Equilibrium RESEARCH

Private governance of protected areas in Africa: Case studies, lessons learnt and conditions of success

(Study n°2: in the series on governance of protected areas in Africa)

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1. Executive summary

This executive summary has been written as two articles intended for the NAPA newsletter which break down the report into two specific topics: PPA definitions and PPA experiences.

1.1 Defining private protected areas in Africa?

Introduction

In southern Namibia, a cluster of eco-cabins have been built onto a rocky bluff above an area of sparse, grassy savannah, which is also owned by the tourism company that operates the cabins. Tourists staying at the tiny resort can walk half a mile or so along a footpath and look down on a herd of Hartmann's Zebra, an unusual sub-species found scattered around the Namib Desert. In the morning, the air is full of the sounds of birds and flocks of sand grouse can be seen flying by. After dark, fine German food is served in a communal dining room. The habitat is in good condition and the wildlife is abundant. But what do we call this? Is it a tourism operation that is cashing in on people's interest in nature, or is it a protected area that also operates as a tourist lodge?

When people think about protected areas in Africa they usually have in mind huge national parks like Kruger and Serengeti; powerful, government-run institutions based on the North American model of large, empty areas of natural habitat. But alongside the network of state protected areas there are many other places where natural habitat has been deliberately set aside from most forms of development: indigenous territories, community conserved areas and a small but growing network of privately run reserves, sanctuaries and wilderness areas. It is the privately protected areas (PPAs) that are our focus here. Concerned individuals, non-governmental / not for profit organisations (NGOs), imaginative tourism operators, religious groups, and even commercial companies own areas of land and water that they set aside for nature conservation. Some of these meet the definition of a protected area as defined by IUCN. Others, whilst being valuable for conservation, are not really protected areas as described by IUCN. The following article describes how to tell the difference and how PPA development can be better supported in Africa. A second article (to be published in the next NAPA news) we focus on current PPA experience in Africa drawing out best practices in terms of governance and development.

A short history of private governance in Africa

The concept of individuals or groups of individuals conserving land areas has a long history in Africa. The sacred Kaya Forests in coastal Kenya are survivors of a once extensive and diverse lowland forest. They owe their existence to the beliefs, culture and history of the coastal Mijikenda ethnic groups who for hundreds of years took refuge in forest settlements from the onslaught of nomadic tribes. According to Mijikenda tradition, as conditions became more secure in the late 19th century, the villagers began to leave the forest and started to clear and cultivate away from them preserving these often small areas for ceremonies, burials and places of prayer. Although today many such non-state initiatives are classified as Indigenous or community conserved areas by international categorisations systems such as those developed by IUCN, they demonstrate a long history of the willingness and ability of private/non-state actors to conserve areas of land from development.

The 19th century saw both the development of game hunting in Africa by 'white hunters' of Europe and America and the start of moves to set aside areas to conserve species for hunting. As the 20th century conservation movement developed, an alternative focus on scenic and in-situ conservation through state run protected areas evolved in Africa, along with the increasingly important involvement of communities and the private sector.

A key driver of the changing approach to conservation, which influenced much of Southern Africa, was legislative change (in Namibia in 1967, Zimbabwe in 1960 and South Africa from 1975) allowing private landowners to utilize and manage wildlife on their land without government permits. This transformed the attitudes of many landowners, from wildlife being regarded as an asset rather than a burden. These changes, together with declining profitability of agriculture (exacerbated by reduced state livestock subsidies), recurrent droughts and the growth of international tourism, created economic incentives for landowners to increase wildlife on their land, particularly in drier areas.

Today, private lands form buffer zones to protected areas, staging areas for migratory species, gap-fills for key habitats, and are often wildlife ranches that fulfil dual economic and conservation objectives. Many private land holdings in Africa are called 'private game reserve' or something similar by their owners. These are usually large areas of land or several private farms that have been consolidated into one unit (often known as a conservancy), often near or adjoining a state run protected area. They usually have some form of conservation objective but many are primarily run as tourism businesses (both consumptive in the form of hunting or non-consumptive activities such as game viewing/snorkelling). Wildlife species are usually indigenous to Africa, but can be exotic to the country or specific biome/habitat. Such areas may still include farming and some degree of zonation is invariably involved, with varying amounts of the property set aside for wildlife and related tourism. To increase operational and financial efficiency, many areas implicitly manage a carefully controlled balance of herbivores along with practices such as supplementary feeding, predator contraception and artificial water-hole construction near key tourism points. The question thus arises, immaterial of their name (which nearly always equates to a word or phrase which clearly links them with the protected area movement), are all such enterprises protected areas as understood by IUCN and the conservation community?

Definition of privately protected areas

In 2014, IUCN published the first technical guidance to 'privately protected areas' (Stolton et al., 2014). The guidelines confirmed that: **A privately protected area is a protected area, as defined by IUCN, under private governance.** The two key terms here relating to definitions and governance are explained in more detail below:

- **Definition**: The IUCN definition of a protected area is: "A clearly defined geographical space, recognized, dedicated and managed, through legal or other effective means, to achieve the long-term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values"(Dudley, 2008). This definition, agreed after lengthy consultation with IUCN members and protected area agencies, stresses the primacy of nature conservation amongst management objectives.

- **Governance**: As well as the definition, the IUCN lexicon of protected areas includes six management categories and four governance types. The latter reflect the particular make-up of actors involved in conservation and separates indigenous and community groups from other non-state actors due to their significant role in protected areas. Therefore, 'private' in IUCN governance types is all governance that is not by 'governments', 'indigenous peoples and community groups' or 'shared'. PPA governance could thus include ownership and/or management by:
  - Individuals and groups of individuals
  - NGOs
  - Corporations (both existing commercial companies and sometimes corporations set up by groups of private owners to manage groups of privately protected areas)
  - For-profit owners (e.g. ecotourism companies)
  - Research entities (e.g. universities, field stations)
  - Religious entities.

Applying the IUCN protected area definition to PPAs

Even with clarity on definitional issues, applying the IUCN system to the huge variety of private conservation efforts worldwide presents a number of difficulties. The interpretation of terms in the IUCN protected area definition such as 'recognized', 'legal or other effective means' and 'long-term conservation' can all be a challenge. The term PPA is used to describe many situations as noted above from: tourism lodges with land used for wildlife viewing farms that owners decided to manage for conservation; sites considered to be sacred by particular faith groups and NGO ventures to buy or take on management of areas of land and water. Some approaches previously described as "private protected areas" may not meet the more rigorous definitions agreed by IUCN. To aid the application of the definition to PPAs the 2014 technical guidance thus defines each term used in the IUCN protected area definition and illustrates how these can be applied to privately protected areas (see table 1 for a summary and full report for detail).

Table 1: **Summary of criteria to distinguish PPAs from other governance types (Stolton et al., 2014)**

PPA criterion	Sub-criteria
Protected area	• Area is legally designated and managed in accordance with the IUCN definition and associated principles ***OR*** • Area is managed in accordance with the IUCN definition and associated principles, and, though not legally mandated, is recognized as a PPA, for example: - Recognized on authoritative international databases (e.g. WDPA) – probably via a national-level process - Ownership by an NGO with a legal structure that obligates conservation - Recognition by a national or sub national association of PPAs with guidelines and inventory provided that the association is recognized by outside experts (e.g. WCPA regional chairs)
Entities involved	• Individual or a group of individuals, NGO, corporation, for-profit owner, research entity or religious entity
Governance	• PPA managers should be aware of any rights of use which are not in their control and efforts should be made to ensure that such use does not impact overall conservation

PPA criterion	Sub-criteria
	objectives ***AND*** • Management is dedicated primarily to the purpose of nature conservation by its owner(s) or manager(s)
Permanence	• Area is legally designated for permanent protection of nature conservation (e.g. Act) ***OR*** • Designation to nature conservation is made through a permanent agreement (e.g. conservation covenant or easement) ***OR*** • Designation to nature conservation is made by a renewable agreement with the aim of permanence (e.g. time-limited conservation covenant or easement)

The 2008 guidelines also include principles alongside the IUCN definition, category and governance type which aim to help use and apply the definition, categories and governance type (Dudley, 2008, p 10). Five of these are particularly relevant to PPAs (the other principles are related more to management category):

- For IUCN, only those areas where the main objective is conserving nature can be considered protected areas; this can include many areas with other goals as well, at the same level, but in the case of conflict, nature conservation will be the priority;
- Protected areas must prevent, or eliminate where necessary, any exploitation or management practice that will be harmful to the objectives of designation;
- A diversity of management approaches is desirable and should be encouraged, as it reflects the many ways in which communities around the world have expressed the universal value of the protected area concept;
- Protected areas should usually aim to maintain or, ideally, increase the degree of naturalness of the ecosystem being protected;
- The definition and categories of protected areas should not be used as an excuse for dispossessing people of their land.

The final principle is particularly important when reviewing sites which may be considered as PPAs. Globally, some PPAs are the focus of concerns around how the land was acquired, and if it involved 'land grabbing', where the rich and powerful use economic, legal or physical power to expropriate land or water against the wishes of people living inside or nearby. Critics label some land acquisition by conservation organizations as 'green grabbing'; although there is debate about how many protected areas deserve this title. By developing and promoting principles of good governance, such as those provided here, for protected areas, we can help to address these long-term social concerns.

In addition to the principles given above from the 2008 guidelines other principles for PPAs were elaborated in the 2014 report in relation to the issue of 'rights' and what is mean by 'long-term conservation':

- PPA managers should be aware of any rights of use that impact the achievement of desired conservation objectives that are not under their control and should make every effort to ensure that use does not impact the area's conservation objectives or the area's ability to meet the IUCN definition of a protected area.

- In recognition of the challenge that PPAs may have in proving 'long-term' conservation, focus should be put on demonstrating long-term *intent* towards conservation. Long-term in this context should be at least 25 years, though the intent should be conservation 'in perpetuity', and safeguards should be put in place to ensure conservation objectives persist even if ownership changes (Stolton et al, 2014).

The challenge of assigning IUCN governance types in Africa

Even with the elucidation of international guidelines on governance types, governance models in Africa are complex and rapidly changing. IUCN's four governance types, and the separation of community governance from private governance, can make using the IUCN system particularly challenging. In South Africa, for example, the classification of a protected area as a PPA is widely understood to be based on land ownership. PPAs are considered to be those owned by private individuals, corporate entities, NGOs and trusts. Communal land is also included in this classification as, although owned by the state (usually the Department of Public Works or the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries), it is essentially held in trust for the sole use of the communities that live on and use the land.

The Conservancy model is a common form of governance across southern Africa. Freehold conservancies, where farmers have removed internal fences and combined financial and human resources to manage wildlife over a larger area of land than their individual farms, could be considered PPAs. However, there is a distinction between farms that have been under single ownership for many years and those that were until recently communal properties. The first case, it could be argued, represents a group of private individuals who share a conservation ethos and thus can be classified as PPAs, whereas the second case represents a community conservation ethos more akin to community governance. Conservancies could also be seen as shared governance between several partners. Table 2 provides an example from Kenya indicating the variety of ownership and governance models and highlight the challenge in distinguishing governance types.

Table 2: **Different types of Wildlife Conservancy in Kenya (**Source: Stolton et al., 2014)

Type	**Land ownership**	**Governance**	**International equivalent**
Community (CWC)	Trust Land (land held in trust by Government for indigenous local communities)	Community Based Organization, Association, Trust or Company	ICCA
Community (CWC)	Group Ranch	Community Based Organization, Association, Trust or Company	ICCA
Group (GWC)	Grouping of multiple, usually small, contiguous privately-owned individual plots	Association, Trust or Company	ICCA or PPA
Private (PWC)	Single privately-owned property (usually large)	Individual(s), Trust, or Company	PPA

Decisions about governance type are thus often a question of judgement with respect to which institution in reality has most control and this will vary from country to country / continent to continent. It is thus recognized that the IUCN definition, management categories and governance

types need national or regional interpretation to accord with local conditions. Table 3 identifies the possible permutations of ownership and governance in relation to private governance in Africa. In most cases mixed governance (i.e. where ownership and management is different) is likely to fall into the 'shared governance' type as defined by IUCN. However there may be cases where the owners of the land pass so much control to the managers that the term 'shared governance' no longer describes the governance situation adequately and one of the other governance categories would seem more appropriate. For instance, if a government effectively passes over long-term management decisions to a private entity, this may more accurately be described as a PPA, even if ultimate control still rests with the government. The typology should be applied sensibly rather than rigidly. The key criterion is which entity has effective long-term control of the bundle of resources necessary to achieve the stated conservation objectives for the property. If this is in the hands of a private entity (and here private includes both for-profit and not-for-profit enterprises) then the area should be considered a PPA.

Table 3: **Distinguishing ownership, management and governance of protected areas owned and/or managed by private entities**

Ownership of land or water	**Management of resources or entities needed to achieve conservation**	**Governance (e.g. decision making, management authority and responsibility)**	**Examples**
State	Private	Most likely to be shared governance unless agreements are long-term or inclusive of all rights and responsibility for decision making in which case we suggest defining as a PPA.	Chumbe Island in Tanzania is an example of where the long term lease and rights package would meet the definition of a PPA despite state ownership of land and water.
Private	Private	Private governance or in some cases (e.g. freehold conservancies) governance shared by several private bodies	Most freehold conservancies would fit this model. Other examples can include a range of private concerns such as Olare Orok in Kenya (see box 1) which is managed by a not-for-profit company (Olpurkel Ltd) following agreements specifying land management between private land owners and tourism companies.
Private	State	Again likely to be a mix of PPA and shared governance. PPAs next to state-run protected areas are often subject to the same management as the state run area whilst retaining private ownership rights: these sites should be considered as PPAs	Contract National Parks in South Africa (see box 2)
Private	Community	Most likely shared governance	

Ownership of land or water	Management of resources or entities needed to achieve conservation	Governance (e.g. decision making, management authority and responsibility)	Examples
Community	Private	Most likely shared governance	Bangweulu Wetlands managed by African Park[1] is an example of a private/community partnership. African Parks took over the management of the wetlands in 2008 in partnership with the local communities, after the communities decided, expressed through their Chiefs and advisors, to invite African Parks to be their private sector management partner for the Project.

Box 1: Changing land-ownership in Kenya

Reforming land ownership in Kenya, as in other countries in Africa, is changing the face of conservation, with a move towards individual titles influencing management and governance. For example, prior to 1999 the land around the Masai Mara National Reserve in Kenya was designated as communal group ranches; however between 1999 and 2009 the land was subdivided and individual titles issued to group ranch members. The desire of these 'new landowners' to benefit from tourism resulted in negotiations with tourism operators to create new conservancies through registration of land owners' companies, leasing of land and signing of management agreements with investors. These group conservancies are managed through partnerships between land owners and investors by either employed staff or contracted management companies. As an example of the former, Olare Orok is a partnership between 277 Masai landowners and five tourism operators; the Conservancy is managed by Olpurkel Ltd, a not-for-profit company whose shareholders are the operators, controlled by a Board of equal representation from both the landowners and the tourism partners along with representatives from the Olare Motorogi Trust[2].

Box 2: Contract National Parks in South Africa

National Parks in South Africa are only declared if the area:

- Is of national or international biodiversity importance or contains a viable, representative sample of South Africa's natural systems, scenic areas or cultural heritage sites, or to protect the ecological integrity of one or more ecosystems in the area;
- Prevents exploitation or occupation inconsistent with the protection of the ecological integrity of the area;
- Provides spiritual, scientific, educational, recreational and tourism opportunities which are environmentally compatible; and
- Contributes to economic development, where feasible.

[1] www.african-parks.org/
[2] www.mmconservancy.com/ (accessed 8/1/2015)

The National Parks Act of 1976 allows for private land located next to national parks to be designated as a ''contracted national park'' established through a contract with the landowner. There are currently 512,099 ha under Contract National Park status in South Africa, making up a little over 12 per cent of the total area of National Parks according to South African National Parks (SANParks) data of September 2013.

In most cases, a Contract National Park is created adjacent to an existing state owned National Park. The advantage for participating landowners is that, through the exclusion of boundary fences, they obtain access to larger wildlife populations, thereby increasing their potential for developing wildlife tourism enterprises. In some cases SANParks is declared the management authority over the Contract National Park, in other cases it is the community or landowner and the conservation activities will be delegated to SANParks by the management authority. These contracts are typically binding for 50-99 years. Landowners of Contract National Parks benefit from the biodiversity conservation resources and expertise of SANParks, as well as the tourism marketing platform supporting the country's network of National Parks.

Overview of PPA models across Africa

Although table 3 outlines a wide range of possibilities for private ownership of or involvement in protected areas, most actual existing models in sub-Saharan Africa fall into a smaller subset. Table 4 below summarises the main models and conservation objectives, distinguishing between freehold and leasehold ownership, and suggests some possible definitions of three sub-governance types. *Freehold owners* own the freehold to the land meaning that they own land outright and in perpetuity. *Leasehold owners* lease land from the freeholder to use for a number of years. In addition, there are rightsholders, who have the legal or traditional rights to areas of land and water; these rights may be over all aspects of the area or may refer to certain resources (e.g., wildlife, the right to collect fodder, or to fish, or to graze livestock at a certain time of year). All of these different groups influence land use, including private conservation initiatives.

Table 3: **Typology of possible PPAs with conservation objectives in Sub-Saharan Africa (adapted and updated from Krug, 2001 and Jones et al., 2005)**

Type of reserve	Description
Freehold ranches	*Suggested definition*: Ranches that maintain a viable population of free-ranging, native wild species in extensive natural conditions, and use these as the basis of for-profit activities. *Incentives*: Mainly economic including consumptive (e.g. safari hunting and meat), and non-consumptive, (e.g. wildlife-viewing tourism). *Governance*: Run by individual freehold owners or private companies set up by a group of freehold owners. *Management*: Usually a manager is appointed. *Details*: Ranching is often based on antelope species (these account for 90 per cent of all hunted animals), but many ranches offer wildlife viewing of other charismatic species such as rhino, giraffe and zebra. *PPA as defined by IUCN*: Will depend on issues such as longer term conservation intent and management objectives. Sites focused on long term conservation most likely to meet the definition as opposed to ranches practicing farming/hunting/wildlife/tourism operations.

Type of reserve	Description
Freehold Conservancies	*Suggested definition*: Groups of commercial farms, livestock farms, mixed wildlife-cattle ranches or game ranches, where neighbouring landowners (either individual or communal landowners) pool natural and financial resources for the purpose of conserving and sustainably utilising wildlife. *Incentives*: Conservation and economic (consumptive and non-consumptive tourism) *Governance*: Freehold owners manage the land according to mutually agreed constitutions containing a set of legally binding wildlife management and conservation objectives. *Management*: Usually a manager is appointed. *Details*: Traditionally, the main difference between private reserves and conservancies is that private reserves have completely abandoned conventional farming while this remains an important source of revenue for members of a conservancy. However, in recent years conservancy members are increasingly abandoning livestock rearing. *PPA as defined by IUCN*: Will depend on issues such as longer term conservation intent and management objectives. Sites focused on long term conservation most likely to meet the definition as opposed to ranches practices farming/hunting/wildlife/tourism operations.
Private Reserves	*Suggested definition*: Areas managed by private individuals, trusts, NGOs or companies with the primary objective of conserving wildlife and natural habitat. *Incentives*: Conservation and/or economic (non-consumptive tourism) *Governance*: A parcel of land that is owned by freehold or long-term (25 years or more) leasehold by a private investor(s) or syndicate; funded and/or run by a private investor(s) or syndicate; managed for the primary purposes of non-consumptive tourism; and owned with the intent of preserving the land in a predominantly undeveloped state *Management*: Landowner(s) / leaseholder (s) develop a management plan (sometimes in cooperation with a conservation NGO or national protected area authority) designed to conserve biodiversity. *PPA as defined by IUCN*: Due to the variety of management approaches it is not possible to make a simple recommendation for these sites. Tourism objectives can be of more importance than conservation objectives with management including stocking of exotic species and/or in densities which do match natural circumstances, supplementary feeding, predator contraception and artificial water-points. For example Langholz and Kerley (2006) in their assessment of ten ecotourism-based private game reserves in the Eastern Cape region of South Africa found six sites with giraffes on their reserves despite evidence that giraffes do not naturally occur in the Eastern Cape and elephants and lion at high rates despite well documented negative impacts on biodiversity. Such examples would not be considered PPAs according to the IUCN definition. Other sites, in particular those owned/managed by conservation NGOs or managed in close cooperation with state run protected areas, as in South Africa, are likely to fit the protected area definition.

Models for increasing PPA development in Africa

There has to date been little systematic examination of the roles of private owners or managers in African conservation. As a result, in some countries (e.g. Namibia) land reform may actually cause a shift from wildlife-based land uses to livestock because of a lack of the necessary experience, expertise and start-up capital among many emerging farmers (Lindsey et al., 2013).

IUCN WCPA through its Specialist Group on Privately Protected Areas is planning to address this lack of information on PPAs by producing best practice guidelines on PPA governance and management

by 2016. In the meantime, the section below highlights some of the best practices in related to set up, agreements and policy which should emerge from the engagement of private entities in protected areas and the development of PPAs.

State / private: Agreement between a state and private entity in relation to land/sea conservation should include a long lease (bearing in mind the issue of permanence as discussed in the IUCN definition) or a lease agreed with the intent of renewal over the long term. It should be allocated by government to private individuals, groups of individuals, trusts, companies, NGOs, research organisations etc, based on a land use plan that ensures the area is set aside for conservation. Management objectives should meet the requirements of the IUCN protected area definition and principles (Dudley, 2008 and Stolton et al., 2014). Leases should ensure security of conservation intent (e.g. not easily be withdrawn or renegotiated through the inclusion of 'escape clauses' for either party) and of conservation management (e.g. systems should be in place to monitor conservation success and ensure adaptive management if the lessee is not meeting the objectives of the land use plan). Shorter term management agreements with private bodies are likely to be more focused on specific management challenges (such as increasing site-based management capacity, resourcing anti-poaching activities or ecological restoration); in this case major management decisions and therefore also the governance type would remain with the state.

Private / private: Unless regulation or legislation exists, the main management challenge here is to ensure long-term conservation. Even if the current private owner is personally committed to conservation, it is not necessarily guaranteed that this policy will be sustained by the owner's heirs, or by a new owner following a sale. Securing conservation intent of private land therefore often entails the development of some more formal agreement, such as:

- **Conservation Easement**: ensuring land use is committed to conservation in perpetuity through the grant of an appropriately formulated Conservation Easement by an owner with discrete title to the area. This approach is available in some parts of Africa, for example provisions for easements are available in Kenyan law in both the Environmental Management and Coordination Act (1999, revised 2012) and the 2014 Wildlife Conservation and Management Act. Easements provide for permanence in land use as they are registered in the High Court. Heirs may sell but the land use should legally never change. To date however very few easements have been successfully negotiated in Kenya as the process is complex and time consuming.
- **Legal designation**: in some countries in the region, such as Namibia, regulation exists to designate PPAs.
- **Non-legal frameworks**: in countries without a legal framework, PPAs can be recognised under the 'other effective means' clause in the IUCN definition. Exactly how long term intent can be assured remains subject to debate that goes beyond PPAs; reneging from protected area commitments can occur under any governance type. In the case of PPAs, judgements might be influenced by commitments made by the landowner (e.g. stipulations in wills or covenants), by evidence of associated investment in and management for conservation; demonstration that other family members share the commitment to the privately protected area, and so on. In the conservancy model, for example, landowners enter multi-tenure systems where land management is promulgated through a constitution that binds landowners together in a shared vision of the landscape. Such agreements allow for

innovative partnerships between multiple organisations including government agencies, conservation NGOs and private landowners in managing ecosystems. Conservation actions are implemented either by a management entity that is accountable to an elected board of directors or more loosely through mutually agreed arrangements by members. Such agreements provide clarity around conservation direction and are evidence of long-term conservation consent, as demonstrated by South Africa (see box 3), which has some of the region's most established PPAs.

Box 3: Klaserie Private Nature Reserve

Klaserie Private Nature Reserve[3] borders Kruger National Park and was formed in July 1969. It is one of the largest privately owned nature reserves in South Africa covering 60,000 ha.

Institutional arrangements were devised by the founding members and the constitution of Klaserie Private Nature Reserve (1998) states that its objective is: ''to conserve a wide diversity of indigenous species and their associated habitats using sustainable utilization principles.'' Membership is restricted to legal entities owning land within the reserve, and all members are obliged to pay annual fees to cover the cost of managing the reserve. Many members are wealthy absentee landowners who do not depend on the land for income generation. Each property has further constraints with respect to number of residents, timesharing, tourism development and subdivision or sale of land, including the right of first refusal by existing members to buy land being sold and subjection of new owners to the terms and conditions of membership. Governance is overseen by an executive committee comprising members or landowners who are elected at an AGM. The committee appoints a reserve warden to be the administrative official for the association. Management is directed by the mandatory adherence to wildlife management plans which conform to the master plan for the Kruger National Park (Kreuter et al, 2010).

Assurance of long term conservation management of PPAs

It is clear from the arguments above than in some countries the limited long-term security of tenure of land lease and management agreements increases risks for private investment in conservation. Particular challenges for PPAs include:

- Lack of recognition from states and the international conservation community (see box #)
- Lack of any suitable legislative basis for development and recognition of PPAs
- Inter-generational sustainability, if ownership passes from someone committed to conservation to a descendent with other priorities
- Long term security of tenure and contracts
- Lack of advocacy for private conservation at international level (e.g. with IUCN, the CBD, etc.)
- Lack of clarity on rights which impacts conservation outcomes

Box 4: **Lack of recognition for Freehold Conservancies in Namibia**

Although the IUCN definition of a protected area recognises sites declared by 'legal' or 'other effective means', recognition of a PPA by the state does help provide PPA owners/managers with security and helps with long-term conservation objectives. In Namibia, The Conservancies

[3] www.klaseriereserve.co.za/

Association of Namibia (CANAM) defines a freehold conservancy as: "a legally protected area of a group of bona fide land-occupiers practicing co-operative management based on: (1) a sustainable utilization strategy, (2) promoting conservation of natural resources and wildlife, (3) striving to re-instate the original biodiversity with the basic goal of sharing resources amongst all members". Despite the use in the definition of 'legally protected area', unlike their communal area counterparts there is no specific legislation providing for freehold conservancies in Namibia, which means that they are not a 'legally protected area'. The conservancies are rather voluntary associations and any protection or conservation measures stem from agreements between the landowners on how they wish to manage the area.

The last point on rights is particularly important when considering the status of whether an area is a PPA or not and whether conservation objectives can be met. More consolidated rights (e.g. where one individual or group holds all the major rights likely to impact the conservation area) often makes meeting conservation objectives easier. The transfer of wildlife rights has been shown to be beneficial to conservation in Africa, as whoever holds the various rights that impact conservation has an important influence on the success of conservation. Three groups of rights are particularly important:

- Land rights are critical to ensure cooperation between partners, particularly in countries where land claims and restitution are an ongoing issue
- Resource use rights, from medicinal plants to mineral extraction, will have various degrees of impact depending on the nature of the rights, overall conservation objectives, and the ability to manage effectively any resource use impacts
- Wildlife rights are, in the context of this report, perhaps the most vital. Private, rather than state, ownership of wildlife has resulted in an increasing tolerance of wildlife and the expansion of many wildlife-based land uses

Conclusions

PPA development can, in the best case scenarios, help bring together diverse stakeholders to support one integrated management goal for an area. As Langholz and Krug (2004, p 8) have noted, PPAs "overlap with two important social themes in conservation – devolution of resource control and public participation in resource decision-making", which puts PPAs in a good position to provide social benefits and even represent an "extreme form of participation in protected area management, where the local residents who own reserves control decision-making and there is no real or broader local participation in it."

Internationally, 2014 saw the first really concerted support for PPAs globally with the final decision of the CBD's 12th Conference of the Parties held in Korea in October 2014 recognizing the contribution of PPAs in the conservation of biodiversity and encouraging "the private sector to continue its efforts to protect and sustainably manage ecosystems for the conservation of biodiversity" [4], and in November 2014 the final statement from the decadal World Parks Congress acknowledged the increasing role of PPAs in "reaching biodiversity conservation and societal goals"[5].

[4] www.cbd.int/doc/?meeting=cop-12
[5] www.worldparkscongress.org/about/promise_of_sydney_vision.html

Although there has been no quite so definite statements concerning PPAs in Africa several regional institutions do, not surprisingly, support the role of the private sector in a range of activities and as such these could support policy advocacy for PPAs which clearly meet the IUCN definition of a protected area and the best practices outlined in this report. The Heads of State and Government of the Member States of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), for example, in the revised treaty of July 1993 calls for: 'the harmonisation and co-ordination of national policies and the promotion of integration programmes, projects and activities, particularly in food, agriculture and natural resources.....' (Article 3, 2 a) through: '..the promotion of joint ventures by private sectors enterprises and other economic operators, in particular through the adoption of a regional agreement on cross-border investments (Article 3, 2 f)[6]. In Southern Africa, SADC (the Southern African Development Community) has particularly focussed conservation policy on transboundary protected areas, or Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs). In late 2013 the SADC Programme for Transfrontier Conservation Areas noted that: 'SADC TFCAs are founded on the principle that conservation should embrace active participation and involvement of multiple stakeholders (states, private sector, local communities & NGOs) in the planning and management of natural resources ...'[7]. The main text of the programme however focuses mainly on the role of the private sector in providing tourism support and infrastructure rather than the development of a more mixed approach to the governance of protected areas in the region.

To take regional support for PPAs a step further the recommendations outlined in Box 5 are pertinent. Firstly, the agreed definition of a PPA needs to be clearly disseminated to regional fora and national conservation agencies, then policies and incentives which could support PPA development, focusing only on those areas which do meet the IUCN definition, can be promoted. Monitoring and assessment will remain a long term critical element of the development of PPAs in the region to ensure best practices are recognised and encouraged and PPAs are truly fulfilling their role in supporting conservation outcomes in the region.

Box 5: **Recommendations for developing knowledge and practice around PPAs**
In 2014, IUCN WCPA (with UNEP WCMC and the CBD) published the first global technical guidance on PPAs. The eight recommendations from this report (Stolton et al, 2014, pages 47-48) are given here as they are relevant for all regions when developing best practices and guidance around PPAs.

Strengthen PPAs nationally and globally

1. **Use the IUCN definition of a protected area**: A privately protected area is a protected area, as defined by IUCN, under private governance (i.e. individuals and groups of individuals; non-governmental organizations; corporations, including existing commercial companies and small companies established to manage groups of PPAs; for-profit owners such as ecotourism companies; research entities such as universities and field stations; or religious entities). IUCN, through its World Conservation Congress, and the Secretariat of CBD, through its Conference of Parties, should officially adopt and sanction this definition.
2. **Review national PPA systems**: Most countries have not clarified the definition or other policy and legislative structures surrounding PPAs. Countries should be encouraged by IUCN and the

[6] www.comm.ecowas.int/sec/?id=treaty&lang=en
[7] www.sadc.int/files/4614/2122/3338/SADC_TFCA_Programme_FINAL_doc_Oct_2013.pdf

CBD to develop PPA data (baseline and data recording systems) and to enable policy and legislation for developing and supporting PPAs.

