TOURISM, CONSERVATION & SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

VOLUME IV

THE SOUTH-EAST LOWVELD, ZIMBABWE

Final Report to the Department for International Development

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This is one of four final reports produced at the end of a three year, Department for International Development funded project. Three case study reports (Vols. II-IV) present the research findings from the individual research sites (Keoladeo NP, India, Komodo NP, Indonesia, and the south-east Lowveld, Zimbabwe). The fourth report (Vol. I) contains a comparison of the findings from each site. Contextual data reports for each site, and methodological reports, were compiled at the end of the first and second years of the project respectively.

The funding for this research was announced to the University of Kent by the ODA in December 1993. The original management team for the project consisted of, Goodwin, H.J., (Project Director), Swingland, I.R. and Sinclair, M.T. In August 1995, Sinclair was replaced by Parker, K.T.

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The collaborating institution in Zimbabwe was the Department of Geography, University of Zimbabwe (UZ). The research co-ordinator in Zimbabwe was Mrs Robin Heath. Research in the south-east lowveld was conducted by Dr Harold Goodwin (DICE), with the assistance of
Mr T. Kemusi.

Additional research, data analysis and writing was carried out in the UK by Dr Cheryl Butler (DICE).

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South-east lowveld

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 TOURISM, CONSERVATION AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT.

This report is one of four final reports produced at the end of a three year, ODA funded project. Three comparative studies of the relationships between tourism, conservation and local people have been completed on Keoladeo National Park in India, Komodo National Park in Indonesia and the south-east lowveld in Zimbabwe. The comparative report contains a comparison of the findings from each of the site reports.

Contextual baseline data reports were produced on each country in March, 1995. Methodological reports were compiled in March, 1996. The reports address the research objectives, as stated in the research proposal, which were to:

a) identify methods of providing sustainable revenues from tourism for conservation and development.

b) examine means of improved site management providing increased revenues whilst conserving the local ecology.

c) identify means of improved visitor management in order to decrease the adverse ecological effects of tourism.

d) raise the income and related benefits which local people gain from tourism based on biodiversity.

e) to provide a methodology which will enable local researchers to continue to monitor the survey sites, and to provide research reports, which will enable similar and comparable work on the compatibility of tourism development and conservation to be undertaken in other developing countries.

1.1.1 Collaborative Research.

This research project was based on the principle of collaborative research involving researchers from tourist originating and destination countries. Within the parameters of a comparative study, local research design has reflected the concerns of local people, of conservationists and people from the travel industry in the host countries. The research was designed to maximise the benefits to the host countries of comparable reports about nature tourism in their own country and to others.

In Zimbabwe, on the advice of Mrs Rushesha, Deputy Minister of Environment and Tourism, we worked with the University of Zimbabwe through the Institute of Environmental Studies. Dr D.S. Tevera, Head of the Department of Geography, supported the project and agreed that Mrs Robin Heath should collaborate with us. Robin Heath is a Senior Lecturer in the Department of Geography at the University of Zimbabwe and she has been our principal Zimbabwean partner in the research project.

Mr Kemusi, a recent UZ graduate was employed to undertake the surveys in the south-east lowveld during 1996.

1.1.2 The Site.

We had originally intended to undertake our research in Zimbabwe at Hwange, an established mature destination. Our research partner, the Department of National Parks and Wild Life Management and the Ministry of Environment and Tourism all argued that we should research tourism in the south-east lowveld in and around Gonarezhou National Park.
The lowveld is now opening to international tourism and the area provides an excellent opportunity to compare a number of institutional models of wildlife tourism. These include a National Park (Gonarezhou National Park reopened to foreign tourists in 1994); a joint venture between a Rural District Council and Zimbabwe's leading hotel company, based on CAMPFIRE principles; a small scale commercial lease farmer; a charitable trust; three conservancies[1]; and a number of roadside stalls in the informal sector.

This report contains a series of chapters which directly address the research objectives; and a series of individual case studies which reflect the diversity of institutional forms of nature tourism which are developing in the lowveld. Gonarezhou is the first case study, with the primary focus on the Chipinda Pools section of the park which is the entry point for 80% of the visitors.

Mahenye is a relatively isolated community on the border with Moçambique and with a history of conflict over access to Gonarezhou. This case study focuses on the development of a CAMPFIRE consumptive tourism project and the subsequent addition of a non-consumptive initiative between Zimbabwe Sun Ltd and Chipinge Rural District Council. Two lodges have been built in Mahenye Ward and the local community benefits from employment and lease fees. On the other side of Gonarezhou, at Gonakudzingwa, Mr Rukuni is the commercial lease farmer of Farm 42, where he is planning to develop a nature tourism business. Both Farm 42 and the lodges at Mahenye provide their clients with game viewing in Gonarezhou.

Malilangwe Conservation Trust purchased the old Lone Star Ranch and invested very significant capital in redeveloping it as a conservation area. The Malilangwe Conservation Trust is a non-profit making organisation committed to developing the reserve for scientific, education and charitable purposes.

There are separate case studies of each of the lowveld 'rhino' conservancies; Bubiana, Chiredzi and Save Valley. These three conservancies in part developed out of the necessity for the ranchers involved to work together and with DNPWLM to protect and conserve translocated rhino. The case studies chronicle their varied development to date and include detailed studies of two lodge developments; Barberton on Bubiana Conservancy and Senuko on Save Valley Conservancy.

1 Readers unfamiliar with the concept of a conservancy may wish to read section 7.3.

The final case study reports on work undertaken by M. Chitakira under the supervision of Dr L Zanamwe in the Department of Geography, at the University of Zimbabwe. This case study considers both the socio-economic and environmental impacts of the roadside craft stalls which are the major way in which local people are currently able to enter the tourism sector in the lowveld.

The lowveld is a developing destination with significant numbers of tourists available to be surveyed only in Gonarezhou National Park and at the Mahenye lodges. Whilst the decision to undertake the research in the lowveld constrained the numbers of completed tourist questionnaires available, it provided an excellent opportunity to study a range of institutional forms in an area on the threshold of the international tourism market.

1.1.3 This Report.

There are five chapters which address the research objectives. The first three of these consider visitor patterns, visitor impacts and management, and park finances. These three chapters deal almost exclusively with Gonarezhou, the major tourism destination in the south-east lowveld. The chapter on local people and the local economy draws its material from all the relevant case studies. Given the relatively small numbers of visitors in the lowveld much of this chapter is concerned with local people's views about tourism and their potential involvement with it. The chapter on integration into the international market deals with the consequences of integration and the perceptions of tourists and tour operators (from Germany and the UK), of Zimbabwe, Gonarezhou and the south-east lowveld.

The chapter on the conservancies has been included in this report to provide an account of the origins of the conservancies and of their aspirations, with the 1994 Price Waterhouse report providing a useful baseline for this. The second part of the chapter reviews some of the policy issues which have arisen - many of which remain unresolved as this report is concluded. The conservancies chapter does not attempt to summarise the diverse experience of the three conservancies, which is summarised in the case studies. The material on employment in the conservancies is considered in Chapter 5, as is their perception of their potential to contribute to local economic development. The conservancies have not reached a stage in their development when their local economic impact can be assessed nor the nature tourism model they offer evaluated.

It was not practicable to include all the material presented in the case studies in the analytical chapters. Readers are encouraged to turn to the case studies for detailed treatment of many of the issues in the specific institutional contexts.

1.2 NATIONAL CONTEXT.

1.2.1 Biodiversity Significance.

Zimbabwe is home to c.4,500 species of higher plants (2.1% endemic), 196 mammals, 635 birds and 173 reptiles and amphibians. In terms of species richness and endemism on a global scale, however, Zimbabwe is not particularly wealthy. It ranks 14th in Africa for flowering plant richness and 24th in Africa for higher vertebrate endemism.

Compare this with our other study countries, Indonesia and India (Tables 1.1 and 1.2). These two very diverse countries rank 6th and 10th in the world respectively for flowering plant richness, 3rd and 11th globally for higher vertebrate endemism, and 1st and 10th globally for mammal species richness. Indonesia is ranked 2nd in the world for mammal endemism.[2]

Country	Flowering Plants	Gymno-Sperms	Ferns	No. of Endemics	% Endemics
Indonesia	20,000	-	2,500	15,000	66.7
India	15,000	-	1,000	5,000	31.3
Zimbabwe	4,200	6	234	95	2.1

Table 1.1. Higher Plant Species Richness and Endemism.

Country	Mammals		Birds		Reptiles		Amphibians	
	Spp	Endemic	Spp.	Endemic	Spp.	Endemic	Spp.	Endemic
Indonesia	515	165	1519	258	511	150	270	100
India	317	38	969	69	389	156	206	110
Zimbabwe	196	2	635	0	153	2	120	3

Table 1.2. Higher Vertebrate Species Richness and Number of Endemics.

However, Zimbabwe is very important in terms of its endangered mammal species. The country contains the largest number of black rhino of any African nation (c.350-400). It also has stable populations of wild dog in the larger national parks although this species is continually threatened because of its need for large areas of land and its persecution by humans. Cheetah appear to be thriving, as illustrated by increasing stock theft reports and a distribution that suggests it is more abundant outside national parks than within them.[3]

Zimbabwe is also important in terms of mammal population sizes, with some of the largest remaining populations of African wildlife. Elephant have reached virtual epidemic proportions as Zimbabwe's progressive management and protection programmes have given it possibly the largest elephant population in Africa (60-80,000). This success, however, has led to increased human/elephant conflict and a need within Zimbabwe to reduce significantly the size of the elephant population. Whilst the culling of elephants and the call for the resumption of a controlled trade in ivory is in accordance with Zimbabwe's philosophy of sustainable consumptive utilisation, it has brought the country into conflict with much of the international conservation community, particularly the pressure groups which promote the protectionist philosophy of conservation.

1.2.2 Conservation.

The Parks and Wild Life Act, 1975, was last amended in 1990. In essence, this Act sets out the purposes, regulations and ministerial powers associated with each

2 Data from WCMC 1992.
3 DNPWLM 1991(b).

category of protected area, particularly in relation to hunting rights and controls. It also contains lists of Specially Protected Animals and Indigenous Plants, protected for their rarity, threatened conservation status or economic value, and for which special regulations apply. Most important, however, is the fact that the Act grants access to, and utilisation of, wildlife to the land owners themselves. This has resulted in a game ranching industry that has greatly increased the area of wildlife habitat in Zimbabwe, and which has paved the way for initiatives such as CAMPFIRE and the conservancies.

Zimbabwe's wildlife management policies are based on the principle that wildlife is a valuable resource and can be made to pay for itself. Under the CAMPFIRE programme rural communities have been given the legal right to manage wild animals on their land and sell game meat. More recently the development of conservancies, as a refinement to the landholders' rights embodied in the Parks and Wild Life Act, has encouraged private ranchers to manage their land for wildlife production. The success of these ventures has been reflected in an increase in the amount of land given over to wildlife. The policy has led to some criticism, mostly from people outside the country who object to culling. Most of this has focused on the elephant cull and its resultant ivory harvest. Zimbabwe has been strongly in favour of resumption of a controlled ivory trade so that African countries which manage their elephant sustainably, can benefit financially and raise funds for conservation.

There are approximately 40 species of fauna and flora in Zimbabwe that are afforded Special Protection under the Parks and Wild Life Act, 1975. These species are legally protected to the extent that Specially Protected Animals may not be killed without a special permit, even in defence of property.[4] Two main sets of criteria are used in assessing animals and plants for possible inclusion on the list of Protected Species; the status of the species in the wild in Zimbabwe, and its international conservation significance.

1.2.3 Tourism.

The contribution of tourism to Zimbabwe's GDP was estimated at 5% in 1992, with 2.6% being attributed to international tourism receipts, amounting to 7% of exports. International tourism is reckoned to give rise to 50,000 jobs including direct, indirect and induced effects.[5]

The tourism industry in Zimbabwe is largely based on the Parks and Wild Life Estate[6] of 5 million hectares which constitute 13.1% of the country. Victoria Falls, Zimbabwe's major international tourist attraction, is itself a National Park and with the other parks, constitutes Zimbabwe's main tourism asset. The Parks and Wild Life Estate is located mainly in the border areas of the country, and largely in the north and east. The absence of a coastline excludes the 'sun, sea and sand' range of tourism products.

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4 If an animal is killed in defence of life, it is the responsibility of the person involved to prove this

5 EXA International\ CHL(Harare, 1993):4-7

6 It comprises 11 National Parks (6.8% of the country), 16 Safari Areas (recreation and hunting), 6 Sanctuaries (established to preserve particular plant or animal species or biotic communities), 15 Recreational Parks (often located at dams and near urban centres) and 15 Botanical Gardens.

The Ministry of Environment and Tourism has responsibility for both tourism and conservation. The DNPWLM and the new Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA)[7] are both responsible to the Minister of Environment and Tourism. Conservation of the environment and wildlife is seen as essential to the maintenance of the tourism industry. The national tourism strategy is "high value/low volume" and the strategy is dependent upon the maintenance of Zimbabwe's protected areas. The Ministry is working towards a clear national tourism policy statement in preparation for a strategic tourism development plan. This is now the responsibility of the ZTA.

The political settlement in South Africa and the ending of the international boycott has led to the re-emergence of South Africa into the world community. Although the South African tourism industry does not have such a wealth of wildlife to offer, it is better organised, offers a higher quality product and has access to the sea. It also had in 1992 a marketing budget 22 times that of Zimbabwe's. Zimbabwe's share of the African market is between 3%-4%.[8]

The Zimbabwe Council for Tourism[9] (ZCT) argues that there are considerable advantages to be gained from a regional marketing effort involving Zimbabwe, Moçambique, South Africa, Botswana and Namibia.[10] The Commonwealth Secretariat has recently funded the preparation of a draft Tourism Marketing Plan and Strategy for the Regional Tourism Organisation for Southern Africa (RETOSA) which was launched in March 1996.[11] Zimbabwe supports the development of a regional marketing strategy for Southern Africa.

1.2.4 Indigenisation and Community Involvement.

The tourism industry continues to be dominated by the national ethnic minority and there has been increasing concern in national politics to redress this imbalance. There has been pressure from the government and black business groups for the indigenisation of the industry, and in the rural areas for the involvement of the local community in the industry. The nature of the wildlife tourism industry, with tourists largely purchasing fully-inclusive packages, isolates tourists in lodges which have some of the "enclave" characteristics of large scale tourism developments. Such enterprises are very expensive to capitalise and market.

From arrival at the game viewing lodge tourists are provided with all their accommodation, food, curios and activities by one integrated enterprise. It is very difficult for local communities or black entrepreneurs to establish ancillary tourist businesses and access the tourists who constitute their potential market. Zimbabwean tour operators have traditionally organised highly integrated and inclusive packages and it is very difficult for anyone to enter the industry without establishing similar

7 Formally constituted in December 1995, it began to receive its 2% bed levy in January 1997.
8 EXA International & CHL Consulting Group 1992, p.6.
9 Founded in 1988.
10 Zimbabwe Council for Tourism 1994, pp.8&12.
11 RETOSA developed out of the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) Tourism Co-ordinating Unit.

enterprises. The national commitment to 'high value, low volume' tourism reinforces the dominance of this form of tourism enterprise in the Zimbabwean industry.

The CAMPFIRE Association is looking to develop further non-consumptive tourism initiatives. One of the ways in which this may be achieved is through joint ventures between local communities and existing operators. In this report examples include the Zimbabwe Sun Ltd and Chipinge RDC Mahenye lodges development; the Senuko and Gudo traditional village initiative; and plans at Malilangwe to establish a joint venture accommodation unit, operated by the local community on its boundary.

The under-representation of black Zimbabweans in the industry is marked. Geckoconsult undertook some research in 1995 for a DNPWLM workshop held to address the issue.[12] Of the 188 tour operators current in December 1994, 19 (10%) were identified as indigenous. Of the 53 new tour operators listed with the Ministry between 1990 and 1994, 14 (26%) were indigenous, many of them entering the industry with minibuses and offering transfer operations. There are approximately 600 members of the Zimbabwe Professional Hunters and Guides Association. Membership is voluntary and the numbers operating in Zimbabwe are probably higher. Of the membership 15 (2.5%) were identified as indigenous. DNPWLM reported 45 indigenous professional hunters and guides[13]. There were 44 indigenous Learner Professional Hunter/Guides registered. The Geckoconsult Report identified the barriers to entry and suggested ways of increasing involvement, including joint ventures, the proposed 'southern circuit' and eco-tourism developments on the periphery of the parks estate.

Urban black businessmen are pursuing the indigenisation of existing businesses in the tourism sector. These two agendas for change in the industry both promote the involvement of substantially larger numbers of black Zimbabweans. However, their constituencies of support, political allies and objectives are different.

1.2.5 Nature Tourism.

1.2.5.1 The Department of National Parks and Wild Life Management.

The DNPWLM is the custodian and manager of Zimbabwe's greatest tourism asset: its protected areas.[14] The Parks and Wild Life Board, with membership drawn from and representing the public of Zimbabwe, advises the Minister on policy, management and development issues related to wildlife throughout Zimbabwe. The importance of wildlife to tourism is clearly recognised in the national policy for wildlife:

> *'Encourage the conservation of wild animals and their habitats outside the Estate recognising that this is only likely to be successful if wild life can be used profitably and the primary benefits accrue to people with wild life on their land.*

12 Geckoconsult (1995).

13 38 hunters and 7 professional guides.

14 In 1980 there were 5 operators registered as users with DNPWLM, by 1985 it was 11 and in 1990 70+. Price Waterhouse and Environmental Resources Limited (1992) quote a figure of 150 for 1992. The World Bank is currently assisting Zimbabwe in upgrading its National Parks.

Ensure that wild life is not undervalued to the people living with it by permitting them to use it sustainable for their own gain as they are able to do with other natural resources and agricultural products.

The Parks and Wild Life Estate is the cornerstone of the tourist industry in Zimbabwe and should be used for tourism in terms of a national tourism strategy within the scope of this policy. Government places considerable importance on the primary right of Zimbabweans to have access to recreation in the Estate and will seek an equitable balance between domestic and international tourism.'[15]

The DNPWLM is required to:

'Ensure that wild life-based tourism in the Estate is priced so as not to undervalue the resource or to be subsidised, except in the case of facilities used by Zimbabwe residents, especially of low income, or where the tourism opportunities have a strong educational component for local people.'

