to mismanagement of the donated funds and irresponsible behaviour that failed leaders to take action against harassment made by the investor on villagers.

Slahhamo members stated that the “Upper Kitete” corridor, which is located in the neighbouring village used to be an elephant movement route between NCA and LMNP. Previously the corridor was not protected by law but as human population increased, farms were expanded in it, a state that interfered with free movement of elephants. Later on, a decision was amicably reached between farmers and conservationists to stop farming within the corridor on condition of compensating farmers accordingly. During this study it was more than 35 years since 1978 when the corridor was left free of farms for the welfare of elephants but people have never been compensated. Hence the people of Upper Kitete pose acquisition to NCA that the revenue that reaches TZS 60bn/= annually is after deducting the cost of wildlife eating/destruction in their farms or the lost caused by wild animals. The total area of NCA is roughly 8300km², making the crater only 3% of this area. Within the NCA there are a vast number of resources other than the crater itself including the Northern Highlands forest Reserve (NHFR) which covers 20% of NCA lands; despite of ecological advantages of the forest to the crater and neighbourhood communities it is the source of water and streams that further feed neighbouring constituencies.

People residing near northern Highland Forest Reserves(NHFR) recently have witness “destruction of water catchment area and environment degradation,” (source: respondents, FGD and validation meeting) once villagers make follow-up it came to their understanding that one of the high rank leader took commercial cattle to this restricted reserves for pastures and later sold them within and outside country boarder.

It is inevitable that low level of accountability among leaders at all levels compels local people to mistrust the government on its commitment to proper management and protection of wildlife for the benefit of the community and economic growth.



Plate3: Left: An old Maasai woman in Nainokanokavillage picking maize grain while sweeping her house just to prepare a meal(Food shortage is at alarming rate in the area) Right: Storage house in Nainokanoka.

The pattern of division of land allocated to the most hunting blocks had its basis laid in 1960's. The Selous GR, was divided into 47 blocks (Nicholson, 1974) since then the pattern has not changed greatly, Hence numbers of blocks have ranged between 128-131 from 1988 to 1992. "Friedkins Group of companies responded to our study requisites by giving few information of the hunting tourism undertaken by one of its company and CSR practices in Lake Natron Longido. Friedkins conservation Foundation annually donated almost TZS 100,536,900/=towards community development project in various locations of their operations, but the observation that this study revealed according to (Balkan hunters club). In Tanzania one tourist hunter accompanied by one professional hunter, hunting for 28 days, pays US\$ 69,440 equals to TZS 111,104,000/=,for ten tourist hunters can generate more than TZS 1bn/= in 28 days, therefore hunting tourism if well administered could have contributed much more when comes to benefit sharing".

Prices below are per hunter and for daily rates only. Other required charges are listed separately. Big Game Safaris are sold as Safari Packages, with a single

client hunting with one Professional Hunter, forming a 1x1 combination and two clients with one Professional Hunter, forming a 2x1 combination etc. Balkan Hunters club recommend that each client have their own Professional Hunter to improve their chances of success. Big Game hunting safari dates are 1 July to 31 December every year. Table (III) shows the price accumulated from tourists and his professional hunter in number of day(s).

Table III: Wildlife hunting price list

	AREAS - LAKE NATRON SOUTH GCA & RUNGWA IKILI					
Client x PH combo	7 Day Total	10 Day Total	14 Day † Total	16 Day Total	21 Day Total	28 Day Total
1 x 1	\$7,700	11,000	\$24,500	\$39,680	\$52,080	\$69,440
2 x 2	\$7,700	11,000	\$23,800	\$38,080	\$49,980	\$66,640
3 x 3	\$7,700	11,000	\$23,100	\$36,480	\$47,880	\$63,840
4 x 4 / 3 x 2	\$7,700	11,000	\$22,400	\$34,880	\$45,780	\$61,040
2 x 1	\$7,000	10,000	\$21,700	\$33,280	\$43,680	\$58,240
4 x 2	\$7,000	10,000	\$21,000	\$31,680	\$41,580	\$55,440
Companion Hunter*	-	\$7,350	\$10,290	\$11,760	\$15,435	\$20,580
Observer	\$2,940	\$4,200	\$5,880	\$6,720	\$8,820	\$11,760

Notwithstanding the scanty knowledge on above uncertainties, the WCA that was enacted in 2009 strengthened central control of wildlife and gave the WD more mandate to intervene in the management of village lands (URT, 2009). Provisions in the WCA have strained relationship between community members and investors in the wildlife industry on one hand and between local people and the government on the other hand. For example, in their press statement released at the Lush Garden Hotel in Arusha on 4th April 2013, a group comprising several CSOs being defenders of land and human rights stated that, *“the decision of the Government to grab 1,500km² out of the total 4,000km²*

legally owned by existing villages located in Loliondo GCA was set to worsen the conflict, which has been simmering for the last 20 years". The CSOs concluded that the Government's decision was against good governance and the rule of law requisite because that new arrangement reduced village income from tourism in some areas, caused great discontent to local people with regard to government policy on tourism and wildlife conservation due the lost revenue (www.pingosforum.or.tz, 2014).

Table (IV) shows the amount of money paid to two villages of Esilalei and Oltukai together with AWF.