3. **Develop and implement monitoring and management effectiveness systems for PPAs**: The long- term success of PPAs depends on their ability to demonstrate conservation effectiveness. Conservation organizations and government protected areas agencies need to work in collaboration with PPA owners/managers on developing monitoring and management effectiveness systems which can be integrated with existing systems.
4. **Create/strengthen national PPA Associations:** National PPA associations should be developed/strengthened to help: 1) determine how effective PPAs are being in their conservation mission; 2) provide training to PPA owners and managers to ensure conservation effectiveness; and 3) agree what should be counted as a PPA and develop systems to report these to national and international databases.
5. **Improve knowledge sharing and information:** Two important activities are suggested: 1) IUCN's PPA Specialist Group and WCPA should prepare a 'best practices' guide for PPAs on the management of existing PPAs and the creation of new ones; and 2) encouragement for religious institutions and companies to create, support and report on the efforts to create and manage PPAs.

Extend PPA initiatives nationally and globally

6. **Understand what incentives are needed to support and promote PPAs:** NGOs and research organizations should be encouraged to carry out research on understanding the relationship between a range of incentives and: 1) why owners establish PPAs; 2) why they maintain them once established; and 3) how to ensure conservation objectives when ownership changes. From an economic perspective, all incentives potentially distort markets, thus their positive and negative impacts also need careful study.
7. **Develop incentives to increase conservation role of PPAs**: Building on recommendation 5 above, governments and others (e.g. NGOs, private companies) should ensure appropriate PPA incentives to: 1) expand the conservation coverage of existing protected areas; 2) connect protected areas and develop protected area networks (including across national boundaries); and 3) extend coverage of threatened species and rare and endangered ecosystems. Incentives should be in the form of both conservation legislation and instruments such as taxation; and flexible enough to allow rapid development of PPAs to respond to conservation crises.

Integrate PPAs into national and international reporting

8. **Create structures and incentives to report on PPAs both nationally and globally**: IUCN, other conservation bodies and government organizations should develop systems nationally for collecting PPA data (e.g. through Associations as outlined in recommendation 4). UNEP WCMC should collect data on PPAs, including through the support of national processes, to include in the WDPA and to report to UN bodies and others.

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1.2 Private protected areas experiences in Africa

Introduction

Last issue we talked about how privately protected areas (PPAs) might be defined in an African context and how policies and agreements could support the development of a PPA network which meets the definition and principles laid out in recent technical guidance from IUCN. PPAs are already important in some African countries, but research shows that distribution is very uneven. They are very common in countries like South Africa and Namibia, fairly common in several countries of the east but virtually unknown in parts of Francophone west Africa and the Congo Basin. Is this due to political differences regarding land ownership, cultural differences in the way in which people regard nature and conservation, or purely a historical accidence, whereby they have gained popularity and support in some areas and not in others?

In the following article we map out, through examples, the present day experience with PPAs in sub-Saharan Africa. Whilst not a comprehensive review of the whole continent, the examples selected represented different aspects of private conservation in Africa and focus on the range of quality of governance associated with PPAs. As explained in the last issue, we take "private" here to encompass ownership by individuals, tourism operators, other non-profit or for-profit corporations, religious institutions and research bodies, but omit discussion of reserves manage by communities or indigenous peoples, as these are considered Indigenous and Community Conserved Areas (ICCAs). PPAs are becoming increasingly important in addressing the critical conservation challenges of the continent; an understanding of how they are established, what drives their owners and what role they play in conservation is essential to building a comprehensive picture of African protected area systems.

1. Tanzania

There are currently only three areas which could unambiguously be considered as PPAs in Tanzania, one marine and two terrestrial areas. The marine PPA, Chumbe Island Coral Park Ltd (see box 1), was gazetted in 1994 and is a solely private sector initiative. Another marine PPA, Mnemba Island, was not a success and has since been reabsorbed into the state governed MPA network. There is no active policy to promote further private governance. However there is scope for MPA authorities to make management agreements to confer management responsibilities to other 'institutions' which in practice can be, and has been, applied to private sector entities. The government is currently exploring the option of leasing management responsibility of two or three state-governed marine reserves to private sector tourism entities. Terrestrial PPAs are supported by the Wildlife Conservation Act No 5 of 2009. There are currently two PPAs, Mwiba (40,000 ha) and Kasulu (157,500 ha), under this Act. Both sites are linked to the Mawalla Group, a Tanzanian Real Estate company. Mwiba Ranch was initiated by Mawalla Trust Limited and is managed by Ker & Downey Safaris (T) Limited in collaboration with Mwiba Holdings Limited and Makao Village. Kasulu Game Ranch is solely a Mawalla Trust Limited initiative but much of the site's management (e.g. anti-poaching activities, research, monitoring and community development) is managed by the Friedkin Conservation Fund (FCF) which operates as two separate but related entities – one is a non-profit corporation registered in the United States, the other is known as 'The Friedkin Conservation Fund of Tanzania' and is set up in Tanzania as a charitable Trust.

Box 1: Chumbe Island Coral Park

Chumbe Island, situated 12 km Southwest of Stonetown, Zanzibar, was the first MPA in Tanzania and the initiative of a private investor (a former development worker) who initiated Chumbe at a time when Zanzibar started opening for foreign private investment, mainly in tourism development. Chumbe Island Coral Park Ltd. (CHICOP), owned by two shareholders, holds Management Agreements for the 33 ha Chumbe Island Reef Sanctuary (CRS), gazetted in 1994, and the 20 ha Chumbe Closed Forest Habitat (CFH), gazetted 1995. The Management Agreement and the land lease for CFH are both for 33 years, while the lease for CRS is for ten years and has already been renewed twice in 2004 and 2014. Through the lease and Management Agreements CHICOP has the right to define management zones and strategies and to define what resources may be legitimately used and how. The Management Agreement also gives CHICOP the right to arrest, or otherwise penalize, offenders in cooperation with the Police force and Ministry of Fisheries Development in case of the MPA.

The intention of CHICOP was to develop a financially sustainable model of MPA management through revenue generated from ecotourism, and the site was chosen for the high biodiversity of the shallow fringing coral reef, which is also ideal for environmental education. In the early 1990s, there were no specific policies and legislative acts available for MPAs in Zanzibar. Management capacity was insufficient to meet the challenges of rapid environmental deterioration and investment continued to be directed into unsustainable development. The main threats to biodiversity conservation were (and still are) overexploitation of marine and terrestrial resources, population increase, tourism, poverty and a lack of environmental awareness. Chumbe Island was a good candidate for conservation because it was uninhabited, traditionally closed to fishing because of its location near the shipping channel between Zanzibar and mainland Tanzania, and thus not subject to traditional resource use. Yet the island had not been included in earlier proposals for MPAs in the country.

The Legal Gazettement order defines the Reef Sanctuary as a no-take-area, where “No fishing or any extractive use shall be permitted in the area so declared”, even for research. The CFH Forest Reserve is also a no-take zone and includes the whole island, except for an already cleared area of 2.44 ha that was leased to CHICOP for building the Eco-lodge and Visitors' Centre. Permitted uses include recreation (swimming, snorkelling and underwater photography), education and research. The company objectives are not-for-profit; while operations follow commercial principles the revenue generated funds MPA management, conservation activities and environmental education programmes.

A management plan was developed in 1995 with the involvement of stakeholders (CHICOP staff, GoZ departments, local fishermen and dive companies). The plan was revised and updated in 2006 for another 10 years, again based on consultations with stakeholders. The plans clearly define objectives, activities, research regulations, and Do’s and Don’ts both for visitors and staff. Assessments of MPA management have highlighted the area’s effectiveness. The Management Agreements provide for an Advisory Committee formed by GoZ representatives of the Departments of Environment, Fisheries, Forestry, leaders of four neighbouring fishing villages and a representative of the Institute of Marine Sciences (IMS) of the University of Dar es Salaam. The Advisory Committee

meets at least twice yearly. Meetings have been held according to schedule since 1995 to discuss the Management Plans, project progress and any issues. There have been no major disagreements on actions to take so far, though recommendations of the Advisory Committee are not binding for the CHICOP Management.

Major strengths of CHICOP

- Financial sustainability is secured. Revenues from eco-tourism operations on Chumbe are directly re-invested in conservation and education programmes – all data such as guest occupancy, number of school trips, etc. are reported in progress and audited financial reports to GoZ agencies. All the management costs and environmental education programmes for local schools have been fully covered by the ecotourism operation since 2000.
- Design and planning of the MPA's area and regulations were undertaken with local resource users. Initial meetings with neighbouring communities before developing CHICOP and consultations with a wide variety of stakeholders for development of the Management Plan helped to ensure that the role of MPA is understood and supported by local resources users, civil society and the Government of Zanzibar.
- Participative governance structures and processes are managed through regular meetings of the Advisory Committee and local communities. Employing and training local fishers as Park rangers has helped enforcement through education, and was a condition for the rangers to be respected and accepted by local fishers and their communities.
- Monitoring and research projects have been carried out consistently since establishment. The site's professional network has widened due to co-operation with research institutions and participation in national and international meetings/conferences.
- The MPA has benefited local communities by generating income, employment and a market for local produce; developing new work skills; demonstrating sustainable resource management; and restocking commercial fish species in adjacent areas (spill-over).

Challenges of CHICOP

- Ambiguous regulations and wide discretionary powers of civil servants in the area of land leases, building permits, business licenses, immigration and labour laws encourage corruption and are thus hurdles to doing business by delaying project implementation and increasing costs.
- Employing people from local rural communities requires enormous investment in training and skill development, which adds to investment costs and delays business operations and income.

2. Namibia

The data on PPAs in Namibia presents a confused picture. Although there are a range of areas that could be considered as PPAs only a few really meet the IUCN definition of a protected area. The data held on the WDPA (six private reserves and 25 Freehold conservancies) is clearly incorrect and the database needs updating as appropriate. The Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET) has no official definition of such PPAs but is does maintain a centralized register of private game parks and nature reserves established under Section 22 of the Nature Conservation Ordinance of 1975. According to Zimmerman et al. (2012) the register indicates that the 153 private game parks and nature reserves cover an area of 13 116 km^2, which is equivalent to 1.6 per cent of Namibia's land

surface. However the same authors consider the list incomplete as it includes reserves subsequently de-proclaimed and some Government Gazettes include private game parks or nature reserves that are not contained in the register. Private Game Reserves not established under legislation are not recognized officially by MET and do not appear on any official data base, however there are at least eight unregistered private game reserves (covering 5,470 km²) that could fit the IUCN definition of a protected area. Four such Private Reserves are listed on the WDPA, including the Gondwana Cañon Park and the NamibRand Nature Reserve (see boxes 2 and 3). MET has prepared a Parks and Wildlife Bill which when enacted by the National Assembly will replace the outdated pre-independence Nature Conservation Ordnance of 1975, which remains the primary legislation governing parks and wildlife conservation in Namibia. It is expected that the new legislation will make provision for the recognition of the currently unregistered private game reserves and larger landscape conservation areas that link state-run PAs with neighbouring conservation areas under different types of governance. Once this is in place, there will clearly be a need to review all the PPA data available and assess if the sites listed meet the IUCN definition.

Box 2: Gondwana Cañon Park

The Gondwana Collection is a series of freehold properties owned by one for-profit company across different parts of Namibia and developed for tourism and conservation. Three of these properties, the Gondwana Cañon Park, the Gondwana Kalahari Park and the Gondwana Namib Park are managed as Private Game Reserves such that they fall within the IUCN definition of a protected area.

Gondwana Cañon Park in Karas Region, covers an area of 126,000 ha. All rights are vested in the company owning the land except for the right of arrest and penalising offenders. This, and others matters related to the illegal use of wildlife, is under the authority of officials of the MET. Some use of resources is restricted by national legislation (e.g. conservation of protected tree species, rare plants, etc.) and use of game animals is governed by the Nature Conservation ordinance of 1975. The land owner has the right to harvest certain species of game for personal use, to buy and sell game and to reduce numbers for management purposes, subject to MET authorisation.
All of the Gondwana parks have a well-developed management plan with clear conservation objectives and have successfully restored degraded former farmland. Wildlife includes springbok, oryx, red hartebeest, blue wildebeest, ostrich, giraffe, plains and mountain zebra, kudu and klipspringer[8] and more recently re-introduced black rhino. There is no internal fencing. There are three lodges, a self-catering camp and two camp sites. There has been good cooperation with MET and joint activities include research, game counts, mapping, clean ups and marketing.

Box 3: Namib Rand

The NamibRand Nature Reserve, located in southern Namibia, is a private not-for-profit nature reserve established to help protect and conserve the unique ecology and wildlife of the south-west Namib Desert[9]. The aims are to conserve the pro-Namib, the area along the eastern edge of the Namib Desert, in order to facilitate seasonal migratory wildlife routes and to protect biodiversity. NamibRand is one of the largest private nature reserves in Southern Africa, extending

[8] www.gondwana-collection.com/home/attractions/gondwana-canyon-park/
[9] www.namibrand.com/Conservation.htm

over an area of 202,200 ha. The Reserve shares a 100 km border with the State-run Namib-Naukluft National Park in the west and is bordered in the east by the escarpment. It has no game proof fencing as it aims to allow natural wildlife movements.

The reserve consists of 13 former livestock farms rehabilitated into a single continuous natural habitat. Joint management initiatives and agreements were signed with neighbours in 2008. Landowners retain the title deed to their land but relinquish individual management. In 2001 all landowners belonging to the reserve voluntarily signed the articles of association and adopted a constitution that sets aside the land for conservation. The articles of association make provision for landowners to serve as directors on the reserve's managing board and the board employs a CEO, two wardens and their management teams to implement the management plan. All rights are vested in the land owners and the management board except for the right of arrest and penalising offenders.

When purchased, the 13 livestock farms comprising the NamibRand Nature Reserve employed around 40 workers. Under conservation land use, more than 150 people are employed on the reserve, mainly by the tourism concessionaires. Habitats are improving from the degraded former livestock farmland. By 2010, wildlife populations on NamibRand appeared to have stabilized, recovering significantly from numbers recorded when intensive conservation efforts began.

The NamibRand Nature Reserve aims to achieve biodiversity conservation balanced with financial sustainability. It uses low-impact ecotourism as a means towards sustaining its conservation efforts through charging various forms of park fees in the same way as state-run national parks. The five tourism concessions in the reserve each pay a daily, per-bed fee to the reserve. The funds generated through these park fees enable the reserve to be financially self-sustaining.

The reserve has a management plan and a tourism and economic development plan. The reserve maintains a conservation policy of minimal interference with ongoing monitoring, implemented through the management plan. Staff members are responsible for implementing the management plans and internal accountability is strong due to the structure of the board and reporting of the CEO to the board. Research is aimed at directly benefit management and national scientific knowledge base. The Reserve has recently established the NamibRand Desert Research and Awareness Centre (NRAC) which supports and guides local and international researchers[10].

Both examples of potential PPAs in Namibia share similar strengths and challenges, which include:

Strengths

- Legitimacy is derived from the ownership of the land and the right to decide how the land should be used. There are no issues concerning people being removed from the land.
- Internal accountability is strong due to the structure of the land owning company and the company provides information to the public about its activities in the PPA and conservation activities and research are reported on its web site.
- Costs and benefits are internalised within the PPA and the owning company.

[10] www.namibrand.com/Conservation.htm

Challenges

- This governance type does not necessarily provide long-term security in terms of the conservation status of the land. The status depends on the company owning the land. If the company went bankrupt or decided to sell the land the status of the area could change.
- Continued investment in PPA management might depend on continued good commercial performance of the tourism operations or the willingness of the investors to subsidise the conservation operations.
- Under current Namibian legislation there is no formal legitimacy from the state.
- PPA managers are accountable to the company owning the land not to broader society.
- The State has no power to ensure that the PPA conforms to any national or international protected area standards or criteria.

As mentioned above, a clear next step for PPAs in Namibia is to bring PPAs within the formal protected area system through legislation. One option for this is for new legislation to make provision for the MET to conclude contractual agreements with the owners of freehold land, or the representatives of freehold conservancies, to have such land declared in the government gazette as a PPA. The MET would also have the ability to cancel an agreement and de-proclaim the land if it is mismanaged or failed to meet national or international protected area standards or criteria. The incentive for private land holders to enter into such agreements would be for the state to devolve more use rights over wildlife to the landholders and relax current bureaucratic controls (permits and authorisations for various uses of wildlife).

3. Madagascar

All internationally reported protected areas in Madagascar are officially under shared governance. There are a number of private reserves, although information on these is hard to come by with one exception, Berenty Reserve (see box 4). Madagascar National Parks (MNP) is however keen to involve the private sector in conservation and is increasingly seeking to establish management partnerships with specialist institutions for the expansion and professionalization of key services, e.g. tourism infrastructure provision, applied research, and small-scale private sector enterprise development. Protected areas outside the official MNP network have to have a legally recognised promoter, in most cases Malagasy or international NGOs, although mining companies, universities and private individuals have also taken the initiative to establish new sites. Sites are managed through community-based management committees.

All protected areas are legislated by the Protected Areas Code or COAP, which was revised in 2008 to accommodate new categories and governance models although, due to the political crisis that engulfed Madagascar in 2009, the revised COAP has not yet been ratified.

Box 4: Berenty Private Reserve

Berenty Reserve[11] is a small, approximately 10km^2, private reserve of gallery forest along the Mandrare River, set in the semi-arid spiny forest ecoregion of the far south of Madagascar. For more than three decades the primatologist Alison Jolly (who started the research at Berenty), researchers

[11] www-personal.umd.umich.edu/~fdolins/berenty/

and students have visited Berenty to conduct fieldwork on lemurs. The reserve is also a favourite for visitors who want to see some of Madagascar's endemic bird species, which include owls and couas. The site was established in the 1930s but is not designated or part of Madagascar Protected Area System as COAP does allow for PPAs within Madagascar Protected Area System. Incorporating Berenty would provide more long term security for the site, although it is of note that the size and condition of habitats appear to have been maintained over the last 70 years.

Berenty was established by a French settler family (the de Heaulmes) during the colonial period. The de Heaulme family, owners of Berenty Estate, cleared the majority of their land for a sisal plantation in 1936 beside the Mandrare River in agreement with local clans of the Tandroy tribe, but decided to maintain one corner as a reserve because it was 'too beautiful' to clear. The reserve is home to six species of lemur, the south's largest colony of Madagascar fruit bats, and 103 bird species, 56 of which breed in the reserve.

All decision-making about reserve management is made by private landowners, although rights to drive cattle to water along a path through the reserve were negotiated with local elders upon establishment. The right to arrest, or otherwise penalize, offenders lies with the State gendarmerie.

Strengths

- Governance structures and rules are extremely streamlined, clear and uncomplicated.
- Private property is generally recognised as legitimate.
- The reserve is a very profitable and well-known tourism destination as a result of habituated lemurs. It is likely to be maintained for conservation so long as tourism remains profitable.

Weaknesses

- PPAs are not recognised in the protected area system, and the site is thus not obliged to follow norms and guidelines.
- Neighbouring communities have little formal voice, although they also have no formal rights.
- Maintenance of the PPA is dependent on private decision-making, thus vulnerable to changing priorities (e.g. as a result of the changing profitability of different land uses) and even 'degazettement' as a result to changing priorities of owners.

4. **The Gambia**

Current biodiversity policy is weak in regards to encouraging the private sector to take part in conservation activities in Gambia. PPAs are restricted to forest areas administered under the Department of Forestry (DoF), with only one potential forest PPA (box 5) although information is scarce. However new policy and legislative frameworks are being developed, calling for increased private involvement in protected areas.

Forest parks/reserve are not included in the national estimate of 4.27 per cent coverage of protected areas, despite some having clear conservation objectives. This is because the exact coverage of these national forest parks and reserves is disputed. Many of the parks/reserve on record at the Department of Forestry (DoF) no longer exist or are completely degraded and categorization of forest parks and reserves does not follow IUCN system. Despite the lack of information and data on PPAs, the new forestry policy (2010-2019) is committed to decentralization

and synergy, and encourages support and involvement of the private sector in natural forest resource management.

Box 5: Koofung Private Forest Reserve

Koofung Private Forest Reserve was set up in 1990. The site protects 25 ha of coastal forest in Gunjur, Kombo South in the West Coast Region of the Gambia. Although not listed in the WDPA management of the site equals a category Ia. The reserve is designated under the Forest Act, 1998 and provides a safe haven for many species of small mammals and birds.

Although there is a communal land tenure system over much of Gambia, Koofung was allocated to the present land owner during land distribution by members of the traditional land owners. The private land owner decided to create a private forest for the purpose of protecting habitat and species of wildlife still found in this area. The private land owner has control of all rights associated with the reserve, and, for example, appoints forest guards to help control and protect resources within the forest; despite this there are frequent cases of illegal collection and hunting. The private owner makes all management decisions, often seeking expert's advice and services when necessary. Access to resources within the PPA is not permitted and the ongoing conservation management activities seem relatively successful. The management procedures and measure are however not well articulated and management decisions often lack enough background knowledge of issues and their linkage with internal and external issues.

Strengths

- Decisions to address management issues are taken quickly as there is no bureaucratic management system to follow.
- All matter related to the management of the park is shared with Department of Forestry.
- Revenue from PA entrance fees are shared via a method and formula that is open to scrutiny by all and resources are allocated to priority management areas.

Challenges

- The park is not integrated into broader land use planning and there is no mechanism to assess and accountability and transparency.
- The forest park needs to strengthen its management capacity by hiring the service of experts to develop a management plan and strategy for effective protection.
- There is need to collaborate with the government and to develop a long term resource mobilization strategy.
- Mechanisms for stakeholder engagement and dialogue should be clearly formulated.

- **The Republic of Congo**

Although there are no PPAs in the Congo of the type described above, the provisions of Law 37-2008 of November 2008 allow for this type of governance, although the implementing legislation has not yet been adopted. Other forms of private governance, which link state and the private sector, are however being developed here, as outlined in box 6.

Box 6: Odzala-Kokoua National Park

Odzala-Kokoua National Park is situated in the north-west of the Republic of Congo. Covering 13,546 km^2 of pristine wilderness the park protects an extensive and well conserved forest ecosystem and savannah habitats, it has high biological diversity including high concentrations of lowland gorillas. The park was established in 1935 during the French Colonial period and was extended to its current area in 2001, in consultation with local communities. The NGO African Parks took over the management of Odzala-Kokoua in November 2010 under the terms of a partnership agreement with the Government of the Republic of Congo. This agreement provides for the creation of a dedicated non-profit entity, the Odzala Foundation, which will have overall jurisdiction over the park. Although the agreement is still being developed, this could possibly be considered as a change of governance type from state to shared or even private depending on the final form of the Odzala Foundation and the rights it exercises. The management framework and partnership agreement between African Parks and Government is for a period of 25 years.

Management is aimed at achieving dual objectives of conservation of natural capital and sustainable development of natural resources and is developed with the agreement of stakeholders who are part of the Steering Committee managing the Park. The State holds sovereign rights (particularly legal ownership of protected area) and the Agency for Wildlife Conservation and Protected Areas (ACFAP) coordinates use rights. Other rights are managed by African Parks and the local community, such as management, arresting offenders, establishing subsidiary agreements, and proposals to use specific resources after agreement by State, especially with view to establishing ecotourism and/or game related activities. There are no customary rights within protected areas but dispensations are granted to local community members with Odzala Kokoua land rights. It is hard to judge the effectiveness of this still developing partnership with the private sector, but some suggested best **practices include:**

- Better understanding of the needs of local communities in the Management Plan and better integration of representatives onto the Steering Committee
- More transparent assessment of protected area management needs developed, involving all stakeholders
- Improvements made in the system of communicating decisions and results achieved (particularly in relation to investments and profits of stakeholders) to ensure healthy transparency
- Efforts must be made to strengthen (i) fairness of rights and duties applicable in protected area and (ii) respect for individual and collective rights of local communities involved.

Strengths and weaknesses of the PPA governance type

To understand the strengths and weaknesses of the PPA governance type we drew on IUCN's principles of good governance for protected areas developed by Borrini-Feyerabend et al. (2013, p 59-60).

Legitimacy: Our survey has found many examples of PPAs which do not have official status (e.g., Berenty Private Reserve in Madagascar). Although this is not in contravention of the IUCN definition of a protected area (Dudley, 2008), lack of official standing in any form does have some drawbacks. Such sites do not necessarily provide long-term security for conservation, PPA managers are accountable to the company/trust/individual owning the land rather than to broader society, and sites tend not to be recognised in national and international reporting mechanisms.

Reaching all stakeholders: Whatever the form of PPAs, there will be a need to engage with stakeholders, and most specifically with local communities (as should be the case in all protected areas worldwide). The development, management, enforcement and monitoring of the PPA should be participatory even in PPAs with a single owner. In most cases some form of benefit sharing will also be in place. Best practices should ensure revenue is shared via a method and formula that is known and was agreed by all parties. According to Nelson (2012) communities in Kenya have engaged at the national policy level more than is typical in most African countries. The reason given is the involvement and assistance of organizations such as the Northern Rangelands Trust, East African Wildlife Society and African Conservation Centre. The author notes that: "working with these NGOs as well as private freehold ranchers and tourism operators, communities participated in the Kenya Wildlife Working Group, which became an influential group ... [and] actively engaged in reform processes around wildlife, land, and the implementation of the new constitution" (Nelson, 2012, p 34). This suggests that stakeholder engagement is not usually a matter of chance but depends in part on the managers of PPAs creating opportunities and encouraging local communities and others to engage.

Box 7: Ol Pejeta Conservancy, Kenya

A former ranch in Laikipia County, Ol Pejeta Conservancy is a not-for profit organisation famous for rhino conservation and high quality tourism. The management of the Conservancy also showcases many best practices for PPAs (the Conservancy was recently recognised as one of the pilot sites to be included on IUCN's Green List of Protected Areas for its excellent management). Examples related to good overall governance include diversification of its revenue streams through enterprise such as beef and wheat farming to provides alternatives to an over reliance on tourism, and the establishment of a Community Development Programme which focuses on health, roads, water, education and agricultural extension. Activities which highlight the close working relationships with communities around the Conservancy include allowing organized grazing of community livestock in the Conservancy when grazing outside the area is scare, which in turn helps develop tolerance of wildlife outside the Conservancy by neighbouring communities, who are then willing to participate in conservation issues.

Based on Kootsositse et al., 2014.

Empowerment: In South Africa government policies such as Black Economic Empowerment (BEE), aimed at redressing the inequalities of Apartheid by giving previously disadvantaged citizens of South African economic privileges, has clearly had an impact on some PPAs, although there does not seem to one coherent approach to implementing the policy. Elsewhere in Africa, PPAs have been noted as increasing opportunities for participation, as in Odzala-Kokoua National Park in the Republic of Congo, but this is clearly not always the case.

Cultural identity: Probably all PPAs in Africa will have had a long history of use and social interactions with a range of peoples. Ensuring that current communities retain (and even reinforce) their cultural identity should be an important part of a PPA's management ethos. Unfortunately this is not always the case and Brooks et al. (2011) note how private game farm owners in South Africa create a particular version of history, revolving around ideas of wilderness, in order to sell tourism.

Limited support: In some cases, individually owned PPAs are not always considered as part of the local populace and thus do not command the same political support as community protected areas. However this is not invariably the case and for instance in Gondwana Cañon reserve in Namibia, opportunities for participation by a wide range of stakeholders had built support for the PPA. Mechanisms for sharing pooled wildlife resources in southern Africa mean that privately owned conservancies can easily be expanded to incorporate community-owned land and thus by default could be part of an overall conservation landscape with attendant support.

Resource rights: The issue of who has control of a range of resource rights over land/sea managed for conservation is clearly of fundamental importance when considering good governance. There has been a marked devolution of rights to individuals in many parts of Africa over the last few years, but this still does not always reach local stakeholders/communities. In Zambia, for example, the failure of the 1998 Wildlife Act to recognize communities as the rightful owners of the land or wildlife in game management areas (which is in contradiction to the Lands Act of 1995) is clearly hampering conservation efforts and the development of effective PPAs.

Motivations: Champions are fundamental to leading private land conservation initiatives (either individual land owners or leaders in private sector organisations) and the case studies above highlight the roles of individuals. The fact that many PPAs (or protected areas with shared governance between individual owners) are set up by groups of landowners and/or are parts of a landscape of protected areas of various governance types indicates that champions are also capable of building social capital and promoting collective action among several private owners.

Working with local communities: Particularly in the case of conservancies or protected areas with shared governance, there must be trust between partners and confidence in each other to be able to work more effectively together. According to field studies in the greater Ewaso ecosystem in Kenya by Eliot et al. (2014), PPAs owned by individuals in Kenya are seen as good neighbours to surrounding local communities when they have outreach programmes, generate opportunities for local community spin-off enterprises, support the fundraising efforts of community protected areas and add to local security. The greater Ewaso ecosystem includes the first private wildlife sanctuary in Kenya (Solio established in 1970) and now includes at least 16 individually or family-owned PPAs established. Such relationships have a direct bearing on conservation outcomes. Support from local communities was highlighted as critical to success in both Chumbe MPA and Mwiba Wildlife Ranch in Tanzania for instance.

Effective, supported enforcement: Motivation at community level can also be a powerful driving of success in enforcement. Enforcement was deemed to be effective in Chumbe MPA in Zanzibar, Tanzania, because local fishing communities recognised its role in boosting fish stocks.

Flexibility: PPAs often have greater management efficiency because decision making is easier and resources can be more quickly mobilised in the absence of government bureaucracy. PPAs in the Ewaso system in Kenya, for example, are cited by other protected areas as enabling a more rapid and flexible response to problems (e.g. security, problem animals) because of their resources, technical skills and operating systems (Elliot et al., 2014).

Education: Several conservancies in South Africa have founded Wildlife Colleges that provide ecological education and diplomas in game ranging and management. However laudable these efforts are, commentators (e.g. Spierenburg & Brooks, 2014) note that educational and employment opportunities rarely pay attention to local socio-economic differentiation or to aspirations and the meaning various groups attach to the concept of personal development.

Financial security: The private sector is often better based to raise funds, manage funds effectively and develop management which combines commercial profit motive operations with conservation success in protected areas that conform to the IUCN criteria. PPAs in Africa have a history of securing funding for conservation often owing to individuals, either land owners, NGO staff or trustees, involved having extensive personal and business networks and/or the personal commitment and passion of their owners to conservation.

Box 8: Ensuring financial security in PPAs

It is naive to assume that conservation does not need funding from some source. The expansion of state governed protected areas is clearly putting a large financial burden on governments in terms of management costs (which rise as threats increase) and increased expectations of outreach activities linked to protected area development and management. Private management in contrast can often have stronger incentives to keep overheads down and to generate income than governmental protected area agencies.

PPAs also open up funding opportunities that are not always applicable to state or community-managed protected areas, such as tax breaks (including on inheritance tax), easements, grants and subsidies open to private owners who set aside some or all of their land as PPAs. For NGOs, the often small and discreet nature of PPAs that focus on a particular landscape feature (such as a wetland area or patch of remnant forest); or species with limited habitat needs (e.g. rhinos); or habitats under immediate threat from development; can be useful in developing targeted, locally relevant fund-raising campaigns for land purchase and management.