'Regulate the flow and conduct of visitors to protected areas so as to prevent lasting ecological deterioration and increase the quality of the experience enjoyed by visitors.' [16]

1.2.5.2 Wildlife Tourism And Conservation.

Wildlife can be simultaneously exploited for game viewing, safari hunting, live animal trade, meat and hide/horn production.[17] The non-consumptive game viewing and lightly consumptive safari hunting allow the development of other business opportunities and consequential revenues. The same populations of animals can be used for game viewing, safari hunting and meat/hide/horn production. Increased revenues from tourism do not necessarily depend upon increased populations of animals. With careful management, tourism revenue may be increased without adverse environmental impacts.[18] If local people are enabled to earn part or all of their income from tourists attracted by wildlife, it is hoped that there will be an increased willingness to tolerate the animals and maintain their habitat.

There is a strong link between tourism and conservation in Zimbabwe. Not only is the Parks and Wild Life Estate the mainstay of the tourist industry in the country, but both tourism and protected area management are administered through the same government body, the Ministry for Environment and Tourism.

"There are unique and highly marketable commodities that can and should be used for the benefit of the people ... as this compounds any aesthetic or scientific justification for protecting the resource in the face of competition for land, but this use must be skilful if the

15 DNPWLM 1992(b).
16 ibid.
17 Child 1990a.
18 Child and Heath 1990.

> resources are to retain their full value and their marketability. It must be recognised that they are based on living systems with characteristic biological limitations that cannot be exceeded and that their use is frequently highly charged with emotion so that their exploitation must be carefully controlled and within acceptable aesthetic standards." [19]

All the legal and management documents and policies pertaining to protected areas emphasise the recreational component of these sites, and much of the proposed development of parks such as Gonarezhou focus on visitor services.

In the semi-arid areas of sub-Saharan Africa, wildlife utilisation is increasingly presented as the optimum land use.[20] Population growth has led to agricultural use of marginal lands and consequent degradation of the environment. The land is not sufficiently fertile to support the human populations dependent upon it. Arable cropping is not sustainable on these lands and the alternative is either livestock production or wildlife utilisation. While game ranching is only slightly more productive than traditional cattle ranching, additional wildlife utilisation through tourism can be twice to four times more profitable[21].

In Zimbabwe two major developments in the use of wildlife tourism for local economic development have occurred in the last ten years: CAMPFIRE and the privately-owned wildlife conservancies. In marginal agricultural areas, commercial farmers are turning to wildlife in pursuit of a sustainable income from their land from both consumptive (hunting and meat/hides/horn) and non-consumptive (photo-safaris and associated tourist revenue) tourism.

1.3 THE SOUTH-EAST LOWVELD.

The south-east lowveld's biodiversity and geographic position present significant potential for the development of wildlife tourism and conservation. South African tourists already enter Zimbabwe in significant numbers at Beitbridge (see Figure 1.1) and the region could readily become part of existing international tourist itineraries which include Great Zimbabwe and the Eastern Highlands.

1.3.1 Tourist Access.

From Beitbridge and South Africa

There is a gravel road from Lutumba on the main road from Beitbridge (to Masvingo and Harare) which leads, via Crooks Corner on the Limpopo, to Gonarezhou National Park at the Malapati gate. By encouraging South African visitors along this scenic route through the rural areas on the South African and Moçambique borders, economic benefits and related infrastructural development could be brought to this economically deprived area. Crooks Corner, where Zimbabwe, Moçambique and South Africa meet, has extensive and colourful poaching and smuggling folklore. The Manjinji Ward is quite picturesque and the traditionally built houses are often decorated. There is the added attraction of Manjinji Bird Sanctuary.

19 Child 1986.
20 cf. Kiss 1990; Heath 1992.
21 Child 1988, 1990a, 1990b.

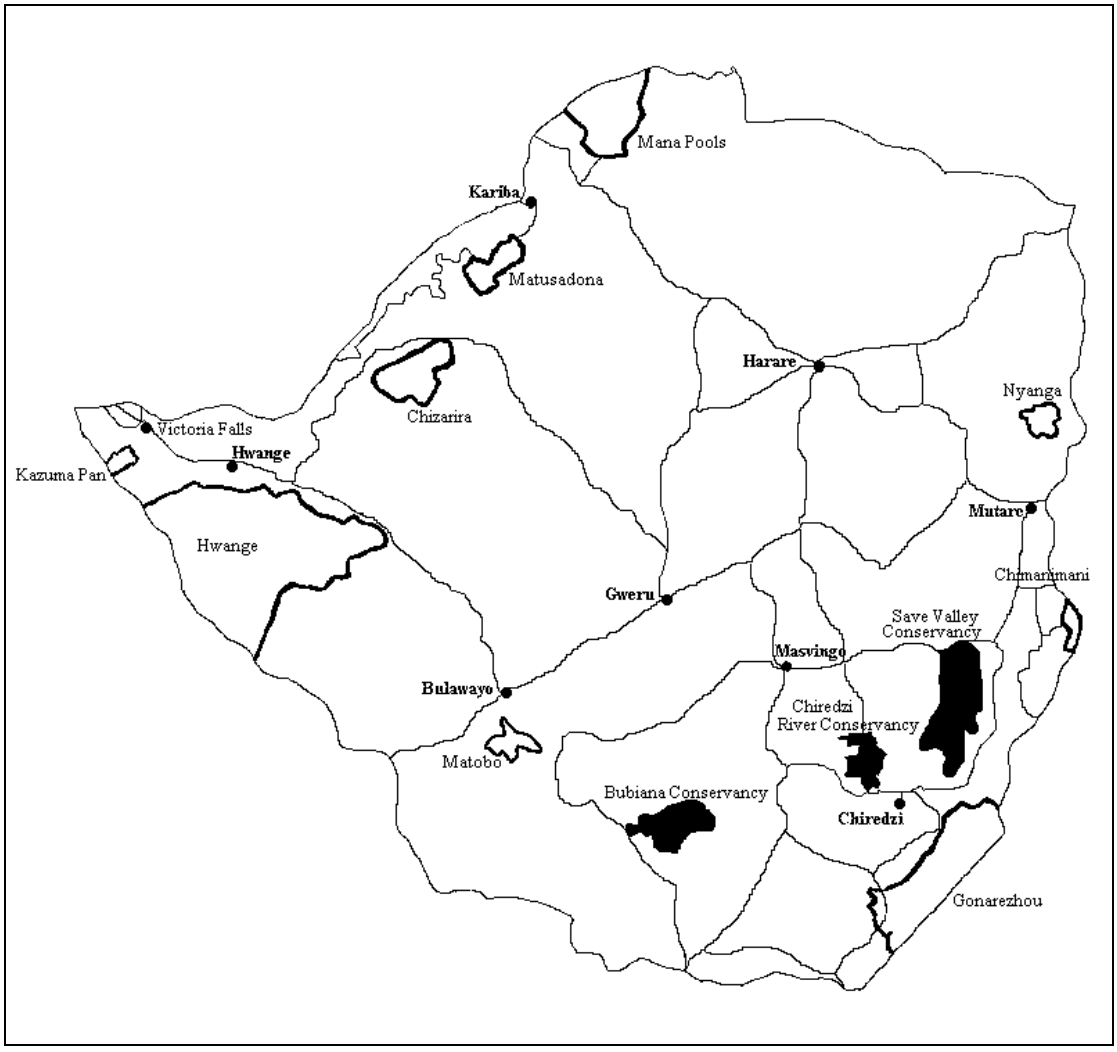

Figure 1.1. A Map of Zimbabwe showing Major Roads and National Parks.

From Harare

Great Zimbabwe is the largest and most significant medieval city in sub-Saharan Africa. A city of perhaps 10,000 people, archaeologists have ascribed more than 150 tributary Zimbabwes to this religious and temporal capital. A World Heritage Site, visitors cannot but be impressed at the remains of this civilisation which dates from AD 1200-1450. It is thought to have been built by the Karanga, a tribe of the Shona people. The soapstone carvings known as 'Zimbabwe birds' that were found at the site have become important national symbols of the modern state.

From the Eastern Highlands

Chimanimani National Park in the Eastern Highlands, on the unfenced border with Moçambique, is a wilderness reserve. It covers 17,110 ha of rugged mountains with deep gorges and high peaks, some to over 2,400m. The vegetation is dry montane forest and grassland with a variety of proteas, ericas and subtropical ferns. Amongst the game are eland, sable, bushbuck, klipspringer and the secretive blue duiker, although none is plentiful. Baboon roam throughout the area and the bird life includes Gurney's sugar bird, malachite sunbird, trumpeter hornbill, secretary bird, Shelley's francolin and the crown eagle. Chirinda Forest Botanical Reserve, 30 km south of Chipinge near the Moçambique border, is 949 ha of magnificent montane evergreen

hardwood forest which supports more than 100 animal species. 'It is almost a fantasy African jungle, with thick, dark undergrowth, lofty trees reaching skywards, science fiction plants with outsized leaves, and loud bird calls'.[22] There are stands of ironwood, red and forest mahogany.

1.3.2 The Natural Heritage of the Lowveld.

The Save-Runde river junction in the extreme south-east lowveld is one of Zimbabwe's most remote areas. There are legends of a lost city of 'Nyamtongwe' and stories of sailing ships having navigated the Save river as far as the Runde junction to trade in gold and ivory.[23] The river is no longer navigable other than by canoe.

Half of Zimbabwe's population lives in the Save-Runde catchment area,[24] exceeding the carrying capacity of the region. Their future is threatened by erosion[25], siltation and desertification.[26] Categorised as Natural Region V, the area suffers from unreliable rainfall and sandy granite-derived soils of poor quality, and is only suitable for extensive cattle and wildlife production.

The south-east lowveld of Zimbabwe has yet to be discovered by tourists (see Figure 1.1).

> 'With the exception of Great Zimbabwe, the Midlands and south-eastern Zimbabwe aren't endowed with any overwhelmingly scenic or interesting sites ... the sort of person who seeks out areas regarded by the tourist industry as dull and uninteresting will have the opportunity to live it up.'[27]

Most of Zimbabwe's international tourists visit a relatively narrow band of sites in the north of the country: Hwange, Victoria Falls, the Zambezi River, Lake Kariba and the middle Zambezi Valley. This concentration of tourism has three implications:

a) 'It is beginning to place strains on the environment through over-use and over-crowding, leading to environmental degradation.

b) The potential for future development and expansion will be constrained by the lack of suitable new development sites.

c) The regional economic benefits associated with the industry are being restricted to a relatively small area.'[28]

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22 McCrea and Pinchuck 1993, p.240.
23 Booth 1991, p.1.
24 Average population density in rural areas of Zimbabwe is 27 persons per sq. km, in Manicaland Province it is 43 persons, 1992 census figs.
25 Minimum soil erosion from gentle slopes in the Save catchment was estimated at 40 tonnes/ha/yr and at 80 tonnes/ha/yr from slopes of 4% or more, and the consequential siltation is a major ecological threat to the Save Valley.
26 Du Toit 1985, cited in Booth 1991, p.3.
27 Shackley, M & Swaney, D (1992).
28 de la Harpe 1994, p.137.

The ZCT, amongst other tourism bodies, has identified the development of the "Southern Circuit" as a priority. The new "Southern Circuit" would be anchored at Matopos in the west and include West Nicholson (Bubiana Conservancy), Beitbridge and Chiredzi town, Gonarezhou National Park, Chiredzi River Conservancy and Save Valley Conservancy. The new circuit offers potential for new sites for tourism development, extra capacity, rural development opportunities and a new sustainable land use option for an agriculturally marginal area with opportunities for economic and socio-economic development.[29] Zimbabwe Sun Ltd has developed two safari lodges on the Save River at Mahenye, and also has interests in the Save Valley Conservancy which it is developing (see Section 6.3). Hippo Valley Estates have also recently opened lodges with game viewing on their land.

Wildlife is the primary incentive for going south to the lowveld or for turning off the main Beitbridge to Harare road. The Gonarezhou National Park is Zimbabwe's second largest and it has a long boundary with Pafuri-Chicualacuala Game Management Area in Moçambique. There is much talk of a Trans-Frontier Protected Area (TFPA) including Gonarezhou, Pafuri-Chicualacuala Game Management Area and Kruger National Park in South Africa. This area could be extended to include the Save Conservancy, all of which could be linked by common boundaries and "game corridors". Gonarezhou National Park remains totally undeveloped and wild. In Shona, Gonarezhou means "refuge of the elephants". Gonarezhou's elephant are renowned for their large tusks which have attracted poachers and could attract tourists. It offers considerable potential for wilderness tourism.

1.3.3 The Southern Circuit.

In 1993 Brian Child of DNPWLM proposed the formation of a Joint Committee for Beitbridge, Chipinge, Chiredzi and Gonarezhou to 'co-ordinate land, and in particular the rapidly growing wildlife industry in and around Gonarezhou National Park.' The initiative was designed to complement the activity of the Gonarezhou Park Board and to 'lead to a major revolution in land use management'.[30]

Child identified two sets of objectives:

- *to benefit the people of the region by generating both tangible (income: jobs) and intangible (self esteem: managerial capacity; proprietary pride; inter-sector co-operation) benefits.*

- *to improve the management and conservation of indigenous resources in the region.'*[31]

The proposal envisaged wildlife becoming a primary land use along the length of the Limpopo River, on the South African border, through Sengwe and Gonarezhou and along the Save River to Birchenough Bridge. This would encompass an area of one million hectares and the wild areas of Save Valley, Gonarezhou and the Limpopo

29 Zimbabwe Council for Tourism 1994, p.13.
30 Child 1993, p.1.
31 Child 1993, p.1.

flood-plain. In the longer term, links with activity in Moçambique, Botswana and South Africa are envisaged. Development should be 'developed, managed and controlled by the people themselves' and 'active, informed and proprietorial involvement' was seen as critical to improved land use management. This objective could only be achieved with the development of managerial capacity and innovative institutional structures.

Child argued that it is necessary to add value to the land while reducing the pressure on the environment by encouraging non-consumptive sectors like tourism and encouraging micro-projects, such as crafts, services and small industries. The proposal is based on the assumption that the wildlife industry can add considerable value to these ecosystems and that the rural communities can significantly improve land use practices. This requires that 'authority, benefit and management are devolved to the lowest appropriate level and that these functions are separated from regulatory ones'.[32] This change in land use would result in a significantly more sustainable land use and conserve biodiversity. The importance of wildlife would increase and it would need to be integrated with other land use practices: cattle grazing and agriculture, improved by irrigation. Small business activity would be developed to supplement these income sources.

Child pointed out that the necessary changes had already commenced with developments in CAMPFIRE schemes and decisions by commercial ranchers to replace cattle with wildlife. The recent Rural District Council (RDC) amalgamation between the former district councils (small-scale black communal farmers) and rural councils (large-scale white commercial farmers) had begun the process and the three RDCs, Chipinge, Chiredzi and Beitbridge, were already co-operating with the Gonarezhou National Park. Child argued that the Joint Committee would be 'powerful and positive, combining the financial and managerial skills of the commercial sector with the political astuteness and legitimacy of the communal sector.'[33] Its activities would include marketing, development, co-ordination of tourism activities, training and the maintenance of standards. This would lead to the development of community based land use planning and 'a growing teamwork between different racial groups'.[34]

Furthermore, the economic basis for co-operation is strong:

> *'Wildlife is proving to be a rapidly growing, lucrative, highly competitive and sustainable form of land use in these semi-arid savannas, improving both income and employment without damaging the environment... The Joint Committee is in an ideal position to promote tourism and to develop the lowveld as a major tourism destination.'*[35]

This major wildlife zone would stretch 300 km along the Limpopo and 300 km northwards. Tourism would bring wealth and jobs through lodges, campsites, walking

32 ibid p.2.
33 ibid p.4.
34 Child 1993, p.7.
35 ibid pp.4-5.

trails, bird-watching and cultural tourism. Voluntary consolidation of settlement around community-managed irrigation schemes would provide employment and food-security and make land available for tourism, and connecting corridors would open for elephant populations in Kruger, Gonarezhou and Tuli. This would constitute a much larger wildlife area encompassing Gonarezhou, the Tuli Block in Botswana, the Limpopo Conservancy in South Africa and the communal land and game ranches in Zimbabwe to create an area which could support 1000 elephants.[36]

Access would be via Buffalo range airport and Beitbridge, which has already decided to develop a 10 km strip to the east along the Limpopo, and there would be a range of tourism products available including cultural tourism and high value lodge-based game-viewing in the park, on the conservancies and in the communal areas adjacent to the park and the Limpopo Valley. Self-drive tourists would make use of community managed campsites and chalets, local guides would take tourists on walks to visit natural environments and to experience the culture. Tourists might also pay for traditional meals with local families. Since the industry would be managed and controlled by the local people the negative impacts of tourism would be reduced.

Child argued that there is a strong complementary interest between the park, the conservancies, the CAMPFIRE schemes and the RDCs which should secure the relationship. Large economies of scale are available in the marketing, infrastructure and transportation necessary to support tourism[37].

The purpose of the Joint Committee would be to promote and guide sustainable economic development and to 'regulate and control the use of biological resources to maintain biodiversity and eco-system productivity'. Regulation and control should take place at the 'right level and subject to the dictates of local conditions'. Child argued that this regulation should be concerned with common resources, e.g. wildlife and water resources or large scale developments which require environmental and economic impact assessments. [38]

The tourism related activities of the Joint Committee might include:

a) a unified regional tourism strategy and corporate image e.g. of quality and a wild-life cultural mix;
b) quality control. e.g. of guides, accommodation, compliance with the corporate image etc.;
c) promote the identification and development of tourism sites and opportunities within the bounds of the overlying strategy. This might include assisting with feasibility studies and investment appraisals and proposals;
d) training, for example, of local guides;
e) market research and ensuring that there is quality control through the assessment of tourist satisfaction;
f) development of tourist routes.[39]

36 ibid p.6.
37 ibid p.4.
38 Child 1993, p.7.
39 ibid p.10.

A diversified range of tourism products including wilderness, big-game and cultural experiences could be provided by the co-operating sectors.