Mantis/Villages/Ranch Payments from 9th April 2013- 15th April 2014

Esilalei/Oltukai/Ranch

Table IV: Amount paid to villages and AWF

DATE PAID	MANTIS PAYMENT TO AWF US DOLLARS	TSHS EQUIVALENT	PAYMENT TO VILLAGES 30% TSHS	PAYMENT TO EACH VILLAGE TSHS	DATE PAID TO EACH VILLAGE	PAYMENT TO RANCH 70% TSHS
09-04-13	16,041.70	25,809,491.13	7,742,847.37	3,871,423.67	10-04-13	18,066,643.79
				-	10-04-13	
10-09-13	9,066.60	14,587,252.49	4,376,175.82	2,188,087.91	23/10/2013	10,211,076.67
				-	23/10/2014	
15/01/2014	20,125.00	32,651,202.50	9,795,360.75	4,897,680.38	21/03/2014	22,855,841.75
				-	21/03/2014	
17/01/2014	10,656.64	17,289,545.87	5,186,863.76	2,593,431.88	21/03/2014	12,102,682.11
				-	21/03/2014	
15/04/2014	16,099.00	26,285,642.25	7,885,692.67	3,942,846.34	20/05/2014	18,399,949.58
					20/05/2014	
TOTAL USD	71,988.94	116,623,134.24	34,986,940.34	17,493,470.7	TOTAL TSHS	81,636,193.90

Source: AWF - Each Village should have received Tshs 17,493,470.17

4.1.4 Corruption trends

In this context 39% of all respondents declared that, government workers and those from the private sector were involved in corruption practices within the Wildlife Sector. 39% of respondent endorsed the presence of corruption, 23% not comment and 14% were ignorant .CEO of NCAA comment on extravagant lifestyle of some of NCAA staffs and for TANAPA staffs the same was noted, resulted from corruption and weak financial control. This easy accessibility to extra money promotes unethical behaviour.

In Kansay village respondents lamented that the Marang' Forest; before it was annexed to TANAPA was of beneficial to neighbouring communities. Villagers used to collect firewood and fetch water from the forest under proper organization and control of neighbouring Village Councils. Communities claimed that although TANAPA believed that it could conserve the forest better off than surrounding inhabitants used to do; the forest has continued to be degraded at alarming rate since its management was transferred to TANAPA. The current forest degradation results from illegal tree cutting and unlawful mining within the forest. Fabricated cases against TANAPA rules are imposed to local people who in turn are penalized with heavy fines of between TZS 100,000 and TZS 300,000 per person and in most cases without issuance of receipts. Allegations presented by Kansay people were substantiated by current mining activities, which have expanded to using heavy equipments and machinery in the forest area without any action being taken to offenders (Kiwango, 2013). Study respondents from villages neighbouring NCAA stated that poachers were well known, but when information about poaching activities was given to NCAA rangers, actions were rarely taken. Instead informants were the ones who fall victims, Park rangers interrogate communities' cruelly, and the same communities claimed that rangers and other staff collude with poachers.

Respondents from Sangaiwe village applauded originators of Burunge WMA, which was among the 16 pilot WMA in the country to be established in early 2002. The WMA was also one of the early wildlife reserves to be gazetted in that category on 22nd May 2004 with an Authorized Association that was registered in 2006. They were proud of having 10 years of experience to assuring local people's livelihoods through proper utilization of wildlife living on their village land without compromising the interests of wildlife protection. However, the same respondents complained that management approach of the WMA has changed very fast towards the worse compared to when WMAs were established in 2002. In early years when the WMA was established leaders were committed. Today whoever is elected turns to be corrupt and unaccountable. Members asserted that despite changing leadership time and again when elements of corruption were noticed, local people were not realizing

expected benefits due to acts of revenue misuse, non-involvement of the community in decision making, failure to deliver reports and supporting investors to harass local people on their land, a situation that signals aspects of corruption. One type of corruption is systematic corruption for example granting concessions to some investors while denying others, especially when their facilities are outside protected areas boundaries that accelerate growing image of double standard, favouritism that is close to nepotism. In conclusion respondents declared that corruption practices were implied in leaders' behaviour though it was difficult to prove because it is done confidentially.

In general, majority of respondents urged that light fines/sentences that were imposed to poachers while heavy fines/sentences to ordinary community members who were involved in minor offences signifies corruption. In some cases courts granted bail to the accused individuals as provided by relevant laws. This provision gave opportunity for bailed individuals enough time to interfere with cases through corruption and ultimately resulting into chances of such cases being ruled out in favor of culprits. In some circumstances where prosecutors felt that there existed corruption between magistrates and suspects, prosecutors were discouraged to follow the cases. Some respondents attributed prevailing interception of trophies in foreign countries but believed to originate from Tanzania is due to persistent of corruption. It is a questionable phenomenon "why there are many reports on interceptions on consignments of elephant ivory either on the way to foreign countries or already packed and ready for export than reports on poachers' intercepted before they have killed the animals?". All circumstances were attributed to systematic corruption unless the actors could prove otherwise.

4.1.5 Human rights abuse

Although the reported human rights abuse levels differed from one village to another complains were above average, which was 74% in all villages except Sangaiwe, Minjingu and Esilalei (Appendix 1: chart 8). Most of the abuses emanated from land conflicts and use of natural resources by communities. Respondents claimed that both rangers from public organizations and workers from private investors were violating human rights. Villagers however,

contended that it was difficult to substantiate the allegations because most of the violations were done in secrecy. The trend of human rights abuses in areas within protected areas and adjacent villages has gained momentum albeit what the laws and policies insist. This research noted that even in areas where natural resources are under village governments, human rights abuse is also at alarming rate depicted by injuries, deaths and destruction of properties.



Plate 4: Human torturing, burning of houses and their belongings have been some of human rights abuses in Kansay village due to internal conflicts arose from off –forest resources

Respondents said that within the Wildlife Sector there were all forms of intimidation structure that leads to injustice, discrimination, corruption and favouritism to the extent of making local people to feel that wildlife utilization by both government institutions and private investors was not geared towards eradication of poverty among rural dwellers and economic growth of the nation. Instead, respondents believed that the few rich individuals both in the public and private business sectors were illegally benefiting from wildlife. Farmers complained that they were suffering a lot from living with wildlife in the sense that they were not able to harvest enough food due to rampant raiding by wildlife while in pastoral areas domestic animals were killed by wild animals. For instance In Kambi ya Simba one of the participant insisted that 4 elephants can destroy 20 acres of crops in a day, that worth TZS 40m/=Therefore if 20 acres can generate TZS 40m/= in one season, the compensation of TZS 50,000/=

from the wildlife division comes after a year or more is still not enough to cover the loss caused by wildlife. Despite the losses they incurred, people were severely harassed to the extent that fines for a domestic animal entering the protected area was fined much more than what was compensated for a person who was injured/killed by wildlife and/or the property destroyed.