To some extent, PPAs are also exemplars of a neoliberal approach to conservation which sees land, fauna and flora as a 'natural assets' which have value. This philosophy promotes the development of a market willing to pay for resources and the involvement of the private sector in biodiversity conservation to develop the value and manage the market. One of Africa's primary assets is its appeal to tourists who wish to see mega-fauna, experience cultural diversity and enjoy good weather, accommodation and facilities. This asset has been clearly identified by several of the organisations involved in PPAs in Africa.

Using tourism to fund conservation has provided a financial model for community involvement in PPAs, and in the best examples has allowed the development of governance models of PPAs that include nearly all the involved stakeholders. However, there is also always a danger that economic motives (profit) may override ecological objectives and therefore compromise conservation principles. Declines in tourist numbers can also be sudden and unexpected. Increasing insecurity and the 'threat' of Ebola is currently having a major impact on some tourism destinations in Africa, in particular Kenya. Without tourism funding many PPAs are going to face financial challenges, local

people are likely to lose employment and conservation objectives are likely to be superseded by at best an increased focus on livestock farming and at worst increased poaching.

Using tourism as the basis for financing conservation needs to be based on sustainable and realistic budgets, for example, in Tanzania the cost effective operations of CHICOP mean only ca. 40 per cent occupancy is required for basic management. Therefore, prospects of sustainability are good even during slumps in tourism arrivals. CHICOP has thus become the first financially self-sustaining MPA in Africa and probably worldwide (see box 1).

Poverty reduction: A study of 10 PPAs operating as ecotourism businesses in South Africa found conversion to conservation led to increase local wages and employment levels, relative to the forms of land use that they replaced, although the inverse is true for hunting based game ranches (Langholz & Kerley, 2006). However, a study carried out in KwaZulu-Natal and the Eastern Cape of South Africa (Spierenburg & Brooks, 2014) found that reserves, i.e. wildlife conservation areas, did not generate more employment than the livestock ranches they replaced, and that local people were only accessing low-income service jobs rather than the more lucrative jobs such as wildlife guiding. This latter situation highlights the need for effective education and development. The way that revenue is shared between stakeholders is also important; PPAs that make money only for a small minority are unlikely to gain widespread support. In Koofung Private Forest Reserve, Gambia's only PPA, transparency in distribution of revenue is identified as an important element in building community support.

Land rights: The issue of social engagement in private governance of conservation highlights the tensions around the term 'private'. For many this term can suggest areas are that are exclusive, where people are kept out, or even worse, displaced from their land. In South Africa, there are many outstanding or unresolved claims on land scheduled for transformation from conventional agriculture to wildlife production (see box 9).

Voluntary conservation: PPAs are often voluntary and therefore rely on incentives and encouragement, rather than coercion or enforced involvement, which requires a better understanding of the social and economic factors that underpin land managers' willingness to engage in land management initiatives.

Box 9: Another form of colonial land

Spierenburg and Brooks (2014) are critical of the role of private sector involvement in wildlife management in Africa. They maintain that game farming and/or wildlife production is presented by landowners as a way to continue the dominance of a small number of landowners over control of land. Areas are being enclosed by game fencing, which creates new forms of inclusion, of wealthy private wildlife areas, and exclusion by blocking off old access routes across farms and creating entrenched private game farms and reserves. Due to the wildlife-based nature of the land use, the presence of farm dwellers in these environments is actively minimised as far as possible and evidence of buildings and former farm worker dwellings is removed. For example, the impact of this sudden and effective enclosure of land in the Karoo, South Africa, left farm dwellers excluded from grazing land and other common property resources on the farms, and in addition, the loss of home

and identities which were closely tied to the land including their significant relationships to ancestral spirits mediated through the land. As Spierenburg and Brooks (2014) conclude: “Empty now of both people and their livestock, the private game reserves that emerged out of this initiative are sealed-off enclaves and the burial sites within them devoid of significance for visiting eco-tourists, the new denizens of this space”.

Conclusions

The final example in this article, see box #, reinforces the need for the conservation community to be specific about what it means by PPA (see article in last issue of the NAPA newsletter which outlined the definitions and principles published by IUCN in 2014 in Stolton et al.) and then to develop best practices around this definition. It is very unlikely that the game farming and/or wildlife production examples above would meet the definition. This does not mean, of course, that the conservation community should not be trying to develop good governance in all areas with any form of conservation ethos. But these areas should not be considered as PPAs.

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2. Background to private conservation initiatives

Conservation on private lands has a long history. Areas have been conserved as hunting reserves by rulers and sacred forests by communities long before the term 'protected area' was used. More recently, private reserves have been established for commercial purposes including tourism and hunting, or by not-for-profits NGOs, often with financial support from the public. However, the global protected area community has generally not paid a great deal of attention to private conservation. Although there are many forms of private protection (see table 1); there is still lack of global data about their existence and location, and little understanding of either the social processes leading to their creation or the implications for wider conservation policy and practice.

Table 1: **Possible forms of PPAs worldwide** (adapted from Lausche, 2011 and Stolton et al., 2014)

PPA Type	Level of commitment
A. Self-imposed restrictions on property for conservation purposes, with no legally binding document	1. Management of property in a sustainable way, according to conservation principles
	2. Naming of property with a conservation-associated title ('shelter', 'refuge') and use accordingly
	3. Elaboration and adherence to business or management plans for the area
B. Self-imposed restrictions on property for conservation purposes, formalized through binding documents, with no participation from a protected area authority and without being part of the formal protected area system	1. Conservation agreements, with NGOs, universities or other owners
	2. Conservation easements; land use restrictions are annotated in the public register of property
	3. Other civil contractual mechanisms containing conservation clauses such as documents related to inheritance and wills, loan contracts, or agreements granting the right to use the property
	4. Included in a local or national network, usually involving membership and registered responsibilities
C. Self-imposed restrictions on property for conservation purposes, and voluntary agreements to comply with governmental procedures in order for them to be formalized or recognized as protected areas within the formal protected areas system	1. National protected area authority creates a register of private owners on a voluntary basis. No major requirements except to be part of a network
	2. National protected area authority provides legal framework allowing owners to obtain recognition of their lands as PPAs on a voluntary basis. Requirements depend on the country; may include perpetuity, types of allowed uses of property. In most cases, it requires formal declaration by the authority for the area to be included in the formal protected areas system
	3. National protected area authority or other government body provides incentives for properties with formal recognition. May include reduced taxes, payment for environmental services, legal or technical assistance
D. Government-imposed restrictions on land use for	1. Restrictions on changes in land use, according to type of land (watershed, forest)

PPA Type	Level of commitment
conservation purposes, imposed as conditions on ecosystems use or directly affecting individual properties	2. Establishing a protected area on private property in the public interest, with or without compensation or consultation

This paper looks at governance of privately protected areas (PPAs) in sub-Saharan Africa. Land and water rights remain contentious in the region, despite new policy and legal frameworks aimed at their resolution. We recognise that pastoralists/fishers, tourism operators, conservationists and others often operate in the same area and compete for resources, creating strong incentives for direct negotiations on user rights, management and conservation. PPA development can, in the best case scenarios, help bring together diverse stakeholders to support one integrated management goal for an area. But this is not always the case. For example, Spierenburg and Brooks (2014), cite the proposed Gongolo Wildlife Reserve in South Africa, which aimed to combine many privately owned farms into one large wildlife estate, but ended up in a long term dispute over restitution claims lodged by farming communities[12]. Globally, some PPAs are the focus of concerns around how the land was acquired, and if it involved 'land grabbing', where the rich and powerful use economic, legal or physical power to expropriate land or water against the wishes of people living inside or nearby (Fairhead et al., 2012). Critics label some land acquisition by conservation organizations as 'green grabbing'; although there is debate about how many protected areas deserve this title (Blomley et al., 2013). By developing and promoting principles of good governance for protected areas, we can help to address these long-term social problems.

2.1 Study methodology

This study is part of a series of **4 studies** on governance of protected areas in Africa:

- **Study n°0**: context and types of protected area governance in Africa – a global review
- **Study n°1**: shared governance of protected areas between State and local (non-private) stakeholders in Africa
- **Study n°2**: private governance of protected areas in Africa
- **Study n°3**: governance of protected areas in Africa by Government only

The fourth protected area governance type (governance by Indigenous Peoples and local communities) is not addressed by these studies, and shared governance is focused specifically on governance that involves local-level stakeholders (i.e. Indigenous Peoples, local communities and, in some cases, local government).

Studies 1-3 adopt the same methodology:

1) **Literature review**. Based on the existing literature on the particular governance type and study 0.

[12] See for more details of this complex case: www.gongolo.net/about.html and www.farmersweekly.co.za/news.aspx?id=31974&h=Conflicting-reports-on-de-gazetting-of-Gongolo-claim (accessed 26/1/15)

2) **Country case studies**. Five countries were selected – Tanzania, Namibia, Madagascar, Gambia and Republic of Congo and in each of these countries at least seven protected area specific case studies (a total of thirty over the five countries) were produced. For each protected area case study the governance type was analysed in terms of apparent strengths and weaknesses of the governance type in that particular context. This analysis used the framework of five governance principles (legitimacy and voice, direction, performance, accountability, fairness and rights) that has been elaborated in the recent IUCN best practice guidelines on protected area governance (Borrini-Feyerabend et al., 2013). Building on this analysis, the case studies also identify best practices and lessons learned.
3) **Synthesis**. The discussion section of each report draws out strengths and weaknesses that have broader relevance (i.e. are not wholly site specific). Each report then goes on to analyse critical factors in the policy and operational context – both in terms of factors that appear to be key to success (opportunities) and factors that seem to undermine success or lead to failure (limitations). Lastly the discussion proposes a set of general recommendations to enhance success of the governance type.

A source of complication and at times confusion with all of these studies has been the determination of the governance types of particular case studies as many appear to be borderline and a number exhibit significant difference between theory/rhetoric and practice/reality. Our general principle has been to classify the case studies according to the practice/reality on the ground versus the current IUCN classification of governance types. Thus in Republic of Congo we have classified one protected area case study as private governance even though this governance category does not (yet) exist in national protected area policy. That said, it is difficult to apply the classification consistently across countries – for example it seems like that some shared governance in Madagascar (where all protected areas now have shared governance according to national policy) is, in reality, no more shared than some of the State governance in Namibia (where there is no provision in policy for shared governance).

2.2 Definition of privately protected areas (PPAs)

In 2014, IUCN published the first technical guidance to 'privately protected areas' (PPAs) (Stolton et al., 2014). The guidelines confirmed that: **A privately protected area is a protected area, as defined by IUCN, under private governance.** The two key terms here relating to definitions and governance are explained in more detail below:

- **Definition**: The IUCN definition of a protected area is: "A clearly defined geographical space, recognized, dedicated and managed, through legal or other effective means, to achieve the long-term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values"(Dudley, 2008). This definition, agreed after lengthy consultation with IUCN members and protected area agencies, stresses the primacy of nature conservation amongst management objectives.
- **Governance**: As well as the definition, the IUCN lexicon of protected areas includes six management categories and four governance types. The latter reflect the particular make-up of actors involved in conservation and separates indigenous and community groups from other non-state actors due to their significant role in protected areas. Therefore, 'private' in IUCN governance types is all governance that is not by 'governments', 'indigenous peoples

and community groups' or 'shared'. Privately protected area governance could thus include ownership and/or management by:

- Individuals and groups of individuals
- Non-governmental organizations (NGOs)
- Corporations (both existing commercial companies and sometimes corporations set up by groups of private owners to manage groups of privately protected areas)
- For-profit owners (e.g. ecotourism companies)
- Research entities (e.g. universities, field stations)
- Religious entities.

The exact distinction between the various governance types is complicated and we return to this question below.

2.3 Applying the IUCN protected area definition to PPAs

Even with clarity on definitional issues, applying the IUCN system to the huge variety of private conservation efforts presents a number of difficulties. The interpretation of terms in the IUCN protected area definition such as 'recognized', 'legal or other effective means' and 'long-term conservation' can all be a challenge. The term PPA is used to describe many situations: tourism lodges with land used for wildlife viewing farms that owners decided to manage for conservation; sites considered to be sacred by particular faith groups and NGO ventures to buy or take on management of areas of land and water. Some approaches previously described as "private protected areas" may not meet the more rigorous definitions agreed by IUCN. The 2014 technical publication defines each term used in the IUCN protected area definition and illustrates how these can be applied to privately protected areas (see annex 1 and table 2).

Table 2: **Summary of criteria to distinguish PPAs from other governance types (Stolton et al., 2014)**

PPA criterion	Sub-criteria
Protected area	• Area is legally designated and managed in accordance with the IUCN definition and associated principles ***OR*** • Area is managed in accordance with the IUCN definition and associated principles, and, though not legally mandated, is recognized as a PPA, for example: - Recognized on authoritative international databases (e.g. WDPA) – probably via a national-level process - Ownership by an NGO with a legal structure that obligates conservation - Recognition by a national or sub national association of PPAs with guidelines and inventory provided that the association is recognized by outside experts (e.g. WCPA regional chairs)
Entities involved	• Individual or a group of individuals, NGO, corporation, for-profit owner, research entity or religious entity
Governance	• PPA managers should be aware of any rights of use which are not in their control and efforts should be made to ensure that such use does not impact overall conservation objectives ***AND*** • Management is dedicated primarily to the purpose of nature conservation by its owner(s) or manager(s)

PPA criterion	Sub-criteria
Permanence	• Area is legally designated for permanent protection of nature conservation (e.g. Act) ***OR*** • Designation to nature conservation is made through a permanent agreement (e.g. conservation covenant or easement) ***OR*** • Designation to nature conservation is made by a renewable agreement with the aim of permanence (e.g. time-limited conservation covenant or easement)

2.4 Principles associated with PPAs

The 2008 guidelines include principles alongside the IUCN definition, category and governance type (Dudley, 2008, p 10). Five of these are particularly relevant to PPAs (the other principles are related more to management):

- For IUCN, only those areas where the main objective is conserving nature can be considered protected areas; this can include many areas with other goals as well, at the same level, but in the case of conflict, nature conservation will be the priority;
- Protected areas must prevent, or eliminate where necessary, any exploitation or management practice that will be harmful to the objectives of designation;
- A diversity of management approaches is desirable and should be encouraged, as it reflects the many ways in which communities around the world have expressed the universal value of the protected area concept;
- Protected areas should usually aim to maintain or, ideally, increase the degree of naturalness of the ecosystem being protected;
- The definition and categories of protected areas should not be used as an excuse for dispossessing people of their land.

Two other principles for PPAs were elaborated in the 2014 report in relation to the issue of 'rights' and what is mean by 'long-term conservation':

- PPA managers should be aware of any rights of use that impact the achievement of desired conservation objectives that are not under their control and should make every effort to ensure that use does not impact the area's conservation objectives or the area's ability to meet the IUCN definition of a protected area.
- In recognition of the challenge that PPAs may have in proving 'long-term' conservation, focus should be put on demonstrating long-term *intent* towards conservation. Long-term in this context should be at least 25 years, though the intent should be conservation 'in perpetuity', and safeguards should be put in place to ensure conservation objectives persist even if ownership changes (Stolton et al, 2014).

2.5 History of private governance in Africa

The concept of individuals or groups of individuals conserving land areas has a long history in Africa. The sacred Kaya Forests in coastal Kenya are survivors of a once extensive and diverse lowland forest. They owe their existence to the beliefs, culture and history of the coastal Mijikenda ethnic groups who for hundreds of years took refuge in forest settlements from the onslaught of nomadic

tribes. According to Mijikenda tradition, as conditions became more secure in the late 19th century, the villagers began to leave the forest and started to clear and cultivate away from them preserving these often small areas for ceremonies, burials, and places of prayer. Although today many such non-state initiatives are classified as Indigenous or community conserved areas by international categorisations systems such as those developed by IUCN, they demonstrate a long history of the willingness and ability of private/non-state actors to conserve areas of land from development.

The 19th century saw both the development of game hunting in Africa by 'white hunters' of Europe and America and the start of moves to set aside areas to conserve species for hunting. As the 20th century conservation movement developed, an alternative focus on scenic and in-situ conservation through protected areas evolved in Africa, based primarily on the North American model of state-run national parks (see study 1) but with an increasingly important involvement of communities and the private sector (in particular NGOs, tourism business and private individuals).

A key driver of the changing approach to conservation, which influenced much of Southern Africa, was legislative change (in Namibia in 1967, Zimbabwe in 1960 and South Africa from 1975) allowing private landowners to utilize and manage wildlife on their land without government permits. This transformed the attitudes of many landowners, from wildlife being regarded as an asset rather than a burden. These changes, together with declining profitability of agriculture (exacerbated by reduced state livestock subsidies), recurrent droughts and the growth of international tourism, created economic incentives for landowners to increase wildlife on their land, particularly in drier areas, (Lindsey et al., 2009; Lindsey et al., 2013; Kreuter et al, 2010).

Today, private lands form buffer zones to protected areas, staging areas for migratory species, gap-fills for key habitats, and are often wildlife ranches that fulfil dual economic and conservation objectives (Child et al., 2013). Many private land holdings in Africa are called 'private game reserve' or something similar by their owners (see section 2.8). These are usually large areas of land or several private farms that have been consolidated into one unit (often known as a conservancy), often near or adjoining a state run protected area. They usually have some form of conservation objective but many are primarily run as tourism businesses (both consumptive in the form of hunting or non-consumptive activities such as game viewing/snorkelling). Wildlife species are usually indigenous to Africa, but can be exotic to the country or specific biome/habitat. Such areas may still include farming and some degree of zonation is invariably involved, with varying amounts of the property set aside for wildlife and related tourism. To increase operational and financial efficiency, many areas implicitly manage a carefully controlled balance of herbivores along with practices such as supplementary feeding, predator contraception and artificial water-hole construction near key tourism points (Child et al., 2013) (see box 1).

Much has been written about the neoliberalization of environmental governance (Peck & Tickell, 2002) in which the state is shifting environmental responsibilities away towards civil society and the private sector. Hodge and Adams (2012) argue that such claims are not helpful as a basis for understanding rural land conservation policies that feature a complex mix of government action from less to more engagement. The relationship between state protected areas and private entities (in particular NGOs and Foundations) are certainly part of this movement. Several countries are developing a range of agreements, which vary on a spectrum of rights transfer (see figure 1).

The way in which land is acquired influences whether it can be considered a protected areas by IUCN and thus also whether it is a PPA. The ethics of land acquisition is addressed unequivocally in the 2008 Guidelines: one of the principles states that: "The definition and categories of protected areas should not be used as an excuse for dispossessing people of their land" (Dudley, 2008, p 10).

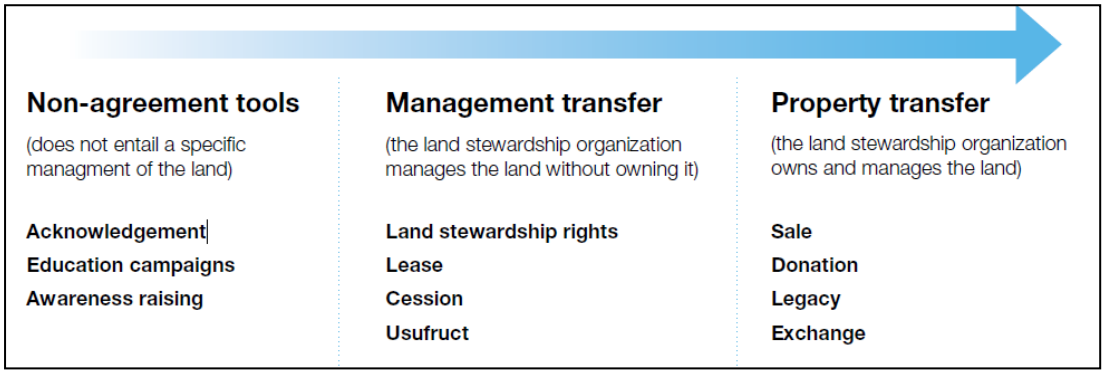

Figure 1: **A roadmap towards a full property transfer. Source: Sabaté et al., 2013**

The conservation contribution of PPAs can also vary greatly depending on scale, management objectives and regional context. Badly planned or managed PPAs may have little positive impact while others can be very valuable for the conservation of biodiversity. Some PPAs are managed primarily for tourism and wildlife viewing; others reflect the individual interests of land owners. PPAs frequently focus on one or a few species, primarily large mammals but also sometimes birds, and have been important in the survival on endangered species such as the rhinos, as well as other rare species such as Grevy's zebra, Rothschild's giraffe and wild dog (Olivier, 2014).

Box 1: **Effectiveness of differing management regimes**

Child et al. (2013) assessed the effectiveness of 13 private conservancies focused exclusively on wildlife management located within the lowveld savannah biome to the east of the Drakensberg Mountains, bordering Kruger National Park in South Africa. They found that management intensity is positively correlated with herbivore density, predator density and ecotourism lodge density as well as stimulating local economies through the need for subsidiary services (e.g. game capture teams, veterinarians, hunting equipment suppliers, accommodation and supplementary feed). Negative correlations included herbivore community heterogeneity, reintroduction success and primary productivity at the local protected area scale. When considered at the regional scale they concluded that networks of PPAs constitute a patchwork of management systems that is beneficial to both conservation and production (using native species) landscapes.

Such a patchwork will inevitably be made up of both protected areas and other sites that have some conservation value but do not meet all aspects of the IUCN protected area definition. More research and monitoring are needed on the type of management best suited to fill multiple objectives. It may be, for example, that many of the management objectives that have more to do with tourism than conservation are not as important as often assumed; for instance as Maciejewski & Kerley (2014) note, there is no evidence that stocking charismatic species at high densities leads to an increase in tourist numbers.

2.6 The motivations for private involvement in conservation in Africa

Five reasons have been suggested for the involvement of the private sector in conservation in Africa (Langholz, 2002; Carter, 2005, Lindsey et al., 2014).

1. **Failure of state-led management systems**: which is exemplified by the development of shared governance agreements between state protected areas and either NGOs or private concessions, as discussed in section 2.8.
2. **A rising societal interest in biodiversity conservation**: leading to individuals or groups of landowners becoming aware of the 'value', both inherent and potentially explicit, of the wildlife and natural resources on their land.
3. **The growth of the nature-based tourism industry**: wildlife orientated (e.g. bird-watching, photography, recreational hunting and diving) and outdoor recreation is reportedly one of the fastest growing tourism sectors, with research suggesting that across southern Africa, nature-based tourism now generates roughly the same revenue as farming, forestry, and fisheries combined (Balmford et al., 2009).
4. **Economic liberalisation in nation states**: leading to policies that encourage the privatisation of public services, including natural resource management, such as the contact national parks in South Africa (see box 4) and changes in land-ownership as in Kenya (see box 2).
5. **Enabling conditions**: long-term investment of private capital/expertise in state protected areas, to the extent that we recognise governance is essentially private, is likely to take place if there is an enabling policy environment; simple and standardized processes for investing; long leases (of at least 25 years); attractive terms (e.g. tax breaks for wildlife-based land uses); minimal red-tape; and national policies and programme to ensure local communities are supportive of wildlife investments.

Box 2: Changing land-ownership in Kenya

Reforming land ownership in Kenya, as in other countries in Africa, is changing the face of conservation, with a move towards individual titles influencing management and governance. For example, prior to 1999 the land around the Masai Mara National Reserve in Kenya was designated as communal group ranches; however between 1999 and 2009 the land was subdivided and individual titles issued to group ranch members. The desire of these 'new landowners' to benefit from tourism resulted in negotiations with tourism operators to create new conservancies through registration of land owners' companies, leasing of land and signing of management agreements with investors (Elliot et al., 2014). These group conservancies are managed through partnerships between land owners and investors by either employed staff or contracted management companies. As an example of the former, Olare Orok is a partnership between 277 Masai landowners and five tourism operators; the Conservancy is managed by Olpurkel Ltd, a not-for-profit company whose shareholders are the operators, controlled by a Board of equal representation from both the landowners and the tourism partners along with representatives from the Olare Motorogi Trust[13]. In contrast, other conservancies, such as Naboisho and Mara North, are both managed by contracted management companies.

As Elliot et al. (2014) note, although variations in the governance models exist, this process generally involves setting aside community land (community conservancy) or areas of contiguous private lands

[13] www.mmconservancy.com/ (accessed 8/1/2015)

(group conservancy) and allowing tourism investors exclusive use of the land for viewing purposes. In return land owners receive guaranteed payments based on an agreed rate per hectare and amount of land owned. This payment is currently structured as a fixed monthly payment of between US$37-50 per hectare per year for a renewable 5-15-year lease. Decision making processes are designed to bring together tourism investors and land owner representatives. Community protected areas and group conservancies are considered to be important because of their social legitimacy. While their degree of professional management may vary, the fact that they have the broad support of their involved constituency means that they have greater potential to withstand external shocks and pressures. The fact that they generate some level of economic benefits for the local community in the form of jobs and incomes means they have the potential to raise awareness about the value of biodiversity and the importance of conservation.

Kenya's network of private and community conservation is vital as it is estimated that 65 per cent of the country's wildlife is found outside state protected areas (Western et al., 2009). The change in ownership and development of new governance models in the Mara has resulted increasing the size of the ecosystem conserved from 26 per cent to 43 per cent (Elliot et al., 2014). Whether these non-state conservation areas fit IUCN's definition of a protected area would however need further investigation. As noted in section 2.3 above, the issue of how long-term the commitment is to conservation is crucial in terms of conservation success. Proving 'long-term intent' is critical; with leases currently covering relatively short periods (5-15 years) this is a challenge although the intent to renew is more in line with IUCN's guidance. Similarly, conservation management is often variable according to performance of the relevant markets: wildlife based tourism will be favoured when the livestock sector is depressed (e.g. by drought), conversely, livestock will be favoured when tourism is depressed (e.g. because of terrorism threats or first world economics). Effectively therefore, it is impossible to assert that Conservancies in Kenya are 'predominantly managed' in favour of conservation (Olivier, 2014). The current downturn in the tourism market in Kenya, with tourism arrivals dropping by 30 per cent between 2013 and 2014 (Thome, 2014), is likely to result in changing patterns of land use and perhaps even an increase in poaching (Presser, 2014).

2.7 The challenge of assigning IUCN governance types in Africa

As box 2 illustrates, governance models in Africa are complex and changing. IUCN's four governance types, which include a separation of community governance from private governance, is particularly difficult to apply. In South Africa, for example, the classification of a protected area as a PPA is widely understood to be based on land ownership. PPAs are considered to be those owned by private individuals, corporate entities, non-government organizations and trusts. Communal land is also included in this classification as, although owned by the state (usually the Department of Public Works or the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries), it is essentially held in trust for the sole use of the communities that live on and use the land (Cumming & Daniels, 2014).

The Conservancy model is a common form of governance across southern Africa. Freehold conservancies, where farmers have removed internal fences and combined financial and human resources to manage wildlife over a larger area of land than their individual farms, could be considered PPAs. However, there is a distinction between farms that have been under single ownership for many years and those that were until recently communal properties. The first case, it

could be argued, represents a group of private individuals who share a conservation ethos and thus can be classified as PPAs, whereas the second case represents a community conservation ethos more akin to community governance. Conservancies could also be seen as shared governance between several partners. Indeed, Kreuter et al. (2010, p 509) argue that private nature reserves in southern Africa are an example of community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) based on "the observation that members of multi landowner nature reserves represent communities of people who have joint interests in a common pool natural resource (wildlife) and who coordinate, to varying degrees, their decisions about the management of wildlife that traverses their combined properties".

The examples given below from Kenya (table 3), indicate the variety of ownership and governance models and highlight the challenge in distinguishing governance types. In general terms, decisions about governance types in Africa are often not clear cut. Community governance does not invariably imply community ownership: in some countries most or all land is nominally owned by the state but areas remain under effective community control. Similarly, in this report we recognised some areas as PPAs even if they remain nominally under state control, if governance has been divested to a private body for a long enough period (we suggest here 25 years).

Table 3: **Different types of Wildlife Conservancy in Kenya (**Source: Olivier, 2014)

Type	**Land ownership**	**Governance**	**International equivalent**
Community (CWC)	Trust Land (land held in trust by Government for indigenous local communities)	Community Based Organization, Association, Trust or Company	ICCA
Community (CWC)	Group Ranch	Community Based Organization, Association, Trust or Company	ICCA
Group (GWC)	Grouping of multiple, usually small, contiguous privately-owned individual plots	Association, Trust or Company	ICCA or PPA
Private (PWC)	Single privately-owned property (usually large)	Individual(s), Trust, or Company	PPA

Singita-Grumeti Reserve in Tanzania is another example of the complexity of governance and rights. Singita-Grumeti is operated by the safari company Singita, which runs 12 lodges and camps in five regions across three African countries. In Tanzania it operates primarily on a Game Reserve, which is state owned and officially still under the Tanzanian Wildlife Division as far as governance and management oversight is concerned, along with some community land and a piece of land that is privately owned (where the main tourism infrastructure is located). The company has 'bought' more direct rights in terms of management compared with other concessionaires; however management is still subject to contract with government which can for example be shortened. The governance type would most likely still be classified as state managed by IUCN; however this could change if more rights and security of contract were secured by Singita (pers. comm., Lotter, W. 6/1/15). Decisions about governance type are thus often a question of judgement with respect to which institution in reality has most control.

It is recognised that the IUCN definition, management categories and governance types need national or regional interpretation to accord with local conditions (Stolton et al., 2013). Table 4 identifies the possible permutations of ownership and governance in relation to private governance. In most cases mixed governance (i.e. where ownership and management is different) is likely to fall into the 'shared governance' type as defined by IUCN. However there may be cases where the owners of the land pass so much control to the managers that the term 'shared governance' no longer describes the governance situation adequately and one of the other governance categories would seem more appropriate. For instance, if a government effectively passes over long-term management decisions to a private entity, this may more accurately be described as a PPA, even if ultimate control still rests with the government. The typology should be applied sensibly rather than rigidly. The key criterion is which entity has effective long-term control of the bundle of resources necessary to achieve the stated conservation objectives for the property. If this is in the hands of a private entity (and here private includes both for-profit and not-for-profit enterprises) then the area should be considered a PPA.