The Gonarezhou National Park Management Plan published in December 1993 argued a similar case. It envisaged the park being developed 'as a catalyst for socio-economic development in the south-east lowveld region' improving the livelihoods of local people, and extending conservation beyond the park boundary. The report asserted that 'the natural resources of the park, particularly the wildlife, offer viable opportunities for stimulating regional development.'[40]

The authors of the report argued that substantial regional economic benefits may be gained, without serious ecological damage, by developing wildlife tourism in the area from Tuli to Birchenough Bridge. Such a strategy would require changes in traditional views of land use and the local economy and support for the changes will need to be generated among the general population, political institutions and government agencies. Conservation education would play an important role in changing attitudes.[41] They argued that an evolutionary, adaptive implementation strategy involving local communities should be used and identified a number of major issues which need to be addressed:

- 'involvement of local people in park management and decision making
- Co-ordination of park administration, commercial interests, communal land interests, and government departmental activities
- compatibility of interests and operations with potential for economies of scale
- undertaking of comprehensive, regional land use planning
- development of managerial capacity within local communities
- improving the availability of information, increasing local knowledge, and changing attitudes
- improving the availability of financial investment capital to develop wildlife resources and commercial tourism ventures'. [42]

The Gonarezhou Park Management Plan envisages a National Park Advisory Committee which would include representation from local communities, the conservancies, border commercial ranches and the 'Lowveld Tourism Association'. The report envisages the creation of a committee to bring together the Park, commercial landholders, rural communities and tour operators. This committee would promote wildlife and cultural tourism to the region by co-ordinating the development, marketing and promotion of tourism to the region, developing visitor access and raising the standards of facilities and services.[43]

The lowveld Conservancies also argue that the development of tourism at Save, Bubiana and Chiredzi River 'will lead to enhanced levels of economic activity in their areas' leading to new businesses, jobs and local economic development.[44]

40 DNPWLM 1993, p.25.
41 ibid p.29.
42 ibid p.25.
43 DNPWLM 1993, p.71.
44 de la Harpe 1994, p.136.

Infrastructural improvements undertaken to enable tourism to grow in the area would also bring development in transport links and communications for the areas around the conservancies.

The south-east lowveld experiences poverty and environmental degradation with little opportunity for sustainable development unless the land-use systems are changed. Population pressures and agro-ecological limitations combine to create a situation where few new opportunities exist. The Conservancies argue that large scale resettlement will not alleviate the problem, since the agricultural potential is very limited and population densities would remain unsustainable. The Conservancies argue that, if developed for tourism, they would be integrated into the local economy bringing direct and indirect jobs and enhancing the development potential of the region. They conclude:

> '.. the Conservancies present opportunities for enhanced economic activity, new job creation and regional development, whereas the potential is severely limited under existing land-use systems.' [45]

There have been two strategic planning workshops held in the lowveld[46] to discuss development priorities under the auspices of the World Bank's GEF project funds. Representatives of the RDC's, National Parks, NGO's, tour operators and the Conservancies were present. There was discussion of poverty alleviation, communal land conservancies,[47] a road link between Gonarezhou and Kruger National Parks, a new tarred access road via Chilonga, and tourism development in Gonarezhou and lodges in the communal lands. There was a specific agenda for infrastructural development, environmental awareness and education, training and capacity building and enterprise development. The issue of indigenisation versus community involvement was discussed but consensus remained to be reached. There was a specific request for Professional Hunter's Course for Black people.

It is hoped that this report will contribute to the process of developing appropriate forms of tourism in the lowveld.

45 ibid p.138.
46 The most recent on 2 December 1996.
47 At Manjini Pan and the Limpopo.

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2. VISITOR PATTERNS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Wildlife conservation is the overwhelmingly dominant land use in the Park and there has to date been only limited usage for non-consumptive tourism. The Park is operated as two distinct units: Chipinda Pools, from where the northern part of the park is managed, and Mabalauta in the south. Chipinda Pools is the main entry point. It has 80% of the total visitors to Gonarezhou and is the focus of this study. Until 1996, the park was only open to visitors from 1st May - 31st October, since the roads within the park become inaccessible during the rains. However, since 1996 the park has been open all year round.

This chapter describes some broad characteristics of tourist visits to the park.

2.2 DATA SOURCES

Visitor statistics are calculated from the records held at Chipinda Pools. Some data for Mabalauta is also presented largely from published sources. Published data on visitation patterns were available from 1971-1991.[1] Further monthly data, from 1992-1996, was collected from the park headquarters at Chipinda pools and Mabalauta.

2.2.1 Volume of Tourism to GNP

Visitor use of Gonarezhou has always been limited. Civil unrest has contributed to low levels of visitor use but the lack of all-weather roads, a reputation for poor game viewing, and limited infrastructure for tourism in the region, all constrain visitor numbers. The Gonarezhou Plan suggests that 400 people per day during the peak season is a reasonable target.

In 1971 there were 554 visitors, in 1973 and 1982 there were over 6,000 visitors, whilst throughout most of the 1980s the total was under 2,000. Since 1994 the figure has risen to over 6,000 again. The overall pattern (Figure 2.1), whilst seemingly erratic, can be explained to some extent by historic factors.

Prior to the closure of the park in 1976, visitation was fairly low. Upon reopening of the park in 1982 there was a large influx of visitors, after which visitation settled down to a low level again. The park was closed again in the late 1980's. Visitation began to rise in the early 1990s, and since 1994 there has been a regular influx of 6-7000 visitors per annum.

Visitation to Mabalauta has always remained at a low level, and most of the increase in recent years has been associated with Chipinda Pools (Figure 2.2). Day visitors have shown the most marked increase in recent years. Between 1982 and 1993 they fluctuated between 500 and 1,500. In 1994 there was a large increase in day visitors, to almost 4,000, and levels have remained high (Figure 2.3).

1 Schuerholz & Moore, 1993.

The reopening of the park to overseas tourists has contributed to the increase in the number of visitors in the 1990's but the figures for numbers and types of visitors are erratic. Although overseas tourists do not make up a large proportion of visitors, there has been an increase in South African visitors in the past few years (see below).

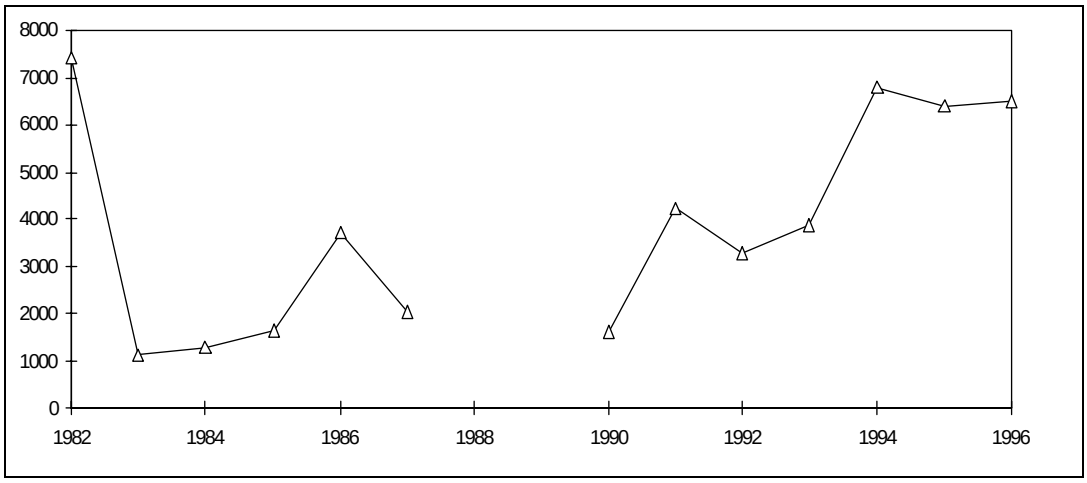

Figure 2.1. Annual visitor numbers to Gonarezhou.

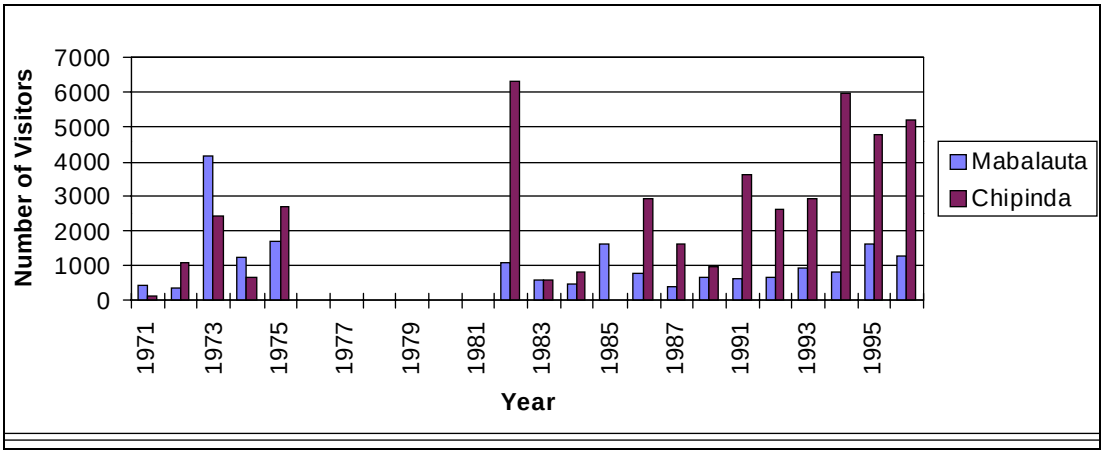

Figure 2.2. Annual number of visitors to Chipinda Pools and Mabalauta.

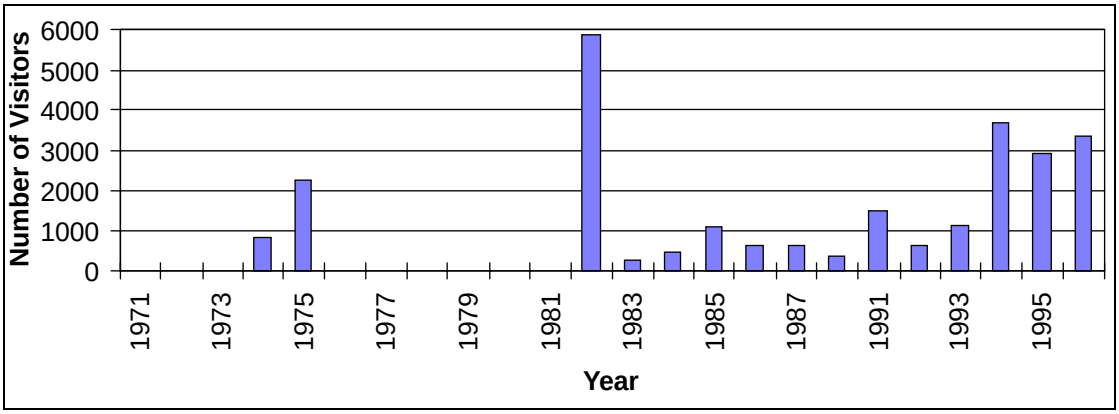

Figure 2.3. Annual number of day visitors to Gonarezhou

2.2.2 Seasonality

The warden at Chipinda Pools considers the peak periods of visitation to be December-January, March-May, and August-September. This pattern is close to that shown by the data for the five years from January 1992 (Figures 2.4 & 2.5). There is a very defined peak of visitation in August, and a trough in February. April is higher than expected, and June somewhat lower. From 1993-1995, December received moderately high levels of visitation, it is popular with domestic visitors over the Christmas holiday period. There is a strong seasonal pattern.

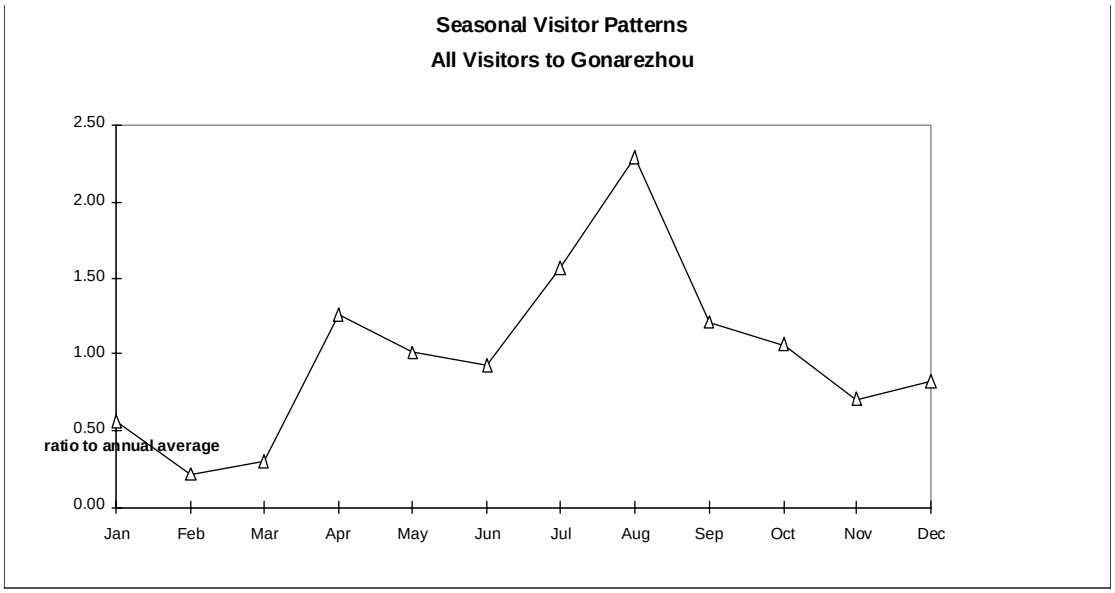

Figure 2.4. Seasonal visitor pattern in Gonarezhou

The data has been split by region of the park to compare seasonality of visitation at Chipinda Pools and Mabalauta (Figures 2.6 & 2.7). Chipinda Pools shows a marked seasonal pattern with an August peak. The pattern at Mabalauta is more erratic from 1992-1994, after which a more recognisable pattern, similar to that of Chipinda Pools, emerges.

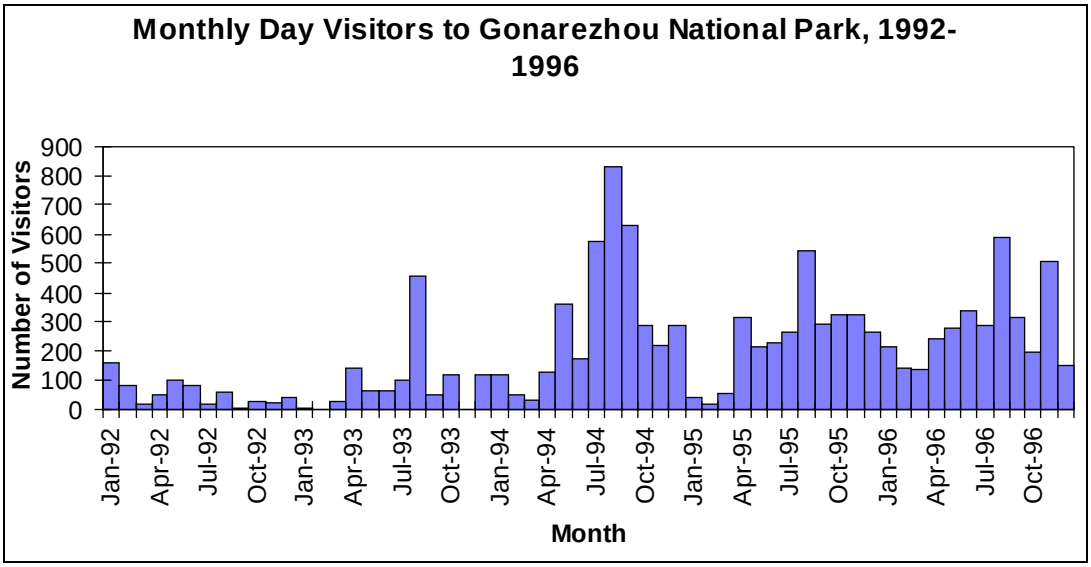

Figure 2.5. Monthly day visitors to Gonarezhou.

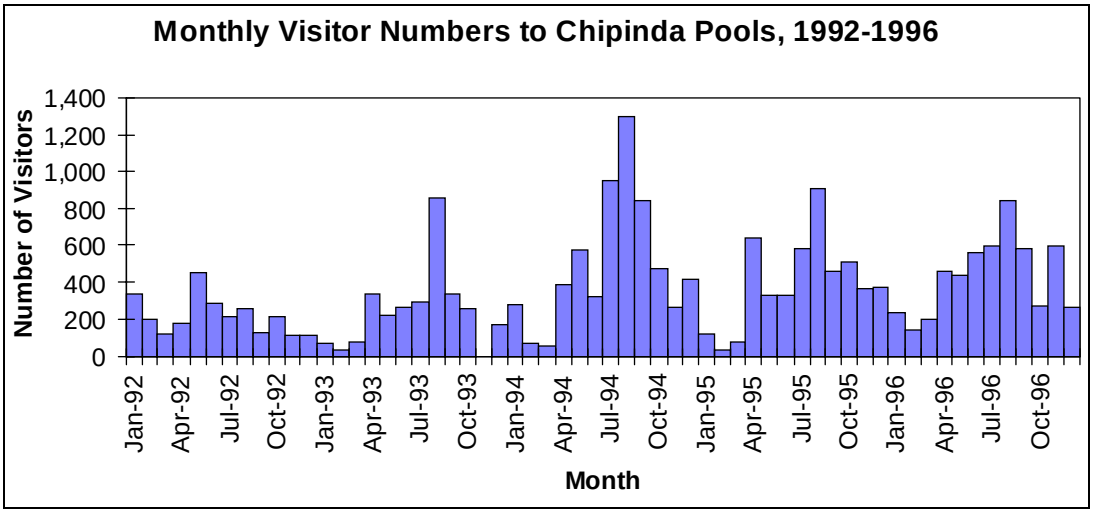

Figure 2.6. Monthly visitor numbers to Chipinda Pools.

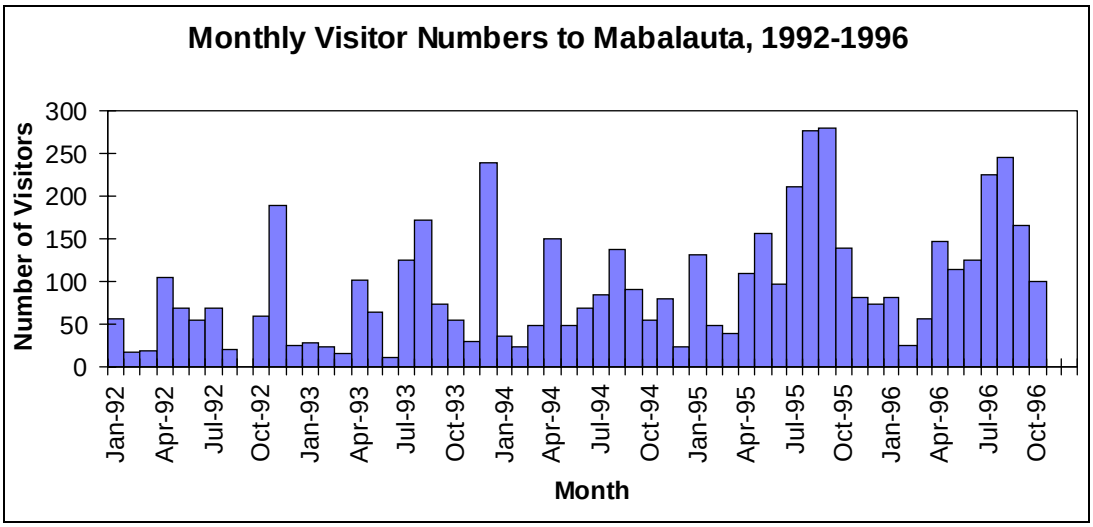

Figure 2.7. Monthly visitor numbers to Mabalauta.