Few individuals from villages surrounded with wildlife reserves were employed both in government institutions and by investors. Some investors argued that employment was given to individuals from surrounding villages for unskilled tasks, but for skilled positions most villagers lacked required qualifications. Although this argument may sound true as the study revealed that only 9% of all household heads who were interviewed had education beyond the primary school level (Appendix 1: chart 2), 74% of household members from the surveyed villages were educated up to primary level education. For example, in the NCA where the NCAA through the NPC has been sponsoring about 2,000 children to attend education post primary level every year, only few positions even for the drivers and rangers were taken up by individuals from the community.

Respondents complained that some staff from government institutions in the Wildlife Sector harassed male villagers sometimes to death when they are suspected of violating wildlife laws. Respondents from Slahhamo and the nearby Kambi ya Simba villages in Mbulumbulu ward alleged that women including pregnant ones were sometimes exposed to corporal punishment so as easy bribes such as sexual bribe that might resulted into the risk of being infected with HIV and other STD's. The already infected ones are currently consulting ARV's treatments (source: respondents, FGDs and a nurse who treat victims and validation meeting). Sometimes victims were asked to give bribes and in case one failed to give the required amount of money, a fabricated case was opened in the court of law sometimes in Loliondo; the headquarters of Ngorongoro District situated more than 200 kilometres from Karatu town. Since NCAA rangers were well aware that a person without money and with a case in Loliondo will definitely fail to attend hearings, the cases were postponed after

every two weeks and sometimes a conclusion reached after five years period of time, failure to appear before the court resulted into passing a ruling in absentia. An example was cited where one youth from Kambi ya Simba village was jailed for 20 years over a fabricated case after he disclosed information on poaching activities and failed to appear before the court in Loliondo following several adjournments. Suspects were taken to Loliondo approximately 200 km in an open body-car. All these misconduct resulted to the growing agony of hatred towards conservation and institutions at large

In Nainokanoka complains about abuse of human rights centred on rights to freely utilize their land. In spite of the law establishing the NCA prohibiting owning crop production in the area, people were not compensated with sufficient food leave alone the government everlasting promises. There were several prohibitions on the utilization of the land resource. Pastoralists were for example forbidden to graze livestock in all the craters and the water catchment forest all accounting for about 15% of the conservation land mass. People were also not allowed to construct permanent dwellings; trade centres were confined to selected areas compelling people to walk long distance in search of essential commodities. Construction of secondary schools in each of the wards as the National Education Policy directs was not complied with in the NCA. People in NCA had the feeling that living with wildlife had become a nuisance instead of a blessing. Respondents therefore declared that people in NCA had developed feelings of mistrust, a situation that put the future of Conservation Area in jeopardy.

Respondents from Ololsokwan village mentioned OBC, which is a hunting company in Loliondo GCA as an example of investment companies that did not preserve freedom to local people and the right to live as free persons. Respondents asserted that when they claimed their rights, they were severely,

and beaten sometimes to death, their dwellings were a blazed and livestock shot to death while government leaders were not taking any appropriate actions. OBC had secretly concluded indefinite contract of owning Loliondo GCA with the MNRT. Study respondents argued further that the community was even not informed on the limits of business operations, OBC was involved in, and the benefits they were supposed to acquire from the investors existence on their land. Transparency in negotiations and ultimately signing of the agreements would have given the community opportunity to monitor the Company's operations and demand accountability. In conclusion majority of the respondents said that poor relations resulted from nonconformity of investors and unethical behaviour of public leaders at different levels from the villages to respective Ministries.

4.1.6 Fair deal

The wildlife sector in Tanzania has so long expanded its operations and becomes much more of business oriented. It has expanded from game viewing to hunting, educational and research, photographic touring to lodge and bedding facilities. In that regard the tourism industry has no well stated baseline to matters related to tax and fair deal practice. For instance there is no clear approach or a specified standard on the issue of granting concessions to investors as well as tax and fee exemptions in running lodge and hostel facilities. It was lamented by citizens, as well as investors in area where the study was conducted that the contractual agreements are not well known to the community and the amount to be paid or collected as revenue. It seems to have no benefit to the community surrounding parks as CSR should be. The local contents should be seriously considered when addressing about fair-deal, investments contracts and policy that administer investments, should put emphasis on use of available resources and materials as well as human resources that in return could have a multiplier effects to the communities and country economy at large.

A number of investors has also claim that there is unfair practice on paying tax and levy to the LGAs, AAs and the central government. Thus the trend shows a number of cases to where as investment within parks attracts less taxation

rather than the ones outside parks which seem to be sub standard so there should be guidelines to those investment within or outside parks and putting down the clear records of their day to day activities.