Table 4: **Distinguishing ownership, management and governance of protected areas owned and/or managed by private entities**

Ownership of land or water	**Management of resources or entities needed to achieve conservation**	**Governance (e.g. decision making, management authority and responsibility)**	**Examples**
State	Private	Most likely to be shared governance unless agreements are long-term or inclusive of all rights and responsibility for decision making in which case we suggest defining as a PPA.	Case study 3.1.2, Chumbe Island in Tanzania, would be an example of where the long term lease and rights package would meet the definition of a PPA despite state ownership of land and water. Other examples which could meet the PPA definition include the six state owned protected areas managed by African Parks (www.african-parks.org) and long-term initiatives such as the US NGO-funded Gorongosa Restoration Project in Gorongosa NP in Mozambique (www.gorongosa.org).
Private	Private	Private governance or in some cases (e.g. freehold conservancies) governance shared by several private bodies	Most freehold conservancies would fit this model. Other examples can include a range of private concerns such as Olare Orok in Kenya (see box 2) which is managed by a not-for-profit company (Olpurkel Ltd) following agreements specifying land management between private land owners and tourism companies.
Private	State	Again likely to be a mix of PPA and shared governance. PPAs next to state-run protected areas are often subject to the same management as the	Contract National Parks in South Africa (see box 4 and table 7)

Ownership of land or water	Management of resources or entities needed to achieve conservation	Governance (e.g. decision making, management authority and responsibility)	Examples
		state run area whilst retaining private ownership rights: these sites should be considered as PPAs	
Private	Community	Most likely shared governance	The Save Valley Conservancy could be seen as an example of private farmland being handed to community management, but this is a complex case given the political aims of the government in Zimbabwe (see Nyahunzvi, 2014)
Community	Private	Most likely shared governance	Bangweulu Wetlands managed by African Parks (www.african-parks.org/) is an example of a private/community partnership. African Parks took over the management of the wetlands in 2008 in partnership with the local communities, after the communities decided, expressed through their Chiefs and advisors, to invite African Parks to be their private sector management partner for the Project.

2.8 Different types of governance agreements involving private entities

There has to date been little systematic examination of the roles of private owners or managers in African conservation. As a result, in some countries (e.g. Namibia) land reform may actually cause a shift from wildlife-based land uses to livestock because of a lack of the necessary experience, expertise and start-up capital among many emerging farmers (Lindsey et al., 2013).

IUCN WCPA through its Specialist Group on Privately Protected Areas is planning to address the lack of information on PPAs by producing best practice guidelines on PPA governance and management by 2016. In the meantime, the section below highlights some of the best practices which should emerge from the engagement of private entities in protected areas and the development of PPAs.

- **State / private:** An agreement between a state and private entity in relation to land/sea conservation should include a long lease (bearing in mind the issue of permanence as discussed in the IUCN definition) or a lease agreed with the intent of renewal over the long term. It should be allocated by government to private individuals, groups of individuals, trusts, companies, NGOs, research organisations etc, based on a land use plan that ensures the area is set aside for conservation. Management objectives should meet the requirements of the IUCN protected area definition and principles. Leases should ensure security of conservation intent (e.g. not easily be withdrawn or renegotiated through the inclusion of 'escape clauses' for either party) and of conservation management (e.g. systems should be in place to monitor conservation success and ensure adaptive management if the

lessee is not meeting the objectives of the land use plan). Shorter term management agreements with private bodies are likely to be more focused on specific management challenges (such as increasing site-based management capacity, resourcing anti-poaching activities or ecological restoration); in this case major management decisions and therefore also the governance type would remain with the state.

- **Private / private:** Unless regulation or legislation exists, the main management challenge here is to ensure long-term conservation. Even if the current private owner is personally committed to conservation, there is not necessarily any guaranteeing this policy will be sustained by the owner's heirs, or by a new owner following a sale. Securing conservation intent of private land therefore often entails the development of some more formal agreement, such as:
  - **Conservation Easement**: ensuring land use is committed to conservation in perpetuity through the grant of an appropriately formulated Conservation Easement by an owner with discrete title to the area. This approach is available in some parts of Africa, for example provisions for easements are available in Kenyan law in both the Environmental Management and Coordination Act (1999, revised 2012) and the 2014 Wildlife Conservation and Management Act. Easements provide for permanence in land use as they are registered in the High Court. Heirs may sell but the land use should legally never change. To date very few easements have been successfully negotiated as the process is complex and time consuming and by 2013 only one had been registered (Olivier, 2014). The development of easements however is part of the core mission of the Kenya Land Conservation Trust[14].
  - **Legal designation**: in some countries in the region, such as Namibia (see box 6), regulation exists to designate PPAs.
  - **Non-legal frameworks**: in countries without a legal framework, PPAs can be recognised under the 'other effective means' clause in the IUCN definition. Exactly how long term intent can be assured remains subject to debate that goes beyond PPAs; reneging from protected area commitments can occur under any governance type (Mascia et al, 2014). In the case of PPAs, judgements might be influenced by commitments made by the landowner (e.g. stipulations in wills or covenants), by evidence of associated investment in and management for conservation; demonstration that other family members share the commitment to the privately protected area, and so on. In the conservancy model, for example, landowners enter multi-tenure systems where land management is promulgated through a constitution that binds landowners together in a shared vision of the landscape (Kreuter et al., 2010). Such agreements allow for innovative partnerships between multiple organisations including government agencies, conservation NGOs and private landowners in managing ecosystems (Carter et al., 2008; Lindsey et al., 2009). Conservation actions are implemented either by a management entity that is accountable to an elected board of directors or more loosely through mutually agreed arrangements by members. Such agreements provide clarity around conservation direction and are evidence of long-term conservation consent, as demonstrated by South Africa (see box 3), which has some of the region's most established PPAs.

[14] kenyalandconservation.wildlifedirect.org/about/

Box 3: Klaserie Private Nature Reserve

Klaserie Private Nature Reserve[15] borders Kruger National Park and was formed in July 1969. It is one of the largest privately owned nature reserves in South Africa covering 60,000 ha.

Institutional arrangements were devised by the founding members and the constitution of Klaserie Private Nature Reserve (1998) states that its objective is: ''to conserve a wide diversity of indigenous species and their associated habitats using sustainable utilization principles.'' Membership is restricted to legal entities owning land within the reserve, and all members are obliged to pay annual fees to cover the cost of managing the reserve. Many members are wealthy absentee landowners who do not depend on the land for income generation. Each property has further constraints with respect to number of residents, timesharing, tourism development and subdivision or sale of land, including the right of first refusal by existing members to buy land being sold and subjection of new owners to the terms and conditions of membership. Governance is overseen by an executive committee comprising members or landowners who are elected at an AGM. The committee appoints a reserve warden to be the administrative official for the association. Management is directed by the mandatory adherence to wildlife management plans which conform to the master plan for the Kruger National Park (Kreuter et al, 2010).

- **Private / state:** In theory, a state can sometimes manage private lands within protected areas; for example in protected landscapes the government may impose certain restrictions on land that remains in private hands. This situation occurs in many large category V protected landscapes for instance. However, this is not apparently a common situation in sub-Saharan Africa, although the contract national park system in South Africa (see box 4) describes one possible approach. In most cases, if the state takes over management of private areas this is regarded as shared governance. However specific cases exist where private owners retain all rights and yet the state provides management guidance (usually when private reserves border a state reserve and the sites share management objectives); we suggest that these are still defined as PPAs. The contract national parks of South Africa provide an example. Best management here consists of getting the right balance between state and private governance and collective agreement among private owners.

Box 4: Contract National Parks and Nature Reserves in South Africa

National Parks in South Africa are only declared if the area:

- Is of national or international biodiversity importance or contains a viable, representative sample of South Africa's natural systems, scenic areas or cultural heritage sites, or to protect the ecological integrity of one or more ecosystems in the area;
- Prevents exploitation or occupation inconsistent with the protection of the ecological integrity of the area;
- Provides spiritual, scientific, educational, recreational and tourism opportunities which are environmentally compatible; and
- Contributes to economic development, where feasible.

The National Parks Act of 1976 allows for private land located next to national parks to be designated as a ''contracted national park'' established through a contract with the landowner.

[15] www.klaseriereserve.co.za/

There are currently 512,099 ha under Contract National Park status in South Africa, making up a little over 12 per cent of the total area of National Parks according to South African National Parks (SANParks) data of September 2013 (see also table 7).

In most cases, a Contract National Park is created adjacent to an existing state owned National Park. The advantage for participating landowners is that, through the exclusion of boundary fences, they obtain access to larger wildlife populations, thereby increasing their potential for developing wildlife tourism enterprises (Kreuter et al., 2010). In some cases SANParks is declared the management authority over the Contract National Park, in other cases it is the community or landowner and the conservation activities will be delegated to SANParks by the management authority. These contracts are typically binding for 50-99 years. Landowners of Contract National Parks benefit from the biodiversity conservation resources and expertise of SANParks, as well as the tourism marketing platform supporting the country's network of National Parks. In parts of the country supporting large game animals, SANParks may support the introduction of large game onto the privately owned land where appropriate.

A "Contract Nature Reserve" designation requires a servitude on the property title deed and a minimum commitment of 25 years. Landowners can apply for tax breaks and funding from CNC for alien vegetation clearing and infrastructure maintenance. Development and other land uses incompatible with maintaining biodiversity values of the site are not allowed (Pasquini et al, 2010).

Based on text supplied by Tracey Cumming and Fahiema Daniels, South African National Biodiversity Institute for the country review on South Africa in Stolton et al., 2014.

- **Private / Community:** As noted above the distinction between private and community is often complex in the region, due in part to fairly recent changes in land ownership policy in many parts of Africa. Many communal landowners are being given title to individual parcels of land (see box 2) and are then reforming to create group conservancies to make decisions on the management of that land. To match the IUCN definition of a protected area in this case, communities should create a democratic, accountable and transparent body or trust to administer the area as a conservancy. These areas are likely to be considered as shared governance or community managed protected areas rather than as PPAs
- **Community / private**: In this variable, it is assumed that communities have some form of organisation (as discussed above) to administer the area. Communities then sub-lease the land to, or engage in business partnerships with, private or NGO investors, ideally for long periods to attract significant investment and meet the definition of permanence required to qualify as a protected area. Agreements could take two forms:
    1. The communities and successful bidding investors form a second body or trust with the mandate of managing wildlife and, for example, ensuring professional anti-poaching and effective communication and cooperation between the community and investors.
    2. The investors could gain representation on the community conservancy trust after signing a partnership agreement, and then that body would coordinate wildlife management.

Investors could pay: a) an annual land rental to communities (which means they would derive some income without waiting years for wildlife populations to recover); b) an annual resource use fee (e.g. bed night levies or licence fees for animals hunted, which means that communities would receive income proportional to their conservation 'performance'); and/or, c) an annual levy to capitalize the body with the responsibility for managing wildlife. Investors could generate income either by acting as their own hunting or tourism operators (Lindsey et al., 2014). Most of these will be classified as shared governance. Best practices would include agreeing equitable terms between investors and communities, and jointly agreeing management policies that balance community and ecological needs.

To sum up: we define PPAs as protected areas where decision-making power is vested primarily in non-state actors, either through ownership or long-term agreement with the owners, excluding protected areas managed by indigenous peoples or local communities (ICCAs), which have been assigned their own individual category.

2.9 Overview of PPA models across Africa

Although section 2.8 above outlines a wide range of possibilities for private ownership of or involvement in protected areas, most actual existing models in sub-Saharan Africa fall into a smaller subset. Table 5 below summarises the main models and conservation objectives, distinguishing between freehold and leasehold ownership, and suggests some possible definitions of three sub-governance types. *Freehold owners* own the freehold to the land meaning that they own land outright and in perpetuity. *Leasehold owners* lease land from the freeholder to use for a number of years. In addition, there are rightsholders, who have the legal or traditional rights to areas of land and water; these rights may be over all aspects of the area or may refer to certain resources (e.g., wildlife, the right to collect fodder, or to fish, or to graze livestock at a certain time of year). All of these different groups influence land use, including private conservation initiatives.

Table 5: **Typology of possible PPAs with conservation objectives in Sub-Saharan Africa (adapted and updated from Krug, 2001 and Jones et al., 2005)**

Type of reserve	Description
Freehold ranches	*Suggested definition*: Ranches that maintain a viable population of free-ranging, native wild species in extensive natural conditions, and use these as the basis of for-profit activities. *Incentives*: Mainly economic including consumptive (e.g. safari hunting and meat), and non-consumptive, (e.g. wildlife-viewing tourism). *Governance*: Run by individual freehold owners or private companies set up by a group of freehold owners. *Management*: Usually a manager is appointed. *Details*: Ranching is often based on antelope species (these account for 90 per cent of all hunted animals), but many ranches offer wildlife viewing of other charismatic species such as rhino, giraffe and zebra. *PPA as defined by IUCN*: Will depend on issues such as longer term conservation intent and management objectives. Sites focused on long term conservation most likely to meet the definition as opposed to ranches practicing farming/hunting/wildlife/tourism operations.

Type of reserve	Description
Freehold Conservancies	*Suggested definition*: Groups of commercial farms, livestock farms, mixed wildlife-cattle ranches or game ranches, where neighbouring landowners (either individual or communal landowners) pool natural and financial resources for the purpose of conserving and sustainably utilising wildlife. *Incentives*: Conservation and economic (consumptive and non-consumptive tourism) *Governance*: Freehold owners manage the land according to mutually agreed constitutions containing a set of legally binding wildlife management and conservation objectives. *Management*: Usually a manager is appointed. *Details*: Traditionally, the main difference between private reserves and conservancies in southern Africa is that private reserves have completely abandoned conventional farming while this remains an important source of revenue for members of a conservancy. However, in recent years conservancy members are increasingly abandoning livestock rearing. *PPA as defined by IUCN*: Will depend on issues such as longer term conservation intent and management objectives. Sites focused on long term conservation most likely to meet the definition as opposed to ranches practices farming/hunting/wildlife/tourism operations.
Private Reserves	*Suggested definition*: Areas managed by private individuals, trusts, NGOs or companies with the primary objective of conserving wildlife and natural habitat. *Incentives*: Conservation and/or economic (non-consumptive tourism) *Governance*: A parcel of land that is owned by freehold or long-term (25 years or more) leasehold by a private investor(s) or syndicate; funded and/or run by a private investor(s) or syndicate; managed for the primary purposes of non-consumptive tourism; and owned with the intent of preserving the land in a predominantly undeveloped state (Pasquini et al, 2010). *Management*: Landowner(s) / leaseholder (s) develop a management plan (sometimes in cooperation with a conservation NGO or national protected area authority) designed to conserve biodiversity. *PPA as defined by IUCN*: Due to the variety of management approaches it is not possible to make a simple recommendation for these sites. As noted above tourism objectives can outweigh conservation objectives with management including stocking of exotic species and/or in densities which do match natural circumstances, supplementary feeding, predator contraception and artificial water-points. For example Langholz and Kerley (2006) in their assessment of ten ecotourism-based private game reserves in the Eastern Cape region of South Africa found six sites with giraffes on their reserves despite evidence that giraffes do not naturally occur in the Eastern Cape and elephants and lion at high rates despite well documented negative impacts on biodiversity. Such examples would not be considered PPAs according to the IUCN definition. Other sites, in particular those owned/managed by conservation NGOs or managed in close cooperation with state run protected areas, as in South Africa, are likely to fit the protected area definition.

3. Country and PPA case studies

Privately protected areas are not evenly spread across the continent; the models has been widely and deliberately developed in some countries and is entirely absent in others. This is mirrored by policy initiative and laws: nations with the largest PPA networks are generally those in which the government has provided active support and incentives for their establishment.

Table 6 below compares the data on PPAs recorded on the WDPA (see study 0) with the data found in the country review (see annex 2) and the case studies below. In general there is a correlation between those countries in the WDPA which report PPAs and the data found during the research for this project, however the number of PPAs reported generally do not tally. These findings support the need to carry our more detailed country-based research on PPAs and whether they meet IUCN's guidance on PPAs (Stolton et al., 2014).

Table 6: **PPA data compared: WDPA and current research project**

Country	Not reported	Private on the WDPA	Possible PPAs found during research of this project
Angola, Republic of	14	0	0
Botswana, Republic of	58	0	0
Botswana, Republic of	2	1	119
Burkina Faso	90	0	0
Burundi, Republic of	17	0	?
Cabo Verde, Republic of	4	0	0
Cameroon	100	0	0
Central African Republic	38	0	0
Chad, Republic of	21	0	0
Comoros (Union of the)	2	0	0
Congo, Democratic Republic of the	47	0	0
Congo, Republic of the	13	0	?
Cote d'Ivoire, Republic of	235	0	0
Djibouti, Republic of	1	0	0
Equatorial Guinea, Republic of	?	?	0
Eritrea, State of	4	0	0
Ethiopia, Federal Democratic Republic of	104	0	0
Gabon (Gabonese Republic)	19	0	0
Gambia, Republic of the	1	1	1
Ghana, Republic of	318	0	0
Guinea, Republic of	125	0	0
Guinea-Bissau, Republic of	33	0	0
Equatorial Guinea	12	0	
Kenya, Republic of	287	28	?

Country	Not reported	Private on the WDPA	Possible PPAs found during research of this project
Liberia, Republic of	5	0	0
Lesotho, Kingdom of	4	0	0
Madagascar, Republic of	101	2	20?
Malawi, Republic of	132	0	
Mali, Republic of		0	0
Mauritius, Republic of	1	26?	0
Mozambique, Republic of	20	0	0
Namibia, Republic of	2	2	160?
Niger, Republic of	4	0	0
Nigeria, Federal Republic of	999	0	0
Rwanda, Republic of	7	0	0
São Tomé and Príncipe, Democratic Republic of	4	0	0
Senegal, Republic of	15	0	0
Seychelles, Republic of	6	0	0
Sierra Leone, Republic of	46	0	0
Somalia, Federal Republic of	25	0	0
South Africa, Republic of	849	103	200 + [16]
Swaziland, Kingdom of	6	14	14?
Tanzania, United Republic of	452	0	3
Togo (Togolese Republic)	32	0	0
Uganda, Republic of	13	0	0
Zambia, Republic of	587	0	0
Zimbabwe, Republic of	225	0	0

The following case studies provide examples from Tanzania, Namibia, Madagascar, the Gambia and the Republic of Congo, all of which have quite different approaches to private conservation.

3.1 Tanzania: Source documents by Wayne Lotter, Krissie Clark, Jason Rubens, Sibylle Riedmiller and Abigail Wills

There are currently only three areas which could unambiguously be considered as PPAs in Tanzania, one marine and two terrestrial areas.

3.1.1 Current status of PPAs

- *Marine PPAs*: The marine PPA, Chumbe Island Coral Park Ltd[17] (see case study), was gazetted in 1994 and is a solely private sector initiative. Another marine PPA, Mnemba Island, was not a

[16] See table 7

[17] http://www.chumbeisland.com/

success and has since been reabsorbed into the state governed MPA network. There is no active policy to promote further private governance. However there is scope for MPA authorities to make management agreements to confer management responsibilities to other 'institutions' which in practice can be, and has been, applied to private sector entities. The government is currently exploring the option of leasing management responsibility of two or three state-governed marine reserves to private sector tourism entities.

- *Terrestrial PPAs*: Privately governed Wildlife Ranches are covered by the Wildlife Conservation Act No 5 of 2009. There are currently two PPAs, Mwiba (see case study) and Kasulu (157,500 ha), under this Act. Both sites are linked to the Mawalla Group, a Tanzanian Real Estate company. Mwiba Ranch was initiated by Mawalla Trust Limited and is managed by Ker & Downey Safaris (T) Limited in collaboration with Mwiba Holdings Limited and Makao Village. Kasulu Game Ranch is solely a Mawalla Trust Limited initiative but much of the site's management (e.g. anti-poaching activities, research, monitoring and community development) is managed by the Friedkin Conservation Fund[18] (FCF) which operates as two separate but related entities – one is a non-profit corporation registered in the United States, the other is known as 'The Friedkin Conservation Fund of Tanzania' and is set up in Tanzania as a charitable Trust.

3.1.2 Case Study: Chumbe Island Coral Park

Chumbe Island, situated 12 km Southwest of Stonetown, Zanzibar, was the first MPA in Tanzania and the initiative of a private investor (a former development worker) developed at a time when Zanzibar started opening for foreign private investment, mainly in tourism development. Chumbe Island Coral Park Ltd. (CHICOP), owned by two shareholders, holds Management Agreements for the 33 ha Chumbe Island Reef Sanctuary (CRS), gazetted in 1994, and the 20 ha Chumbe Closed Forest Habitat (CFH), gazetted 1995.

The intention of CHICOP was to develop a financially sustainable model of MPA management through revenue generated from ecotourism, and the site was chosen for the high biodiversity of the shallow fringing coral reef, which is also ideal for environmental education. In the early 1990s, there were no specific policies and legislative acts available for MPAs in Zanzibar. Management capacity was insufficient to meet the challenges of rapid environmental deterioration and investment continued to be directed into unsustainable development. The main threats to biodiversity conservation were (and still are) overexploitation of marine and terrestrial resources, population increase, tourism, poverty and a lack of environmental awareness. Chumbe Island was a good candidate for conservation because it was uninhabited, traditionally closed to fishing because of its location near the shipping channel between Zanzibar and mainland Tanzania, and thus not subject to traditional resource use. Yet the island had not been included in earlier proposals for MPAs in the country.

In 1991, the investor presented a business plan to the Government of Zanzibar (GoZ) that would establish Chumbe Island as a privately managed MPA financed through ecotourism. After lengthy negotiations with seven GoZ departments, including a decisive meeting with the President, GoZ approved the project in 1993. CHICOP was formed and registered in Zanzibar for the creation and management of the reserve. According to its Articles and Memorandum of Association, CHICOP was

[18] http://www.friedkinfund.org/

incorporated “To manage, for conservation purposes, the Chumbe Island Reef Sanctuary and the Chumbe Island Closed Forest Habitat. This includes educational and commercial activities related to the non-consumptive use of the above mentioned natural resources and the doing of all such other things as are incidental or conducive to the attainment of the above object.” The Management Agreement and the land lease for CFH are both for 33 years, while the lease for CRS is for ten years and has already been renewed twice in 2004 and 2014.

The Legal Gazettement order defines the Reef Sanctuary as a no-take-area, where “No fishing or any extractive use shall be permitted in the area so declared”, even for research. The CFH Forest Reserve is also a no-take zone and includes the whole island, except for an already cleared area of 2.44 ha that was leased to CHICOP for building the Eco-lodge and Visitors' Centre. Permitted uses include recreation (swimming, snorkelling and underwater photography), education and research. The company objectives are not-for-profit; while operations follow commercial principles the revenue generated funds MPA management, conservation activities and environmental education programmes.

Governance and management

A management plan was developed in 1995 with the involvement of stakeholders (CHICOP staff, GoZ departments, local fishermen and dive companies). The plan was revised and updated in 2006 for another 10 years, again based on consultations with stakeholders. The plans clearly define objectives, activities, research regulations, and Do’s and Don’ts both for visitors and staff. Assessments of MPA management have highlighted the area’s effectiveness (Jones et al., 2011). Although a private limited company, CHICOP is in many respects managed like an NGO (participation of sectoral government departments, academic institutions and local community stakeholders in Advisory Committee). A simplified organogram is provided in figure 2.

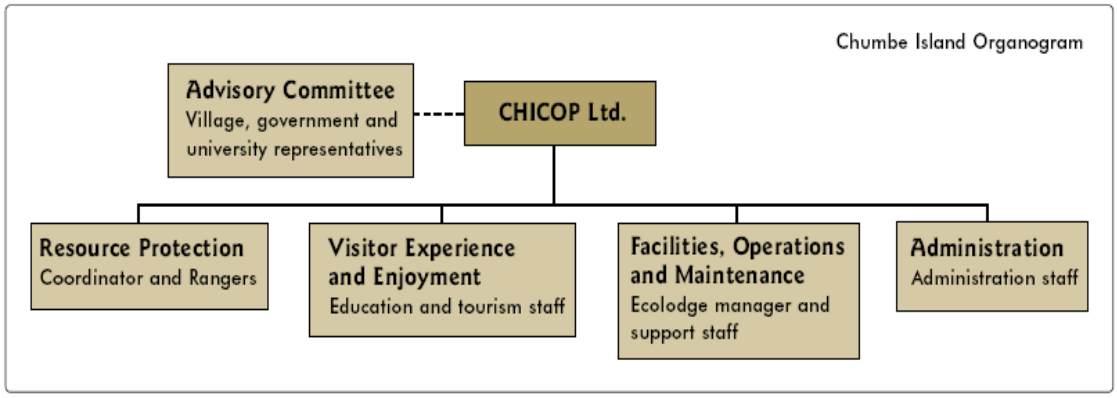

Figure 2: **Chumbe Island Management**

GoZ is the legal owner of the PPAs (CRS and CFH) however through the lease and Management Agreements CHICOP has the right to define management zones and strategies and to define what resources may be legitimately used and how. The Management Agreement also gives CHICOP the right to arrest, or otherwise penalize, offenders in cooperation with the Police force and Ministry of Fisheries Development in case of the MPA.

The Management Agreements provide for an Advisory Committee formed by GoZ representatives of the Departments of Environment, Fisheries, Forestry, leaders of four neighbouring fishing villages and a representative of the Institute of Marine Sciences (IMS) of the University of Dar es Salaam. The Advisory Committee meets at least twice yearly. Meetings have been held according to schedule since 1995 to discuss the Management Plans, project progress and any issues. There have been no major disagreements on actions to take so far, though recommendations of the Advisory Committee are not binding for the CHICOP Management.

Major strengths of CHICOP

- Unlike terrestrial parks, well-designed MPAs often do not lead to human-wildlife conflicts, because although they restrict fishing and other activities in some areas, they increase catches in adjacent areas through improved breeding rate in the MPA and the spill-over effect to surrounding fishing grounds. This results in high acceptance of effectively enforced no-take areas by fishers and other local resource users.
- Financial sustainability is secured. Revenues from eco-tourism operations on Chumbe are directly re-invested in conservation and education programmes – all data such as guest occupancy, number of school trips, etc. are reported in progress and audited financial reports to GoZ agencies. All the management costs and environmental education programmes for local schools have been fully covered by the ecotourism operation since 2000.
- Effective management and commercial success also provide income and markets for local communities and facilitate good social relationships. High tax income to government increases economic value of, and political support to, the MPA.
- Design and planning of the MPA's area and regulations were undertaken with local resource users. Initial meetings with neighbouring communities before developing CHICOP and consultations with a wide variety of stakeholders for development of the Management Plan helped to ensure that the role of MPA is understood and supported by local resources users, civil society and GoZ.
- High transparency on all levels and awareness creation and education programmes helped establish good relationships with all stakeholders. Participative governance structures and processes are managed through regular meetings of the Advisory Committee and local communities. Employing and training local fishers as Park rangers has helped enforcement through education, and was a condition for the rangers to be respected and accepted by local fishers and their communities.
- The cooperation of GoZ officials with CHICOP, in initial negotiations on the investment proposal, management agreements and plans, in the Advisory Committee and numerous on-site activities helped build capacity and raise conservation awareness and understanding of the legal and institutional requirements. This was decisive for political support for CHICOP and indirectly influenced GoZ policy making.
- Management effectiveness and social, cultural and commercial performance have been assessed in 2011 by independent consultants for certification of CHICOP by The Long Run Initiative of the Zeitz Foundation (see box 5). CHICOP was fully certified as a Global Ecosystem Reserve (GER). This very demanding certification scheme assesses performance according to the '4 C's', Conservation, Community, Culture, Commerce.
- Enforcement has not been a major problem since 1995. Poaching incidents have remained low due to continued surveillance, good relationship with local resource users and the ever expanding education programmes.

- Continuous monitoring and research projects have been carried out consistently since establishment. The site's professional network has widened due to co-operation with research institutions and participation in national and international meetings/conferences.
- The MPA has benefited local communities by generating income, employment and a market for local produce; developing new work skills; demonstrating sustainable resource management; and restocking commercial fish species in adjacent areas (spill-over).

Box 5: **The Long Run Initiative**

The Long Run Initiative (LRI) was launched in 2009 by the Zeitz Foundation (a German foundation set up in 2008 by the business entrepreneur Jochen Zeitz). The Foundation's mission is to create and support sustainable, ecologically and socially responsible projects and destinations around the world to achieve long-lasting impact and sustainability through the holistic balance of conservation, community, culture and commerce (known as the '4Cs') in privately managed areas. LRI has a three-tiered structure of Global Ecosphere Retreats® (GER) certified Long Run Destinations, Long Run Alliance Members and Long Run Supporters. The Long Run Alliance membership is the entry point into the GER certification process. There are currently none Long Run Destinations, three of which are in Africa[19].

Source: www.zeitzfoundation.org/The-Long-Run-Initiative/Background-Long-Run-initative

Challenges of CHICOP

- Ambiguous regulations and wide discretionary powers of civil servants in the area of land leases, building permits, business licenses, immigration and labour laws encourage corruption and are thus hurdles to doing business by delaying project implementation and increasing costs.
- Employing people from local rural communities requires enormous investment in training and skill development, which adds to investment costs and delays business operations and income.

3.1.3 Case Study: Mwiba Wildlife Ranch

Mwiba Wildlife Ranch was designated as a protected area in 2012 and is managed as a category II protected area. The Ranch protects 400 km^2 of savannah close to the Ngorongoro Crater Conservation Area, Maswa Game Reserve and Serengeti National Park. The area was chosen for investment by a private investor because of this prime location adjoining two Natural World Heritage sites with high densities of large mammals and charismatic wildlife species.

A private company, Mwiba Holdings, has a long term lease allowing it to manage Mwiba specifically for wildlife conservation. The state and local community retain ultimate ownership of the land, however since the approval of the General Management Plan by the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism of United Republic of Tanzania (MNRT) the private company has the rights to:

- Define management zones within the protected area and their management strategies
- Assist with the arrest, or otherwise penalizing of, offenders

[19] www.thelongrun.com/destinations

- Define what protected area resources may be used and how (under compliance with national wildlife legislation)
- Use specific protected area resources (primarily wildlife)

Strengths

- Local stakeholders were involved in planning and design, ensuring there were provisions to cater for certain of their needs, for example access to key water sources and emergency dry season grazing pastures.
- The PPA has a clear vision and objectives agreed by government and local stakeholders (set out in a management plan).
- The protected area has achieved conservation success in terms of improved wildlife protection
- Revenues from the PPA are shared via a method and formula that is known and was agreed by the state and community leaders. However, within the whole community there is no mechanism to assess and adequately account for how costs and benefits are distributed amongst its members.
- Traditional rights holders have access to key resources as agreed and written into the Management Plan.

Challenges

- This form of protected area model is not yet well accepted as being legitimate by a substantial proportion of people in the state and within the community and is thus more likely to be de-proclaimed than are state or community managed protected areas; any potential resentment could risk it becoming revoked if a serious dispute erupted.
- This type of PPA is not yet firmly integrated into national development policy and the model is not yet firmly entrenched with MNRT in the sense of it being widely supported, which makes it difficult to develop a clearly articulated management direction.
- The protected area does not yet have full community support and conservation success is heavily dependent on policing.

Suggested best practice to be implemented

- Properly set developmental and resource use limits should be firmly established to ensure the protected area and integrity of wildlife resources are both maintained.
- Dialogue between a more widely representative group of relevant stakeholders (both within the state and the local community) should ensure that the role and legitimacy of the protected area are better understood and supported in the future.
- A strong, active, well designed and implemented community extension programme (including education) is required
- Annual management effectiveness assessments and social assessments should be undertaken and reported to the community.
- A more inclusive community stakeholder committee with well understood and established reporting criteria – that communicates how it is run and how benefits are distributed – would improve transparency and accountability.
- An agreed mechanism to ensure fair and equitable access to benefit rights from the protected area, and increasing availability to some of its natural resources (e.g. water, emergency grazing, cattle traversing corridors), would further improve stakeholder relations.