2.2.3 Nationality

Visitors have been classified as either domestic tourists, regional tourists (95% South African), or overseas tourists (principally European, with some American and Australian). The nationality breakdown for 1991/92 has been compared with that for 1995/96 (Figure 2.8 and Figure 2.9). It can be seen that the majority of visitors (60-90%) over this period have been domestic.

At Chipinda Pools, the proportion of overseas visitors has remained at a constant low level of 7-9% (Table 2.1), whilst in Mabalauta it appears to have increased from 2% to 9.6%. In both areas, there has been a large increase in Regional visitors (4.6%-34.0% at Chipinda Pools, 8.7%-23.5% at Mabalauta), and a corresponding decrease in the proportion of domestic visitors.

	Zimbabwean	Regional	Overseas	Total
1991/92[2]				
Chipinda Pools	3094	161	245	3500
Mabalauta	674	66	15	755
Chipinda Pools (%)	88.4	4.6	7.0	
Mabalauta (%)	89.3	8.7	2.0	
1995/96				
Chipinda Pools, Camping	1519	1072	253	2844
Chipinda Pools, Day Visitors	2164	1028	143	3335
Chipinda Pools, Total	3683	2100	396	6179
Mabalauta	1090	382	156	1628
Gonarezhou Total	4773	2482	552	7807
Gonarezhou (%)	61.1	31.8	7.1	
Chipinda Pools, Camping (%)	53.4	37.7	8.9	
Chipinda Pools, Day Visitors(%)	64.9	30.8	4.3	
Chipinda Pools, Total (%)	59.6	34.0	6.4	
Mabalauta (%)	67.0	23.5	9.6	

Table 2.1. Breakdown of Visitors to Chipinda Pools and Mabalauta by Region of Origin, 1991/92 vs. 1995/96.

2 from Jansen, 1993.

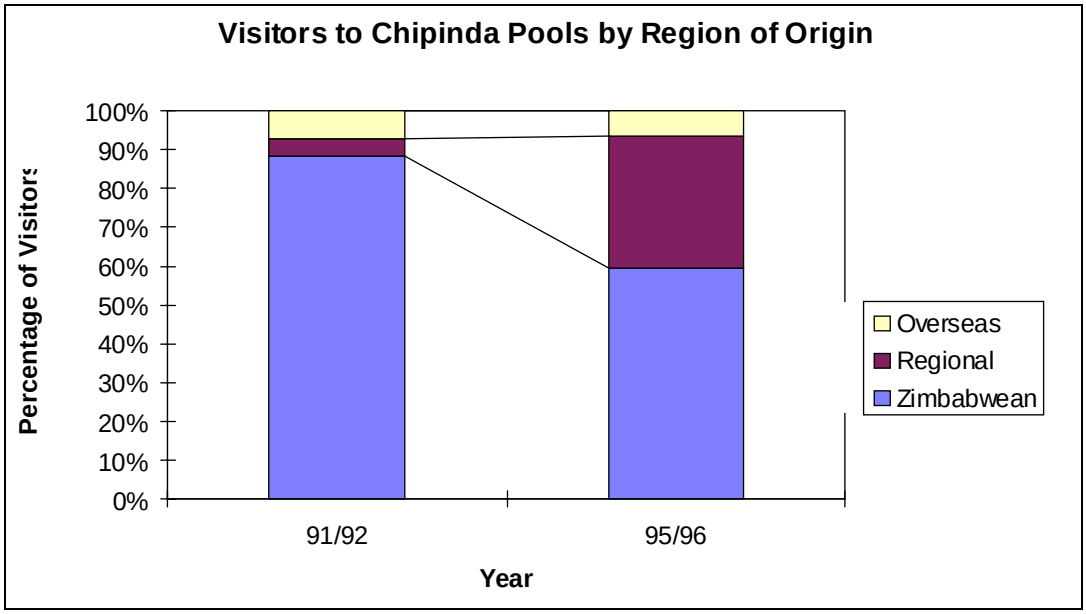

Figure 2.8. Origin of visitors to Chipinda Pools

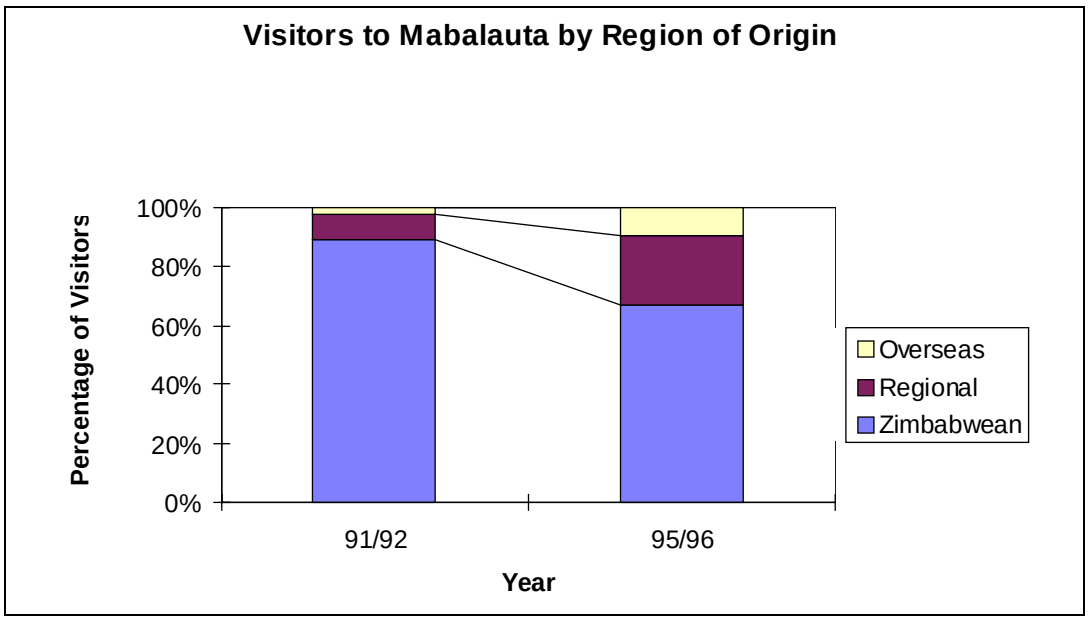

Figure 2.9. Origin of visitors to Mabalauta

2.2.4 Motivations for Travel

The most popular area in the park is Chipinda Pools, which besides being most accessible, ranks best for wildlife viewing. From the campsite there are excellent views over the river, with resident hippo and crocodile populations. The Chilojo Cliffs are a very popular scenic spot. Chinguli camp receives a high level of use by campers, followed by the Mabalauta/Swimuwini accommodation. The former is frequented mostly by organised safari groups, which can conduct walking and driving excursions from there. Tambahata Pan, near the Mahenye entrance gate, is the other very popular wildlife viewing site. Occupancy rates for accommodation units are quite low, e.g. around 20% for Swimuwini Camp during the week, rising at weekends.

The predominant activity in the park is game and bird viewing from vehicles and at pans, although fishing is very popular. It is also possible to book guided walking safaris. These are usually 5-7 days duration, departing from Chipinda Pools and following a circular route. In 1996, no trails were booked from Chipinda Pools. No one-day trails are yet available although they are planned for the future. Climbing at the Chilojo Cliffs is also possible.

Fishing is restricted to within 50m of the camps. Licenses cost Z$10, with a limit of one hook per rod. Revenue from fishing licenses (Table A.15) suggest that it is a popular activity in the park.

According to field interviews the importance of being in wild landscape to people currently visiting the Gonarezhou National Park rated very highly. Seeing rare species, a wide variety of birds and seeing a few animals close up from a vehicle all score over 4. Seeing large herds is reported as being relatively less important (3.67). These are relatively passive forms of activity. Seeing animals whilst on foot, walking and learning about wildlife and habitats all score over three and are more participatory.

	unimportant				**very important**	
Activity	1	2	3	4	5	Mean
Being in a wild landscape	4.9	3.9	2.9	8.8	79.4	4.54
Seeing wide variety of birds	4.5	4.5	16.1	21.4	52.7	4.14
Seeing rare species of wildlife	5.3	5.3	13.3	15.9	48.7	4.10
Seeing a few animals close-up from a vehicle	8.8	4.4	11.5	23.9	46.9	4.00
Seeing animals whilst on foot	8.3	5.5	15.6	18.3	42.2	3.89
Learning about wildlife & habitats	8.3	8.3	17.7	18.8	36.5	3.74
Seeing large herds of wildlife	8.1	9.0	18.9	17.1	33.3	3.67
Walking	19.1	4.3	17.0	16.0	30.9	3.40
Night game drives	24.7	6.5	16.1	10.8	15.1	2.79

Table 2.2. The importance of activities to visitors to Gonarezhou.

107 visitors completed the question in the field questionnaire which asked about activities in which they had taken part, and the activities which they would like to have taken part in (Table 2.3). Clearly this only records the preferences of current users who filled in the questionnaire but it does provide one indicator of the kinds of activities which it is worth considering providing.

Only one third of respondents had done any day time viewing from a hide or platform and 55% would like to do so. The provision of more opportunities for game viewing from hides and platforms would reduce the impacts of vehicles on the park and the disturbance which they cause to wildlife. However it is difficult to envisage how the provision of these facilities could be charged for unless they were rented out.

Night time viewing from a hide or platform, learning about wildlife tracking, night game drives, walking safaris, wilderness training are all activities which more than 30% of respondents would like the opportunity to participate in. These all present opportunities for the park management to earn revenue from either directly by

providing the services or, indirectly, by granting permits and concessions for operations in the park. It may also be possible to devise ways in which additional jobs could be created in the local community for people to provide these services in the park after suitable training.

However, these activities would all require support vehicles and/or licensed professional guides because of the presence of dangerous game. Night sky viewing, boat trips and horse riding are also relatively expensive to provide and would require capital. By contrast the guided walk around a village, having a bush dinner, or a meal in a village, a genuinely local music and dance performance, local story telling and theatre and buying crafts from the maker in the village could all be provided by local people with no, or very little, capital outlay.

Activity	Already taken part	Would like to take part
Day time viewing from hide or platform	29.9	54.9
Assisting with wildlife research	0.9	53.3
Night time viewing from hide or platform	4.7	50.5
Learning about wildlife tracking	12.1	48.6
Night game drive	24.3	46.7
Half-day walking safari	11.2	41.1
Wilderness survival training/ living off the bush	4.7	38.3
All-day walking safari	1.9	34.6
One-hour walking safari	19.6	29.9
Night sky viewing through a telescope	1.9	26.2
Seeing rock art	11.2	25.2
Horse riding	4.7	24.3
Boat trips on river	15.0	18.7
Sundowner boat trips	12.1	17.8
Walking in/around local village with a local guide	5.6	14.0
Having a 'bush' dinner	8.4	13.1
Having an African meal in a village	0.9	10.3
Local music & dancing performances	4.7	10.3
Local story telling & theatre	0.0	10.3
Visiting local villages to buy handicrafts	6.5	10.3
Fishing	17.8	6.5

Total Sample 107

Table 2.3. The activities that visitors took part in and would liked to have taken part in.

2.2.5 Accommodation Trends

Visitors have the option of a single day entry or an overnight stay. Whilst camp sites are available near both Chipinda Pools and Mabalauta, chalet accommodation is only available near Mabalauta (Swimuwini camp).

Overall, the proportion of visitors using chalets has stayed fairly constant, whilst the

proportion of day visitors has increased, and that of campers has decreased (Table 2.4 and Figure 2.10). In Chipinda Pools the ratio of campers to day visitors decreased from approximately 3:1 in 1992 to 2:3 in 1994, with an overall ratio for the five years combined of approximately 1:1 (Table 2.5 and Figure 2.11). In Mabalauta the proportion of campers has remained steady at around 25%, the proportion of day visitors has increased from 0% to almost 15%, and there has been a corresponding decrease in the proportion of chalet visitors (Table 2.5 and Figure 2.11).

Year	Chalets	Campers	Day Visitors
1992	14.86	65.21	19.94
1993	17.01	53.27	29.72
1994	8.51	37.16	54.33
1995	14.07	40.75	45.18
1996	11.50	36.28	52.22
Total	12.56	43.57	43.87

Table 2.4. The accommodation used by visitors to Gonarezhou (1992-1996).

	Chipinda Pools		Mabalauta		
Year	Campers	Day Visitors	Chalets	Campers	Day Visitors
1992	74.88	25.12	71.98	28.02	0.00
1993	61.43	38.57	70.42	27.65	1.93
1994	38.82	61.18	68.77	25.39	5.84
1995	49.11	50.89	54.67	16.62	28.71
1996	38.53	61.47	58.25	27.13	14.62
Total	48.51	51.49	62.65	23.85	13.49

Table 2.5. The accommodation used by visitors to Chipinda Pools and Mabalauta (1992-1996).

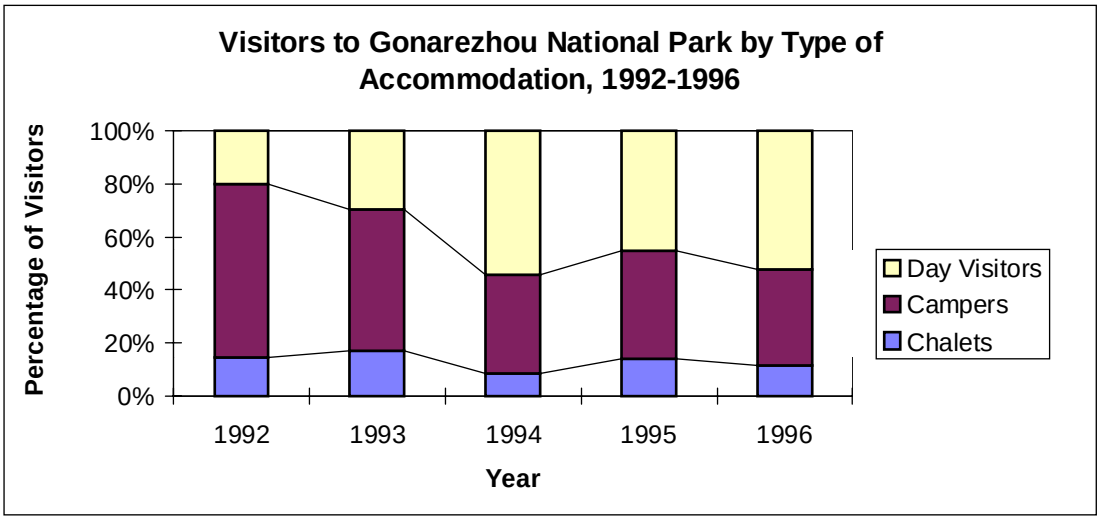

Figure 2.10. Accommodation used by visitors to Gonarezhou.

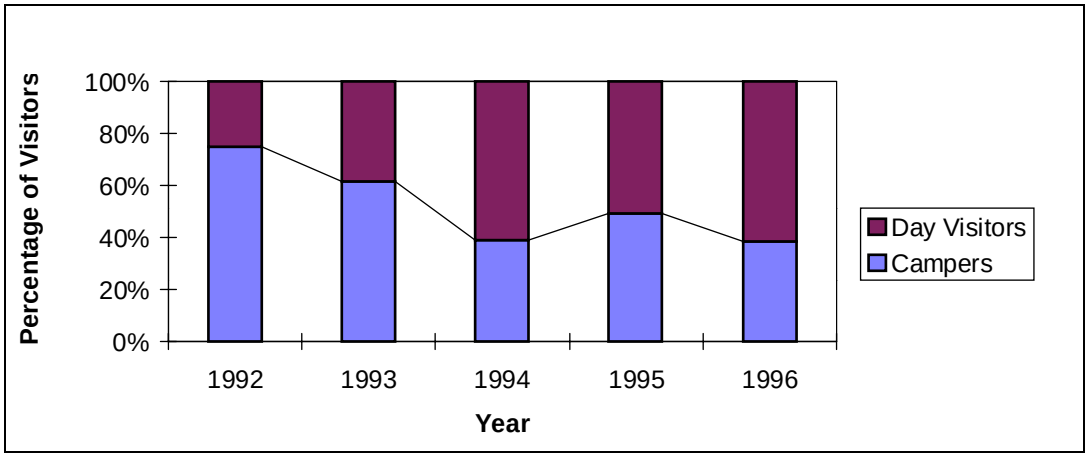

Figure 2.11. Accommodation used by visitors to Chipinda Pools.

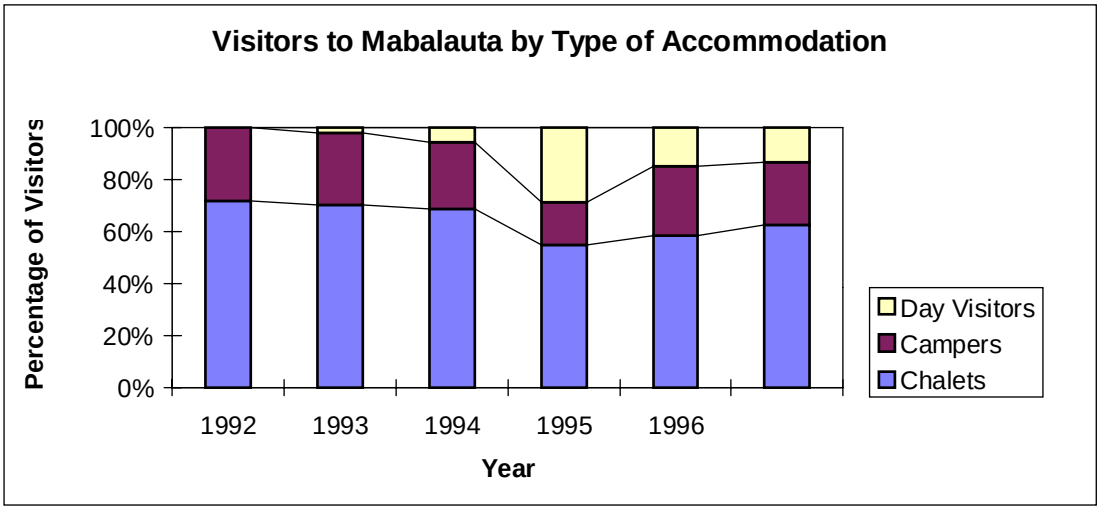

Figure 2.12. Accommodation used by visitors to Chipinda Pools.