5.0 SUMMARY OF KEY CONCERN & MESSAGES FROM STAKEHOLDERS IN WILDLIFE SECTOR

District/Village/ Institution	Concern	Message
<p><i>Karatu District</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Kansay</i> 	<p><i>Before Marang’ forest was annexed to TANAPA, people of Kansay and other villages had direct benefits from it, such benefits include water and energy for domestic use and pasturing and beekeeping.</i></p>	<p><i>The villagers of Kansay urged that since its annexation, they felt no use of it, while communities are restricted yet there are illegal activities that are taking place in the forest such as mining activities. This kind of double standard is not acceptable. TANAPA and Government are required to fulfil their promises so as to provide alternative or compensation for lost access to resources.</i></p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Slahhamo & Kansay</i> 	<p><i>Villagers claimed that, NCAA & TANAPA Authorities imposes cases to them when individuals or cattle trespass the protected areas who in turn are penalized with heavy fines of between TZS100,000 and TZS 300,000 per person without issuance of receipts. (Kansay &</i></p>	<p><i>Illegal fines and charges that were practiced by NCAA & TANAPA Game rangers imply corruption. ‘They told us to take care of our animals, but they don’t take care of theirs’ when wild animals feed on our farms. Improper compensation or consolation is extended when injury, death or crop destruction caused by marauding animals.</i></p>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kambi ya Simba – • (Upper Kitete) • Kambi ya faru 	<p>Slahhamo)</p> <p>Human rights abuses in different forms have been at peak in Kambi ya Simba and Kambi ya Faru villages, It has caused internally displaced or disturbed persons flew to Kilindi and other neighbouring districts.</p> <p>Respondents further claimed that female villagers including pregnant women were exposed to corporal punishment and sometimes asked for sexual bribes failure to that they were required to pay money or fabricated case were filed against them.</p>	<p>All such treatment of persons is contrary to human rights principles. Hence, a serious actions must be taken against perpetrators</p>
<p>Ngorongoro District</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ololosokwan • Nainokanoka • Irkepuusi 	<p>Villagers from Ololosokwan claimed that TANAPA has extended the park boundaries periodically shifting the beacons, hence the village land size always diminishing. This brings about disharmony relationships among villages, TANAPA and OBC hunting company due to cases of inhumane conducts against the people of Ololsokwan. In addition, it has been claimed that village leaders have turned to be puppets of investor (OBC) by defending its interests against that of villagers.</p>	<p>Villages are entities and registered under the laws including Village Land law of 1999 and Land Law of 1999 that form a village, therefore, any legal establishment should abide with the laws of villages thus expansionism should not interfere with village boundaries.</p> <p>“Here we are under the Arab Emirates therefore it’s better to ask for a help rather than fighting back, Between the President and the King who is superior”? (Ololsokwan respondent)The</p>

	<p><i>Despite the fact that, the problem of animals has been reported in all villages, there is no proper compensations, consolation for those who lost their properties and lives.</i></p> <p><i>Lack of accountability and transparency especially during contracts signing between investors and the Government, for instance the ongoing turmoil of land alienation in Loliondo</i></p> <p><i>Respondents from Nainokanoka claimed that farming activities in NCA are prohibited while other alternative means of life including food supply by the NCAA are insufficient</i></p>	<p><i>respondents replied “The King”(Mfalme).</i></p> <p><i>The current programme of food supply to Nainokanoka villagers by NCAA through NPC does not cater for the needs, They proposed and appeal to Government to set aside land for cultivation purposes. They prefer to be independent rather than dependants.</i></p>
<p><i>Monduli</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>• Esilalei</i> <i>• Selela</i> 	<p><i>It is the fact that revenue generated from wildlife resources by investments on village land should firstly and mostly benefit the neighbouring villages who always suffer from the consequences of living near parks (injury, death, raiding animals and destruction of crops).</i></p> <p><i>In addition to being the safeguards against poaching arson. etc .Neighbouring watch</i></p>	<p><i>The village land has been taken by Manyara Ranch; villagers realized no benefit of the investment on their land. “We should benefit from our own resources”. Appeal for roles, responsibility and benefit sharing among stakeholders.</i></p>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mto wa mbu-Barabarani 	<p>Respondents from Esilalei reported that discrimination and favouritism practices by Government officials including TANAPA are a common phenomenon, especially in service delivery like use of trucks to supply water to villa</p> <p>During the time of this study, respondents claimed that TANAPA park rangers practice unlawful acts against humanity, physical and psychological torturing assaults, some become disabled and even death to villagers and left poachers free.</p>	<p>It is suggest that favouritism and discrimination should be stopped</p> <p>, For example in Selela, in order for a person to be employed he/she must come from Maasai tribe; a situation that entertain nepotism and tribalism(Selela)</p> <p>These mistreatment actions are not acceptable, serious measures must be taken by authority against culprits (Mto wa Mbu)</p>
<p>Babati</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Minjingu • Sangaiwe 	<p>Communities see very little benefit of wildlife as the dividend from WMA form of land use is inadequate and does not reach villages timely, The issue of raiding animals is at peak, hence causing injury, death and crops destruction.</p>	<p>Management of WMA at Burunge and WD have been blamed for lack of transparency that signals corruption practises in terms of revenue generated and how it is spent, village leaders and other authorities' failure to comply with the interests of communities but in most cases favour the interest of investors. It is proposed that institutional harmonization is paramount, transparency needs to be in place corruption practises be combated.</p> <p>Compensation or consolation when injured, death or destruction of crops and properties occurred;</p>

		<i>appropriate and timely actions need to be taken by TANAPA Authority and other relevant actors. (Minjingu & Sangaiwe)</i>
<i>TANAPA HQ</i>	<p><i>It has been observed that the program of 'ujirani mwema' initiated by TANAPA is a useful thing however, it does not meet the expectations of community as compared to huge revenue generated and donations</i></p> <p><i>Research team encountered stringent bureaucracy to meet relevant officers including Director General (DG). In some departments and offices one on one discussion was possible, but filling in questionnaire were very hard as it appeared officials were avoiding committing information in writings.</i></p>	<p><i>Stringent bureaucracy at TANAPA headquarters was experienced. Therefore there is need for increasing openness as well as for staff of TANAPA to act responsibly to attend and work with different stakeholders who are investigating and evaluating good practices, rule of laws and fulfilling duties in wildlife sector.</i></p> <p><i>CCS and SCIP for adjacent communities let's say accountable for 7.5 % revenue from Parks should be regular and timely delivered with standard procedure for village and communities to access it</i></p>
<i>Ngorongoro district and NCAA</i>	<i>Since establishment of Ngorongoro conservation Authority in 1959, the purpose was to create a unique park where animal and human being co exist, famous known as area of multiple land use. However, as time goes</i>	<i>.... "here animals are more valued than human beings, for instance, when one elephant is killed, you will see all types of guard vehicles around the village, but if wild animal kills a man even the money for the</i>