3.2 Namibia: Source documents by Brian T. B. Jones

It is difficult to establish how many private reserves fitting the IUCN definition exist in Namibia (see box 6). There are 153 registered private game parks/nature reserves covering 13,116 km^2 and based on data provide by Jones (2013) there are at least eight unregistered private game reserves (covering 5,470 km²) that could fit the IUCN definition of a protected area.

Given the confusion regarding data it is hard to assess the current trend towards PPAs, but they are probably increasing. However although there is legislative provision for private game parks/nature reserves there are no specific policies or legislation that either support or promote unregistered private game reserves. The current development of new legislation however could make better provision for private governance.

Box 6: PPA Data in Namibia

The data on PPAs in Namibia presents a confused picture. Although there are a range of areas that could be considered as PPAs only a few really meet the IUCN definition of a protected area. There is a clear need to review all the PPA data available and assess if the sites listed meet the IUCN definition. The data held on the WDPA (6 Private reserves and 25 Freehold conservancies) is clearly incorrect and the database needs updating as appropriate.

The Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET) maintains a centralized register of private game parks and nature reserves established under Section 22 of the Nature Conservation Ordinance of 1975 (see below for details). It is striking that only four private game parks have been registered since 1980 and the last one appearing on the register was in 2009. According to Zimmerman et al. (2012) the register indicates that the 153 private game parks and nature reserves cover an area of 13 116 km^2, which is equivalent to 1.6 per cent of Namibia's land surface. However these figures might not be accurate. According to Zimmerman et al (2012) the list appears incomplete as it includes reserves subsequently de-proclaimed and some Government Gazettes include private game parks or nature reserves that are not contained in the register.

Private Game Reserves not established under legislation are not recognized officially by MET and do not appear on any official data base. There is also no official MET definition of such PPAs. However four Private Reserves are listed on the WDPA. This includes the Gondwana Cañon Park, and the NamibRand Nature Reserve (see case studies below). The WDPA also lists the Langfontein Reserve in southern Namibia (Id: 97607), but there is little other information on this private reserve on the WDPA or on other internet sources. The same is true for the Otjiwarongo Private Reserve which is listed (Id: 97631) for which little other information can be found online.

3.2.1 Current status of PPAs

There are different categories of land unit on freehold (i.e. private) farm land[20] in Namibia that provide some form of wildlife and habitat conservation (Jones, 2013). Those that come closest to the

[20] Outside urban areas, Namibia is mainly divided into land held under private freehold tenure and communal land which is held in trust by the state and for the benefit of traditional communities. At Namibia's independence from South Africa in 1990 freehold farm land (almost entirely white-owned) represented 43% of

IUCN definition of a Protected Area are Private Game Reserves and Private Nature Reserves that can be established under national legislation and some Private Game Reserves that have no legal conservation status.

- *Private Game Parks and Nature Reserves established under legislation*: These Private Protected Areas are established under Section 22 of the Nature Conservation Ordinance of 1975 and are officially proclaimed in the Government Gazette. They are mostly single farms owned under freehold tenure with some municipal land included as well. The Ordinance sets out greater restrictions on the use of wildlife within private game parks compared to other farmland where farmers have use rights over wildlife. Most of these farms will also be used for livestock farming. Whether they are actually "dedicated and managed … to achieve the long-term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values" is unknown. According to Zimmerman et al (2012) the median size of the registered private game parks and nature reserves was 5,078 ha while most of the unregistered private game reserves (see below) are much larger with some covering more than 100,000 ha. Zimmerman et al (2012) concluded that "Based upon the relative land sizes covered by the different types of commercial farms, it seems likely that the registered private parks and reserves contribute less to biodiversity conservation than the unregistered farms used exclusively for wildlife-based land uses".

- *Large privately owned land units with conservation and business objectives not established in terms of conservation legislation*: There are several large areas of land privately owned that the owners call game reserves or which have some form of stated conservation objective or activities, but which have not been established in terms of Section 22 of the Ordinance. In most cases land has been converted from livestock farming or mixed livestock and wildlife to wildlife only. There is no official register of these land units. The conservation objectives of some of these land units are not always clear. However some do fit the IUCN definition of a protected area. The best examples of these are three private game reserves under the Gondwana Collection – a series of freehold properties owned by one company in different parts of Namibia and developed for tourism and conservation. The Gondwana Cañon Park, the Gondwana Kalahari Park and the Gondwana Namib Park are managed with clear conservation objectives and well developed management plans (see case study).

MET has prepared a Parks and Wildlife Bill which when enacted by the National Assembly will replace the outdated pre-independence Nature Conservation Ordnance of 1975, which remains the primary legislation governing parks and wildlife conservation in Namibia. It is expected that the new legislation will make provision for the recognition of the currently unregistered private game reserves and larger landscape conservation areas that link state-run PAs with neighbouring conservation areas under different types of governance.

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the land and communal land about 41%. Subsequently government has bought some freehold farmland for resettlement of groups of landless black people and a number of farms have been bought by black individuals.

3.2.2 Case study: Gondwana Cañon Park

The Gondwana Collection is a series of freehold properties owned by one for-profit company across different parts of Namibia and developed for tourism and conservation (Jones, 2013). Three of these properties, the Gondwana Cañon Park, the Gondwana Kalahari Park and the Gondwana Namib Park are managed as Private Game Reserves such that they fall within the IUCN definition of a protected area. This case study focuses on the Gondwana Cañon Park in Karas Region, which covers an area of 126,000 ha. Wildlife includes springbok, oryx, red hartebeest, blue wildebeest, ostrich, giraffe, plains and mountain zebra, kudu and klipspringer[21] and more recently re-introduced black rhino. There is no internal fencing. There are three lodges, a self-catering camp and two camp sites.

All rights are vested in the company owning the land except for the right of arrest and penalising offenders. This, and others matters related to the illegal use of wildlife, is under the authority of officials of the Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET). Some use of resources is restricted by national legislation (e.g. conservation of protected tree species, rare plants, etc.) and use of game animals is governed by the Nature Conservation ordinance of 1975. The land owner has the right to harvest certain species of game for personal use, to buy and sell game and to reduce numbers for management purposes, subject to MET authorisation.

All of the Gondwana parks have a well-developed management plan with clear conservation objectives. For example the vision for the Cañon Park is: "To develop the Gondwana Cañon Park as a conservation area of international significance within a larger co-managed transboundary landscape of global renown". The goal for the park is: "To wisely manage and rehabilitate the land and natural resources of the Gondwana Cañon Park, and to pass these on to future generations in productive, diverse, aesthetically attractive and healthy condition, on an economically sound footing and as part of a larger co-managed landscape that is contributing significantly to the sustainable development of the region and nation"(Gondwana Collection, 2008).

The parks have successfully restored degraded former farmland (C.J. Bown, Pers. Comm. October 2014.). The Gondwana Cañon Park is involved in collaborative management with other stakeholders in the Greater Fish River Canyon Protected Landscape Conservation Area. Experience in implementing this collaboration shows that it needs to be based on a real need for cooperation e.g. where wildlife is a shared resource with park neighbours or where there is a common attraction for tourism, both of which are the case in the Greater Fish River Landscape. There has been good cooperation between MET and the mostly freehold farmers and private game reserves (C.J. Bown, Pers. Comm. October 2014.). Joint activities include research, game counts, mapping, clean ups and marketing. Fences are being removed between the park and the Gondwana Cañon Park and between farms. This has enabled mountain zebra to revive seasonal movement patterns leading to a significant increase in numbers.

This form of protected area governance can deliver clear conservation results. Ownership and decision-making are nested in one corporate body which decides on strategic direction and day-to-day management decisions. In the case of the three Gondwana private Game Reserves there are no neighbouring communities – the neighbours are mostly freehold farmers, and in the case of the

[21] www.gondwana-collection.com/home/attractions/gondwana-canyon-park/

Cañon Park, a state-run protected area. There has been no need to involve neighbours in governance of the private game reserves, but there has been a need to engagement in shared governance arrangements over a larger landscape. These three Gondwana PPAs demonstrate that a for-profit company with shareholders can also deliver conservation success within a protected area framework.

Strengths

- Legitimacy is derived from the ownership of the land and the right to decide how the land should be used. There are no issues concerning people being removed from the land.
- The PPA has a clearly articulated vision and objectives contained in the management plan. Development of landscape approach to conservation has been possible through cooperation with the neighbouring State-run protected area and neighbouring farmers in the Greater Fish River Canyon Protected Landscape Conservation Area. There is a conscious adaptive management approach based on monitoring.
- The combined involvement of different stakeholders develops a greater capacity for cooperation and implementation of joint activities in a larger landscape shared governance situation. The different stakeholders bring different skills, knowledge, expertise and funding. In the Greater Fish River Canyon Landscape, which has a strong private sector component, the aim is to raise funds to pay for a permanent coordinator based locally. This will help to ensure sustainability of the activities.
- The park is gradually rehabilitating the degraded former sheep farms and has reintroduced several game species. Numbers are increasing. Links to the greater landscape and removing fences has enabled zebra to follow seasonal migration patterns again.
- Internal accountability is strong due to the structure of the land owning company and the company provides information to the public about its activities in the PPA and conservation activities and research are reported on its web site.
- Costs and benefits are internalised within the PPA and the owning company.

Challenges

- This governance type does not necessarily provide long-term security in terms of the conservation status of the land. The status depends on the company owning the land. If the company went bankrupt or decided to sell the land the status of the area could change.
- Continued investment in PPA management might depend on continued good commercial performance of the tourism operations or the willingness of the investors to subsidise the conservation operations.
- Under current Namibian legislation there is no formal legitimacy from the state.
- PPA managers are accountable to the company owning the land not to broader society.
- The State has no power to ensure that the PPA conforms to any national or international protected area standards or criteria.

Suggested best practice and/or lessons learned

- Means should be found to bring PPAs within the formal protected area system through legislation. One option for this is for new legislation to make provision for the MET to conclude contractual agreements with the owners of freehold land, or the representatives of freehold

conservancies, to have such land declared in the government gazette as a PPA. The MET would also have the ability to cancel an agreement and de-proclaim the land if it is mismanaged or failed to meet national or international protected area standards or criteria. The incentive for private land holders to enter into such agreements would be for the state to devolve more use rights over wildlife to the landholders and relax current bureaucratic controls (permits and authorisations for various uses of wildlife).

- Private conservation development of this type is driven by well-defined property rights over land and wildlife resources including the right to trade live game and wildlife products and existing markets for live game and existing tourism markets (Krug, 2001).
- The private sector can combine commercial profit motive and conservation objectives and achieve conservation success and deliver protected areas that conform to the IUCN criteria.
- On private land there is less likely to be the need to address the rights of others, although this will depend on the specific circumstances.

3.2.3 Case study: Namib Rand

The NamibRand Nature Reserve, located in southern Namibia, is a private not-for-profit nature reserve established to help protect and conserve the unique ecology and wildlife of the south-west Namib Desert[22]. The aims are to conserve the pro-Namib, the area along the eastern edge of the Namib Desert, in order to facilitate seasonal migratory wildlife routes and to protect biodiversity. NamibRand is one of the largest private nature reserves in Southern Africa, extending over an area of 202,200 ha in the pro-Namib margin of the Namib Desert in the Hardap Region. The Reserve shares a 100 km border with the State-run Namib-Naukluft National Park in the west and is bordered in the east by the escarpment. It has no game proof fencing as it aims to allow natural wildlife movements.

The reserve consists of 13 former livestock farms rehabilitated into a single continuous natural habitat. Joint management initiatives and agreements were signed with neighbours in 2008, allowing for the opening of border fences (Odendaal & Shaw, 2010). In addition, the reserve is part of the Greater Sossusvlei protected landscape Conservation Area, covering 5730 km², which includes the State-run Namib Naukluft National Park and neighbouring freehold land.

Several individual landowners have contributed land to the reserve. Landowners retain the title deed to their land but relinquish individual management. In 2001 all landowners belonging to the reserve voluntarily signed the articles of association and adopted a constitution that sets aside the land for conservation. The articles of association make provision for landowners to serve as directors on the reserve's managing board and the board employs a CEO, two wardens and their management teams to implement the management plan.

All rights are vested in the land owners and the management board except for the right of arrest and penalising offenders. This, and others matters related to the illegal use of wildlife, is under the authority of officials of the MET. Some use of resources is restricted by national legislation (e.g.

[22] www.namibrand.com/Conservation.htm

conservation of protected tree species, rare plants, etc.) and use of game animals is governed by the Nature Conservation Ordinance of 1975.

When purchased, the 13 livestock farms comprising the NamibRand Nature Reserve employed around 40 workers. Under conservation land use, more than 150 people are employed on the reserve, mainly by the tourism concessionaires (Odendaal & Shaw, 2010). Habitats are improving from the degraded former livestock farmland. By 2010, wildlife populations on NamibRand appeared to have stabilized, recovering significantly from numbers recorded when intensive conservation efforts began.

The aims of the NamibRand Nature Reserve are:

- To conserve nature for the benefit of future generations and to protect the sensitive and fragile environment and its rich biodiversity;
- To create a nature reserve with a healthy and functioning ecosystem, providing a sanctuary for flora and fauna and to facilitate seasonal migratory routes in partnership with neighbours (National Parks, etc.);
- To promote sustainable utilisation through ecologically sustainable and high-quality tourism products and other projects; and
- To achieve a commercially viable operation to ensure continuance and financial independence.

The NamibRand Nature Reserve aims to achieve biodiversity conservation balanced with financial sustainability. It uses low-impact ecotourism as a means towards sustaining its conservation efforts through charging various forms of park fees in the same way as state-run national parks. The five tourism concessions in the reserve each pay a daily, per-bed fee to the reserve. The funds generated through these park fees enable the reserve to be financially self-sustaining. Wildlife includes leopard, re-introduced cheetah, spotted and brown hyena, and ungulates such as springbok, oryx and Hartmann's mountain zebra.

The reserve has a management plan and a tourism and economic development plan, and employs a chief executive officer and two wardens each with a team working under them to manage the reserve. These staff members are responsible for implementing the management plans. Internal accountability is strong due to the structure of the board and reporting of the CEO to the board.

The reserve maintains a conservation policy of minimal interference with ongoing monitoring, implemented through the management plan. Research is aimed at directly benefit management and national scientific knowledge base. The Reserve has recently established the NamibRand Desert Research and Awareness Centre (NRAC) which supports and guides local and international researchers[23].

NamibRand is a potential model for PPAs as it has been established as a conservation area and uses tourism to fund the achievement of conservation objectives. It is therefore set up in a similar way to most State-run National Parks.

[23] www.namibrand.com/Conservation.htm

Strengths

- This governance type can bring investment and resources to conservation that state governance often cannot.
- There is often greater management efficiency because decision making is easier and resources can be mobilised more quickly in the absence of government bureaucracy.
- Legitimacy is derived from the ownership of the land and the right to decide how the land should be used. There are no issues concerning people being removed from the land.
- The reserve has a management plan and a tourism and economic development plan. The reserve employs a chief executive officer and two wardens, each with a team working under them to manage the reserve. These staff members are responsible for implementing management plans
- By 2010, wildlife populations on NamibRand appeared to have stabilized, recovering significantly from numbers recorded when intensive conservation efforts began. Habitats are improving from the degraded former livestock farmland.
- Internal accountability is strong due to the structure of the board and reporting of the CEO to the board.
- The company provides information to the public about its activities in the protected area and conservation activities and research are reported on its web site.
- Costs and benefits are internalised within the protected area and the management board.

Weaknesses

- This governance type does not necessarily provide long-term security for the conservation status of the land. The status of the land depends on the decisions of the individuals owning the land.
- As there is no legislation recognising private reserves of this nature, government officially zones the area as agricultural land and the reserve has to pay a land tax. This also affects government perceptions of the appropriate land use, despite the area being very marginal for livestock farming.
- The protected area managers are accountable to the company owning the land not to broader society.
- The State has no power to ensure that the protected area conforms to any national or international protected area standards or criteria.

Lessons learned

- Means should be found to bring PPAs within the formal protected area system through legislation. One option for this is for new legislation to make provision for the MET to conclude contractual agreements with the owners of freehold land, or the representatives of freehold conservancies, to have such land declared in the government gazette as a protected area. The MET would have the ability to cancel an agreement and de-proclaim the land if it is mismanaged or failed to meet national or international protected area standards or criteria. The incentive for private land holders to enter into such agreements would be for the state to provide them with greater status and security as conservation areas and for the state to devolve more use rights over wildlife to the landholders and relax current bureaucratic controls (permits and authorisations for various uses of wildlife).
- Private conservation development of this type is driven by well-defined property rights over land and wildlife resources including the right to trade live game and wildlife products and existing markets for live game and existing tourism markets. In addition, while government has not

provided formal recognition for such PPAs, it has recognised their importance through engaging with PPAs in large landscape conservation areas.

- The reserve demonstrates that not-for-profit private companies can deliver conservation success within a protected area framework by using tourism as a sustainable funding mechanism.
- the financial sustainability model of funding conservation from park fees ensures continued quality of management.
- On private land there is less likely to be the need to address the rights of others, although this will depend on the specific circumstances - in this case there are no indigenous people or local communities with claims to the land or as neighbours to the protected area.

3.3 Madagascar: Source document by Charlie Gardner

All internationally reported protected areas in Madagascar are officially under shared governance. However there are a number of private reserves, although information on these is hard to come by with one exception, Berenty Reserve (see case study).

3.3.1 Current status of PPAs

Madagascar National Parks (MNP) is keen to involve the private sector in conservation and is increasingly seeking to establish management partnerships with specialist institutions for the expansion and professionalization of key services, e.g. tourism infrastructure provision, applied research, and small-scale private sector enterprise development. Protected areas outside the official MNP network have to have a legally recognised promoter, in most cases Malagasy or international NGOs, although mining companies, universities and private individuals have also taken the initiative to establish new sites. Sites are managed through community-based management committees.

All protected areas are legislated by the Protected Areas Code or COAP, which was revised in 2008 to accommodate new categories and governance models although, due to the political crisis that engulfed Madagascar in 2009, the revised COAP has not yet been ratified.

3.3.2 Case Study: Berenty Private Reserve

Berenty Reserve[24] is a small, approximately 10km^2 (Jolly, et al., 2006), private reserve of gallery forest along the Mandrare River, set in the semi-arid spiny forest ecoregion of the far south of Madagascar. It is part of Madagascar and Western Indian Ocean Islands biodiversity hotspot (Myers et al., 2000); South Malagasy Spiny Forests endemic bird area (Stattersfield et al., 1998) and Madagascar Spiny Desert Global 200 ecoregion (Olson & Dinerstein, 1998). For more than three decades the primatologist Alison Jolly (who started the research at Berenty), researchers and students have visited Berenty to conduct fieldwork on lemurs. The reserve is also a favourite for visitors who want to see some of Madagascar's endemic bird species, which include owls and couas.

The site was established in the 1930s but is not designated or part of Madagascar Protected Area System; its management is equivalent to IUCN management category IV. It was established by a

[24] www-personal.umd.umich.edu/~fdolins/berenty/

French settler family (the de Heaulmes) during the colonial period. The de Heaulme family, owners of Berenty Estate, cleared the majority of their land for a sisal plantation in 1936 beside the Mandrare River in agreement with local clans of the Tandroy tribe, but decided to maintain one corner as a reserve because it was 'too beautiful' to clear (Jolly, 2004). The reserve is home to six species of lemur, the south's largest colony of Madagascar fruit bats, and 103 bird species, 56 of which breed in the reserve.

All decision-making about reserve management is made by private landowners, although rights to drive cattle to water along a path through the reserve were negotiated with local elders upon establishment. The right to arrest, or otherwise penalize, offenders lies with the State gendarmerie.

Strengths

- Governance structures and rules are extremely streamlined, clear and uncomplicated.
- Private property is generally recognised as legitimate.
- The reserve is a very profitable and well-known tourism destination as a result of habituated lemurs. It is likely to be maintained for conservation so long as tourism remains profitable.
- Size and condition of habitats appear to have been maintained over the last 70 years.

Weaknesses

- PPAs are not recognised in the protected area system, and the site is thus not obliged to follow norms and guidelines.
- Neighbouring communities have little formal voice, although they also have no formal rights.
- Maintenance of the PPA is dependent on private decision-making, thus vulnerable to changing priorities (e.g. as a result of the changing profitability of different land uses) and even 'degazettement' as a result to changing priorities of owners.

Suggested best practice and/or lessons learned

- COAP does allow for PPAs within Madagascar Protected Area System, but the choice is down to the landowner[25]; incorporating Berenty would provide more long term security

3.4 The Gambia: Source document by Alagie Manjang and Famara Drammeh

Current biodiversity policy is weak in regards to encouraging the private sector to take part in conservation activities in Gambia. PPAs are restricted to forest areas administered under the Department of Forestry (DoF), with only one potential forest PPA although information is scarce. However new policy and legislative frameworks are being developed, calling for increased private involvement in protected areas.

3.4.1 Current status of PPAs

Forest parks/reserve are not included in the national estimate of 4.27 per cent coverage of protected areas, despite some having clear conservation objectives. This is because the exact coverage of these national forest parks and reserves is disputed. Many of the parks/reserve on

[25] Unless otherwise stated all information in this case study is derived from Jolly (2004) and Jolly, et al. (2006).

record at the Department of Forestry (DoF) no longer exist or are completely degraded and categorization of forest parks and reserves does not follow IUCN system.

PART III of the 1998 Forest Act classified forests into categories and subcategories. The categories include, State forest (subcategory forest parks and forest reserves); Participatory Managed Forest; Private forest and Private plantations. Private forests are forests growing or planted on lands privately owned and or leased in accordance with the relevant land legislation and whose management is subjected to conditions as specified in sections 74 and 76 of the Act. Protection forests are forests designated as such in accordance with section 78 and are managed for the main purpose of maintaining or improving the local environment.

Despite the lack of information and data on PPAs, the new forestry policy (2010-2019) is committed to decentralization and synergy, and encourages support and involvement of the private sector in natural forest resource management.

3.4.2 Case study: Koofung Private Forest Reserve

Koofung Private Forest Reserve was set up in 1990. The site protects 25 ha of coastal forest in Gunjur, Kombo South in the West Coast Region of the Gambia. Although not listed in the WDPA management of the site equals a category Ia. The reserve is designated under the Forest Act, 1998 and provides a safe haven for many species of small mammals and birds.

Although there is a communal land tenure system over much of Gambia, Koofung was allocated to the present land owner during land distribution by members of the traditional land owners. The private land owner decided to create a private forest for the purpose of protecting habitat and species of wildlife still found in this area. The private land owner has control of all rights associated with the reserve, and, for example, appoints forest guards to help control and protect resources within the forest; despite this there are frequent cases of illegal collection and hunting. The private owner makes all management decisions, often seeking expert's advice and services when necessary. Access to resources within the PPA is not permitted and the ongoing conservation management activities seem relatively successful. The management procedures and measure are however not well articulated and management decisions often lack enough background knowledge of issues and their linkage with internal and external issues.

Strengths

- Decisions to address management issues are taken quickly as there is no bureaucratic management system to follow.
- All matter related to the management of the park is shared with Department of Forestry.
- Revenue from PA entrance fees are shared via a method and formula that is open to scrutiny by all and resources are allocated to priority management areas.

Challenges

- The park is not integrated into broader land use planning and there is no mechanism to assess and accountability and transparency.

Suggested best practice

- Consult widely to seek expert's opinions prior to taking decisions and actions.
- The forest park needs to strengthen its management capacity by hiring the service of experts to develop a management plan and strategy for effective protection.
- There is need to collaborate with the government and to develop a long term resource mobilization strategy.
- Mechanisms for stakeholder engagement and dialogue should be clearly formulated.

3.5 The Republic of Congo: Source document by Jean-Claude Heymans

3.5.1 Current status of PPAs

Although there are no PPAs in the Congo of the type described in the previous case study, the provisions of Law 37-2008 of November 2008 allow for this type of governance, although the implementing legislation has not yet been adopted. Other forms of private governance, which link state and the private sector, are however being developed here, as outlined in the case study below.

3.5.2 Case study: Odzala-Kokoua National Park

Odzala-Kokoua National Park is situated in the north-west of the Republic of Congo. Covering 13,546 km^2 of pristine wilderness the park protects an extensive and well conserved forest ecosystem and savannah habitats, it has high biological diversity including high concentrations of lowland gorillas.

The park was established in 1935 during the French Colonial period and was extended to its current area in 2001, in consultation with local communities. The NGO African Parks took over the management of Odzala-Kokoua in November 2010 under the terms of a partnership agreement with the Government of the Republic of Congo. This agreement provides for the creation of a dedicated non-profit entity, the Odzala Foundation, which will have overall jurisdiction over the park. Although the agreement is still being developed, this could possibly be considered as a change of governance type from state to shared or even private depending on the final form of the Odzala Foundation and the rights it exercises. The management framework and partnership agreement between African Parks and Government is for a period of 25 years.

The main objectives of the protected areas are the conservation of natural capital and sustainable development of natural resources. Management is aimed at achieving these objectives and is developed with the agreement of stakeholders who are part of the Steering Committee managing the Park. The State holds sovereign rights (particularly legal ownership of protected area) and the Agency for Wildlife Conservation and Protected Areas (ACFAP) coordinates use rights. Other rights are managed by African Parks and the local community, such as management, arresting offenders, establishing subsidiary agreements, and proposals to use specific resources after agreement by State, especially with view to establishing ecotourism and/or game related activities. There are no customary rights within protected areas but dispensations are granted to local community members with Odzala Kokoua land rights.

Strengths

- Governance type takes into account all claims of stakeholders
- Conservation is maintained without too much conflict with needs of local communities and any human-wildlife conflict is in process of being solved
- Access and infrastructure has been improved
- The body of eco-rangers is more professional
- Shared governance is effective and operational
- There is an effective guarantee for future of the protected areas
- Traditional partners are increasingly involved in decisions

Weaknesses

- Periodic political disturbances threaten the integrity of the reserve
- Rights of access to resources continue to be contested
- There is insufficient support at ministerial level
- Underlying conflicts with local communities have proved difficult to solve locally
- The operating budget still too small
- There is a general lack of information on protected area revenue and no information at all about procedures for distributing PPA revenues
- Steering Committee decisions are poorly itemised, particularly in terms of the local communities, causing periodic conflict
- Mechanism for assessing activities and revenue unsatisfactory

Suggested best practices

- Take the real needs of local communities into account in the Management Plan and better integrate representatives onto the Steering Committee
- Dialogue between stakeholders should be taken on board more fully and controversial issues gradually resolved
- More transparent assessment of protected area management needs to be developed, involving all stakeholders
- Improvements must be made in the system of communicating decisions and results achieved (particularly in relation to investments and profits of stakeholders) to ensure healthy transparency
- Weaknesses indicated by assessments or feedback should be integrated into the management plan and solutions provided to tackle underlying conflicts
- Efforts must be made to strengthen (i) fairness of rights and duties applicable in protected area and (ii) respect for individual and collective rights of local communities involved.

4. Discussion

This final section of the report draws from the above a set of analyses to discuss issues related to 1) the strengths and weaknesses of governance as a PPAs and 2) opportunities and limitations related to PPA governance. The final section (4.3) concludes with a set of good practices and conditions for success for PPAs in Africa.

4.1 PPAs: Strengths and weaknesses of this governance type

This section draws on framework of IUCN principles of good governance for protected areas developed by Borrini-Feyerabend et al (2013, p 59-60). Strengths and weakness highlighted in the literature and/or case studies presented here are highlighted and help form the basis of the good practices and conclusions in section 4.3.

4.1.1 Legitimacy and voice

Legitimacy: This report includes several examples of PPAs which do not have official status (e.g., Berenty Private Reserve in Madagascar). Although this is not in contravention of the IUCN definition of a protected area (Dudley, 2008), lack of official standing in any form does have some drawbacks. Such sites do not necessarily provide long-term security for conservation, PPA managers are accountable to the company/trust/individual owning the land rather than to broader society, and sites tend not to be recognised in national and international reporting mechanisms.

Reaching all stakeholders: Whatever the form of PPAs, there will be a need to engage with stakeholders, and most specifically with local communities (as should be the case in all protected areas worldwide). The development, management, enforcement and monitoring of the PPA should be participatory even in PPAs with a single owner. In most cases some form of benefit sharing will also be in place. Best practices should ensure revenue is shared via a method and formula that is known and was agreed by all parties. Examples of all these practices are given above and the development of good community relationships has been important for the successful management of PPAs in the region. However, in some cases agreements are made with one or two community representatives, leaving an information gap for the rest of the community, who may not have the ability to assess and adequately account for how costs and benefits are distributed amongst its members (see section 3.1.3: Mwiba Wildlife Ranch, Tanzania case study).

Involvement in national level decision making: According to Nelson (2012) communities in Kenya have engaged at the national policy level more than is typical in most African countries. The reason given is the involvement and assistance of organizations such as the Northern Rangelands Trust, East African Wildlife Society and African Conservation Centre. The author notes that: “working with these NGOs as well as private freehold ranchers and tourism operators, communities participated in the Kenya Wildlife Working Group, which became an influential group ... [and] actively engaged in reform processes around wildlife, land, and the implementation of the new constitution” (Nelson, 2012, p 34). This suggests that stakeholder engagement is not usually a matter of chance but depends in part on the managers of PPAs creating opportunities and encouraging local communities and others to engage.

Box 7: Ol Pejeta Conservancy, Kenya

A former ranch in Laikipia County, Ol Pejeta Conservancy is a not-for profit organisation famous for rhino conservation and high quality tourism. The management of the Conservancy also showcases many best practices for PPAs (the Conservancy was recently recognised as one of the pilot sites to be included on IUCN's Green List of Protected Areas for its excellent management). Examples related to good overall governance include diversification of its revenue streams through enterprise such as beef and wheat farming to provides alternatives to an over reliance on tourism, and the establishment of a Community Development Programme which focuses on health, roads, water, education and agricultural extension. Activities which highlight the close working relationships with communities around the Conservancy include allowing organized grazing of community livestock in the Conservancy when grazing outside the area is scare, which in turn helps develop tolerance of wildlife outside the Conservancy by neighbouring communities, who are then willing to participate in conservation issues.

Based on Kootsositse et al., 2014.

Empowerment: As Lindsey et al. (2009, p 103) reflect, "addressing historical imbalances in land ownership and achieving participation from formerly disadvantaged communities is crucial for ensuring the continued viability of wildlife as a land use on private land in southern Africa". In South Africa government policies such as Black Economic Empowerment (BEE), aimed at redressing the inequalities of Apartheid by giving previously disadvantaged citizens of South African economic privileges, has clearly had an impact on some PPAs, although there does not seem to one coherent approach to implementing the policy (see for example Langholz and Kerley, 2006). Elsewhere in Africa, PPAs have been noted as increasing opportunities for participation, as in Odzala-Kokoua National Park in the Republic of Congo, but this is clearly not always the case.