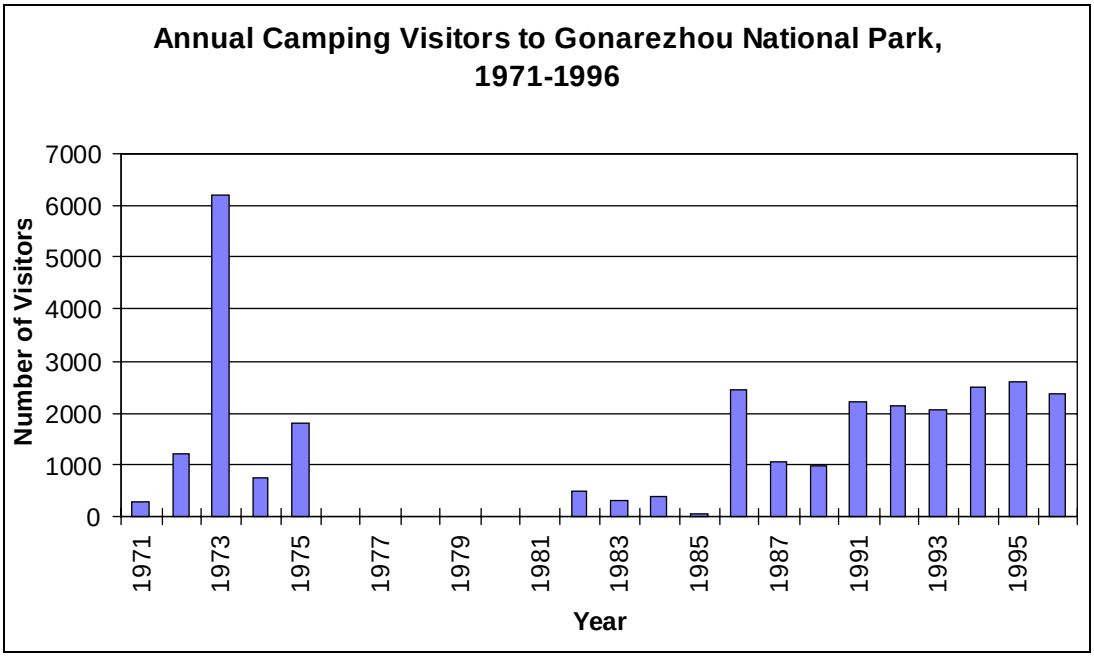

Figure 2.13. Annual number of people camping in Gonarezhou.

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3. VISITOR IMPACTS AND MANAGEMENT[1]

3.1 Introduction

This chapter examines visitor impacts, and the monitoring and management of these impacts, within Gonarezhou National Park. It attempts to assess the environmental implications of tourism within the context of the conservation priorities of the park and the additional environmental threats posed to the park by external factors. This chapter addresses principal objective (c) of the project;

- identify means of improved visitor management in order to decrease the adverse ecological effects of tourism.

After an initial discussion of conservation priorities, visitor activities and their implications for the environment are presented. Specific impacts that have been identified are discussed. These impacts are then contextualised within the wider framework of environmental pressures on the park. Current procedures for monitoring and management of tourism are evaluated, and recommendations are made for improving visitor management.

3.2 Values and Conservation Priorities

3.2.1 Biodiversity And Conservation Values

The park is very species rich, with almost 1000 plants, 400 birds, 89 mammals, 104 reptiles and amphibians and 50 fish. Together with this richness are a number of special characteristics.

The specific physiography and the associated environmental characteristics of the area result in a unique floral and faunal composition. The park is situated in a transition zone between the Cape zoogeographical region and the Eastern and Tropical Central African zoogeographical area, and lies between the Moçambique coastal region and the cooler highveld to the north-west.

Gonarezhou contains many mammals of conservation significance. Animals considered rare in Zimbabwe which occur in Gonarezhou include pangolin, bat-eared fox, wild dog, suni, Lichtenstein's hartebeest, roan antelope and nyala (among the larger mammals). The elephant population in Gonarezhou belongs to a race also found in Kruger National Park, South Africa, and parts of Moçambique, but not elsewhere in Zimbabwe. It is characterised by small body size and, in mature bulls, relatively large tusks.

1 Much of the material in this chapter is taken from the detailed case study of GNP contained in Case Study A, presented below.

The herpetofauna of Gonarezhou is unusual in Zimbabwe, as it includes many species which typically occur on the East African coastal plain. Reptiles and amphibians are good indicators of biogeographic boundaries, and their occurrence in the park illustrates its biogeographic importance. The herpetofauna includes about 6% of the Southern African endemics and 14 species of special conservation interest.

Perhaps most importantly, the significance of Gonarezhou lies in its geographical location on the border of Zimbabwe. Its proximity to Kruger National Park in South Africa and to conservation areas in Moçambique offers the potential for the development of a cross-border, transnational protected area, should the political climate for such an undertaking prevail.[2]

3.2.2 Socio-economic Values

Historically, the area which is now Gonarezhou National Park had important socio-cultural values.[3] Its principal use value for local people was as a hunting ground for wildlife, an important source of protein.

3.2.3 Current Prioritisation of Values

Wildlife conservation is the overwhelmingly dominant land use in the Park. Socio-economic values were in effect denied by the designation of the area as a National Park. There has to date been only limited use for non-consumptive tourism, although this is being prioritised under the current restructuring of DNPWLM.[4] The vision statement for the park includes the following:

'Gonarezhou National Park will sustain opportunities for visitor use, education and appreciation that are based on the special qualities of the area. Visitors will be encouraged to experience and interact with the park environment without jeopardising its ecological integrity.'[5]

Limited resource consumption by neighbouring communities is now permitted. This is limited to controlled harvest of thatch grass, and the distribution of meat from culls. However, the importance of developing beneficial linkages with the surrounding communities is recognised in the vision statement for the park.

3.3 Visitor Activities

The most popular area in the park is Chipinda Pools, which besides being most accessible, ranks best for wildlife viewing. From the campsite there are excellent views over the river, with resident hippo and crocodile populations. The Chilojo Cliffs are a very popular scenic spot. Chinguli camp receives a high level of use by campers, followed by the Mabalauta/Swimuwini accommodation. The former is frequented

2 Brown, 1995.
3 see Mahenye case study.
4 see case study A.
5 DNPWLM, 1993, p.7.

mostly by organised safari groups, which can conduct walking and driving excursions from there. Tambahata Pan, near the Mahenye entrance gate, is the other very popular wildlife viewing site. Occupancy rates for accommodation units are quite low, e.g. around 20% for Swimuwini Camp during the week, rising at weekends.

The predominant activity in the park is game and bird viewing from vehicles and at pans, although fishing is very popular. It is also possible to book guided walking safaris. These are usually 5-7 days duration, departing from Chipinda Pools and following a circular route. In 1996, no trails were booked from Chipinda Pools. No one-day trails are yet available although they are planned for the future. Climbing at the Chilojo Cliffs is also possible.

Fishing is restricted to within 50m of the camps. Licenses cost Z$10, with a limit of one hook per rod. Revenue from fishing licenses (Table A.15) suggest that it is a popular activity in the park.

3.4 Environmental Impacts Of Tourism

At present visitor numbers are very low, so minimal environmental impact is evident. Visitor distribution is limited to roads, viewing platforms and campsites. Although no formal monitoring of visitor impact is carried out, a number of impacts are known to occur, chiefly at or around campsites, and efforts are being made to minimise them.

3.4.1 Impacts associated with roads

The number of vehicles entering the park at Chipinda Pools has more than doubled since 1992, from around 650 to over 1400 (Figure A.17). There is a strong seasonal pattern, with most vehicle entries in July-September (Figure A.18). However, a second peak has been developing around Christmas, and the rise in vehicles since 1992 has been more marked in the wet season (November - April) than in the dry (May - October) (Figure A.19).

Vehicles travelling within the park will cause some wildlife disturbance and mortality, and dust disturbed from the roads by passing traffic may be having an adverse affect on roadside vegetation. However, given the (at present) relatively low number of vehicles within the park, and the lack of baseline data, this project has not attempted to measure these impacts. More directly, since the roads within the park are not tarred, they are vulnerable to vehicle wear in the form of rutting and erosion. Vehicle damage to roads is more severe in the wet season, when the softer surface is more prone to rutting and erosion. The opening up of the park year round and the increasing amount of wet season traffic is a cause of concern to the park management. Remedial costs will be significantly higher as a result of these changes.

3.4.2 Impacts associated with artificial game waterholes

Despite some controversy, artificial waterpoints are used in arid environments throughout Africa to allow cattle to survive in marginal areas and to extend the dry season range of wildlife. For the latter reason, the practice is particularly prevalent in protected areas where artificial concentrations of game are maintained, using boreholes, as a tourist attraction. This is most dramatically evidenced in Hwange National Park, which is an entirely artificially maintained "wilderness".

Artificial pans were first established in Gonarezhou in 1970, predominantly relying on boreholes which were installed in the 1950s for cattle, which were present on the land at that time. They are now used by wildlife, particularly in the dry season when natural resources are scarce. These pans are, however, associated with an increase in vegetation degradation and increased disturbance and predation of particular species, most notably roan antelope and Lichtenstein's hartebeest, both of which are rare in Zimbabwe.

According to the DNPWLM (1993), in Gonarezhou boreholes were established and are maintained for the following reasons:

To maintain and disperse populations of large mammals in an arid environment;
To relieve foraging pressure on riparian vegetation; and
To provide game viewing opportunities within the park.

The Management Plan for Gonarezhou National Park maintains that artificial waterpoints should only be established for drought relief and for the conservation of endangered or sensitive species. It also highlights the need for further research into the effects of artificial waterpoints on the environment of the park. Despite this caution, some boreholes in the park are pumped, in locations close to access roads, to allow easy viewing of good concentrations of wildlife by tourists.

Although the maintenance of permanent water at waterholes is valuable to the Park, there are a number of considerations against their proliferation:

They are foci for vegetation degradation;
They disrupt the natural migratory cycles of animals;
They are difficult and costly to maintain;
Their ecological management is yet untried; and
They alter the ecology of pans through intensive use by ungulates, thus destroying the habitat for smaller animals.

In line with the opinions expressed in the plan, a proposal was developed to examine the impact of artificial waterpoints on wildlife populations and vegetation. The research was carried out by a DICE MSc student, in collaboration with Raleigh International (Rodriguez, 1995). This collaboration offers potential for the continuation of monitoring, carried out during this study, in successive seasons.

The project was carried out in the Mabalauta sub-region of the park. It aimed to compare the diversity and abundance of wildlife species, and the impact of wildlife

concentrations on vegetation, of natural and artificial waterholes. The objectives of the study were:

To record the level of utilisation of artificial waterholes by large mammals during the dry season;
To quantify the loss of grass cover surrounding artificial waterholes;
To record the degree of degradation of woodland, in terms of tree loss and damage to trees; and
To report on the relative impacts of browsers, fire and drought to woodland.

The full report of this project is presented in Rodriguez (1995). Reproduced below is the conclusion from the project.

'The establishment of artificial waterholes in Gonarezhou 25 years ago aimed to provide an alternative water source for mammals that were drinking from the Mwenesi river, thereby relieving pressure on the riparian vegetation and to provide viewing opportunities for tourists. An increased concentration of game at Manyanda and Nyamugwe pans was evident during this study, although not to the extent seen by other researchers. A number of factors may effect the frequency and duration of wildlife visits to waterholes. Predator avoidance and tourist/observer avoidance, along with the physiological constraints faced by each species for drinking and temperature regulation will all have effected the results of the observations made during this study. The concentration of game at these sites coupled with these behavioural adaptations in the animals accounts for the slightly increased impact on vegetation at artificial waterholes.

The two most notable impacts on surrounding vegetation were the increased proportion of small (<2 m.) trees and a decrease in grass cover found at the artificial waterholes. The reduction of canopy trees (>4m.) within 500 m. of the pan provides growing opportunities to small trees. This lead to an increased tree density (trees/m^2) around artificial waterholes, primarily made up of small trees. Within the 500 m. belt transects conducted at each site, over 67% more trees were found at the artificial sites than at the control site.

The decrease in grass cover surrounding both the artificial and natural pans is a result of trampling and grazing by mammals visiting the waterholes. The sustained use of the artificial waterholes throughout the dry season allows for increased impact primarily through trampling, as grass is dry and not as attractive to grazers. The impact of this use was evident at artificial pans throughout the 500m. transects. As distance increased from the waterholes, and thus the foraging circumference increased, the impact on grass cover declined at both natural and artificial waterholes. Natural pans showed a full recovery to the level of the control site within 500m. of the pan, where as artificial pans showed only limited recovery.

The concentration of game around waterholes for an extended period of time will impact the surrounding vegetation. The complete eradication of woody species, which has been described by other scientists previously was not apparent during this study. The initial loss of woody species described in Gonarezhou, has perhaps climaxed

around these pans, leading to a different kind of degradation. Tall (2m+) trees represent a smaller proportion of the trees at artificial pans than at the natural pans. Similar results were seen between natural pans and the control site. The increase in small trees, which suffer more from trampling, may lead to grassland encroachment in the future.

Other expected impacts were not seen as a result of establishing permanent water at waterholes, such as increased impact from browser species or the replacement of woodland by grassland. Browser damage was not significantly different between artificial and natural sites. It was certainly the most significant impact on vegetation considered in this study, effecting 59% of all trees encountered. Drought and fire damage were less noticeable than anticipated, accounting for less than 30% and 1% of damage to trees, respectively.

Although the establishment of artificial waterholes has had an impact on the vegetation surrounding these pans, the provision of water to wildlife in a drought prone environment and the inclusion of tourist revenue for the Gonarezhou are important management factors which must be considered. The impact on vegetation of 25 years of permanent water supplies is not as severe as has been suggested for Hwange and other African national parks. However, other factors such as the elimination of crustacean species, the alteration of grass cover from perennial to annual species, and the increased predation success which is associated with artificial waterholes must also be considered.'[6]

3.4.3 Impacts associated with campsites

3.4.3.1 Litter

At present, combustible waste is burnt at campsites by visitors themselves, whilst the remainder is deposited in a pit. This has attracted scavengers such as baboon and hyaena who regularly raid the pits and could become a danger to the public. It is intended that capped, concrete bins will be installed at each site, with regular waste collection. Responding to the tourist questionnaire, 16 tourists reported seeing litter at campsites, viewing platforms, pools and beside the track.

3.4.3.2 Overfishing

Between June 1995 and July 1996, 35% of fishing licenses were sold to foreign visitors (principally South African), whilst 65% were sold to local visitors. However, this does not reflect the ratio of offtake by nationality. Overfishing is mainly caused by local visitors using the park as a source of produce for their businesses, despite a general rule that no more fish than can be reasonably used for domestic purposes should be taken. A lack of control over permits, and the difficulties of monitoring offtake and policing the violation of regulations, have raised fears that the resource is being overexploited.

6 Rodriguez, 1995, pp59-61.

Figures are available for the number of fishing licences sold each month at Chipinda Pools from July 1994 (Figure A.20). There is a strong seasonal pattern matching that of visitation in general, with more licenses sold in the dry season, specifically July - September.

In 1994, a monitoring exercise was carried out to survey fish species diversity and body size. This showed a marked decrease in diversity in the twenty years since a previous survey, but the sampling methodology was questioned. A more detailed survey is anticipated once funding becomes available.

3.4.3.3 Consumption of firewood

With increases in overnight visitors comes an increase in the demand for firewood. Whilst at present this is likely to be having a negligible effect, it should be closely monitored. Dead wood is an important feature of an ecosystem, providing niche space and nutrient resources, and localised collection may have long term implications for the local ecology surrounding campsites.

The price of a bundle of firewood has been increased to Z$40 per bundle from January 1997. This may increase the likelihood of visitors collecting wood within the park.

3.5 Environmental Impacts in Context: Other Problems

Although tourist numbers are growing, and there are some concerns over road damage and resource use, the overall visitor density is very low. Other environmental issues which are of more immediate concern to managers include poaching and fire. Whilst tourist involvement in these problems is not unheard of, it is comparatively rare.

3.5.1 Poaching

Political instability and war in Gonarezhou had a serious impact on the Park. There were said to be 225 rhino in Gonarezhou in 1983; by 1991 there were none. The 1992 drought did serious damage to the Park and many animals were translocated, some to local conservancies for feeding. Game densities generally are now low.

Elephant poaching has long been a problem at Gonarezhou, with armed gangs crossing the border from Moçambique. The problem has lessened since the end of the war in the neighbouring country, but it still persists. Since October 1994, eleven bulls have been poached. Nine were found along the border with their tusks missing. The other two were wounded and then died elsewhere. Six visitors reported on the questionnaire seeing evidence of poaching. The evidence included bones, old snares, a bullet cartridge and commercial fishing by locals. One guide was reported to have seen poachers.

A suggested solution to this problem lies in a compromise with the local Moçambiquean community. A sizeable pastoralist population is living within the park with their cattle. They make use of a borehole on the Chefu River close to the border, a practice which has hitherto been tolerated. By threatening to remove this privilege, the parks staff may deter the people from poaching elephants.

There was one incident in the 1980's of a visitor climbing the Chilojo Cliffs to raid a Peregrine Falcon's nest for eggs. There have been no recent reports of this problem recurring.

3.5.2 Fire

Although visitors are only allowed to make fires at designated campsites, some are illegally started elsewhere. These, coupled with the smouldering remains of campsite fires, pose serious hazards in the dry veld environment, where fire easily spreads out of control. There have been some extensive grass fires that have been attributed to irresponsible visitor behaviour. The problem is compounded by the lack of finance to establish firebreaks in the vegetation. Old roads that acted as fire breaks have been rendered inadequate as a result of bush encroachment.