	<p><i>the attention to local communities seems to be decreasing where as that of rhinos, elephant, birds and other animals are given much more priority.</i></p>	<p><i>coffin will not be provided a situation that is confusing us “No humanity here” (Nainokanoka). It is suggested that human and animal welfare should be treated without biasness.</i></p> <p><i>On another note respondents acknowledged NHFR as an important water catchment area for both surface running water and underground streams, but it is claimed that some of influential figures including political leaders trespass into the forest to feed their livestock for commercial purposes. This abuse of power and resources should be stopped.</i></p> <p><i>Moreover NCAA spokesperson agreed that excessive investments and trade degrade the environment and conservation activities in Ngorongoro, A scientific intervention is required to determine the fate of this man and biosphere reserve in Ngorongoro.</i></p>
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<p><i>Wildlife Division (WD)</i></p>	<p><i>It is urged that WD is granting permits for hunting concessions and photographic Safaris with discrimination and favouritisms a situation which trigger corruption practises.</i></p> <p><i>Excessive power of director of wildlife is questioned in terms of WMAs and other wildlife resource management.</i></p> <p><i>Application of multiple laws or registration which overlapped one or the other causes confusion and denial of rights due to inefficient, ineffectiveness and instringent bureaucracy on revenue distribution a case of WMA and matters of compensation and consolation (Minjingu)</i></p>	<p><i>Wildlife division through district councils obliged to disburse 25% of the revenue from hunting blocks and photographic to the villages, but this is not implemented timely,</i></p> <p><i>WD has shown weakness in administration and supervision of WMA as some of revenues from WMA are not reaching the required villages, This matter has been taken to court(Minjingu)</i></p> <p><i>WD should ensure people are given consolation/compensation in time with respect to the extent of damage or loss</i></p> <p><i>Stakeholders demand for transparency and accountability in granting hunting concession to companies, revenue collection and dividend distribution to villagers.</i></p> <p><i>Harmonization of laws is highly recommended.</i></p>
<p><i>AWF</i></p>	<p><i>Respondents said that the purpose of establishing WMA was good but the complexity of structure imposed by central government and how it is managed is where the problem emerged, thus discouraging the spirit of conservation and benefit sharing. Delay in remitting agreed percentage of revenues to villages was other challenge observed</i></p>	<p><i>WMA should be an independent institution Central Government, should avoid interfering with its operations including collection of revenue with exception of matters related to policy, laws and regulations.</i></p> <p><i>AWF with the support from USAID should stop doing business and collecting revenues entity from Manyara</i></p>

	<i>in the area.</i>	<i>Ranch investment. It is learnt that the primary focus of AWF - USAID is to support conservation, anti-poaching campaign and improving the welfare of local residents. Stakeholders recommended that AWF -USAID should not meddle in the business but rather focus on fundamental objectives of empowering the communities and dealing with conservation issues.</i>
<i>WMA-Burunge</i>	<i>Respondents from Minjingu said before establishment of WMA, communities were enjoying directly benefits from their land i.e. cultivation, pastoralism and others. During initiation of WMA we were told that we would benefit more from wild animals (hyenas , leopards etc) as tourists would pay fee when visiting WMA, but it has been a different story, now we have no land and realized less benefit and not timely delivered</i> <i>In addition to the same animals jeopardizing our lives and that of our livestock.</i>	<i>WMA should review regulations and laws focusing on key issues including fairly distribution of revenue among villages that formed WMA while addressing issues of human rights, corruption practices, transparency and accountability to bring a desired change.</i>
<i>Monduli district Manyara Ranch</i>	<i>The investment covers almost TZS 45,000 acres of land which belongs to two villages of Oltukai and Esilalei. Communities see little benefit of the investment, instead AWF through USAID enjoy the fruits, by receiving</i>	<i>“Land is one of the resources that we totally depend on to make our living possible, therefore if conservation is taken as a shield to convert our resources into consumables, and yet none of us really</i>

	<p>revenues while the TZS 17m/=allocated to each village was disputed by villagers during validation meeting.</p>	<p>benefited, if the ranch project should keep going then it must directly benefit our residents. Any form of land use that is closer to land grabbing must be stopped.”</p>
<p>Ngorongoro district OBC</p>	<p>The investor has been granted the village land for the purpose of hunting with a clear demarcation. It is observed that the aim has changed into land expansionism that directly affects other forms of land use by villages. The competition for land use triggers conflicts which bring co- existence disharmony.</p>	<p>Respondents from Ololosokwan urged that the government should stop allocating more village land to OBC under the cover of investment. They further urged that the OBC corporation must stop intimidation, torture, killing and violation of human rights. Loliondo.(Ololosokwan)</p>
<p>NEMC</p>	<p>NEMC should treat all company/investors and other actors equally by ensuring that they adhere to laws, policies and regulation for best practises on environmental issues.</p>	<p>NEMC and other environmental stakeholders including CSOs, Research institutions (i.e. TAWIRI) should make sure that operators must always meet minimum conservation standards that include following the GMPs.</p>

6.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Conclusion

The National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP) that was launched in 2005 placed a strong emphasis on improving governance with respect to local empowerment, participation in decision making, accountability, transparency and rule of law in the use of public resources in order to attain economic growth that spreads benefits to all Tanzanians (URT, 2005). However, the declared strategy did not consider in harmonizing guidelines for implementation, which are the major elements of CSR, to be realized by both government institutions and private sectors. As a result, Tanzania has continued to registering relatively either a low income or lower profit margin from natural resources particularly wildlife in economic growth and poverty alleviation than was expected. In other words less is gained from wildlife related business market share (i.e. given that tourism is an international business).