Cultural identity: Probably all PPAs in Africa will have had a long history of use and social interactions with a range of peoples. Ensuring that current communities retain (and even reinforce) their cultural identity should be an important part of a PPA's management ethos. Unfortunately this is not always the case and Brooks et al. (2011) note how private game farm owners in South Africa create a particular version of history, revolving around ideas of wilderness, in order to sell tourism.

Limited support: In some cases, individually owned PPAs are not always considered as part of the local populace and thus do not command the same political support as community protected areas (Leménager et al., 2014). However this is not invariably the case and for instance in Gondwana Cañon reserve in Namibia, opportunities for participation by a wide range of stakeholders had built support for the PPA. Mechanisms for sharing pooled wildlife resources in southern Africa mean that privately owned conservancies can easily be expanded to incorporate community-owned land (Lindsey et al., 2009) and thus by default could be part of an overall conservation landscape with attendant support.

4.1.2 Direction

Resource rights: The issue of who has control of a range of resource rights over land/sea managed for conservation is clearly of fundamental importance when considering good governance. There has been a marked devolution of rights to individuals in many parts of Africa over the last few years, but this still does not always reach local stakeholders/communities. In Zambia, for example, the failure of the 1998 Wildlife Act to recognize communities as the rightful owners of the land or wildlife in game management areas (which is in contradiction to the Lands Act of 1995) is clearly hampering conservation efforts and the development of effective PPAs (Lindsey et al., 2014).

Motivations: Champions are fundamental to leading private land conservation initiatives (either individual land owners or leaders in private sector organisations) and the case studies highlight the roles of individuals. The fact that many PPAs (or protected areas with shared governance between individual owners) are set up by groups of landowners and/or are parts of a landscape of protected areas of various governance types indicates that champions are also capable of building social capital and promoting collective action among several private owners (Knight et al., 2010).

Working with local communities: Particularly in the case of conservancies or protected areas with shared governance, there must be trust between partners and confidence in each other to be able to work more effectively together (Knight et al., 2010). According to field studies in the greater Ewaso ecosystem in Kenya by Eliot et al. (2014), PPAs owned by individuals in Kenya are seen as good neighbours to surrounding local communities when they have outreach programmes, generate opportunities for local community spin-off enterprises, support the fundraising efforts of community protected areas and add to local security. The greater Ewaso ecosystem includes the first private wildlife sanctuary in Kenya (Solio established in 1970) and now includes at least 16 individually or family-owned PPAs established. Such relationships have a direct bearing on conservation outcomes. Support from local communities was highlighted as critical to success in both Chumbe MPA and Mwiba Wildlife Ranch in Tanzania for instance.

4.1.3 Performance

Effective, supported enforcement: Kenya provides a good example of protected areas under different governance types working together to ensure effective management. Complementarity between ICCAs and PPAs in the Ewaso complex of protected areas is reported to have resulted in stronger security for wildlife. PPAs ability to provide a secure environment for wildlife is enhanced in this case by the presence of community protected areas whose guards provide intelligence to minimise incidents of poaching and which act as dispersal areas for the protected wildlife (Elliot et al., 2014). Motivation at community level can also be a powerful driving of success in enforcement. Enforcement was deemed to be effective in Chumbe MPA in Zanzibar, Tanzania, because local fishing communities recognised its role in boosting fish stocks.

Flexibility: PPAs often have greater management efficiency because decision making is easier and resources can be more quickly mobilised in the absence of government bureaucracy. PPAs in the Ewaso system in Kenya are cited by other protected areas as enabling a more rapid and flexible response to problems (e.g. security, problem animals) because of their resources, technical skills and operating systems (Elliot et al., 2014).

Education: Several conservancies in South Africa have founded Wildlife Colleges that provide ecological education and diplomas in game ranging and management (Child et al., 2013). As tourism focused PPAs generally try to employ as many local staff as possible there is a constant need for capacity development; for example, a survey of ten ecotourism-based private game reserves in the Eastern Cape of South Africa by Langholz and Kerley (2006) found one had created a permanent guiding school on the reserve in order to ensure a continuous supply of skilled staff. However laudable these efforts are, commentators (e.g. Spierenburg & Brooks, 2014) note that educational and employment opportunities rarely pay attention to local socio-economic differentiation or to aspirations and the meaning various groups attach to the concept of personal development.

Financial security: The private sector is often better based to raise funds, manage funds effectively and develop management which combines commercial profit motive operations with conservation success in protected areas that conform to the IUCN criteria. PPAs in Africa have a history of securing funding for conservation often owing to individuals (either land owners, NGO staff or trustees) involved having extensive personal and business networks and/or the personal commitment and passion of their owners to conservation (Leménager et al., 2014).

4.1.4 Accountability

Dissemination: This can vary greatly depending on who is involved in the PPA development and management. Protected areas in general could probably learn from PPAs developed by or with companies. As noted in the case study from the Gondwana Group in Namibia, internal accountability is strong due to the structure of the land owning company which provides information to the public about its activities and research, including regular updates reported on its web site.

4.1.5 Fairness and rights

Poverty reduction: A study of 10 PPAs operating as ecotourism businesses in South Africa found conversion to conservation led to increase local wages and employment levels, relative to the forms of land use that they replaced, although the inverse is true for hunting based game ranches (Langholz & Kerley, 2006). However, a study carried out in KwaZulu-Natal and the Eastern Cape of South Africa (Spierenburg & Brooks, 2014) found that reserves, i.e. wildlife conservation areas, did not generate more employment than the livestock ranches they replaced, and that local people were only accessing low-income service jobs rather than the more lucrative jobs such as wildlife guiding. This latter situation highlights the need for effective education and development. The way that revenue is shared between stakeholders is also important; PPAs that make money only for a small minority are unlikely to gain widespread support. In Koofung Private Forest Reserve, Gambia's only PPA, transparency in distribution of revenue is identified as an important element in building community support.

Land rights: The issue of social engagement in private governance of conservation highlights the tensions around the term 'private'. For many this term can suggest areas are that are exclusive, where people are kept out, or even worse, displaced from their land (see box 8). In South Africa, there are many outstanding or unresolved claims on land scheduled for transformation from conventional agriculture to wildlife production (Spierenburg &Brooks, 2014).

Voluntary conservation: PPAs are often voluntary and therefore rely on incentives and encouragement, rather than coercion or enforced involvement, which requires a better understanding of the social and economic factors that underpin land managers' willingness to engage in land management initiatives (Knight et al., 2010).

Box 8: Another form of colonial land

Spierenburg and Brooks (2014) are critical of the role of private sector involvement in wildlife management in Africa. They maintain that game farming and/or wildlife production is presented by landowners as a way to continue the dominance of a small number of landowners over control of land. Areas are being enclosed by game fencing, which creates new forms of inclusion, of wealthy private wildlife areas, and exclusion by blocking off old access routes across farms and creating entrenched private game farms and reserves. Due to the wildlife-based nature of the land use, the presence of farm dwellers in these environments is actively minimised as far as possible and evidence of buildings and former farm worker dwellings is removed. For example, the impact of this sudden and effective enclosure of land in the Karoo, South Africa, left farm dwellers excluded from grazing land and other common property resources on the farms, and in addition, the loss of home and identities which were closely tied to the land including their significant relationships to ancestral spirits mediated through the land. As Spierenburg and Brooks (2014) conclude: "Empty now of both people and their livestock, the private game reserves that emerged out of this initiative are sealed-off enclaves and the burial sites within them devoid of significance for visiting eco-tourists, the new denizens of this space".

Evocative a picture as this presents it reinforces the need for the conservation community to be specific about what it means by PPA and then to develop best practices around this definition. It is very unlikely that the game farming and/or wildlife production examples above would meet the definition. This does not mean, of course, that the conservation community should not be trying to develop good governance in all areas with any form of conservation ethos. But these areas should not be considered as PPAs.

4.2 PPAs: opportunities and limitations

As well as issues related to good governance a review of PPA conservation in Africa would be incomplete if it ignored four linked areas of discussion: assurance of long term conservation management; financial security; management flexibility; and conservation outcomes. Each of these issues is thus briefly discussed below.

4.2.1 Assurance of long term conservation management

In some countries the limited long-term security of tenure of land lease and management agreements increases risks for private investment into conservation. Particular challenges for PPAs include:

- Lack of recognition from states and the international conservation community (see box 9)
- Lack of any suitable legislative basis for development and recognition of PPAs (see box 10)

- Inter-generational sustainability, if ownership passes from someone committed to conservation to a descendent with other priorities
- Long term security of tenure and contracts
- Long term management and marketing support
- Business fluctuations in PPAs that rely on tourism revenue or similar
- Lack of advocacy for private conservation at international level (e.g. with IUCN, the CBD, etc.)

Box 9: **Lack of recognition for Freehold Conservancies in Namibia**

Although the IUCN definition of a protected area recognises sites declared by 'legal' or 'other effective means', recognition of a PPA by the state does help provide PPA owners/managers with security and helps with long-term conservation objectives. In Namibia, The Conservancies Association of Namibia (CANAM) defines a freehold conservancy as: "a legally protected area of a group of bona fide land-occupiers practicing co-operative management based on: (1) a sustainable utilization strategy, (2) promoting conservation of natural resources and wildlife, (3) striving to re-instate the original biodiversity with the basic goal of sharing resources amongst all members" (Jones, 2014). Despite the use in the definition of 'legally protected area', unlike their communal area counterparts there is no specific legislation providing for freehold conservancies in Namibia, which means that they are not a 'legally protected area'. The conservancies are rather voluntary associations and any protection or conservation measures stem from agreements between the landowners on how they wish to manage the area (Jones, 2014). Lindsey (2011) reporting the results of a survey of freehold farmers in Namibia including conservancy members, notes that farmers belonging to conservancies frequently voiced dissatisfaction and disillusionment with conservancies over their lack of legal recognition (Lindsey 2011).

Box 10: **Lack of legislative guidance on PPAs**

A recent review of PPAs in Kenya (Olivier, 2014) highlights a common problem in terms of legislation and PPAs, despite the Government having recently passed a new *Wildlife Conservation and Management Act*, which provides the first ever legal definition of the term 'Wildlife Conservancy' in the country, given in the Act as: 'land set aside by an individual landowner, body corporate, group of owners or a community for purposes of wildlife conservation in accordance with the provisions of this Act.' The review draws attention to some potential inadequacies in the Act – and in so doing highlights the need for more international guidance on the development of conservation legislation, which both includes the possibility of setting up PPAs and, importantly, considers them as part of the national protected area system.

4.2.2 Financial security

It is naive to assume that conservation does not need funding from some source. In a world that has been so altered and where much of the land and sea has been degraded by human activities management is now the only route to the survival of many species. In Africa anti-poaching activities are a major, and expensive, conservation activity which constantly requires more financial support and innovative financing mechanisms. The expansion of state governed protected areas is clearly putting a large financial burden on governments in terms of management costs (which rise as

threats increase) and increased expectations of outreach activities linked to protected area development and management. Private management in contrast can often have stronger incentives to keep overheads down and to generate income than governmental protected area agencies.

PPAs also open up funding opportunities that are not always applicable to state or community-managed protected areas, such as tax breaks (including on inheritance tax), easements, grants and subsidies open to private owners who set aside some or all of their land as PPAs. In some parts of the world, PPA managers have also been entrepreneurial in finding new sources of funding, particularly through various types of Payment for Ecosystem Service (PES) schemes, such as payment for provision of pure water. For NGOs, the often small and discreet nature of PPAs that focus on a particular landscape feature (such as a wetland area or patch of remnant forest); or species with limited habitat needs (e.g. rhinos); or habitats under immediate threat from development; can be useful in developing targeted, locally relevant fund-raising campaigns for land purchase and management (Stolton et al., 2014).

To some extent, PPAs are also exemplars of a neoliberal approach to conservation which sees land, fauna and flora as a 'natural assets' which have value. This philosophy promotes the development of a market willing to pay for resources and the involvement of the private sector in biodiversity conservation to develop the value and manage the market (Büscher & Whande, 2007). One of Africa's primary assets is its appeal to tourists who wish to see mega-fauna, experience cultural diversity and enjoy good weather, accommodation and facilities. This asset has been clearly identified by several of the organisations involved in PPAs in Africa. African Parks, for example, clearly makes this link on their website:

> *In Africa, properly managed protected areas are not just important for preserving biological diversity, they are also some of the continent's greatest economic assets. Home to some of the world's most spectacular wildlife assemblages, these areas also provide opportunities for economic development through employment, tourism development and associated private enterprise*[26].

However, there is also always a danger that economic motives (profit) may override ecological objectives and therefore compromise conservation principles.

Protected area management activities also provide financial benefit in providing employment (ideally locally) and in many areas protected areas can provide major local employment opportunities in rural areas where few other options exist. There is a clear theory/hope that private sector involvement in conservation will result in more employment opportunities for local residents, and thus offer a solution to rural poverty. Many PPAs, as discussed above, support community projects and outreach funding. In the Ewaso Landscape in Kenya, for example, site-based interviews conducted by Elliot et al (2014) note that managers of private and community protected areas are successful at fundraising both for conservation and community development. Conservation funding rests on arguing that PPAs support state protected areas conservation efforts by reducing pressures and increasing connectivity with state protected areas.

[26] http://www.african-parks.org/About+Us.html (accessed 13/1/2015)

Using tourism to fund conservation has provided a financial model for community involvement in PPAs, and in the best examples has allowed the development of governance models of PPAs that include nearly all the involved stakeholders. However despite the fact that tourism seems to be on an ever upwards trajectory, individual areas/countries can easily suffer dramatic tourism declines. Increasing insecurity and the 'threat' of Ebola is currently having a major impact on some tourism destinations in Africa, in particular Kenya. Without tourism funding many PPAs are going to face financial challenges, local people are likely to lose employment and conservation objectives are likely to be superseded by at best an increased focus on livestock farming and at worst increased poaching. Using tourism as the basis for financing conservation needs to be based on sustainable and realistic budgets, for example, in Tanzania the cost effective operations of CHICOP mean only ca. 40 per cent occupancy is required for basic management. Therefore, prospects of sustainability are good even during slumps in tourism arrivals. CHICOP has thus become the first financially self-sustaining MPA in Africa and probably worldwide (see full case study).

4.2.3 Management flexibility

Although lack of recognition and a suitable legislative basis for PPAs is problematic in terms of ensuring long term effective conservation which meets the IUCN definition, there are also clearly advantages in having a more flexible approach to developing PPAs in terms of conservation success and governance. Private institutions are sometimes able to take advantage of opportunities that are difficult for governments, in situations where government protected areas would be resisted in principle because: all land is in private hands; the state is not trusted by local stakeholders; or conversely the state itself is opposed to further protection or short of available funds/management capacity. Furthermore, government owned/managed protected areas usually take many years to negotiate and agree, which can be problematic where land/water conversion or degradation is taking place quickly and the area's values are in danger of being lost by the time protection is in place. The governance and management of protected areas also remains inflexible and thus the cause of dispute with local people. If funding is available, PPAs can operate outside many of these constraining norms; being put in place quickly through land purchase and having the freedom to experiment with models that are hampered by out-dated policy or legislation in protected areas under the control of governments.

4.2.4 Conservation outcomes

While the situation is changing, many government protected areas have in the past been chosen because they are in areas that are the easiest to set aside from a social and political perspective, usually on land with low potential for economic value, giving a predilection to protected rock, ice and sand. PPAs are less likely to follow this tendency. Because they are driven by personal commitment, or by the need to raise ecotourism money, PPAs are likely to be focused on the most important areas for biodiversity. In South Africa, this tendency is enshrined in policy, with government support for PPAs predicated on them being in places already identified as conservation priorities (Stolton et al, 2014). In other countries PPAs provide specific means to fill gaps in conservation efforts in a less formal but nonetheless state-supported way. Several of the case studies reported on conservation success, in terms of building wildlife numbers, including for example Namibrand in Namibia.

In terms of management, as discussed above and in box 11, some of the more intensively managed 'private reserves'/conservancies which manipulate sites to increase species numbers probably do not meet the definition of a protected area according to IUCN as the primacy of nature conservation will not reflect the overall objectives. However, under the CBD's latest conservation targets, the so-called Aichi targets, Aichi target 11 explicitly recognises the significance of "equitably managed, ecologically representative and well-connected systems of protected areas **and other effective area-based conservation measures**" (our emphasis). While there is still debate about how this target is to be interpreted, it is likely that some of the private conservation that falls short of being a full PPA could still be reported against a country's CBD commitments.

Box 11: Impact of water provision and fences on species in South Africa

Many tourism operations manipulate water provision to ensure animal viewing. Child et al (2013), when assessing 13 conservancies around Kruger National Park in South Africa, found only one that does not pump water into artificial dams to create seasonal water sources. As a result, when species numbers and diversity were assessed, only this conservancy showed a decrease in highly water-dependent species, such as impala and waterbuck, and furthermore it had the only recorded natural (i.e. not reintroduced) populations of sable. The authors concluded that a less intensive management system will tend to develop different assemblages of species, which could accommodate tourist viewing preferences, in which conservancies with high management intensity provide so-called big-five tourism (elephant, rhino, lion, leopard and buffalo) and those with low management intensity facilitate sightings of species such as rare antelopes.

'Open' conservancies have boundary fences removed between other conservancies and national parks, whilst 'closed' conservancies remain fenced from surrounding reserves and other land uses. Child et al (2013) compared the conservation contribution of both management styles. The biomass output from closed systems was significantly higher than in open conservancies, meaning closed systems are crucial in the broader socio-ecological system as sites for live animal auctions that can provide species for other conservancies. Closed conservancies (especially intensively managed conservancies) also retain specialist grazers such as sable that are struggling to persist in open systems within the regional landscape. Four of the six closed conservancies assessed also contained rare species' breeding camps or disease-free buffalo breeding projects, compared to none of the open conservancies.

In terms of international accounting (and the WDPA) only those with low management intensity would likely meet IUCN's definition of a protected area. However in terms of regional /biome conservation effectiveness , as Child et al (2013, p 39) note "a medley of management regimes and fenced vs unfenced conservancies may be needed to sustain stable populations of rare species and provide support services to larger conservancies".

4.3 PPA: Recommendations for good practices and conditions for success

As Langholz and Krug (2004, p 8) have noted, PPAs "overlap with two important social themes in conservation – devolution of resource control and public participation in resource decision-making",

which puts PPAs in a good position to provide social benefits and even represent an "extreme form of participation in protected area management, where the local residents who own reserves control decision-making and there is no real or broader local participation in it." However this is not going to be the case for all areas claiming to be PPAs. In this final section of the report we include two sets of recommendations. The first below draw specifically from the review carried out for this report, all are important but all depend to some extent on the second set of recommendations (see box 12) which draw directly from the IUCN WCPA, UNEP WCMC and CBD technical report on PPAs published in 2014, which set the ground work for what we mean by the term PPAs and how this form of protected area can be better understood worldwide.

- **Rights**: Whoever holds the various rights that impact conservation has an important influence on the success of conservation. Three groups of rights are particularly important:
    - Land rights are critical to ensure cooperation between partners, particularly in countries where land claims and restitution are an ongoing issue
    - Resource use rights, from medicinal plants to mineral extraction, will have various degrees of impact depending on the nature of the rights, overall conservation objectives, and the ability to manage effectively any resource use impacts
    - Wildlife rights are, in the context of this report, perhaps the most vital. Private, rather than state, ownership of wildlife has resulted in an increasing tolerance of wildlife and the expansion of many wildlife-based land uses

  Clarity on all rights is a prerequisite for successful conservation. More consolidated rights (e.g. where one individual or group holds all the major rights likely to impact the conservation area) often makes meeting conservation objectives easier. The transfer of wildlife rights has been shown to be beneficial to conservation in Africa.
- **Sustainable funding**: Apart from those few PPAs developed by wealthy individuals with secure and sustainable sources of funding it seems clear that newly emerging financial models for managing conservation are bound to take hold. From the examples and discussion above there are some clear best practices which can help this form of governance:
    - Enterprises dependent on tourism should develop financial models which are based on fairly low occupancy and ensure that funds generated during periods of high occupancy are managed in such a way as to buffer downturns.
    - PPAs with diverse income streams, such as from tourism, agriculture (provided that it is managed in a way that does not impact conservation objectives), and from specific philanthropic funding (e.g. from NGOs, Trusts), are better placed to overcome market failures.
    - Non-profit making status will help prevent the need for profit overriding ecological objectives and conservation principles.
    - Policies towards the development of PPAs, such as tax breaks, should ensure that the ecological benefits associated with conservancies are clear and conservancy development should be aligned with political land reform objectives.

- **Stakeholder involvement/representation**: The key to effective management of all protected areas is good stakeholder relations; in this respect PPAs should ensure that their best practice management includes:

- Dialogue between a widely representative group of relevant stakeholders (both within the state and the local community), rather than just one or two representatives, to ensure the role and legitimacy of the PPA is better understood and supported.
- Strong, active, well designed and implemented community extension programmes linked with monitoring and evaluation, including annual management effectiveness assessment and social assessment, should be undertaken and reported to the community (ideally involving community members directly).
- Management committees, of community stakeholders and/or landowners, should have well understood and established reporting criteria, which cover a wide range of issues from how the committee is run to how it communicates its processes and decisions or how benefits are distributed, to ensure transparency and accountability.
- Local community direct involvement in PPA management (from rangers and anti-poaching informants to management and tourism related support staff) should be encouraged.
- PPA interpretation should be developed with local communities to help reinforce cultural identity and PPA management should ensure cultural and socially important areas are identified and appropriately managed.

- **Favourable political, legal and institutional environment**: Even when PPAs are not provided for in state legislation, provision should be made for governments to conclude contractual agreements with the owners of freehold land, or the representatives of freehold conservancies, to have such land declared in the government gazette as a PPA and thus reported internationally. Governments should also have the ability to cancel an agreement and de-proclaim the land if it is mismanaged or fails to meet national or international protected area standards or criteria. Incentive for private land holders to enter into such long term conservation agreements would be for the state to devolve more use rights over wildlife to the landholders.
- **PPAs at a regional level:** As this review has illustrated support for PPAs across the region is mixed. Internationally, however, 2014 saw the first really concerted support for PPAs globally with the final decision of the CBD's 12th Conference of the Parties held in Korea in October 2014 recognizing the contribution of PPAs in the conservation of biodiversity and encouraging "the private sector to continue its efforts to protect and sustainably manage ecosystems for the conservation of biodiversity" (http://www.cbd.int/doc/?meeting=cop-12), and in November 2014 the final statement from the decadal World Parks Congress acknowledged the increasing role of PPAs in "reaching biodiversity conservation and societal goals" (http://www.worldparkscongress.org/about/promise_of_sydney_vision.html). Although there has been no quite so definite statements concerning PPAs in Africa several regional institutions do, not surprisingly, support the role of the private sector in a range of activities and as such these could support policy advocacy for PPAs which clearly meet the IUCN definition of a protected area and the best practices outlined in this report. The Heads of State and Government of the Member States of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), for example, in the revised treaty of July 1993 calls for: 'the harmonisation and co-ordination of national policies and the promotion of integration programmes, projects and activities, particularly in food, agriculture and natural resources.....' (Article 3, 2 a) through: '..the promotion of joint ventures by private sectors enterprises and other economic operators, in particular through the adoption of a regional agreement on cross-border investments (Article 3,

2 f)[27]. In Southern Africa, SADC (the Southern African Development Community) has particularly focussed conservation policy on transboundary protected areas, or Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs). In late 2013 the SADC Programme for Transfrontier Conservation Areas noted that: 'SADC TFCAs are founded on the principle that conservation should embrace active participation and involvement of multiple stakeholders (states, private sector, local communities & NGOs) in the planning and management of natural resources ...'[28]. The main text of the programme however focuses mainly on the role of the private sector in providing tourism support and infrastructure rather than the development of a more mixed approach to the governance of protected areas in the region.

To take regional support for PPAs a step further the recommendations outlined in Box 12 are pertinent. Firstly, the agreed definition of a PPA needs to be clearly disseminated to regional fora and national conservation agencies, then policies and incentives which could support PPA development, focusing only on those areas which do meet the IUCN definition, can be promoted. Monitoring and assessment will remain a long term critical element of the development of PPAs in the region to ensure best practices are recognised and encouraged and PPAs are truly fulfilling their role in supporting conservation outcomes in the region.

Box 12: Recommendations for developing knowledge and practice around PPAs

In 2014, IUCN WCPA (with UNEP WCMC and the CBD) published the first global technical guidance on PPAs. The eight recommendations from this report (Stolton et al, 2014, pages 47-48) are given here as they are relevant for all regions when developing best practices and guidance around PPAs.

Strengthen PPAs nationally and globally

1. **Use the IUCN definition of a protected area**: A privately protected area is a protected area, as defined by IUCN, under private governance (i.e. individuals and groups of individuals; non-governmental organizations; corporations, including existing commercial companies and small companies established to manage groups of PPAs; for-profit owners such as ecotourism companies; research entities such as universities and field stations; or religious entities). IUCN, through its World Conservation Congress, and the Secretariat of CBD, through its Conference of Parties, should officially adopt and sanction this definition.
2. **Review national PPA systems**: Most countries have not clarified the definition or other policy and legislative structures surrounding PPAs. Countries should be encouraged by IUCN and the CBD to develop PPA data (baseline and data recording systems) and to enable policy and legislation for developing and supporting PPAs.
3. **Develop and implement monitoring and management effectiveness systems for PPAs**: The long- term success of PPAs depends on their ability to demonstrate conservation effectiveness. Conservation organizations and government protected areas agencies need to work in collaboration with PPA owners/managers on developing monitoring and management effectiveness systems which can be integrated with existing systems.

[27] www.comm.ecowas.int/sec/?id=treaty&lang=en

[28] www.sadc.int/files/4614/2122/3338/SADC_TFCA_Programme_FINAL_doc_Oct_2013.pdf

4. **Create/strengthen national PPA Associations:** National PPA associations should be developed/strengthened to help: 1) determine how effective PPAs are being in their conservation mission; 2) provide training to PPA owners and managers to ensure conservation effectiveness; and 3) agree what should be counted as a PPA and develop systems to report these to national and international databases.
5. **Improve knowledge sharing and information:** Two important activities are suggested: 1) IUCN's PPA Specialist Group and WCPA should prepare a 'best practices' guide for PPAs on the management of existing PPAs and the creation of new ones; and 2) encouragement for religious institutions and companies to create, support and report on the efforts to create and manage PPAs.

Extend PPA initiatives nationally and globally

6. **Understand what incentives are needed to support and promote PPAs:** NGOs and research organizations should be encouraged to carry out research on understanding the relationship between a range of incentives and: 1) why owners establish PPAs; 2) why they maintain them once established; and 3) how to ensure conservation objectives when ownership changes. From an economic perspective, all incentives potentially distort markets, thus their positive and negative impacts also need careful study.
7. **Develop incentives to increase conservation role of PPAs**: Building on recommendation 5 above, governments and others (e.g. NGOs, private companies) should ensure appropriate PPA incentives to: 1) expand the conservation coverage of existing protected areas; 2) connect protected areas and develop protected area networks (including across national boundaries); and 3) extend coverage of threatened species and rare and endangered ecosystems. Incentives should be in the form of both conservation legislation and instruments such as taxation; and flexible enough to allow rapid development of PPAs to respond to conservation crises.

Integrate PPAs into national and international reporting

8. **Create structures and incentives to report on PPAs both nationally and globally**: IUCN, other conservation bodies and government organizations should develop systems nationally for collecting PPA data (e.g. through Associations as outlined in recommendation 4). UNEP WCMC should collect data on PPAs, including through the support of national processes, to include in the WDPA and to report to UN bodies and others.

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6. Appendix

Annex 1: Explanation of the IUCN protected-area definition

Note opening phrase and explanation are taken directly from Dudley (2008), key aspects pertaining to PPAs are from Stolton et al. (2014).

Clearly defined geographical space:

Explanation from 2008 Guidelines	Understanding the definition for PPAs
Includes land, inland water, marine and coastal areas or a combination of two or more of these. 'Space' has three dimensions, e.g. as when the airspace above a protected area is protected from low-flying aircraft or in marine protected areas when a certain water depth is protected or the seabed is protected but water above is not: conversely subsurface areas sometimes are *not* protected (e.g. are open for mining). 'Clearly defined' implies a spatially defined area with agreed and demarcated borders. These borders can sometimes be defined by physical features that move over time (e.g. river banks) or by management actions (e.g. agreed no-take zones).	No PPA-specific considerations

Recognized:

Explanation from 2008 Guidelines	Understanding the definition for PPAs
Implies that protection can include a range of governance types declared by people as well as those identified by the state, but that such sites should be recognized in some way (in particular through listing on the World Database on Protected Areas – WDPA).	PPAs might be recognized in a number of different ways: • Legislation that declares a PPA part of the national or subnational protected area system with all attendant legal obligations • Legislation that declares a PPA part of the national or subnational protected area system but with fewer obligations • Legal agreements such as easements or covenants that are recognized national governments • Broader legal or quasi-legal agreements, such as easements or covenants, that may fall short of full recognition of a PPA by the national government but ensure long-term commitment to land or water conservation • Recognition by a national or subnational association of PPAs with guidelines and inventory (see below) provided that the association is recognized by outside experts (e.g. WCPA regional chairs) • Recognized on authoritative international

databases (e.g. WDPA) – probably via a national-level process (see for example UK country review)
- Ownership by an NGO with a legal structure that obligates conservation

(NB. Inclusion within international designations (e.g. Ramsar, Biosphere) or other designations of significance (e.g. key biodiversity areas) can strengthen the security of a PPA but is not sufficient in and of itself).

Dedicated:

Explanation from 2008 Guidelines

Implies specific binding commitment to conservation in the longterm, through e.g.:

- International conventions and agreements
- National, provincial and local law
- Customary law
- Covenants of NGOs
- Private trusts and company policies
- Certification schemes.

Understanding the definition for PPAs

Showing 'dedication'can be more difficult in PPAs than in other governance types. Where the owner has no legal control over wildlife or ecological processes (e.g. fire management) that impact the ability to achieve desired conservation outcomes, 'dedication' can be shown through:

- Formal agreements with the government agencies that have legal control to ensure that conservation values are maintained; or
- Publically available longterm management plans with indication of dedication to conservation; or
- Other recognition processes. For example, in the case of voluntary conservation commitments recognition by a national or subnational association of PPAs with guidelines and inventory can help provide additional evidence of the site's dedication to management which meets the IUCN definition of a protected area. It may be possible in the future for such associations to be additionally recognized by outside experts (e.g. WCPA regional chairs or the WCPA PPA Specialist Group).

Managed:

Explanation from 2008 Guidelines

Assumes some active steps to conserve the natural (and possibly other) values for which the protected area was established; note that 'managed' can include a decision to leave the area untouched if this is the best conservation strategy.

Understanding the definition for PPAs

PPAs should have a written statement of an intention to manage for conservation outcome and some means of monitoring progress towards these goals (even if private ownership and management may make PPA planning and management less formal).