There was one fire in 1995 and two in 1996, none of which were attributable to tourists. In the tourist surveys during 1996 there were four reports of fire damage.

3.6 Monitoring and Managing of Visitor Impacts

A 1981 draft Policy Document for Gonarezhou National Park and Malapati Safari Area includes a Declaration of Policy.

"Permissible visitor use will be zoned and the activities of visitors will be controlled by regulations augmented by park rules. Staff facilities and visitor amenities will be subject to a defined development plan, which will recognise the paramountcy of recognising the Park's and Safari Area's basic natural values."

In order to effect sound management of the park and to provide amenities for visitors with minimal conflict between the two, a system of zoning was advocated in the 1981 document. Four zones were envisaged according to the level of development and type of use permitted in an area: Special Conservation; Wilderness; Wildland Recreation, where low levels of visitor activity are encouraged, and Recreation where the greatest intensity of visitor activity will be available year round.

The first park plan completed in 1974 proposed the construction of 515 km of game viewing roads to supplement the existing network of 240 km. It was envisaged that a maximum of 156 vehicles should be permitted to use the roads at any one time, giving an overall density of one vehicle per 5 km. Little of this work was undertaken. 16 of 31 proposed picnic sites were provided and one of three proposed gates. Two

interpretation centres were proposed but not built.[7] A second park plan was commenced in 1986 but not completed.

Currently there is no formal monitoring and management of visitor impacts. As visitor numbers increase, environmental impact management will become a more important issue for park managers. Until that time, it is unlikely that scarce funds will be diverted to establish monitoring and management frameworks. General issues and recommendations regarding visitor impact monitoring and management are addressed in Chapter 3 of the comparative report of this project.

7 Gonarezhou Plan 1994, p.4.

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4. PARK FINANCES

4.1 Introduction

Two of the objectives of the project are addressed in this section are to identify:

- the net contribution of tourism development to conservation and restoration, and assess the commercial and regulatory conditions necessary for increasing the contribution.
- methods of providing sustainable revenues from tourism for conservation.

Protected areas are coming under increasing pressure to justify their existence in economic terms and in Zimbabwe the management of parks is having to come to terms with a major change in their use. The facilities in Zimbabwe's parks were established primarily to provide accommodation for self-catering white domestic tourists. During the struggle for national independence the parks were under-utilised and the facilities deteriorated. Following independence, the usage of parks rapidly increased but the client base shifted towards foreign tourists and the low propensity of the majority black population to visit was identified as an issue.

There has been more debate about the pricing of national parks in Zimbabwe than in India or Indonesia. This is in part because of the recognition in Zimbabwe that its Parks and Wildlife Estate is a significant tourist attraction and that its national parks are sold in competition with other parks in sub-Saharan Africa. In 1980 foreign visitors had comprised 17% of overnight visitors to national parks. By 1990 foreign visitors comprised 56% of overnight visitors to the parks and became the majority users of the accommodation.[1] Traditionally charges for access to national parks, and for the use of the accommodation facilities in the parks, had been based upon the philosophy that the national heritage should be available free, or at a nominal charge. The Parks Estate has been priced as merit goods.

As international tourists became the predominant users of the Parks Estate, the issue arose as to whether or not Zimbabwe should subsidise the use of its heritage by its more affluent, predominantly white, citizens and foreign tourists. The Zimbabwean tourist industry was, and is, pursuing a high spending, low volume strategy, marketing up-market tourism products. It was argued that the DNPWLM was subsidising foreign tourists from the national exchequer, and undercutting both commercial farmers and communities on communal land who might otherwise wish to enter the wildlife tourism market using private or communally owned land.[2]

The figures for overnight visitors at Gonarezhou reflect the trend. Zimbabwe's most remote park, both sections of Gonarezhou shows a considerable shift from national to

1 Goodwin, H et al Zimbabwe, Interim Report to the ODA, :50 (March 1995).
2 Child G & Heath R Underselling National Parks in Zimbabwe: The Implications for Rural Sustainability Society and Natural Resources 3 215-227 (1990).

foreign users. The large number of South African (regional) visitors is in large part attributable to its location.

Region of	Chipinda		Mabalauta	
Origin	1991/2	1995/6	1991/2	1995/6*
Zimbabwean	88.4	53.4	89.3	67.0
Regional	4.6	37.7	8.7	23.5
RoW	7.0	8.9	2.0	9.6

Table 4.1. Overnight Visitors to Gonarezhou by Region of Origin (%).

* includes day visitors

Heath and Child posed the issues clearly:

> *"State-subsidised social services are justified in a developing country such as Zimbabwe, with its limited budget (and the many urgent calls on it), only for legitimate services…. to disadvantaged elements in the community. It is thus important to decide whether the Estate is to be viewed as a public amenity or as a more or less self-supporting enterprise contributing as much as possible to rural development."*
> *"Present pricing structures in the Estate favour foreigners and those Zimbabweans best able and probably most willing to pay more. This raises the moral question as to whether the state can afford to support the leisure of its more affluent citizens and foreign visitors."*[3]

Child and Heath argued that park tariffs "should not continue to be left purely to bureaucratic judgement but should follow free marketing principles as far as possible, taking into account probable market distortions."[4]

In 1993 the Jansen Report was commissioned to recommend 'allocative' strategies which would enable the DNPWLM to maximise revenue within "limits determined by environmental and equity goals."[5] Jansen's report was based on a number of principles. The access system should be more transparent, foster competition, encourage investment and avoid unfair competition between the Estate (public) and the private sector. These objectives should be achieved with a framework established by environmental and equity criteria. Zimbabweans should not be denied access by prices set for foreign tourists as it is their heritage and Jansen asserted "it is important to establish a lobby to ensure the continued existence and support of the Parks and Wildlife Estate." As Jansen pointed out it is Zimbabweans who bear both the direct fiscal burden and the opportunity costs of maintaining the Parks and Wildlife Estate and she advocated a 60% discount for Zimbabwean citizens based on purchasing power parities.[6] To encourage access by the rural and urban poor Jansen advocated that NGOs be encouraged to develop dormitory style accommodation to be made available to school children and disadvantaged groups. [7]

3 ibid. p. 223.
4 Ibid. 224.
5 ibid. 2 & 44.
6 ibid. 2,\24.
7 ibid.

Jansen pointed out that the pricing system in the early 1990's did not clear the market and that a lottery rationing system had to be used to determine the allocation of the chalets at peak seasons of the year. Given that all the revenues generated went directly to the treasury, there was no incentive for DNPWLM to maximise revenue within environmental limits.

> "Revenues are considerably lower than they would be if there were incentives for the Department and its employees to optimise their revenue from sale of access to their resources within given ecological constraints."[8]

Jansen advocated market based accommodation and entrance fees, and auctions for tour operator permits and hunting concessions. She estimated a seven fold increase in income for the Parks and Wildlife Estate. These reforms would also, she argued, encourage DNPWLM to sell access to the parks for a financial return, rather than seeking to provide services themselves "increasing both their financial and power bases".[9]

> "It would not be likely, nor advisable, that this emphasis on own provision of services would continue under restructuring if DNPWLM were to obtain direct benefits from the sale of access. They control the resource on behalf of the nation and are likely to be most economically efficient using their comparative advantage, retaining primary producer status and selling access to the resource. This would mean that apart from effective development and marketing of access they can concentrate on monitoring the ecological balance. As a large organisation they are less likely to be effective at establishing, managing and marketing numerous small tourist, hunting or river operations. If they were to venture into these then they would have to form separate companies and compete only at auctions with the private sector in order to avoid establishing unfair competitions and monopoly control."[10]

Jansen argued that the "primary function of the commercial operations of DNPWLM (or whatever new agency may arise) will be to maximise revenue from the sale of access to its resources and services, within the environmental limits and subject to specific citizen access."[11]

Jansen used rates for admission and accommodation elsewhere in sub-Saharan Africa to estimate what the market would bear and showed that park admission fees and accommodation charges were lower than others in the region . With a new pricing and access system she estimated that revenue could be raised five fold by increasing entrance and accommodation fees and auctioning tour operator concessions and hunting.[12]

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8 Jansen, D J Investigation and Recommendations on Access, Pricing and Control over Resources and Services of DNPWLM 1 Wildlife Management and Environmental Conservation Project, DNPWLM, 1993,

9 from 5.7mUSD to 35.7mUSD p.9

10 ibid. 11.

11 ibid. 7.

12 ibid.

The report recommended that the DNPWLM should, "at a minimum", have control over revenues "and the responsibility for determining how best to utilise them in meeting its objectives."[13] Without this the report's recommendation would be invalid.
Jansen cautioned that unless the necessary funds were available to enable DNPWLM to compete with the private sector and other national parks systems in neighbouring countries "charges based on these alternative sources of supply simply will not be appropriate (or sustainable)".[14] Jansen recommended that equity/revenue and environmental/revenue trade-offs should be regularly be undertaken in order to justify policy, for example, in closing off a section of a park or limiting access.[15]

Jansen was insistent that prices should not be based on an x% increase over existing rates, the objective was defined as "profit maximisation subject to equity and environmental constraints."[16]
Jansen was not alone in advocating the repricing of admission to Zimbabwe's parks at regional rates. Wetenhall[17] had shown in 1991 that the cost of admission for a day visit for four foreign adults in a car was Z$5.20 in Zimbabwe, compared with Z$6.8 in Malawi; Z$24.20 in South Africa; Z$33.50 in Kenya; Z$90 in Tanzania and Z$103.50 in Botswana. Heath did similar calculations in 1995 in US$, Zimbabwe was US$9.40. This compared unfavourably with Kruger US$27.80, Zambia US$75 and Botswana US$77.78.[18]

Heath also produced figures showing the number of tour operators utilising Zimbabwe's national parks. In 1985 there were 11, by 1990 there were 58, by 1992 108 and in 1993 217. These figures suggest that the industry was still regarded as profitable and worth entering.[19]

4.2 Capturing the Value of National Parks in Zimbabwe

In January 1995 Brown, Ward and Jansen reported on capturing the value of Zimbabwe's national parks. [20] They argued that Hwange and Mana Pools are a "national treasure for Zimbabwe" offering exceptional opportunities for international tourists to view and photograph wildlife in a natural setting, and that the money spent in visiting them does not reflect the total value of the experience. Financing the shortfall on the national parks budget is "just one of many worthwhile expenditures to make"[21] from national budgets. The parks substantially benefit the international tourist but "there is no corresponding payment for these benefits to Zimbabwe."[22] The purpose of their report was to identify and estimate the consumer surplus in monetary terms and to estimate the non-resident demand using contingent valuation and travel

13 ibid. 44.
14 ibid.
15 ibid 45.
16 ibid 46.
17 Wetenhall, P (1991) Tourism in Matabeleland North (DNPWLM).
18 Heath R Tourism Demand and Pricing Study: Selected Eastern and Southern African Countries (Agrar-und Hydrotechnik GmbH (1995).
19 ibid. 14.
20 Brown, G, Ward, M and Jansen, D J Capturing the Value of National Parks in Zimbabwe (ZWLMEC/World Bank 1/95).
21 Ibid.
22 ibid. 5.

cost methods. The research was undertaken in September 1993, with over 250 tourists being interviewed.
The findings included:

- mean trip spend US$2000
- average park entry fee US$1.25/day
- travel cost estimated value US$58/day
- average days spent in the parks 5 days
- on travel cost valuation the "lost" consumer value was estimated at US$25m
- willingness to pay estimated value US$50/day (US$485 per trip)
- recommended a daily entrance fee of US$39 producing a five fold increase in revenue
- estimated the net loss of tourist expenditure from a simple fee increase at US$1.5m annually

A "more subtle fee structure", adapted to demand from different segments of the market, could reduce the loss of tourists and their expenditures. They advocated the development of a selective pricing policy "not only because it [would] generate even more revenue for the park system but also because inevitably parks are managed for many purposes in addition to revenue maximisation". Pricing can reflect multiple management goals.[23]

4.2.1 Changes in Fee Structures

At the end of 1996 the DNPWLM became a fund holding parastatal, being given responsibility for its own funds and having its government grant capped. It is clear that parks in Zimbabwe will become increasingly dependent on the revenues that they generate and in particular tourism revenues. Tourism is only one of the sources of revenue to the DNPWLM. Others include trophy fees, live sales and government grants in recognition of the importance of conserving national heritage.

There are plans in the Chipinda Pool section of Gonarezhou to auction the concessions for camp sites envisaged in the recent park plans and some discussion of the possibilities of live game sales. There is optimism that the World Bank GEF facility of US$50m will be made available to Gonarezhou and the south-east lowveld, but at the time of writing this decision is still pending.

Although the DNPWLM has become a parastatal, fees are still being set centrally. They were substantially increased from November 1st 1996, for example the entrance fee for a Zimbabwean citizen was doubled (from 10 to Z$20) and for a foreigner the fee increased from Z$20 (US$1.80) to US$10. There was a vigorous campaign against the increases and they were halved in January, with the day admission fee for a Zimbabwean reverting to Z$10 and the day admission fee for foreign tourists set at US$5 for a single day entry. Until November 1996 there was a seven day rate of Z$20 for Zimbabweans and Z$40 for foreign tourists. These have now been abolished. This

23 ibid. 28.

has significantly increased the cost of, for example, a 3 day visit from Z$20 to Z$60 for a Zimbabwean and from Z$40 (US$3.58[24]) to US$15 for a foreigner.

4.3 Gonarezhou

Wildlife conservation is the overwhelmingly dominant land use in the Park and there has to date been only limited usage for non-consumptive tourism. This is made clear in its mission statement

> *'Gonarezhou National Park will contribute to the protected areas system of Zimbabwe by protecting the integrity of the wild and largely undeveloped south eastern lowveld landscape and the associated plants and animals within the park. The park's remoteness and rugged, harsh environment are special qualities that will be sustained for park visitor experiences….*
>
> *Gonarezhou National Park will sustain opportunities for visitor use, education and appreciation that are based on the special qualities of the area. Visitors will be encouraged to experience and interact with the park environment without jeopardising its ecological integrity.*
>
> *Co-ordinated and co-operative approaches to natural resource management and tourism involving all interested groups will best ensure that the park contributes significantly to local, regional, national and international conservation.'*[25]

4.3.1 Park Administration

Gonarezhou is divided into two distinct units: Chipinda Pools and Mabalauta. Chipinda Pools is relatively close (59km) to Chiredzi and the main road, and it is from here that the northern part of the park is managed. Chipinda Pools has 80% of the tourists visiting Gonarezhou. Mabalauta is close to the Moçambique border, is difficult to access and receives 20% of the tourists. There is a third gate in the north east of the park used primarily by the Zimbabwe Sun Ltd developments in Mahenye Ward.

Our primary focus was on the Chipinda Pools section of Gonarezhou which is central to tourism development in the lowveld. Mabalauta was too remote to be effectively included in this study. Management is divided with each section having its own warden and staffing, and contact between the two sections is difficult and limited. Most of the data presented here, and in the more detailed case study,[26] related to Chipinda Pools, although some basic statistics on Mabalauta are included.

Park Expenditure and Revenue[27]

The figures presented here are for Chipinda Pools which received 79.15% of the tourists to Gonarezhou in 1995/6.

Park Budget Overall Running Costs

24 At March 7, 1997 exchange rates.
25 DNPWLM 1993, p.7.
26 See below Case Study 1.
27 Where conversions to US$ have been made the annual end- of -period exchange rates published by the IMF are used . For the 1995-6 data the December 1995 rate has been used: US$1=Z$9.3.

Funding is allocated to the park from Head Office in a number of votes, or categories in accordance with the normal practice of a government department.

Vote	Designated Use	1995/96 Annual Allocation	
		Z$	US$
A	Salaries/Allowances	762,864	82,028
B	Transport/Subsistence	176,000	18,924
D	Research/Management/ Conservation	89,000	9,570
	Total	1,027,864	110,522

Table 4.2. Annual Monetary Allocations to Chipinda Pools, 1995/96.

These budgets are not adequate to enable effective patrolling or to maintain the roads within the park. Additional support comes from USAID, Mkwasine Estate, Malilangwe Conservation Trust and the Wildlife Society of Zimbabwe.[28]

4.3.2 Tourism Related Expenditure

This can be broken down into consumables and staff costs.

4.3.2.1 Consumables

50% of the consumables stores budget of Z$48,000 is spent on toilet paper and soap for tourists, i.e. a total of Z$24,000 or US$2,580.

4.3.2.2 Staff

Excluding the Mahenye Gate six scouts spend time on tourism-related duties, manning the entrance gates to the park (Table 4.3). Each spends only 50% of their time on these duties. In addition, time equivalent to two general hands is deployed in maintaining and cleaning campsites. Senior staff management time is estimated at half a post. Thus, the cost of tourism to the park in staff wages is Z$106,595 or US$11,462 (Table #.#).

Location	Number	% of time	Annual Cost (Z$)
Scouts			
South Gate	2	50	20,106
North Gate	4	50	40,212
Scouts Total	6		60,318
General Hands	2	100	31,198
Senior Staff	0.5	50	15,079
Total Staff	8.5		106,595

Table 4.3. Staff time spent on tourism related duties, and associated costs.

28 for details see the case study below.

Total tourism related expenditure is therefore Z$130,595 or US$14,042.

4.3.3 Tourism Revenues

Gonarezhou is a wilderness experience and there are currently very limited opportunities for the park to earn, or for tourists to spend, beyond the gate. Currently the tourist experience is an independent camping experience with supplies being brought in from outside the park by the campers.

Park tourism revenues are shown in the following table. Park tourism revenues are dominated by entrance fees and camping fees, 40% and 44% of total revenue respectively. There is a very poor take-up of the wilderness trails offered by the park.

	Total		Chipinda		Mabalauta	
	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%
Entry	72,167	39.05	49,374	40.86	22,820	35.62
Chalets	25,070	13.56	0	0.00	25,070	39.13
Camping	57,616	31.17	53,596	44.38	4,020	6.27
Trails	2,600	1.41	800	0.66	1,800	2.81
Fishing	1,740	0.94	1,740	1.44	0	0
Firewood	9,504	5.14	3,784	3.13	5,720	8.93
Trophies	7,127	3.86	6,700	5.55	427	0.67
Misc.	9,002	4.87	4,792	3.97	4,210	6.57
Total	184,826		120,786		64,067	

Table 4.4 .Z$ Revenue from the Park in 1995/96, excluding Tour Operators.