It is evident that despite the fact that Tanzania is a wildlife-rich country, decisions which are made basing on current key regulations, policies and legislations for wildlife conservation in the country have not sufficiently supported the efforts in poverty reduction and promoting economic growth in rural areas. While donors have continued contributing substantially towards wildlife conservation than the budgetary allocation by the Government (Thirgood, *et al.*; 2008), rural citizens continue backing up national agencies and private investors by bearing the cost of living with wildlife without receiving significant shares of economic benefits. Signing of hunting contracts between central Government and hunting companies has never been transparent to citizens. Negotiations are also carried out without serious accommodating the interests of other stakeholders in the wildlife sector. Some clauses in the investment contracts within the Wildlife Sector are faced with ambiguity with several implications regarding ownership of land, payment of royalties to land owners, distribution of revenue between local communities and the government both at the local and central levels in addition or unclear employment guidelines for local people and other aspects of local contents. Similar to what was observed in the Mining Sector at Mirerani in Simanjiro District study (ANGONET/Kepa,

2013), lack of guiding framework on benefit sharing with respect to CSR is a key challenge in the wildlife Sector to balancing the interests of stakeholders that is communities, employees, investors and the Government. Also, low level of grassroot people capacity both to effectively participate in decision-making processes and to enforce accountability and lessens the potential demand for improvement in standards of good governance both at local and central Governments levels.

The WD, TANAPA and NCAA suggested that CSR could be known and implemented as appropriately as possible if relevant information in the wildlife sector could be disseminated to all stakeholders through seminars, workshops and other means of conservation education. Further that, public awareness on human rights particularly those living with wildlife and sharing information and statistics that are important to their livelihoods could be one of the best ways of improving transparency and reducing both really and perceived corruption practices and therefore raise their confidence in the wildlife sector and the Government in general.

Furthermore it is advised that appropriate policies that would reduce pressure and damage on wildlife species and habitats, including those which could reduce high human population growth rate like embracing family planning strategy, should be adopted. Human population increase may decrease the share of wildlife-related benefits to people and therefore defeat the aim of motivating them to refrain from destructive activities. Results from this study found no correlation between family sizes and education levels of households' heads. For example, the average household size in Slahhamo village was 7.5 people where 20% of all the respondents had been educated beyond primary level while in Sangaiwe village were none of the household head was educated beyond standard seven, the average household size was 6.0 people (Appendix 1: chart 2). Instead this study related education levels of household heads to household welfare and chances of getting good paid jobs because the heads are the ones who make major decisions on family affairs. Thus, the government institutions in particular NCAA advised those government institutions and other

stakeholders within the wildlife sector to put more emphasis on sponsoring education to children particularly those coming from relatively disadvantage poor families so as to increase chances of being employed in future.

Despite government institutions' suggestions, the private sector and some cases NGOs contended that currently the wildlife sector in Tanzania is faced with many challenges including poaching, animal smuggling, insecurity situations, poor tourism infrastructure, bureaucracy, involvement in corruption practices within government setting, taxes and levies imposed to business people, and abuse of human rights. The cases asserted that not all stakeholders were fully involved in law enforcement, hunting activities were not properly monitored, revenues were not fully collected from potential sources, benefit distribution to stakeholders was complex and complaints against local people's harassment and abuse of human rights were not attended effectively and efficiently. Some investors sighted the demonstrations that were going on in NCA with regard to the government failing to fulfil its promise on provision of food to its inhabitants as an example. In other parts of the country including Loliondo and Babati, communities were increasingly protesting against leasing their village lands to investors without their consent and appropriate compensations. The private sector advised that in spite of CSR being an important tool to improving good governance, refraining from corruption practices, observing transparency and accountability, involving people in both management of wildlife and determining mechanisms for equitable benefit sharing were central elements to the successful implementation of the model.

Majority acknowledge that CSR in Tanzania remain a contentious issue as either remain voluntary. They however, suggested that the government should be strict to enforcing existing policies and laws by taking severe actions to those who violate them including the abuse of human rights, engaging in corrupt practices, misusing public funds and other resources particularly the wildlife while working on pending issue of CSR.

The private sector suggested further that, the government should develop guidelines on how companies which are doing business in the wildlife sector should support local people's development projects and social services to ensure a more or less similar approach. Researchers advised that accountability to support given to local communities could be improved through strengthening communication among the public, leaders, CSOs and donor agencies. Moreover organizing awareness campaigns on human rights, civic education and forming special committees which involve members from different organizations to make follow up especially on donations. Further, the government should step in to work on raised grievances and put in place a system that works to help people.

Finally, since it was the duty of the government to use part of taxes paid by corporations to restrain wildlife poaching in the country, appropriate support to anti-poaching teams both financially and materially should be guaranteed so that wildlife poaching in the country is stopped. Local people concluded that following the continuing decline in local people's livelihoods, their fate has largely been ignored by conservation efforts due to insufficient efforts by the government to address the problems they face. Most respondents in surveyed villages had developed feelings of mistrust, a situation that put the future of wildlife conservation in the country at jeopardy. Controversial contracts that are signed between the government and private investors for conducting business on wildlife resources have been an issue of concern over years. The study revealed that although respondents were eager to see the government working hard to arrest corruption and violations of human rights abuse, they listed problems that needed immediate government intervention. These are as provision of quality education, health services, clean and safe water, passable roads and electricity as their priority for now. Others advocated that land rights in areas where people live with wildlife should be safeguarded and left to the inhabitants to utilize the way they see it beneficial. They argued that in the face of decreasing land for crop production, livestock keeping and fewer benefits they received from wildlife resource, they have now found themselves at the margins of existence. They summed up by saying that if the present practice

continues unabated, even if CSR is made legally compulsory it is anticipated that decline in wildlife and environmental degradation in their areas will likely prevail.