Legal or other effective means:

Explanation from 2008 Guidelines

Means that protected areas must either be gazetted (that is, recognized under statutory civil law), recognized through an international

Understanding the definition for PPAs

D*e facto* or *de jure* tenure should be clearly defined (even if the package of tenurial rights and responsibilities constituting the 'area' that is managed

convention or agreement, or else managed through other effective but non-gazetted means, such as through recognized traditional rules under which community conserved areas operate or the policies of established non-governmental organizations.

as a PPA is diverse and unconventional). The control of rights over land or water use are rarely in the hands of one person, organization or government ministry – and thus tensions often arise when different rights holders have different objectives for the use of those rights.

For any area to fit the definition of a protected area the current use of the area should be conservation – and the intent should be that the conservation objective is for the long term.

Where specific management is necessary to achieve the stated conservation outcome and rights-holders may require a particular management style in order to satisfy their requirements. Managers of sites should be aware of any rights of use which are not in their control, and efforts should be made to ensure that use does not impact these conservation outcomes.

To achieve:

Explanation from 2008 Guidelines

Implies some level of effectiveness – a new element that was not present in the 1994 definition but which has been strongly requested by many protected area managers and others. Although the category will still be determined by objective, management effectiveness will progressively be recorded on the World Database on Protected Areas and over time will become an important contributory criterion in identification and recognition of protected areas. The **Convention on Biological Diversity** is asking Parties to carry out management effectiveness assessments.

Understanding the definition for PPAs

No PPA-specific considerations (but see section on Management).

Long-term:

Explanation from 2008 Guidelines

Protected areas should be managed in perpetuity and not as a short-term or temporary management strategy. Temporary measures, such as short-term grant-funded agricultural set-asides, rotations in commercial forest management or temporary fishing protection zones are not protected areas as recognized by IUCN.

Understanding the definition for PPAs

PPAs should demonstrate **an intent to conservation 'in perpetuity'**, or at least 'long-term' (a period of at least 25 years). PPAs can face particular challenges in 'proving' long-term conservation. In a few countries, PPA declaration brings legal obligations for long-term protection, putting PPAs on equal footing to state-run protected areas. Where this is not the case, long-term **intent** can be demonstrated through:

- PPA status trancending changes of ownership, through easement, covenant, wills, etc.

- Where formal agreements relating to PPAs are short-term they should be tied to commitment to long-term protection (e.g. renewable agreements or long-term stated objectives) and ending of agreements should never prohibit continuation of PPA status.
- Some form of long-term monitoring to ensure adherence to conservation intent.
- Active or passive management practices being applied in order to safeguard the integrity of natural resources present in the PPA, that are validated by local or regional units of a national association of PPAs with guidelines and a national inventory.

Conservation:

Explanation from 2008 Guidelines

In the context of this definition conservation refers to the *in-situ* maintenance of ecosystems and natural and semi-natural habitats and of viable populations of species in their natural surroundings and, in the case of domesticated or cultivated species, in the surroundings where they have developed their distinctive properties.

Understanding the definition for PPAs

No PPA-specific considerations.

Nature:

Explanation from 2008 Guidelines

In this context nature *always* refers to biodiversity, at genetic, species and ecosystem level, and often *also* refers to geodiversity, landform and broader natural values.

Understanding the definition for PPAs

No PPA-specific considerations.

Associated ecosystem services:

Explanation from 2008 Guidelines

Means here ecosystem services that are related to but do not interfere with the aim of nature conservation. These can include provisioning services such as food and water; regulating services such as regulation of floods, drought, land degradation, and disease; supporting services such as soil formation and nutrient cycling; and cultural services such as recreational, spiritual, religious and other non-material benefits.

Understanding the definition for PPAs

No PPA-specific considerations.

Cultural values:

Explanation from 2008 Guidelines

Includes those that do not interfere with the conservation outcome (*all* cultural values in a

Understanding the definition for PPAs

Many PPAs were created to ensure a legacy – this is a cultural value that is an important aspect of

protected area should meet this criterion), including in particular:

- those that contribute to conservation outcomes (e.g. traditional management practices on which key species have become reliant);
- those that are themselves under threat.

Source: Dudley, 2008 and Stolton, 2014

these PPAs.

Annex 2: PPAs in Africa overview table

Country	PPAs: current status	Co-managed PPAs	Notes
Angola, Republic of	None found	Major funding (GEF and EU) towards strengthening Angola's protected area system suggests: 'To create and strengthen sustainable management units for protected areas ... it is recommended to foster public-private partnership, with the support of non profit organisations. '	Source: http://ec.europa.eu/europeaid/documents/aap/2012/af_aap-spe_2012_ago.pdf
Botswana, Republic of	None found		
Botswana, Republic of	There are currently 119 areas described as 'game farms' or PPAs in Botswana covering approximately 950,000 ha (Stolton et al, 2014), e.g.: • Jwaneng Game Park • Khama Rhino Sactuary • Mashatu Game Reserve • Mokolodi Nature Reserve • Nata Bird Sanctuary • Orapa Game Park		
Burkina Faso	None found		
Burundi, Republic of	According to a GEF project proposal there are: 'a sacred forest and three community and PPAs'. But no further details could be found		Source: http://www.thegef.org/gef/sites/thegef.org/files/gef_prj_docs/GEFProjectDocuments/Multi%20Focal%20Area/Burundi%20-%20%284631%29%20-%20Watershed%20Approach%20to%20Sustainable%20Coffee%20Productio/09-28-11%20PIF%20document%20revised%20final.pdf
Cabo Verde, Republic of	None found		
Cameroon (Republic of)		Limited information, but one report notes that: 'Management of protected areas has been so weak in some cases that NGOs have stepped in to assist	

Country	PPAs: current status	Co-managed PPAs	Notes
		the State.' (Greiber & Schiele, 2011).	
Central African Republic		The Chinko Project is a public private partnership with the CAR Ministry of Forestry, the Environment and Tourism and African Parks to 17,600 km^2 for 50 years from 2014 (www.african-parks.org/).	
Chad, Republic of		Through a joint decision by the European Union and the Government, African Parks was approached to take over the management of Zakouma NP in 2010 (www.african-parks.org/).	
Comoros (Union of the)	None found		
Congo, Democratic Republic of the		Since 2005, the NGO African Parks, in partnership with the Institut Congolais pour la Conservation de la Nature (ICCN), has had management responsibility for Garamba NP (www.african-parks.org/).	
Congo, Republic of the	The provisions of Law 37-2008 of 28/11/2008 allows for this type of governance but the implementing legislation has not yet been adopted (case study).	African Parks took over the management of Odzala-Kokoua NP in 2010 under a partnership agreement with the Government which provides for the creation of a dedicated non-profit entity, the Odzala Foundation, which will have overall jurisdiction over the park (www.african-parks.org/).	
Cote d'Ivoire, Republic of	None found		
Djibouti, Republic of	None found		
Equatorial Guinea, Republic of	None found		
Eritrea, State of	None found		
Ethiopia, Federal Democratic Republic of		No private reserves although there has unsuccessful been attempts to pass management of state controlled NPs to private NGO management (Nishizaki, 2014).	
Gabon (Gabonese Republic)	None found		
Gambia, Republic of the	Currently only one, but new policy and legislative frameworks calling for		

Country	PPAs: current status	Co-managed PPAs	Notes
	increased private involvement in protected area management (see case study).		
Ghana, Republic of	None found		
Guinea, Republic of	None found		
Guinea-Bissau, Republic of			The BioGuinea Foundation has been set up as a private foundation to secure financing for a the management of Guinea-Bissau's network of protected areas and biodiversity conservation core recurrent activities in perpetuity and more modestly, for at least two national parks. (See: http://www-wds.worldbank.org/external/default/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2011/02/24/000333038_20110224225048/Rendered/PDF/566330PAD0P1221OFFICIAL0USE0ONLY191.pdf)
Kenya, Republic of	Around 140 community and private Conservancies cover >6 million ha. Many of these areas may not fit the definition of a protected area (Stolton et al, 2014)		
Liberia, Republic of	None found		
Lesotho, Kingdom of	None found		
Madagascar, Republic of	PPAs exist outside the protected area system and lack any designation. There is no database of these		

Country	PPAs: current status	Co-managed PPAs	Notes
	areas however it is estimated that PPAs are likely to number no more than 20.		
Malawi, Republic of		In 2003, the Government of Malawi entered into a 25-year public private partnership with African Parks for the rehabilitation, development and management of Majete WR (www.african-parks.org/).	
Mali, Republic of	None found		
Mauritius, Republic of	A current GEF project aims to expand the terrestrial protected area network: '..from a baseline of 7,259 ha to ca.14,920 ha: 11,700 of state protected area and 3,220ha of private protected area'. The project document notes that a: '.. conservation stewardship programme will be designed to underpin the negotiation of voluntary conservation agreements with private leaseholders and landowners that enables their designation as formal protected areas'.		Source: https://www.thegef.org/gef/sites/thegef.org/files/repository/Mauritius-FS-project-11-16-09.pdf
Mozambique, Republic of		Gorongosa NP is a 20-year Public-Private Partnership between the Government of Mozambique and the Gorongosa Restoration Project, a U.S. non-profit organization (www.gorongosa.org).	
Namibia, Republic of	Over > 160 areas covering >2 million ha. Many of the private reserves noted are not likely to meet the IUCN definition of a protected area (Stolton et al, 2014).		
Niger, Republic of	None found		
Nigeria, Federal Republic of	None found		
Rwanda, Republic of		Since 2009, Akagera NP is jointly managed by African Parks and the Rwanda Development Board (RDB).	

Country	PPAs: current status	Co-managed PPAs	Notes
		African Parks is responsible for the day to day management of the park (www.african-parks.org/).	
São Tomé and Príncipe, Democratic Republic of	None found		
Senegal, Republic of	None found		
Seychelles, Republic of	The Seychelles' first Protected Area Policy was launched in April, 2014. The policy includes new elements such as protocols for co-management of protected areas with communities and the private sector.		Seychelles Islands Foundation (established as a public trust in 1979) is responsible for managing the two World Heritage sites (Aldabra and Vallée de Mai)
Sierra Leone, Republic of	The National Protected Area Authority and Conservation Trust Fund Act, 2012 notes that the role of the Authority should include overseeing: 'the management of local and private nature reserves and sanctuaries throughout Sierra Leone ..'	Tiwai Island is located in the Upper Guinea Tropical Rainforest in south-eastern Sierra Leone, about 30 km from the Liberian border. Approximately 12 km² in size, Tiwai Island is an inland rainforest island in the Moa River. It has been a protected area and eco-tourism destination since 2002. Multiple partners are involved and management is overseen by Tiwai Island Administrative Committee. The Environmental Foundation for Africa (EFA) is the main implementing agency in collaboration with Njala University of Tiwai Island. EFA primarily manages the visitor centre and tourism areas whereas Njala manages the research station (http://www.tiwaiisland.org/).	Source: http://www.sierra-leone.org/Laws/2012-11.pdf
Somalia, Federal Republic of	None found		
South Africa, Republic of	Well planned and integrated system of >200 areas covering >1.7 million ha (agreed areas and areas under negotiation) (Stolton et al, 2014)		
Swaziland, Kingdom of	An overview report for the GEF records 46,977 ha		

Country	PPAs: current status	Co-managed PPAs	Notes
	'informal protected areas' with private ownership. The sites are: IYSIS (20,016 ha); Royal Jozini Big 6 (12,662 ha); Big Bend Conservancy (8,991 ha); Mhlosinga (2,777 ha); Mbuluzi (2,357 ha); Libhetse (1,576 ha); Emantini (1,381 ha); Nisela (1,147 ha); Panata (491 ha); Dombeya (349 ha); Nkonyeni (327 ha); Rosecraft (246 ha); Sibetsamoya (209 ha); and Phophonyane (140 ha). The report notes: 'In addition to these areas not being formally dedicated as PAs for the long-term, their management standards vary significantly. Some are managed to high nature conservation standards comparable with National PAs, many are managed as game ranches often in combination with cattle, and some are not afforded levels of protection as high as would be expected within a National PA. Information on informal PAs is limited despite the significant increase in the number of informal PAs in the last decade, this result in inaccuracies in determining the area covered.'		
Tanzania, United Republic of	See case study		
Togo (Togolese Republic)	None found		
Uganda, Republic of	No PPAs, however since 2001 one private hunting company works with communities under a pilot project with the Ugandan		

Country	PPAs: current status	Co-managed PPAs	Notes
	Wildlife Authority (Carter, 2005). See also: gametrailsuganda.com		
Zambia, Republic of		Two different formulations of shared governance: 1) In 2003, African Parks entered into a formal agreement with the Zambia Wildlife Authority and the Barotse Royal Establishment to manage the Liuwa Plain NP for 20 years. 2) Bangweulu Wetlands is not officially gazetted, but has been managed by Africa Parks since 2008 in partnership with the local communities (www.african-parks.org/).	
Zimbabwe, Republic of		Some conservancies (e.g. Save Valley) could be characterised as a PPA as managed by as an NGO. See: savevalleyconservancy.org and Nyahunzvi, 2014	See also: http://singita.com/conservation/singita-pamushana-biodiversity-protection-development/

Table 7: **Management arrangements of Contract National Parks in South Africa**

National Park	Contracts
Addo Elephant National Park	6 contracts. 4 areas jointly managed and 2 areas managed by SANParks
Agulhas National Park	3 contracts. 2 areas jointly managed and 1areas managed by SANParks
Camdeboo National Park	1 contract managed by SANParks
Kalahari Gemsbok National Park	1 contract managed by SANParks
Karoo National Park	2 contracts managed by SANParks
Mapungupwe National Park	3 contracts managed by SANParks
Marakele National Park	7 contracts. 5 areas jointly managed and 2areas managed by SANParks
Mountain Zebra National Park	2 contracts managed by SANParks
Namaqua National Park	5 contracts managed by SANParks
Richtersveld National Park	1 contract managed by SANParks
Table Mountain National Park	Multiple contracts mainly managed by SANParks
Tankwa-Karoo National Park	3 contracts managed by SANParks
Tsitsikamma National Park	2 contracts managed by SANParks
West Coast National Park	5 contracts. 2 areas jointly managed and 3 areas managed by SANParks

Annex 3: Private Protected Areas: An Annotated Bibliography

This bibliography is based on a global list developed by Kent H. Redford, Nigel Dudley and Sue Stolton for the Privately Protected Areas Futures project in August 2013. This has been edited to include African resources only, updated and additional resources added in November-December 2014. Copies of all articles are available except for those marked with.*

Anon. n.d. Kenya: Association of private land rhino sanctuaries. http://www.savetherhino.org/africa_programmes/aplrs_kenya (consulted 6 August, 2013).
The NGO Save the Rhino supports efforts to conserve rhinos on private land in several African countries. In Kenya, the Association of Private Land Rhino Sanctuaries has 8 member sanctuaries.

*** Brooks, S., M. Spierenburg, L. O. T. Van Brakel, A. Kolk, and K. B. Lukhozi. 2011. Creating a commodified wilderness: Tourism, private game farming and 'third nature' landscapes in Kwazulu-Natal. *Tijdschrift voor economische en sociale geografie* 102:260-274**.
This article explores contemporary cultural geographies and underlying histories of change on private land in post-apartheid South Africa. Its focus is the expansion of wildlife-based tourism and related forms of commodified wilderness consumption in KwaZulu-Natal province. The article explores the social and economic processes occurring on game farms in a region known as the Midlands. Here nature is being culturally (re)constructed on former farmlands to create new landscapes shaped by the demands of wildlife-based tourism. In pursuit of these 'third nature' dreams, spaces often need to be physically changed as well as discursively repositioned through marketing. Yet this is not an unchallenged process: the presence of 'farm dwellers' living on privately owned land disrupts smooth progress to a refashioned wilderness landscape. The article identifies various strategies employed by landowners in order to minimise the presence of farm dwellers on their land. In the current context, the involvement of the state on private land adds a further layer of complexity. Land reform policies and programmes serve as a mesh through which these contestations are filtered. While their effects are often ambiguous, land claims in particular serve to challenge the 'third nature' dream of landowners.

Büscher, B., and W. Whande. 2007. Whims in the winds of time: Emerging trends in biodiversity conservation and protected area management. *Conservation and Society* 5:22-43.
This article reviews narratives and trends in biodiversity conservation and protected area (PA) management and examines contestations within and among them in the light of developments within the global political economy. Its argument starts with the assumption that these trends are, in large part, determined by global political and economic developments, meaning that policy issues inherent to the conservation and development debate need to continuously be re-operationalised in order to remain politically acceptable. This argument is used to identify three recent trends in conservation, which we have termed 'neoliberal conservation', 'bioregional conservation' and 'hijacked conservation'. By illustrating these trends with empirical data from eastern and southern Africa, we aim to enhance the understanding and appreciation of macrosocial, economic and political dynamics— both constraints and opportunities—that impinge on conservation and development. This includes consideration of privately protected areas in the region.

Carter, E. 2005. East Africa. Private sector involvement in conservation. A preliminary report: Scale and scope of activities. Resource Africa.
This first phase of the study is designed to provide a 'situation analysis' of Kenya, Tanzania and (to a lesser extent) Uganda and Ethiopia, including baseline data on the physical scale of private sector involvement and a preliminary discussion of the economic, social and legal significance of privately-held land. This report provides greater detail than the summary "Oryx" piece by the same author.

Carter, E., W.M. Adams and J. Hutton. 2008. Private protected areas: management regimes, tenure arrangements and protected area categorization in East Africa. *Oryx* 42: 177-186.
Private sector bodies can be important owners and managers of conservation areas. However, little is known about the extent, scale and scope of private protected areas. Understanding and defining the characterizations of private protected areas are problematic, as private sector involvement in protected areas can involve an array of different tenure arrangements, management approaches and levels of control. This review examines the challenges of developing protected area categorization beyond the traditional state-led model. We review private protected areas in Kenya and Tanzania, exploring their tenure, the nature of the private sector organizations managing them, and the extent of control exercised within them. Drawing on this we develop a working typology with the aim to encourage further discourse amongst the conservation community on the emerging phenomenon of private protected areas.

Child, M.F., M.J.S. Peel, I.P.J. Smit and W.J. Sutherland. 2013. Quantifying the effects of diverse private protected area management systems on ecosystem properties in a savannah biome, South Africa. *Oryx* 47: 29-40.
The effects of management on ecosystem diversity, structure and function must be understood for the sustainable integration of conservation and development. A potential source of experimentation and learning in ecosystem management is the array of private protected areas worldwide. Autonomous management systems can be seen as natural experiments, presenting an opportunity to explore the consequences of manipulating ecosystem properties. By quantifying management diversity and developing an index of management intensity we assessed the ecological correlates of private protected area management within the savannah biome in South Africa. Management intensity is positively correlated with herbivore density, predator density and ecotourism lodge density and negatively with herbivore community heterogeneity, reintroduction success and primary productivity at the local protected area scale. However, these trade-offs are tantamount to functional diversity as different management systems play unique roles in the regional socio-ecological and socio-economic systems, which range from animal production centres high in commercial value to low density areas that may sustain landscape processes. Furthermore, fenced private protected areas are necessary to safeguard rare species that cannot sustain viable populations in altered ecosystems. Thus, when considered at the regional scale, a private protected area network that constitutes a patchwork of management systems will create a coincident conservation and production landscape. We suggest that maintaining management heterogeneity will provide net benefits to biodiversity and potentially galvanize locally sustainable, wildlife-based economies.

Cousins, J.A., J. P. Sadler and J. Evans. 2008. Exploring the role of private wildlife ranching as a conservation tool in South Africa: Stakeholder perspectives. *Science and Society*: 13(2): 43. [online] URL: http://www.ecologyandsociety.org/vol13/iss2/art43/

Rich in biological diversity, South Africa's natural habitats are internationally recognized as a conservation priority. Biodiversity loss continues, however, and limited scope to enlarge the state-protected areas, combined with funding shortages for public parks, means that conservationists are increasingly turning to private landowners for solutions. The recent boom in privately owned wildlife ranches in South Africa has the potential to contribute to conservation in South Africa. This paper explores the benefits, limitations, and challenges of private wildlife ranching as a tool for conservation in South Africa through interviews with key stakeholders working within conservation and wildlife ranching, and through case studies of threatened species programs. Respondents suggested that wildlife ranches contribute to conservation positively by maintaining natural areas of habitat and by providing resources to support reintroduction programs for threatened species. However, they reported a number of limitations centred on three themes that generally arise due to the commercial nature of wildlife ranching: (1) tourist preferences drive the industry, (2) predators are persecuted to protect valuable game, and (3) inadequate resources are made available for professional conservation management and planning on ranches. In addition to challenges of combining economic gain with conservation objectives, ranchers face a number of challenges that arise because of the small, enclosed character of many ranches in South Africa, including the need to intensively manage wildlife populations. In order to enhance the role of wildlife ranching within conservation, clear guidance and support for ranchers is likely to be required to boost endorsement and minimize economic loss to ranchers.

Druce, H. C., K. Pretorius, and R. Slotow. 2008. The response of an elephant population to conservation area expansion: Phinda Private Game Reserve, South Africa. *Biological Conservation* 141:3127-3138.

Continuous human population expansion pressure on conservation ecosystems restricts wildlife areas, and necessitates active management. In areas of changing land-use and increasing human–animal conflict, responses of wildlife to direct human interventions can inform managers and planners. During August 2004, the boundary fences between Phinda Private Game Reserve and two neighbouring reserves were removed. This study examined behavioral responses of the resident elephants. Older, recently introduced bulls moved into the new area during the first month after fence removal, while younger resident bulls and family groups took between five and eight months. Initially family groups only moved into the new area at night and spent minimal time there, while older bulls spent longer periods of time, regardless of time of day. One year after fence removal, most of the elephants had only expanded their home ranges slightly into the new area. One of the findings of this study is that elephants appear to act cautiously in exploring new areas and responded by moving into the area slowly and over a relatively long time period. This cautious behaviour reduced through time as animals became more familiar with the area. The spatial scale of response of the elephants was relatively small, while the temporal scale of response was relatively large

Eliott, J., H. Gibbons, D. King, A. King and T. Leménager. 2014. Exploring Environmental Complementarity between Types of Protected Areas in Kenya, *Focales*, n°19. Paris, France, AFD.

Report of a study commissioned by AFD to AWF, IIED and UNEP-WCMC to analyse whether there is

evidence (scientific and anecdotal) for the biodiversity benefits of having a network of PAs composed of a mix of state, private and community PAs. It aimed at defining and exploring the concept of environmental complementarity between PAs in terms of their enhanced ability to achieve positive environmental outcomes and testing the framework at landscape level. Kenya was selected as the study's target country as it provides a good example of a spectrum of PA types, wildlife policies which are currently under revision, and it is a focal country for AFD's biodiversity efforts.

Gallo, J.A., L. Pasquini, B. Reyers and R.M. Cowling. 2009. The role of private conservation areas in biodiversity representation and target achievement within the little Karoo region, South Africa. *Biological Conservation* 142: 446-454.

It is becoming increasingly difficult to manage and expand statutory conservation areas (i.e., parks and formally protected areas). Therefore, alternative opportunities for land conservation merit closer attention. This paper examines the extent to which privately owned conservation areas contribute to biodiversity representation. Gap analyses were performed for a large semi-arid region in South Africa with a comprehensive database of private conservation areas. The distribution of private conservation areas was compared to statutory conservation areas using several landscape characteristics: biome and vegetation variant, elevation class, ecological process area, total area, and threat status (endangerment). Conservation target achievement for the vegetation variants was also assessed, as was the degree to which private conservation areas complemented statutory conservation areas by representing different landscape characteristics. The number of targets achieved nearly tripled if private conservation areas were considered in addition to statutory conservation areas. Further, private conservation areas significantly complemented statutory conservation areas in the types of biomes, elevation classes, and threat status classes conserved. Private conservation areas were especially important in conserving lower elevation habitat, and by association, endangered vegetation. This particular relationship is expected to be common worldwide. Our results indicate that private lands conservation deserves an increased allocation of resources for both research and implementation.

Garaï, M.E., R. Slotow, R.D. Carr and B. Reilly 2004. Elephant reintroductions to small fenced reserves in South Africa. *Pachyderm* 37: 28-36

The Elephant Management and Owners Association has been collecting information on translocated elephants in South Africa for nearly 10 years, including to PPAs. In 2001 a database was initiated and detailed information collected by means of a questionnaire. This paper deals with the question of whether the translocation of elephants can be termed successful, according to the short-term indicators of natural reproduction, mortality rate and population growth. Between 1979 and 2001, over 800 African elephants, *Loxodonta africana,* were reintroduced to over 58 reserves in South Africa. The mean founder population size was 26.4 (minimum = 2 and maximum = 227). Thirty-eight reserves (68% of 56 reserves) have shown an increase of greater than 10% of the initial population. An average of 56% of the adult females that were translocated gave birth within 2 years, that is, were pregnant at the time of capture. When young orphans were translocated on their own, mortality was relatively high (18% of 226 animals), but mortality decreased when complete family groups were moved. This analysis confirms the short-term success of translocating elephants in small fenced reserves. However, there have been a range of behavioural problems, mainly linked to disrupted social structure, and these need to be studied further and managed.

Grossman, D. and P. Holden. N.d. Contract parks in South Africa. http://www.conservation-development.net/Projekte/Nachhaltigkeit/CD1/Suedafrika/Literatur/PDF/Grossmann.pdf
South Africa's National Parks legislation provides for the establishment of contractual national parks, whereby land owners enter into a contract with the relevant Minister and the area is formally proclaimed as a contract park, with the owners retaining title as well as negotiated rights. Three contract parks are surveyed: Richtersveld National Park, the Makuleke Region of Kruger National Park, and Ae Kalahari Contract Park in the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park.

Gustavsson, M., Lindstrom, L., Jiddawi, N.S., and M. de la Torre-Castro, M (2014). Procedural and distributive justice in a community-based managed Marine Protected Area in Zanzibar, Tanzania. ***Marine Policy.*** **46, 91-100**
Local participation in governance and management is assumed to lead to something good. But it is rarely explicitly stated who are participating and in what. The study investigates this in the context of a Marine Protected Area (MPA) in Zanzibar, Tanzania, and in particular the Memba Island - Chwaka Bay Marine Conservation Area (MIMCA). This is done by applying Pretty's typology of participation in addressing procedural justice, which is according to Paavola linked to distributive justice, i.e. the just distribution of costs and benefits. How does participation in MIMCA facilitate procedural and distributive justice? To answer this question a number of fishermen, women seaweed farmers, local leaders, and representatives of the private sector were interviewed (n=136) in five villages. Interviews were also made with government officials at relevant departments. The results show that Village Fishermen Committees were participating in the implementation of MIMCA but not in its planning phase. Participation was mainly in the form of manipulative and passive participation. Other local actors did not participate at all. Instead, the government assumed that justice was achieved by distributing equipment, alternative income generating projects, and relying on tourism for local development. However, the distributed equipment and tourism development have created conflict and injustice within and between villages, because of the insufficient resources which did not target those in need. Tourism created problems such as inequality between livelihoods, environmental destruction and local power asymmetries between hotel management and local people. The MIMCA top-down intervention has not increased participation or justice, nor has it achieved sustainable resource use and conflict resolution. It is suggested that interactive participation by all local actors is needed to create just trade-offs. justice needs to be explicitly addressed for integrated conservation and development projects to achieve sustainability.

Hayward, M. W., J. Adendorff, J. O'Brien, A. Sholto-Douglas, C. Bissett, L.C. Moolman, P. Bean, A. Fogarty, D. Howarth, R. Slater and G.I.H. Kerley. 2007. The reintroduction of large carnivores to the Eastern Cape, South Africa: an assessment. ***Oryx*** **41:205-214.**
Recently, conservation estate in South Africa's Eastern Cape Province has increased 10-fold resulting in large predators being increasingly reintroduced to restore ecological integrity and maximize tourism, across both state and private protected areas. We describe the reintroductions of large carnivores (.10 kg) that have occurred in the Eastern Cape and use various criteria to assess their success. Lion reintroduction has been highly successful with a population of 56 currently extant in the region and problems of overpopulation arising. The African wild dog population has increased to 24 from a founder population of 11. Preliminary results for spotted hyenas also indicate success. Wild populations of leopards exist on several reserves and have been supplemented by translocated

individuals, although deaths of known individuals have occurred and no estimate of reproduction is available. Cheetah reintroduction has also been less successful with 36 individuals reintroduced and 23 cubs being born but only 41 individuals surviving in 2005. Criteria for assessing the success of reintroductions of species that naturally occur in low densities, such as top predators, generally have limited value. Carrying capacity for large predators is unknown and continued monitoring and intensive management will be necessary in enclosed, and possibly all, conservation areas in the Eastern Cape to ensure conservation success.

Holmes, G. 2013. What role do private protected areas have in conserving global biodiversity? Sustainability Research Institute. University of Leeds.
http://www.see.leeds.ac.uk/fileadmin/Documents/research/sri/workingpapers/SRIPs-46.pdf
This essay explores the role that private protected areas have in conserving biodiversity, by considering their efficacy, the cost of management, their social impacts on neighbouring communities, and their impacts on biodiversity beyond their boundaries. In particular, it considers how private protected areas might differ from protected areas under state, shared or community governance. It finds that private protected areas do not face unique challenges or opportunities compared with other forms of protected area, although they experience certain key issues in a different way, such as the role of market activities in conservation, the uneven distribution of protected areas across biomes, and the social accountability of protected areas. It finds that private protected areas are best considered as a supplement, not a substitute, for other forms of protected area.

Jones, T.B.T., S. Stolton and N. Dudley. 2005. Private protected areas in East and southern Africa: contributing to biodiversity conservation and rural development. *PARKS* 15: 67-77.
East and southern Africa are well known for their extensive systems of national parks and game reserves established by governments to provide protection for many of Africa's most iconic species. However, what is perhaps less well known is the extent of land under private conservation in both these regions of the continent. Large areas of land are being managed for wildlife by non-state entities for a variety of purposes. This paper provides an overview of privately conserved areas in East and southern Africa, and assesses their conservation and socio-economic impacts. It considers key issues regarding the nature and future of these protected areas. The number and variety of privately conserved areas in East and southern Africa makes it impossible in an article of this nature to describe and analyze all of them in detail. We have tried to give a broad overview of privately conserved areas in these two regions of Africa and then focused on specific examples that best illustrate some of the importance of such areas.

Kepher-Gona, J. 2005. National inventory of ecotourism projects in Kenya. Ecotourism Society of Kenya, Nairoi.
First report of the Ecotourism Society of Kenya project to develop a national inventory of all existing ecotourism projects in the Kenya, with a view to establishing the extent to which ecotourism has contributed to improved livelihoods for local people and aided conservation. Report of the first phase of this project involved reviewing existing literature on ecotourism enterprises in Kenya, both for existing and potential ventures. The survey reviews five focal areas with potential for eco-tourism development in Kenya

Knight, A.T., R. M. Cowling, M. Difford and B.M. Campbell. 2010. Mapping human and social dimensions of conservation opportunity for the scheduling of conservation action on private land. *Conservation Biology* 24: 1348-1358.