4.3.3.1 Tourism Revenue Related to Expenditure

Tour Operators have been excluded from the analysis at this stage because they have a very considerable impact on the finances of Chipinda Pools and they are dealt with separately below. Chipinda Pools received 6,179 visitors in 1995/6. The excess of tourism related expenditure over tourism revenue is Z$9,809, giving a deficit per visitor of Z$1.58. This makes no allowance for depreciation (the tourism assets are largely natural) nor for repairs and renewals as there have been none in recent years.

Chipinda Pools	Total		Tourism Related	
Expenditure	1,027,864	100%	130,595	100%
Tourism Related Revenue	120,786	11.75%	120,786	92.5%
Difference	907,078	88.25%	9,809	7.5%
Deficit per visitor	146.80		1.58	

Table 4.5.Chipinda Pools Revenues and Expenditures 1995/6 in Z$ excluding Tour Operators.

The primary function of the Gonarezhou National Park is the conservation of a wilderness area. The park is currently significantly under-funded and is unable to maintain its patrolling activities. Currently the Chipinda Pools section of the park earns in revenue only 11.75% of the budget allocated to it by government.

Chipinda Pools	Total		Tourism Related	
Expenditure	110,523	100%	14,042	100%
Tourism Related Revenue	12,988	11.75%	12,988	92.5%
Difference	97,535	88.25%	1054	7.5%
Deficit per visitor	15.78		0.17	

Table 4.6 Chipinda Pools Revenues and Expenditures 1995/6 in US$ excluding Tour Operators.

The cost of admitting tourists into the Chipinda Pools section of the park is ±US$14,000, and, excluding tour operators, the revenue is only 92.5% of this figure, with no allowance for renewal and repair of facilities. Chipinda Pools had 6,179 visitors in 1995/6, meaning that each visitor is subsidised US$15.78 if the total costs of administering the Chipinda section are attributed to tourism; and 17 cents if only the current tourism administration costs are used as the basis for the calculation.

There are too many uncertainties for it to be sensible to attempt to forecast the impact of the changes in fees announced, at the end of 1996, on the revenue from independent tourists at Chipinda Pools. It is likely that tourists (foreign and Zimbabwean alike) will switch to parks where they are more likely to see game and that there will be an overall reduction in Zimbabwean visitation. Although the cost of single day admission to parks has not been increased this is not the usual form of visitation and for most Zimbabweans and most parks it is not practicable.

From January 1997 the seven day rate has been abolished, and although the single day rate has not been increased, this has a major effect on the cost of visiting a park for more than 24 hours. There is now a private vehicle charge of Z$50 per day. In October 1996 the cost for a group of four adult Zimbabweans, excluding camping fees, of spending three nights in the park would have been Z$40. The comparable cost in 1997 is Z$270.

4.3.3.2 Willingness to Pay Increased Fees

The survey of tourists conducted for this project included questions on willingness to pay increases in park admission fees. Because visitor pay per group in a vehicle, the

questions were phrased in multiples of the admission charges that they had paid to enter prior to being interviewed When presented with a hypothetical doubling of the cost of park entrance 21% indicated that this would deter them, for a four fold increase 76% of current visitors would be deterred.

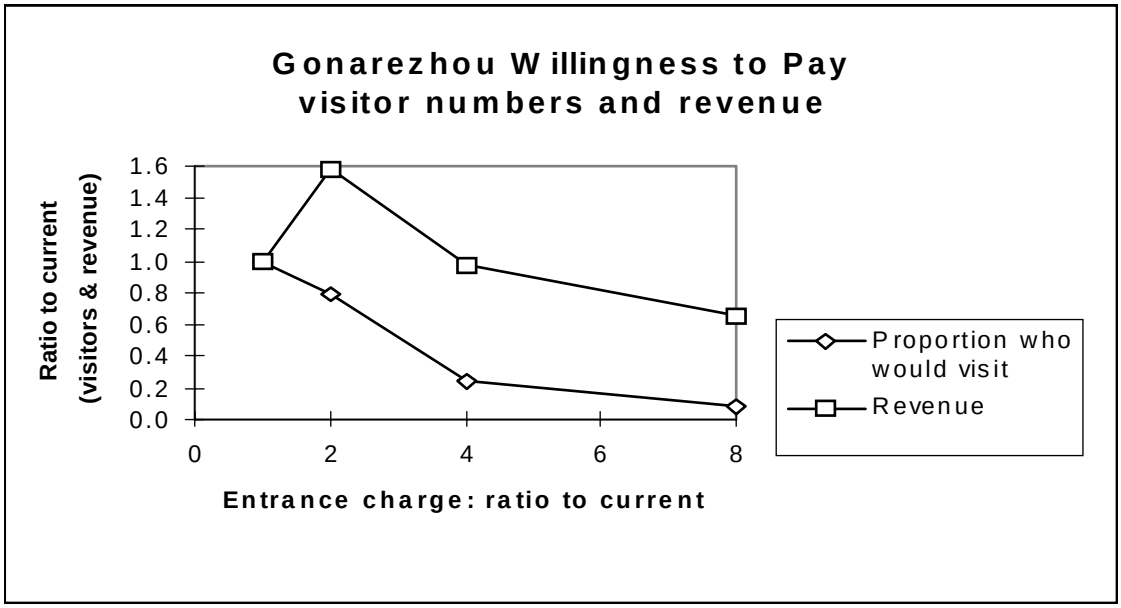

Figure 4.1. Willingness to pay to visit Gonarezhou

These results show that the potential to increase revenues to Gonarezhou for individual, non-packaged, tourists is very limited.

4.3.3.3 Tour Operators

Very few tour operators are registered to operate in Gonarezhou National Park. In 1992 there were 5 vehicles registered.[29] In 1996 three operators were registered. At the time of writing it is not yet clear how many tour operators will register in 1997. Mungwezi was registered in 1992 and was still registered in 1996. Wilderness Safaris registered one vehicle for part of the year and operated from Nduna. Chipinge Rural District Council registered increasing numbers of vehicles on behalf of Zimbabwe Sun Ltd. during 1996 at Z$20,000 each. These vehicles were registered for varying parts of the year and were excluded from the previous calculations.

Chipinge Rural District Council will register 8 vehicles on behalf of Zimbabwe Sun Ltd.'s developments in Mahenye Ward for 1997. Zimbabwe Sun Ltd. require 8 safari vehicles to service the 44 beds in two lodges. At 1996 fee levels, Zimbabwe Sun Ltd. was charged Z$20,000 (US$2,150) per vehicle. This "block fee" covered an unlimited number of entrances and there were no additional charges for passengers.

By the end of 1996 Zimbabwe Sun Ltd. was operating 6 vehicles. Mungwezi and Wilderness Safaris had registered one vehicle each. The fee income from 8 vehicles at the end of 1996 amounted to Z$160,000 (US$17,200) in a full year. Had 8 vehicles been registered throughout 1996 then the revenues to the park can be recalculated on

29 Jansen Report.

the basis of this assumption. This level of tour operator use effectively doubled the tourism revenue generated in the park making a profit on tourism related expenditure and equivalent to one quarter of the cost of running the park in 1995/6.

Chipinda Pools	Total		Tourism Related	
Expenditure	110,523	100%	[30]16,202	100%
Tourism Related Revenue	30,188	27.3%	30,188	
Difference	80,335	deficit	13,986	surplus
Deficit per visitor	There are no figures on tour operator clients in the Park			

Table 4.7. Chipinda Pools Revenues and Expenditures 1995-6 in US$[31] Estimated including Tour Operators.

Using Zimbabwe Sun Ltd. projections of occupancy at Chilo and Mahenye Lodges it is possible to make an estimate of the level of fees which Zimbabwe Sun Ltd. is likely to be contributing to Gonarezhou in 1997. The cost of registering 8 vehicles on a "block fee" basis in 1996 would have been Z$160,000 equivalent to US$14,347 at 7 March 1997 exchange rates.[32]

The estimate for 1997 can be calculated using Zimbabwe Sun Ltd.'s projections of its bed occupancy.

It will register 8 vehicles at US$5,000 each	US$40,000
Assuming 40% bed occupancy 6424 bed nights and one park entry per bed night	
6424 day entrances @US$5 (the tour operator clients rate)	US$32,120
US$5 per driver/guide at one per vehicle assume average vehicle occupancy of 3	
2141 vehicles entrances @ US$5	US$10,705
Total	US$82,825
Cost per bed night US$12.9 (Z$144)	

On the "block fee" system DNPWLM would have earned revenue of US$14,347 from Zimbabwe Sun Ltd. vehicles, with the new fee structure the revenue to the park is forecast at US$82,825 With the new fee structure the forecast income is 5.8 times that figure. On the 1996 figures this would enable the Chipinda Pools section of the Gonarezhou National Park to meet the self-funding objective, assuming no reduction in the independent park visitor revenues. The additional cost to the park of managing the Zimbabwe Sun Ltd. tourism is one scout to register entry at the Mahenye Gate.

It is not possible to forecast the impact on Mungwezi Safaris and Wilderness Safaris since they both have access to other game viewing areas in the Conservancies and on Malilangwe. Zimbabwe Sun Ltd. is committed to use Gonarezhou and cannot divert its business elsewhere. This puts the Chipinda Pools section of Gonarezhou in a very strong position, one which will be replicated at many of Zimbabwe's national parks.

30 Includes on additional scout committed to tourism duties at Mahenye Gate, Z$20,106 (US$2,160).
31 At the March 7 1997 exchange rate.
32 Z$11.1525=US$1

4.3.4 Park Development

Full details of the plans for further development within the park are in the case study. The financing for most of the proposed development is dependent upon the outcome of the continuing discussions between the World Bank and the government. There is optimism in the lowveld that this money will become available, but it is not yet agreed. Without external funding the only viable strategy would be to sell the concession rights to some of the campsites. The success of this strategy would be dependent upon there being clients willing to purchase, and develop, concessions within the park. However, development will need to be very carefully controlled if the primary asset of the park, its wilderness quality, is not to be jeopardised.

The development of additional lodges on the perimeter of the park, using Gonarezhou for game drives, is an attractive prospect from a park finances perspective. However, the game viewing is relatively poor and with the increase in the cost of game viewing for tour operators in the parks, lodge developers can be expected to look very carefully at the profitability of such operations.

The tourist questionnaire identified a number of services which the park, or the park working with local people, could provide. Many of the activities would not require any significant amount of capital to establish them. 107 visitors completed the question which asked about activities in which they had taken part, and the activities in which they would like to participate. Clearly this only records the preferences of current users who filled in the questionnaire, but it does provide one indicator of the kinds of activities which it is worth considering providing. For full details see the final section of the Gonarezhou case study.

The provision of more opportunities for game viewing from hides and platforms would reduce the impacts of vehicles on the park and the disturbance which they cause to wildlife. However it is difficult to envisage how the provision of these facilities could be charged for, unless they were rented out.

Night time viewing from a hide or platform, learning about wildlife tracking, night game drives, walking safaris, wilderness training are all activities in which more than 30% of respondents would like the opportunity to participate. These all present opportunities for the park management to earn revenue either directly by providing the services, or indirectly, by granting permits and concessions for operations in the park. It may also be possible to devise ways in which additional jobs could be created in the local community for people to provide these services in the park after suitable training. However, these activities would all require support vehicles and/or licensed professional guides because of the presence of dangerous game. Night sky viewing, boat trips and horse riding are also relatively expensive to provide and would require capital.

By contrast a guided walk around a village, a bush dinner or a meal in a village, a genuinely local music and dance performance, local story telling and theatre, and buying crafts from the maker in the village could all be provided by local people with very little or no capital outlay. However, it is difficult to envisage how these developments could advantage the park financially.

Gonarezhou National Park is likely to remain very dependent upon the entrance and camping fees which it levies on independent visitors and upon the use fees which it levies on tour operators. There may also be some potential for the auctioning of concessions within the park. It is difficult to predict the impact of the fee increase introduced from January 1997 on independent visitors and new tour operators. Zimbabwe Sun Ltd. have a large investment, and with no alternative source of game viewing, will continue to use the park intensively and pay for that usage.

Given the relatively poor game viewing it is likely that the fee increases will displace independent visitors who face significant price increases. Given the wilderness nature of Gonarezhou, and the already relatively low visitor numbers, it is difficult to foresee a rapid development of services in the park. For the immediate future Gonarezhou will be heavily dependent upon revenues from Zimbabwe Sun Ltd.'s two lodges. On their rates for international tourists, the costs of entrance are significant, but marginal. On the current "special opening offer" rate of Z$765 the estimated Z$144 per bed night is a far from marginal cost.

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5. THE LOCAL ECONOMY

This Chapter addresses three of the objectives of the project:

- "identify methods of providing sustainable revenues from tourism for development[1]"
- "raise the income and related benefits which local people gain from tourism based on biodiversity[2]"
- "identify the local indigenous people's incomes from the sites and identify the additional economic benefit which could accrue to them from tourism based on biodiversity.[3]"

Although the tourism potential of the south east lowveld is considerable, there is very little experience of tourism in the area. There were 7,800 visitors to Gonarezhou in 1995/6, of which half were day visitors. 90% of all visitors were Zimbabwean.

This section contains four parts:

1. a review of the survey evidence on local people's attitudes to tourism and their perceptions of the potential benefits.
2. a review of the survey evidence on the value of tourism to local businesses.
3. a review of the evidence on employment and incomes drawn from the case studies.
4. a review of the evidence from the case studies on the potential for further economic activity and of the non-employment benefits currently accruing to local people in the lowveld.

5.1 LOCAL PEOPLE'S ATTITUDES TO TOURISM AND PERCEPTIONS OF POTENTIAL BENEFIT

During 1996 Tovadini Kemusi, a recent University of Zimbabwe graduate, was employed by the University of Zimbabwe to organise the surveying of local people, local enterprises and tourists in the south east lowveld. Two surveys of local people were conducted, the first asking relatively open questions, the second more structured. Resources did not permit the provision of transport (other than by bus) and it was therefore decided that Mr Kemusi would travel to the designated survey sites either with Mr Shumba (Save Valley Conservancy Community Liaison Officer) or with members of the CAMPFIRE Association when they were visiting the survey sites. All the questionnaires were administered in face to face interviews by Mr Kemusi, who noted the responses on the questionnaires. There is no word in Shona for tourist, the closest translation is visitor. Often Mr Kemusi had to explain, in Shona, what a tourist was but there may have been confusion between tourists and other transient visitors (and even migrants) when answering questions.

1 Principal objective a).
2 Principal objective d).
3 Scientific/Technical Objective b).

5.1.1 The First Survey

Within these constraints Mr Kemusi was asked to try to achieve a random sample within the following parameters for the first survey: 50:50 gender split; 30% married men; 30% senior women; 15% unmarried men; 15% unmarried women; 10% children. In addition Mr Kemusi was asked to seek out, in each village, ward councillors, chiefs, kraal heads, head teachers, agricultural extension workers, a senior female teacher and a nurse from the clinic.

The gender split was 50.8% male and 49.2% female; 61.9% of the sample was married. The age distribution was heavily skewed towards the 21-35 year olds. The mean age was 32.9 years, the median 29 and the mode 26. The youngest respondent was 9 and the oldest 85. 523 people were interviewed in total in 9 areas.

Age Range	Frequency	Percent
Under 21	86	17.3
21 - 35	233	46.8
36 - 45	89	17.9
46 - 55	40	8.0
Over 55	50	10.0
Total Sample	498	100.0

Number of missing cases 25

Table 5.1. The ages of respondents interviewed in the first survey.

Area	Frequency	Percent
Bikita	35	6.7
Chibuwe	50	9.6
Chipinge	50	9.6
Chiredzi	50	9.6
Chizvirizvi	50	9.6
Gudo	88	16.8
Manjinji Pan	50	9.6
Matibi 2	50	9.6
Nyangambe	100	19.1
Total Sample	523	100.0

Table 5.2. The home villages of respondents interviewed in the first survey.

Bikita District

- Bikita - Near the northern end of Save Valley Conservancy. Interviews conducted in Benzi village and Nehanda resettlement scheme, and another village on the Mutare/Masvingo road.

Chipinge District

- Chibuwe - on the east of the Save River adjacent to Humani Ranch (part of Save Valley Conservancy). The owner of the adjacent ranch has met with the local community and has a relationship with the community surrounding an irrigation scheme. Questionnaires were also administered in Maronga village directly north of Chibuwe, adjacent to Humani.

- Chipinge - Respondents were chosen at two urban sites; Chipinge town, and Checheche growth point along the main north-south road east of the Save Valley Conservancy.

Chiredzi District

- Gudo - the Northern end of Sangwe CL, adjacent to Save Valley Conservancy and where Clive Stockil (Senuko, Save Valley Conservancy) is encouraging and supporting the community in constructing a traditional village.

- Nyangambe - a resettlement scheme, between Benzi and Mkwasine villages, which lies between Save Valley Conservancy and Chiredzi River Conservancy. There are aspirations between Save Valley Conservancy and Nyangambe to develop some form of joint venture.

- Chizvirizvi - A resettlement area adjacent to Malilangwe Conservation Trust. This is the first township along the road to Mahenye from the tar road.

- Matibi 2 - A ward adjacent to the western border of Gonarezhou NP, stretching from the Runde River to the Mwenezi River. Questionnaires were administered in the villages close to the bridge over the Runde River close to Chipinda Pools.

- Manjinji Pan - An area south of Mabalauta and the Mwenezi River, towards the south-west corner of Gonarezhou NP. One of the watering points in this village, a large pond, is a sanctuary zone, much visited by birders, most of whom are Zimbabwean.

- Chiredzi Town - questionnaires conducted in the town centre and at the bus terminal.

The occupations of the respondents were diverse, but this was the question with highest number of missing cases (44.7%).

Livelihood	Frequency	Percent
Nurse	2	0.7
Small scale crafts/repairs	5	1.7
Retail/sales	9	3.1
Unemployed	10	3.5
Home/parent	21	7.3
Other	25	8.7
Teacher[4]	38	13.1
Student	72	24.9
Farming/agriculture labour	107	37.0
Total Sample	289	100.0

Number of missing cases 234

Table 5.3. The occupations of the respondents interviewed in the first survey.

4 The large proportion of teachers in the sample does not have any significant effect on the overall responses of the sample population.