6.2 Recommendations:

Generated from findings and other key concerns from stakeholders, the following were recommended;

End corruption practices

Increase transparency in opportunity distribution and contracts in conducting businesses to adhere to ethical standards of dealing in suppressing all forms of nepotism and conflict of interests. Enhance clarity in the process of revenue generation, utilization and monitoring.

Promote accountability and transparency

Enhance accountability and transparency in wildlife management. Efficient and effective system of accountability to guide practitioners in wildlife sector is required to be in place. Government as a custodian and regulator of the country wildlife resources is required to take lead role in providing policies and regulation that promote transparency and accountability in the sector. Other actors are argued to participate in formulations of laws and plans that affect the wildlife resources. They are strictly required to refrain from violating the provided standards frameworks.

Benefit sharing and participation

In benefit sharing both participatory and beneficiaries approaches should be applied. Among other stakeholders the community should be a central pillar in planning and decision making. Direct and indirect opportunities need to be available to the communities. The era of communities to be recipient while investors and central government control wildlife opportunities in the sector, should be at minimal or eliminated reversed. Concrete benefit sharing framework should be developed to ensure that revenue are equitably and propositionally distributed and monitored at all levels.

Human rights observance

There is a lot of human rights abuse allegations ranging from killing, raping, physical assaults, psychological tortures, eviction, harassment settlement burning land grabbing, untimely compensation and consolation regarding loss of both lives and properties. The Government and investors should observe and promote human rights standards. The study noted the magnitude of the problem therefore it demands an immediate response to the situation by all actors.

Tax Disclosures

Investors, government and other actors are required to thoroughly participate in compulsory and voluntarily disclosure of the revenue and expenditure, practices/trends in wildlife CSR related part is insisted. For the purpose of this study

Environment and wildlife management

The critical issue for the sustainability of wildlife is conforming to right based approach for the communities. Inclusion of stakeholders and indispensable is paramount to support wildlife and environmental conservation to support wildlife and environment conservation. Another important intervention includes the incentives for communities to acquire greater quota of economic gain from the wildlife sector.

Fair Deal

It is recommended a fair deal approach to be applied to overcome favouritism and monopolization. Emphasizes on granting of concessions and contracts to investors should be consistent and no double standard approach. The trend shows in number of cases investments within parks attracts less taxation rather than the one outside parks this is not sounding both ecologically and economically. Matters of local contents and foreign direct investment need to be resolved in wildlife industry

Institutional roles

In absence of clear holistic CSR legal framework in Tanzania, the parties can rely on experience and existing legislations while persuading clarification from regulator and possible establishment of CSR crosscutting guideline or sector guidelines. The Central government, local government, CSOs and other stakeholders should establish a national awareness platform to strengthen CSR ethical and moral conduct of business.

“Serengeti shall never die”..... Shall it not die at the expense of internally displacing Ololosokwan villagers?

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: RESULTS FOR SURVEYED VILLAGES

Chart 1: Sex and age proportions of respondents

Village Name	PROPORTION IN PERCENTAGE OF ALL RESPONDENTS					
	Sex		Age			
	Male	Female	18-35 Years	36-50 Years	51-60 Years	> 61 Years
Sangaiwe	56	44	24	48	16	0
Minjingu	40	60	56	28	10	8
Slahhamo	84	16	8	48	12	32
Kansay	52	48	16	64	12	6
Nainokanoka	68	32	40	32	16	12
Ololsokwani	72	28	32	48	4	16
Selela	68	32	28	56	8	4
Barabarani	60	40	20	40	12	16
Esilalei	52	48	24	52	12	4
Average	61	39	28	46	15	11

Chart 2: Level of education, family size and birth status of respondents

Village Name	PROPORTION IN PERCENTAGE OF ALL RESPONDENTS					
	Education				Family Size	
	None	Primary	Secondary	Technical and University	> 18 years	< 18 years
Sangaiwe	4	96	0	0	3.0	3.0
Minjingu	4	96	0	0	3.4	3.8
Slahhamo	8	68	8	20	5.0	2.5
Kansay	4	92	4	0	4.7	3.7
Nainokanoka	28	56	8	8	3.6	3.4
Ololosokwani	32	56	26	4	4.9	4.1
Selela	24	76	0	0	4.1	2.9
Barabarani	12	68	8	0	4.8	2.0
Esilalei	36	60	0	4	4.4	2.8
Average Total	17	74	5	4	4.2	3.1

Chart 3: Respondents' knowledge on CSR and benefits

Village Name	PROPORTION IN PERCENTAGE OF ALL RESPONDENTS								
	Knowledge on CSR		Presence of Wildlife Benefits		Type of Benefit(s)				
	Yes	No	Yes	No	School	Health	Water	Others	None
Sangaiwe	64	36	96	4	44	30	18	8	0
Minjingu	44	56	80	20	60	20	8	8	4
Slahhamo	68	32	84	12	80	14	2	4	0
Kansay	24	76	24	76	28	32	8	24	8
Nainokanoka	60	40	80	20	60	28	4	4	4
Ololosokwan	56	44	76	26	44	24	4	20	8
Selela	64	32	92	8	68	12	12	4	4
Barabarani	80	20	56	44	48	0	8	36	8
Esilalei	52	48	88	12	78	4	14	4	0
Average	57	43	75	25	57	18	9	12	4

Chart 4: Community involvement in development projects and budgeting

Village Name	PROPORTION IN PERCENTAGE OF ALL RESPONDENTS					
	Who Initiates Projects				Who Prepares Budget	
	Village Leaders	Village Leaders and Villagers	Village Leaders and Funders	Village Leaders	Village Leaders and Villagers	Leaders and Funders
Sangaiwe	72	26	12	64	26	20
Minjingu	24	72	8	72	36	8
Slahhamo	56	28	16	40	40	16
Kansay	64	28	8	64	28	8
Nainokanoka	56	4	38	60	4	36
Ololosokwan	52	0	48	40	0	46
Selela	56	20	18	56	22	28
Barabarani	56	28	10	48	28	18
Esilalei	68	36	8	64	36	0
Average Total	56	27	17	56	24	20