Spatial prioritization techniques are applied in conservation-planning initiatives to allocate conservation resources. Although typically they are based on ecological data (e.g., species, habitats, ecological processes), increasingly they also include non ecological data, mostly on the vulnerability of valued features and economic costs of implementation. Nevertheless, the effectiveness of conservation actions implemented through conservation-planning initiatives is a function of the human and social dimensions of social-ecological systems, such as stakeholders' willingness and capacity to participate. We assessed human and social factors hypothesized to define opportunities for implementing effective conservation action by individual land managers (those responsible for making day-to-day decisions on land use) and mapped these to schedule implementation of a private land conservation program. We surveyed 48 land managers who owned 301 land parcels in the Makana Municipality of the Eastern Cape province in South Africa. Psychometric statistical and cluster analyses were applied to the interview data so as to map human and social factors of conservation opportunity across a landscape of regional conservation importance. Four groups of landowners were identified, in rank order, for a phased implementation process. Furthermore, using psychometric statistical techniques, we reduced the number of interview questions from 165 to 45, which is a preliminary step toward developing surrogates for human and social factors that can be developed rapidly and complemented with measures of conservation value, vulnerability, and economic cost to more-effectively schedule conservation actions. This work provides conservation and land management professionals direction

Kreuter, U., Peel, M. and E. Warner, E (2010). Wildlife Conservation and Community-Based Natural Resource Management in Southern Africa's Private Nature Reserves. *Society & Natural Resources.* 23:6, 507-524

In southern Africa, legislative changes that devolved wildlife management authority on private land to landowners and growth in the commercial value of wildlife resulted in a substantial increase in private land dedicated to wildlife. In addition, groups of landowners within the bounds of the Great Limpopo Conservation Area have incorporated their properties into private nature reserves, thereby expanding the management scale of common-pool wildlife resources. Secondary data and experience with the reserves form the basis of our exploration of the contribution of private landholdings to wildlife conservation and the extent to which three private nature reserves appear to exhibit characteristics that promote effective community-based natural resource management (CBNRM). The combined area of private land with wildlife-based enterprises in South Africa is more than double that of formal protected areas, and the three private nature reserves exhibit, to varying degrees, characteristics that enhance CBNRM and coordinated decision making for wildlife conservation.

Krug, W. 2001. Private supply of protected land in Southern Africa: A review of markets, approaches, barriers and issues. World Bank/OECD International Workshop on Market Creation for Biodiversity Products and Services, Paris.

This paper represents a first attempt to assess the role of the private sector in supplying protected land or 'land under wildlife' in southern Africa. Although limited information exists on private conservation initiatives, it is possible to conclude that the private sector plays an indispensable role

in the provision of biodiversity in the region. A minimum of 14 million hectares of private land is under some form of wildlife protection or sustainable wildlife management. This equals almost half the size of the United Kingdom, or half the size of all state protected areas in the region. Private reserves, conservancies and game ranches protect critical habitat in various ecosystems and play an important role in the protection of highly endangered species, including black and white rhino. The comparison of public and private conservation reveals that the total area of privately protected land is growing, while there is little managed parks face declining budgets, while an increasing number of private reserves are financially self-sufficient. Private management structures are more effective in capturing the economic value of biodiversity, and thereby turning conservation into a competitive form of land use. Beside the economic benefits accruing to landowners, private reserves and game ranches provide the public good 'biodiversity' at zero cost to the tax-payer. The experience from southern Africa further supports the economic theory that secure property rights to land and wildlife are an essential ingredient in any strategy to conserve and encourage long-term investment in wildlife habitat. It is important to recognise that markets for biological resources are responsible for the private supply of wildlife habitat, and that any policy impairing the relative competitiveness of wildlife as a land use will have a direct impact on the private supply of biodiversity.

Langholz. J. 1996. Economics, objectives, and success of private nature reserves in sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America. *Conservation Biology* 10: 271-280.

Current efforts for habitat protection, based largely on government efforts to establish protected areas, are not keeping pace with biodiversity loss. The conservation community must explore means for in situ protection that supplement existing government efforts. One possibility is the privately owned nature reserve. In this descriptive study a written survey of privately owned nature reserves in Sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America was undertaken to identify their economic attributes, initial objectives, and factors necessary for attaining those objectives. Data from 32 managers of private reserves revealed that reserves can be a profitable venture. Over half were realizing a profit, and profitability among reserves had risen 21% since 1989. Despite this economic success, they proved to be motivated more by conservation goals than by personal or economic objectives. Overall the respondents ranked management factors more important than geographic, social/political financial, or stochastic factors for accomplishing reserves' objectives. The presence of "interesting ecological attractions" was rated the single most important factor and those factors relating to government involvement were considered least important. The results show private reserves to be an important albeit little-known example of private-sector involvement in conservation. The results also provide a useful analysis for those interested in private reserves, those currently operating them, and those wishing to establish them.

Langholz, J.A. and G.I.H. Kerley. 2006. Combining conservation and development on private lands: An assessment of ecotourism-based private game reserves in the Eastern Cape. Centre for African *Conservation Ecology*. Report No. 56.

The socio-economic profile of ten ecotourism-based private game reserves (PGRs) was established, using a self-completed questionnaire, in order to assess their contribution to conservation and development in the Eastern Cape region. This is a follow-up to a similar study for which data were collected during winter 2003 and published in 2004. The objectives of the current study were to: 1) validate findings from the 2004 study, using a larger sample size; 2) collect new information beyond what the previous study produced; and 3) identify changes among private game reserves (PGRs) that

may have occurred since the original study. The PGRs varied widely in data provision, property size, and duration of operation, which limited the analyses possible. The findings are, however, of considerable value and are summarised here. Especially helpful is the fact that all seven PGRs from the 2004 study also participated in the 2006 study, plus three new respondents. In changing from farming to game-based ecotourism, the total number of employees increased by a factor of 4.5. This number reflects data from 10 reserves, and differs somewhat from the factor of 3.5 reported in 2004.

- Each of the 10 reserves is estimated to support an average of 107 full-time employees per reserve (median of 78), as well as an additional 375 people per reserve who are family members or other dependents of the full-time employees (median of 353). Thus, the 1,060 full-time employees across all ten PGRs support an estimated 3,745 dependents.
- Conversion from agriculture to ecotourism resulted in the average wage bill per PGR spiking from R121,145 to R3.87 million – a 32-fold increase. This number is based on a larger sample size than the 2004 study, which documented a 20-fold increase post- conversion (R160,367 to R3.2 million per annum).
- Average annual salary per full-time employee increased 4.8 fold, from R6,157 to R29,930. This post-conversion salary increase generally corroborates annual salary figures from the 2004 report (5.7 fold increase, from R 5,498 p.a. to 31,263).
- Private game reserves are moving upscale. Accommodations are increasingly luxurious and the average price charged per person has risen 37% compared to the 2004 study.
- The total cost of establishing a PGR has risen R10 million compared to 2004, to a new median of R42 million.
- Gross revenues, and revenues per hectare, have shown steady increases over the past four years and are projected to continue rising. A lack of data on operating costs, however, precludes any analysis of reserves' profitability.
- The ten PGRs in the study were protecting a total of 116,608 hectares (average of 11,661; median 6,993), representing six of South Africa's eight biomes and an immense diversity of plants and animals.
- Respondents are engaged in a wide variety of social development projects in and around their reserves.

This survey has shown that PGRs provide a highly desirable land-use option in relation to traditional land uses in this area. A number of recommendations are presented, including the need to assess the full economic impacts of the industry, regularly updating these socio-economic surveys, auditing the contribution of the PGRs to biodiversity conservation, assessing the costs of extra-limital wildlife species and making these findings available to stakeholders and policymakers.

Lamers, M., Nthiga, R., van der Duim, R., and J. van Wijk (2014). Tourism-conservation enterprises as a land-use strategy in Kenya. *Tourism Geographies*. 16:3, 474-489

Since the early 1990s, nature conservation organizations in Eastern and Southern Africa have increasingly attempted to integrate their objectives with those of international development organizations, the land-use objectives of local communities and the commercial objectives of tourism businesses, in order to find new solutions for the protection of nature and wildlife outside state-protected areas. The increased inclusion of the market in conservation initiatives has led to diverse institutional arrangements involving various societal actors, such as private game reserves, conservancies and conservation enterprises. The Koija Starbeds ecolodge in Kenya - a partnership

between communities, private investors and a non-governmental organization - serves as a case study for emerging institutional arrangements aimed at enabling value creation for communities from nature conservation. Based on a content analysis of data from individual semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews, as well as a document and literature review, this article reveals a range of benefits for community livelihood and conservation. It also identifies a range of longer term governance challenges, such as the need to address local political struggles, the relations between partners and transparency and accountability in the arrangement.

Lindsey, P.A., Romañach, S.S. & Davies-Mostert, H.T. (2009) The importance of conservancies for enhancing the value of game ranch land for large mammal conservation in southern Africa. *Journal of Zoology* 277, 99–105.

Legislative changes during recent decades resulted in a massive shift away from livestock towards game ranching in southern Africa, resulting in significant increases in the abundance and distribution of many wildlife species. However, there are problems associated with game ranching from a conservation perspective, including persecution of predators, overstocking, introductions of exotic species and genetic manipulation of 'huntable' species. We suggest here that most of these problems could be overcome through promoting the formation of conservancies, where adjacent ranches remove internal fencing to form larger collaborative wildlife areas. Larger areas permit the reintroduction of the full range of indigenous mammals, tending to result in a land-use shift from high offtake, low-value consumptive utilization towards higher value forms of hunting and ecotourism. Under these land-use conditions, ranchers tend to be more tolerant of predators and often actively reintroduce them. Freedom of movement for wildlife populations increases resilience to environmental shocks. The collaborative management agreements typical of conservancies tend to align more closely with conservation objectives than on single ranches. Fortuitously, there are financial advantages associated with conservancies: land-use options in conservancies are more profitable and there are economies of scale associated with cooperative management. Land within conservancies is likely to appreciate in value and attract external investment. In addition, conservancies are more conducive to developing partnerships with indigenous communities and investors and may thus increase the political and social sustainability of game ranching. However, ranchers are fiercely independent and may be resistant to removing fences due to the perception that they may relinquish control over their land and wildlife. Strategies are required to overcome such reluctance and promote the formation of conservancies to enhance the conservation value of game ranch land.

Lindsey, P.A., C.P. Havemann, R.M. Lines, A.E. Price, T.A. Retief, T. Rhebergen, C. Van der Waal and S.S. Romanach. 2013. Benefits of wildlife-based land uses on private lands in Namibia and limitations affecting their development. *Oryx* 47: 41-53.

Legislative changes during the 1960 s–1970 s granted user rights over wildlife to landowners in southern Africa, resulting in a shift from livestock farming to wildlife based land uses. Few comprehensive assessments of such land uses on private land in southern Africa have been conducted and the associated benefits are not always acknowledged by politicians. Nonetheless, wildlife-based land uses are growing in prevalence on private land. In Namibia wildlife-based land use occurs over c. 287,000 km^2. Employment is positively related to income from ecotourism and negatively related to income from livestock. While 87 % of meat from livestock is exported 95% of venison from wildlife-based land uses remains within the country, contributing to food security.

Wildlife populations are increasing with expansion of wildlife-based land uses, and private farms contain 21–33 times more wildlife than in protected areas. Because of the popularity of wildlife-based land uses among younger farmers, increasing tourist arrivals and projected impacts of climate change on livestock production, the economic output of wildlife-based landuses will probably soon exceed that of livestock. However, existing policies favour livestock production and are prejudiced against wildlife-based land uses by prohibiting reintroductions of buffalo *Syncerus caffer*, a key species for tourism and safari hunting, and through subsidies that artificially inflate the profitability of livestock production. Returns from wildlife-based land uses are also limited by the failure to reintroduce other charismatic species, failure to develop fully-integrated conservancies and to integrate black farmers sufficiently.

Lindsey, P.A., Nyirenda, V.R., Barnes, J.I., Becker, M.S., McRobb, R., Tambling, C.J., Taylor, W.A., Watson, F.G. and M. t'Sas-Rolfes (2014). Underperformance of African Protected Area Networks and the Case for New Conservation Models: Insights from Zambia. *PLOS ONE*. MAY 21 2014. DOI: 10.1371/journal.pone.0094109

Many African protected areas (PAs) are not functioning effectively. We reviewed the performance of Zambia's PA network and provide insights into how their effectiveness might be improved. Zambia's PAs are under-performing in ecological, economic and social terms. Reasons include: a) rapidly expanding human populations, poverty and open-access systems in Game Management Areas (GMAs) resulting in widespread bushmeat poaching and habitat encroachment; b) underfunding of the Zambia Wildlife Authority (ZAWA) resulting in inadequate law enforcement; c) reliance of ZAWA on extracting revenues from GMAs to cover operational costs which has prevented proper devolution of user-rights over wildlife to communities; d) on-going marginalization of communities from legal benefits from wildlife; e) under-development of the photo-tourism industry with the effect that earnings are limited to a fraction of the PA network; f) unfavourable terms and corruption which discourage good practice and adequate investment by hunting operators in GMAs; g) blurred responsibilities regarding anti-poaching in GMAs resulting in under-investment by all stakeholders. The combined effect of these challenges has been a major reduction in wildlife densities in most PAs and the loss of habitat in GMAs. Wildlife fares better in areas with investment from the private and/or NGO sector and where human settlement is absent. There is a need for: elevated government funding for ZAWA; greater international donor investment in protected area management; a shift in the role of ZAWA such that they focus primarily on national parks while facilitating the development of wildlife-based land uses by other stakeholders elsewhere; and new models for the functioning of GMAs based on joint-ventures between communities and the private and/or NGO sector. Such joint-ventures should provide defined communities with ownership of land, user-rights over wildlife and aim to attract long-term private/donor investment. These recommendations are relevant for many of the under-funded PAs occurring in other African countries.

Maciejewski, K. and G.I.H. Kerley (2014). Elevated elephant density does not improve ecotourism opportunities: convergence in social and ecological objectives. *Ecological Applications*. 24:5, 920-926

In order to sustainably conserve biodiversity, many protected areas, particularly private protected areas, must find means of self-financing. Ecotourism is increasingly seen as a mechanism to achieve such financial sustainability. However, there is concern that ecotourism operations are driven to

achieve successful game-viewing, influencing the management of charismatic species. An abundance of such species, including the African elephant (*Loxodonta africana*), has been stocked in protected areas under the assumption that they will increase ecotourism value. At moderate to high densities, the impact of elephants is costly; numerous studies have documented severe changes in biodiversity through the impacts of elephants. Protected areas that focus on maintaining high numbers of elephants may therefore face a conflict between socioeconomic demands and the capacity of ecological systems. We address this conflict by analyzing tourist elephant-sighting records from six private and one statutory protected area, the Addo Elephant National Park (AENP), in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa, in relation to elephant numbers. We found no relationship between elephant density and elephant-viewing success. Even though elephant density in the AENP increased over time, a hierarchical partitioning analysis indicated that elephant density was not a driver of tourist numbers. In contrast, annual tourist numbers for the AENP were positively correlated with general tourist numbers recorded for South Africa. Our results indicate that the socioeconomic and ecological requirements of protected areas in terms of tourism and elephants, respectively, converge. Thus, high elephant densities and their associated ecological costs are not required to support ecotourism operations for financial sustainability. Understanding the social and ecological feedbacks that dominate the dynamics of protected areas, particularly within private protected areas, can help to elucidate the management challenges of minimizing ecological trade-offs while meeting ecotourist demands and achieving sustainability.

Nishizaki, N. (2014). "Neoliberal conservation" in Ethiopia: an analysis of current conflicts in and around protected areas and their resolution. *African Study Monographs*. Supplementary Issue: 50, 191-205

Neoliberal conservation approaches have led to a rapid increase in African environmental protection practices since the 1990s. This paper aims to investigate the current management of protected areas (PAs), which is based on the neoliberal conservation approach adopted in Ethiopia in the 2000s, and to examine the cause and resolution of conflicts within the PA system. The results indicate that the state-private partnership established in the case of Nechisar National Park echoed the fortress conservation approach taken by the previous government and made conflicts with local communities more complicated and possibly unresolvable. Conversely, another case suggests that increased security with respect to the land and property rights of local communities reduces the incidence of land-use conflicts with park authorities. The new wildlife policy issued in 2007 may improve the overall community-based conservation dynamic and has great potential for providing improved solutions for conflicts due to increased understanding, appreciation, and valuing of local livelihoods by the government.

Nyahunzvi, D. K. (2014). Save Valley Conservancy's indigenisation. *Journal for Nature Conservation.* 22:1, 42-49

It has been observed that the resurgence in resource nationalism in the past decade worldwide has profound implications for all economic sectors including protected areas. However, a review of the international protected area literature reveals a paucity of studies that make use of the construct of resource nationalism as an analytical framework. This paper addresses this gap by bringing to the fore how Zimbabwe's ZANU PF (the political party that brought the country's independence in 1980) has deployed and extended this construct from the 2000 land reform programme to one of the world's largest private wildlife sanctuaries, namely the Save Valley Conservancy (SVC). In doing so,

the paper relies extensively on the narratives, debates and legitimations of the ruling elite and other stakeholders around the recent 'indigenisation' of the SVC. It was found that a range of actors attempted to use resource nationalism as a 'resource' to further their own private economic and political interests whilst others resorted to the conservation discourse. One of the main conclusions of this paper is that managers of protected areas need to be sensitive to the resurgence in resource nationalism. In this connection, it is argued that the ability to negotiate the resurgence in resource nationalism will determine the fate of some private protected areas. The study suggests possible solutions around the indigenisation of SVC and points to future research priorities.

Nyaligu, M.O. and S. Weeks. 2013. An elephant corridor in a fragmented conservation landscape: Preventing the isolation of Mount Kenya National Park and National Reserve. *PARKS* 19: 91-102.
Increasing human population, land fragmentation, fencing and the spread of agricultural development around the lower slopes of Mount Kenya are progressively isolating the fauna and flora of Mount Kenya National Park and National Reserve. The consequence of this fragmentation around the mountain is a reduction in the total area available for wildlife and disruption to movements of large mammals between the mountain and the grassland/savannah habitats of the surrounding plains. The disappearance of two large mammals from the forest ecosystem over the past three decades, the Black Rhino (*Diceros bicornis*) and the African Wild Dog (*Lycaon pictus*), can in part be attributed to the isolation of upland forest habitats preventing occasional movements of wildlife from lowlands where they are more common. A 14 km strip of land on the north-western section of the Mountain has been developed to help mitigate this isolation. The strip has recently been secured as a habitat and migratory pathway to the north for wildlife within the 2,000 km^2 ecosystem. Using the Elephant Corridor on Mount Kenya as a case example, the authors highlight issues and theoretical considerations that have led many scientists, planners and conservation managers to recognize the importance of maintaining connectivity for species, communities and ecological processes within rapidly fragmenting conservation landscapes. The principle argument is that connectivity can be achieved for wildlife species and communities by managing the entire landscape mosaic through appropriate habitats such as corridors.

Odendaal, N. and D. Shaw (2010). Conservation and economic lessons learned from managing the Namibrand Nature Reserve. *Great Plains Research*. 20:1,29-36
The NamibRand Nature Reserve, located in southern Namibia, is a private nature reserve established to protect and conserve the unique ecology and wildlife of the southwest Namib Desert. At 172,200 ha, NamibRand is one of the largest private conservation areas in southern Africa. The reserve consists of 13 former livestock farms rehabilitated into a continuous natural conservation area and shares a 100 km border with the Namib-Naukluft National Park. The reserve is a model for private conservation in southern Africa, as it demonstrates holistic biodiversity conservation balanced with financial sustainability. Innovative approaches to resource management ensure that this critical area bordering on the national park is effectively conserved. Research conducted on the reserve aims to directly benefit management of the reserve and to contribute to the national scientific knowledge base. The project is financially self-sustaining mainly through high-quality, low-impact tourism. Partnerships with local and regional neighbors, and government and other organizations, connect the reserve to a larger conservation landscape throughout Namibia, forming the foundation of the national tourism economy.

Pasquini, L., R.M. Cowling, C. Twyman and J. Wainwright. 2010. Devising appropriate policies and instruments in support of private conservation areas: Lessons learned from the Klein Karoo, South Africa. *Conservation Biology* 24: 470-478.

The amount of privately conserved land is increasing worldwide. The potential of these areas to contribute to the global conservation of biodiversity is significant, given that statutory protected areas alone will not suffice. Nevertheless, there is still inadequate support for private conservation areas, and further research on appropriate, flexible, and generally applicable incentive measures is necessary. We conducted 25 semi-structured interviews with the owners of private conservation areas in the Little Karoo, South Africa, to examine landowner opinions of existing conservation policies and their relationships with the local conservation authority. We also assessed landowner preferences regarding conservation incentive measures. Landowners doubted the conservation authority's capacity to implement its stewardship program and were also discouraged by the bureaucracy of the program. The conservation authority was often viewed negatively, except where landowners had experienced personal contact from conservation staff or where strong social capital had formed among landowners. Landowners did not desire financial rewards for their conservation efforts, but sought recognition of their stewardship role and greater involvement from the conservation authority through personal contact. We conclude that conservation policies for private lands could benefit from the provision of extension services to landowners, promotion of formation of groups of landowners and other stakeholders, and public acknowledgment of the contributions private conservation areas make.

Paterson, A.R. 2009. *Legal framework for protected areas: South Africa*. Case study prepared for IUCN in South Africa.

Paper looking at all aspects of protected areas, including privately protected areas.

Riedmiller, S. 1999. Private sector management of marine protected areas: The Chumbe Island case. *InterCoast Newsletter* 34.

The number of privately managed Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) is small but increasing. Chumbe Island Coral Park (CHICOP), established in 1991 and possibly the first fully functioning MPA in Tanzania, provides an interesting illustration of issues that arise with the instalment of a privately created and managed protected area. Challenges caused by the legal and institutional environment for private investment in conservation resulted in much higher costs than originally anticipated. The history of CHICOP, management experiences, problems and achievements in the legal and institutional environment of Zanzibar, Tanzania are described and lessons learned are summarised. Management costs of the privately established and managed park are only a fraction of what is normally needed for donor-funded projects through government agencies. Out of necessity, income-generating activities are more developed and successful, thus creating much better prospects of sustain- ability. Risks for private investors remain high though due to the generally unfavourable investment climate, the volatile tourism market and the lack of long-term security of tenure. Because of these risks, and the more noticeable conservation impact on the ground, a case is made for more donor support to direct resource users from both the informal and formal private sectors, including to privately managed marine protected areas.

*** Rosa, P. and P. Joubert. 2009. Entrepreneurial Wildlife Exploitation in Sub-Saharan Africa: An Overview, in Page, S and J. Ateljevic, *Tourism and Entrepreneurship: International Perspectives*,**

Advances in Tourism Research Series, Routledge. Available to view at: http://books.google.co.uk/books?hl=en&lr=&id=2nbaqvfq3zYC&oi=fnd&pg=PA173&dq=Bandia+Reserve+Company+&ots=Hmzuv_XKof&sig=Bv8i__0Q4AUOmAsQz4hxOyKQhOU#v=onepage&q&f=false

Rouget, M., D.M.Richardson and R.M.Cowling. 2003. The current configuration of protected areas in the Cape Floristic Region, South Africa—reservation bias and representation of biodiversity patterns and processes. *Biological Conservation* 112: 129-145

The formulation of a strategic plan for the conservation of terrestrial biodiversity in the Cape Floristic Region (CFR; 87,892 km2) requires an objective and spatially explicit assessment of the representativeness of major habitat categories (surrogates for biodiversity) currently under protection. A GIS layer of statutory and non-statutory conservation areas was used, along with layers of many biological and physical features, to explore the configuration of conserved areas relative to key biological and physical indicators. Three analyses were performed.(1) Recursive partitioning, a classification-tree analysis technique, was used to contrast features of protected areas with non-protected areas.(2) The conservation status of 16 primary and 88 secondary Broad Habitat Units (BHUs; derived on the basis of topography, geology, homogeneous climatic zones, and floristic composition) was assessed in terms of prescribed conservation targets.(3) The extent to which protected areas are able to sustain ecological and evolutionary processes was explored by assessing the extent of spatial components of these processes for all conservation areas. The reservation bias towards upland areas has seriously constrained representation of biodiversity pattern and processes. Most of the habitat diversity is poorly represented in the current conservation area system with only 9% of the remaining primary BHUs in the lowlands conserved. However, almost 50% of the Mountain Fynbos Complex is conserved (largely exceeding its conservation target).

Sims-Castley, R., G. Kerley, B. Geach and J. Langholz. 2005. Socio-economic significance of ecotourism-based private game reserves in South Africa's Eastern Cape Province. *PARKS* 15:2

Ecotourism serves as the principal revenue source for many private protected areas worldwide. We surveyed seven ecotourism-based private protected areas in South Africa to identify key attributes and challenges. The findings include: 1) the top three attractions to private reserves were the wildlife, the scenery, and the high quality accommodation / service; 2) establishing a reserve was a costly undertaking, requiring an average initial outlay of USD $4.6 million; 3) in changing from farming to wildlife-based ecotourism, employment numbers increased by a factor of 3.5, the average value of wages paid per reserve increased by a factor of 20, and the average annual salary more than quintupled from $715 to $4,064 per employee; 4) the reserves were contributing in excess of $11.3 million to the regional economy per year; 5) reserves were making a substantial contribution to biodiversity conservation; and 6) lack of support by government entities was the most pressing challenge facing reserve owners. The analysis points to ecotourism as an economically and ecologically desirable alternative to other land uses, while also highlighting the need for governments to provide assistance and support for both the establishment and management of private reserves.

***Snijders, D. 2012. Wild property and its boundaries – on wildlife policy and rural consequences in South Africa. *The Journal of Peasant Studies* 39: 503-520.**

Against the backdrop of post-Apartheid neoliberal reform, South African landowners have gained the option to acquire full ownership over wild animals on their land. Corresponding with this,

approximately one sixth of South Africa's total land has been 'game-fenced' and converted for wildlife-based production (i.e. hunting ecotourism, live trade and venison production). This article anlayzes the institutional process in which authority concerning access to wildlife is being restructured, and argues that the unfolding property regime leads to an intensified form of green grabbing. To demonstrate this, the article singles out three particular wildlife policy institutions which make clear (a) how private property rights to wildlife are negotiated and implemented, (b) how wildlife ownership of firmly interlocked with land ownership, (c) how natural entities are being converted to robust political and economical assets, and (d) what social consequences this has for rural South Africa.

Spierenburg, M. and S. Brooks (2014). Private game farming and its social consequences in post-apartheid South Africa: contestations over wildlife, property and agrarian futures. *Journal of Contemporary African Studies*. 32:2, 151-172

Spaces of privatised wildlife production, in the form of game farms, private nature reserves and other forms of wildlife-oriented land use, are an increasingly prominent feature of the South African countryside. Whilst there is a well-developed literature on the social impacts of state-run protected areas, the outcomes of privatised wildlife production have thus far received little attention. It is argued here that the socio-spatial dynamics of the wildlife industry, driven by capitalist imperatives related to the commodified production of nature and 'wilderness', warrant both in-depth investigation in their own right, and contextualisation in terms of broader processes of agrarian change locally as well as globally. The growing influence of trophy hunting and the wildlife industry on private land can be seen as a significant contributing factor to processes of deagrarianisation that are mirrored in other parts of the African continent and elsewhere. In South Africa, these developments and their impacts on the livelihoods of farm dwellers take on an added dimension in the context of the country's efforts to implement a programme of post-apartheid land reform. Two decades after the formal end of apartheid, contestations over land rights and property ownership remain live and often unresolved. This theme issue explores these dynamics on private land partly or wholly dedicated to wildlife production, with special emphasis on two South African provinces: KwaZulu-Natal and the Eastern Cape.

Sterner, T. and J. Andersson. 1998. Private protection of the marine environment, Tanzania: A case study. Ambio 27: 768-771.

Another study of the Chumbe Island private nature reserve.

Sundaresan, S.R. and C. Riginos. 2010. Lessons learned from biodiversity conservation in the private lands of Laikipia, Kenya. *Great Plains Research* 20: 17-27.

Increasingly, private land around the world is being set aside for conservation. The Laikipia District in Kenya is one area where wildlife conservation has been relatively successful on privately owned lands. This region supports a higher diversity of large mammals than any other region in East Africa, yet only 2% of the district is formally protected. Land is mostly owned and managed by private ranchers or groups of Maasai families on "group ranches." In most private ranches, wildlife conservation and tourism have become important sources of revenue over the last two decades. Wildlife, once merely tolerated, are now considered desirable by most people. On group ranches, wildlife conservation is also gaining ground, albeit more slowly. Land on group ranches is being set aside specifically for wildlife, and income from wildlife--based tourism now supplements livestock

ranching. In both types of ranches, however, land management practices may need to be refined to conserve a broader assemblage of fauna and flora. Populations of some threatened herbivores have fallen, and many ranches are experiencing woody encroachment, decreases in grass cover, and increases in bare ground and erosion. Conservation enterprises also face the challenge of achieving independence from foreign capital. They will need to diversify their income-generating activities and build local capacity. Regional coordination, though relatively strong, could be improved to provide greater scope to promote conservation. These challenges and successes illustrate the potential for private-land conservation in a region of high biodiversity.

Von Hase, A., M. Rouget and R.M. Cowling. 2010. Evaluating private land conservation in the Cape Lowlands, South Africa. *Conservation Biology* 24: 1182-1189.

Evaluation is important for judiciously allocating limited conservation resources and for improving conservation success through learning and strategy adjustment. We evaluated the application of systematic conservation planning goals and conservation gains from incentive-based stewardship interventions on private land in the Cape Lowlands and Cape Floristic Region, South Africa. We collected spatial and nonspatial data (2003–2007) to determine the number of hectares of vegetation protected through voluntary contractual and legally nonbinding (informal) agreements with landowners; resources spent on these interventions; contribution of the agreements to 5- and 20-year conservation goals for representation and persistence in the Cape Lowlands of species and ecosystems; and time and staff required to meet these goals. Conservation gains on private lands across the Cape Floristic Region were relatively high. In 5 years, 22,078 ha (27,800 ha of land) and 46,526 ha (90,000 ha of land) of native vegetation were protected through contracts and informal agreements, respectively. Informal agreements often were opportunity driven and cheaper and faster to execute than contracts. All contractual agreements in the Cape Lowlands were within areas of high conservation priority (identified through systematic conservation planning), which demonstrated the conservation plan's practical application and a high level of overlap between resource investment (approximately R1.14 million/year in the lowlands) and priority conservation areas. Nevertheless, conservation agreements met only 11% of 5-year and 9% of 20-year conservation goals for Cape Lowlands and have made only a moderate contribution to regional persistence of flora to date. Meeting the plan's conservation goals will take three to five times longer and many more staff members to maintain agreements than initially envisaged.

* **Watkins, C. W., A. M. Barrett, R. Smith, J. R. Paine. 1996. Private Protected Areas: A Preliminary Study of Private Initiatives to Conserve Biodiversity in Selected African Countries**

WCMC report detailing private protected area numbers and coverage in Kenya, Namibia, Zambia and Tanzania