Chart 5: Community involvement in monitoring and evaluation

Village Name	Proportion In Percentage of All Respondents					
	Monitoring and evaluation			Reporting		
	Leaders	Leaders and Villagers	Leaders and Funders	Yes	No	Yes
Sangaiwe	80	8	12	84	16	12
Minjingu	76	8	4	56	36	4
Slahhamo	64	16	16	88	8	4
Kansay	80	0	20	36	44	9
Nainokanoka	68	16	16	24	64	8
Ololosokwan	68	20	12	36	52	6
Selela	60	12	28	16	84	4
Barabarani	52	14	34	18	72	10
Esilalei	84	0	12	64	36	0
Average Total	70	13	17	47	46	7

Chart 6: Household economic activities and production limitations

Village Name	Proportion In Percentage of All Respondents								
	Occupation				Land Ownership		Livestock Keeping Constraints		
	Crops	Livestock	Crops and Livestock	Others	Private	Communal	Predation	Scarcity	None
Sangaiwe	28	4	60	8	26	74	8	56	36
Minjingu	20	8	60	12	36	64	12	56	32
Slahhamo	4	0	84	12	60	32	8	62	20
Kansay	24	0	76	0	48	60	4	84	12
Nainokanoka	0	88	0	12	0	100	38	50	12
Ololosokwan	0	8	88	4	16	84	60	40	0
Selela	28	4	56	12	48	52	38	10	52
Barabarani	60	0	36	4	60	40	8	32	60
Esilalei	0	12	80	8	8	92	58	38	4
Average Total	18	14	60	8	34	66	27	48	25

Chart 6..... Continues

	Proportion In Percentage of All Respondents							
	Wildlife-Livestock Interaction		Crop Production Limitations			Crop Raiding Magnitude		
	Yes	No	Raiding	Drought	Pests	High	Moderate	Low
Sangaiwe	80	20	84	4	12	59	43	26
Minjingu	60	40	88	12	0	20	66	24
Slahhamo	52	48	84	8	4	90	8	16
Kansay	56	44	80	16	4	84	18	8
Nainokanoka	92	8	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ololosokwan	88	12	92	8	0	92	8	8
Selela	74	26	72	16	12	80	16	24
Barabarani	92	8	100	0	0	100	0	0
Esilalei	80	20	68	36	6	96	4	0
Average Total	74	26	74	15	11	69	18	13

Chart 7: Transparency and accountability

Village Name	Proportion In Percentage of All Respondents					
	Spending Appropriateness			Funding Sufficiency		
	Yes	No	Don't Know	Yes	No	Don't Know
Sangaiwe	52	25	28	44	56	0
Minjingu	16	48	36	12	88	0
Slahhamo	50	46	12	28	68	0
Kansay	12	60	28	28	58	8
Nainokanoka	12	60	28	8	80	20
Ololosokwan	42	47	11	26	84	0
Selela	8	44	48	8	88	10
Barabarani	4	45	35	24	60	16
Esilalei	48	48	10	8	92	0
Average Total	27	47	26	21	74	5

Chart 8: Human rights abuse and corruption Practices

Village Name	Proportion In Percentage of All Respondents					
	Human Rights abuse			Corruption Practices		
	Yes	No	Don't Know	Yes	No	Don't Know
Sangaiwe	40	20	40	20	40	40
Minjingu	40	20	40	20	40	40
Slahhamo	84	12	4	56	12	12
Kansay	88	4	8	40	0	60
Nainokanoka	92	4	0	64	8	8
Ololosokwan	76	4	20	36	8	20
Selela	84	4	12	74	12	0
Barabarani	76	16	8	40	26	12
Esilalei	64	16	4	16	8	42
Average	72	13	15	39	26	35

Chart 9: Relationship between investors and local people

Village Name	Proportion In Percentage of All Respondents					
	Investor(s)-Local Peoples' Relationship			Attitude on Wildlife Conservation		
	Good	Moderate	Poor	Good	Moderate	Poor
Sangaiwe	20	60	20	60	20	20
Minjingu	20	60	20	60	20	20
Slahhamo	24	20	56	8	44	44

Kansay	20	12	56	12	16	60
Nainokanoka	12	20	64	8	20	68
Oolsokwan	48	24	24	35	24	72
Selela	20	36	40	20	36	40
Barabarani	0	0	100	4	16	80
Esilalei	24	44	24	24	44	24
Average	22	33	45	25	27	48

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ANGONET

ANGONET is an acronym for Arusha Non-Governmental Organization Network. The Network was formally established in 1998 by several NGOs/CBOs & others primarily addressing issues concerning policy advocacy, community development, natural resources/ environment conservation and other emerging issues in and outside Arusha, Tanzania. The Network was officially registered in 2000 under the Trustees' Incorporation CAP 375 and duly complied with NGO Act 2002 in 2006. The organization work on three main priority areas including;

Capacity Strengthening: Build technical capacity of individual CSOs & other stakeholders in development.

Policy Research and Advocacy: Undertake policy research, Lobbying and advocacy on issues of interest to individual CSOs and the general public.

Linking, collaboration & Networking: Facilitate sharing and flow of information among and between stakeholders, linkages with other institutions and build relationships that add value to the organization.

Kepa

Kepa is the umbrella organization for Finnish civil society organizations (CSOs) who work with development cooperation or are interested in global affairs. At the moment Kepa has roughly 300 member organizations, ranging from small voluntary-based organizations to major national organizations.

Kepa was founded in 1985 to coordinate the Finnish Volunteer Service, through which dozens of professional volunteers were sent to work in developing countries. The programme was scaled down after 1995, and Kepa's work today mainly involves strengthening civil society both in Finland and in developing countries with the ultimate goal of changing the socio-economic structures and processes that lead to impoverishment. Kepa's main activities include training, advisory services and development policy work.

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