5.1.1.1 Attitudes to Tourism and Tourists

A series of questions were asked as straight yes/no answers requiring people to agree or disagree with a series of statements,

Question	Yes signifying Agreement	Missing Cases
It is good to have tourists here.	94.8%	0
Tourism has created more jobs for local people.	49.4%	1
Tourism exploits local people.	36.2%	1
Tourism would benefit me and my family.	74.1%	1
Tourism benefits only a few, already wealthy, people.	63.9%	2
Tourism would benefit our community.	71.3%	4
Local businesses benefit from tourism.	67.9%	6

Table 5.4. Responses to Yes/No questions

There was a very high level (94%) of support for the principle of having tourists in the area, although 36% of the sample felt that tourism exploits local people. There were high expectations of the contribution which tourism could make to the community (71.3%) and to the respondent and their family (74.1%). However, only 49.4% agreed that tourism had already created more jobs, 63.9% agreeing that tourism benefits only a few, already wealthy, individuals. 67.9% agreed that local businesses benefit from tourism.

In Nyamgambe only 18% agreed that tourism exploits local people. This may be a consequence of their relatively low exposure to tourism and the discussions that they have been having with Save Valley Conservancy and Chiredzi River Conservancy about incorporating some of their land into the conservancies. The largest proportions of people agreed that tourism exploits local people were in areas associated with Gonarezhou (Manjinji, 56% and Matibi 2, 50%). This may be a consequence of an association between tourism and the National Park which is currently of no benefit to local people, whilst they are excluded from use of Gonarezhou.

Bikita	Chiredzi	Chibuwe	Chipinge	Chizvi-rizvi	Gudo	Manjinji Pan	Matibi 2	Nyang-ambe	Chi-squared
Q4. Agree that tourism could benefit them and their family (%)									
68.0	82.4	78.0	72.0	54.0	72.7	80.0	84.0	77.0	17.214 df 8,p<0.05
Q7. Agree that tourism could benefit their community (%)									
84.0	76.5	63.3	54.0	68.0	73.9	63.3	82.0	73.7	18.420 df 8,p<0.05
Q8. Agree that tourism currently benefits a few wealthy people (%)									
42.0	32.4	68.0	44.0	80.0	69.0	92.0	72.0	63.0	59.181 df 8,p<0.05

Sample size: 520.

Table 5.5. Attitudes towards tourism in different villages in the lowveld

The differences is responses to questions 4 and 7 probably reflected individual perceptions of their family's ability and opportunity to become involved with tourism. Chipinge received very few tourists and this was reflected in the answer to Q7. Bikita, Nyangambe and Matibi 2 are all close to areas of tourist interest and activity and Chiredzi is the regional centre which tourists visit to purchase supplies. Chizvirizvi receives benefits from Malilangwe but these are not associated with tourism. Malilangwe's community projects in Chizvirizvi are funded from grant income to the Conservation Trust.

There was considerable local variation in the numbers agreeing that tourism currently only benefits a few, already wealthy, people. This result differed significantly between the areas with 92.0% of people believing this to be true in Manjinji Pan as opposed to only 32.4% in Chiredzi.

There was also significant variation in responses to the statement that local businesses had benefited as a result of tourism. This figure ranged from 88.0% in Manjinji Pan to 54.0% in Chipinge and 52.1% in Chibuwe, which receive very few tourists. The interviews in Bikita were done adjacent to Mutare/Masvingo road and this area would benefit from passing tourists.

Bikita	Chiredzi	Chibuwe	Chipinge	Chizvirizvi	Gudo	Manjinji Pan	Matibi 2	Nyanga-mbe
85.4	82.9	52.1	54.0	66.0	60.9	88.0	74.0	62.6

Sample size: 517 Chi-squared 33.699, df 8p<0.05

Table 5.6. Respondents opinions on whether tourism benefited local businesses

5.1.1.2 Attitudes to Gonarezhou.

No	Question	Yes signifying Agreement	Missing Cases
5	Gonarezhou protects our national heritage	82.2%	6
6	Gonarezhou is for outsiders, people from here do not go there.	43.6%	21

Table 5.7. Local attitudes towards Gonarezhou National Park

The responses varied from 91.3% agreeing in Bikita that Gonarezhou protects national heritage to 72% in Chizvirizi. There was an inverse relationship between the responses to questions 5 and 6.

5.1.1.3 Relationships between ecotourism and the conservation of habitats and wildlife

The hypothesis that local peoples' commitment to conservation was not affected by their attitudes towards and experiences of tourism needed to be examined. This was achieved by carrying out cross-tabulations between Q. 5 (Gonarezhou protects our national heritage?) and all other questions that gave information on peoples' experiences and attitudes towards tourism. Those that believed that Gonarezhou did protect national heritage were assumed to be committed to conservation. Those that hold the opposite view were assumed to be uncommitted to conservation.

The significant results are summarised below :

- Of those people who feel that tourism does not exploit people, 85.5% of them believed that Gonarezhou protects their national heritage whilst only 14.5% do not.
- 63.6% of people in the overall sample believed that Gonarezhou protects their national heritage and that tourism could benefit them and their family. Only 10.7% of people who believed that they and their family would benefit from tourism actually believed that Gonarezhou does not protect their national heritage.
- Almost half of the sample (49.1%) believed both that Gonarezhou protects their national heritage and that the park is not just for outsiders, but local people also. Only 6.8% of people who believed that Gonarezhou is also for local people reported that Gonarezhou did not protect their national heritage.
- The majority of people (60.9%) reported that tourism could benefit their community and that Gonarezhou protected their national heritage. Only 10.3% who felt that tourism could benefit their community reported that Gonarezhou did not protect heritage.
- More than half of the people interviewed (58.2%) reported that tourism benefited local businesses and that Gonarezhou protected their heritage. In direct contrast, only 7.6% of people believed that business benefited but Gonarezhou did not protect heritage.
- The great majority of people (68.8%) would like more contact with tourists and at the same time believed that Gonarezhou protected their national heritage. Only 13.6% of people who would like increased contact felt that Gonarezhou did not protect their heritage. Similarly, 70.5% of people would like to see more tourists in the area and reported that Gonarezhou protected heritage, as opposed to only 14.0% who would like to see more tourists visiting but did not believe that Gonarezhou protected heritage.
- 77.1% of people would like to earn some money from tourism and at the same time believed that Gonarezhou protected their national heritage. Only 15.6% of people would like to earn money but did not feel that Gonarezhou protected their national heritage.

It would appear that the hypothesis is untrue. Local peoples' commitment to conservation appears to be greatly affected by their attitudes towards any experiences of tourism. People appear to be much more committed to conservation if they are expecting to receive a benefit from tourism to either themselves, their family or their community. Those that are supportive of tourism and would like to earn a living from tourism also are much more committed to conservation than those that are not.

In conclusion, it would appear that local people who are expectant of a benefit from tourism, either as an individual or for their community, are more supportive towards conservation of the wildlife with which they live than those who are not. The challenge is to deliver this expected benefit if tourism is to assist in the actual conservation of the area. Tourism must be converted into ecotourism to reap the benefits.

5.1.1.4 People and Wildlife

As part of the same survey people were asked whether wildlife caused problems for themselves or their family. 41.2% of the respondents said that this was the case (26

people did not reply) and they were asked to detail these problems. There responses are listed in Table 5.8.

Problems	Frequency	Percent
Disease	3	1.3
Conservation problem	4	1.7
Take land from people	4	1.7
Danger to people	64	27.8
Danger to crops/livestock	155	67.5
Total Sample	230	100.0

Number of missing cases 49

Table 5.8. Problems associated with wildlife by the respondents.

Bikita	Chiredzi	Chibuwe	Chipinge	Chizvi-rizvi	Gudo	Manjinji Pan	Matibi 2	Nyang-ambe	Chi-squared
41.7	33.3	21.7	4.2	27.3	89.6	58.3	53.1	20.0	150.783 df 8,p<0.05

Table 5.9. Range of responses given by respondents on whether wildlife caused themselves, or their families, problems

There were considerable differences in the answers to this question from one survey area to another, from 89.6% in Gudo to 4.2% in Chipinge. Most of the differences can be explained by proximity to wildlife areas. Both Manjinji Pan (58.3%) and Matibi 2 (53.1%) are adjacent to Gonarezhou National Park, whilst Chipinge is remote from wildlife areas. Gudo (89.6%) has a particular history. In 1989 people were resettled in villages. They had previously been scattered over the land. Moved to villages closer to the road, their crops, which were closer to wildlife areas, were at greater risk from wildlife.

5.1.1.5 Experience of Tourism

Respondents were asked about their experience of tourism.

No	Question	Yes	Missing Cases
11	Have you had tourists in the village/town?	44.4%	7
12	Have you had any direct contact with tourists?	18.2%	11
13	Would you like to have more contact with tourists?	82.4%	41
15	Does tourism have any negative effects?	73.4%	16

Table 5.10. Experiences of respondents with tourism.

The answers to Q11 and Q12 and the very small number of people (2) in our sample who had had contact with tourists reflects the current situation of the lowveld. However the aspiration for more contact with tourists is in the context of recognition that tourism has negative effects.

Contact type	Frequency	Percent
Via job	2	2.7
Derogatory remark	3	4.1
Guide/personal assistance	17	23.0
Passing contact	52	70.3
Total Sample	74	100.0

Number of missing cases 19

Table 5.11. Type of associations respondents had with tourists.

5.1.1.6 Tourism Causes Problems?

We wanted to identify to what extent people in the survey areas felt that tourism had negative effects or caused problems. 73.4% felt that tourism had negative effects and this is probably a measure of awareness (see Q15 above). When we asked more specifically about problems, about half (47.9%) agreed that tourism causes problems**.** If respondents replied in the affirmative to question 10 they were asked to give examples. Some of the answers reflect the difficulty in translating the word "tourist" into Shona and appear to relate to inward migration.

Examples	Frequency	Percent
Racism	7	2.3
Poverty/starvation	9	2.9
Other	10	3.3
Rise in crime	11	3.6
Price rise of local goods	15	4.9
Spy	18	5.9
Resettlement	29	9.4
Land/environmental degradation	33	10.7
Prostitution	39	12.7
Spread of disease	51	16.6
Erosion of culture	85	27.7
Total Sample	307	100.0

Table 5.12. Negative affects of tourism mentioned by respondents.

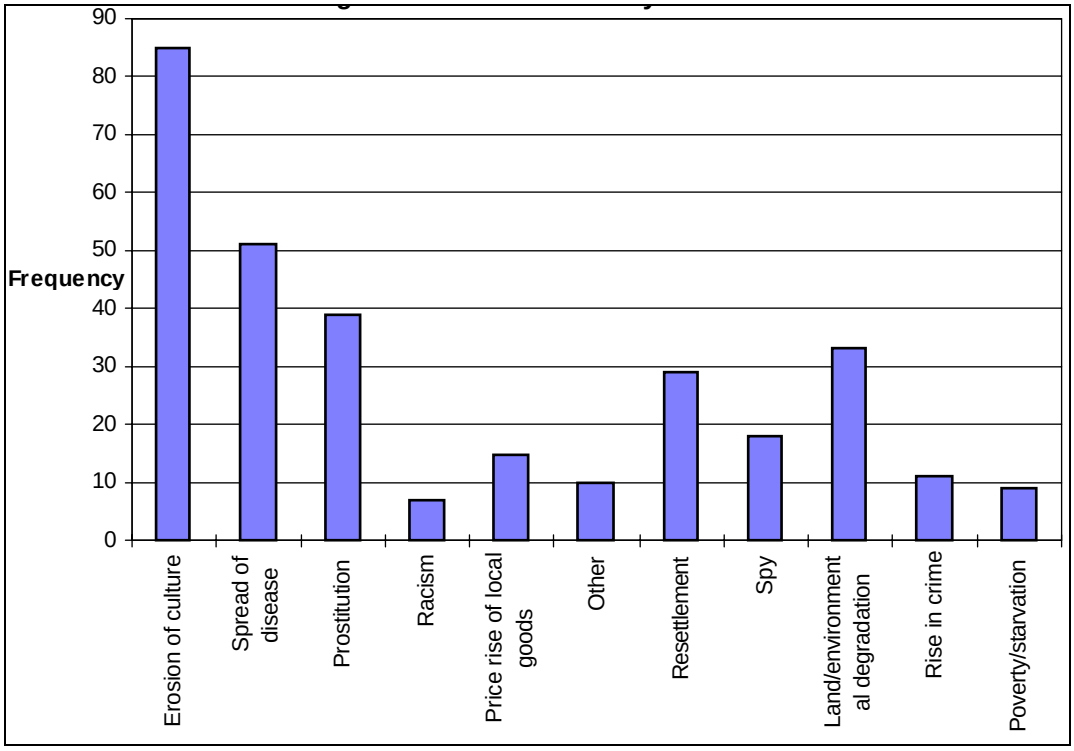

Figure 5.1. Negative aspects of tourism mentioned by respondents.

We further wanted to find out whether or not there was concern about tourism and asked the very open question, "Have you any concerns about tourism?". 461 replied but (161 negatives and 300 missing cases) 88% of the sample did not have any concerns about tourism. However 62 people, 11.85% of the total sample, did have concerns. Of those 49 gave specific examples when asked what concerns they had. Only 9.37% of the total sample gave specific examples of their concerns.

Concern	Frequency
Resettlement	1
Spying	1
Other	2
Land/environmental degradation	2
Spread of disease	3
Racism	5
Price rises of local goods	10
Erosion of culture	24
Total Sample	49

Number of missing cases 19

Table 5.13. Concerns of respondents with tourism.

Bikita	Chiredzi	Chibuwe	Chipinge	Chizvi-rizvi	Gudo	Manji-nji Pan	Matibi 2	Nyang-ambe	Chi-squared
Q10 Agree that tourism causes problems (%)									
54.3	38.2	42.6	52.0	53.1	50.6	20.8	46.0	58.2	21.979 df 8 p<0.05
Q14 Have concerns about tourism.(%)									
50.0	30.3	38.5	31.3	61.5	13.0	6.7	25.0	25.0	27.984 df 8 p<0.05

Table 5.14. Range of opinions of respondents on problems of tourism.

Again there was considerable variation in the numbers agreeing that tourism causes problems. 58.2% agreed with this statement in Nyangambe compared with 20.8% at Manjinji Pan. People living near Manjinji have far more experience of tourism than those living in Nyangambe.

5.1.1.7 Aspirations and Constraints

Finally respondents were asked about their aspirations.

No	Question	Yes signifying Agreement	Missing Cases
16	Would you like to see more tourists visiting here?	84.7%	27
18	Would you like to earn some money from tourism?	92.6%	10

Table 5.15. Opinions of respondents on their aspirations towards tourism.

When asked an unprompted question about how they felt local people should benefit from tourism the respondents gave a variety of responses (Table 5.16).

	Frequency	Percent
Donations	15	3.2
Other	20	4.2
Entertainment	24	5.1
Conserving wildlife	35	7.4
Direct employment	36	7.6
Guiding/personal assistance	47	10.0
Construction/cultural village	48	10.1
Projects	49	10.4
Selling food/farming	65	13.8
Selling goods	133	28.2
Total Sample	472	100.0

Number of missing cases 158

Table 5.16. Respondents preferred methods for earning money from tourism.

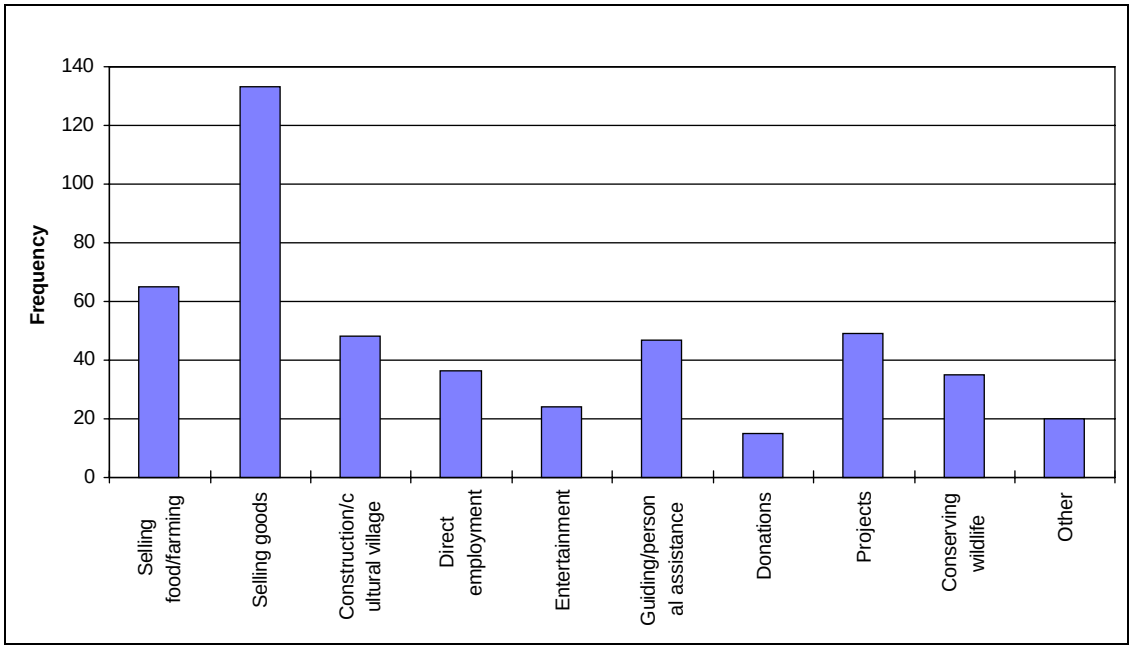

Figure 5.2. Respondents preferred methods for earning money from tourism.

We also wanted to find out what people saw as the main constraints on their becoming involved in the industry. The question was open and we recorded a wide range of reasons. The lack of capital and lack of tourists predominated.

Q20. What do you see as the main difficulties preventing you becoming involved with tourism?

	Frequency	Percent
Poaching	2	0.5
Too old	2	0.5
Too lazy	9	2.0
Probability of droughts	12	2.7
No local attractions	14	3.1
Land/resource ownership	14	3.1
Bad access/transport	21	4.7
Tourists not involved in local culture/communities	22	4.9
Lack of Government support	23	5.1
Lack of information/communication	33	7.3
Too busy with own occupation	35	7.8
Lack of knowledge/qualifications	35	7.8
Lack of tourists	69	15.3
Lack of capital/access to credit	158	35.2
Total Sample	450	100.0

Number of missing cases 177

Table 5.17. Respondents opinions on difficulties preventing tourism.

Lack of capital to support involvement in the industry was cited most frequently (35.2%) and there was also awareness of the current lack of tourists, cited by 15.3%.

7.8% mentioned a lack of knowledge and qualifications in this field and 7.3% mentioned the lack of information and communications.

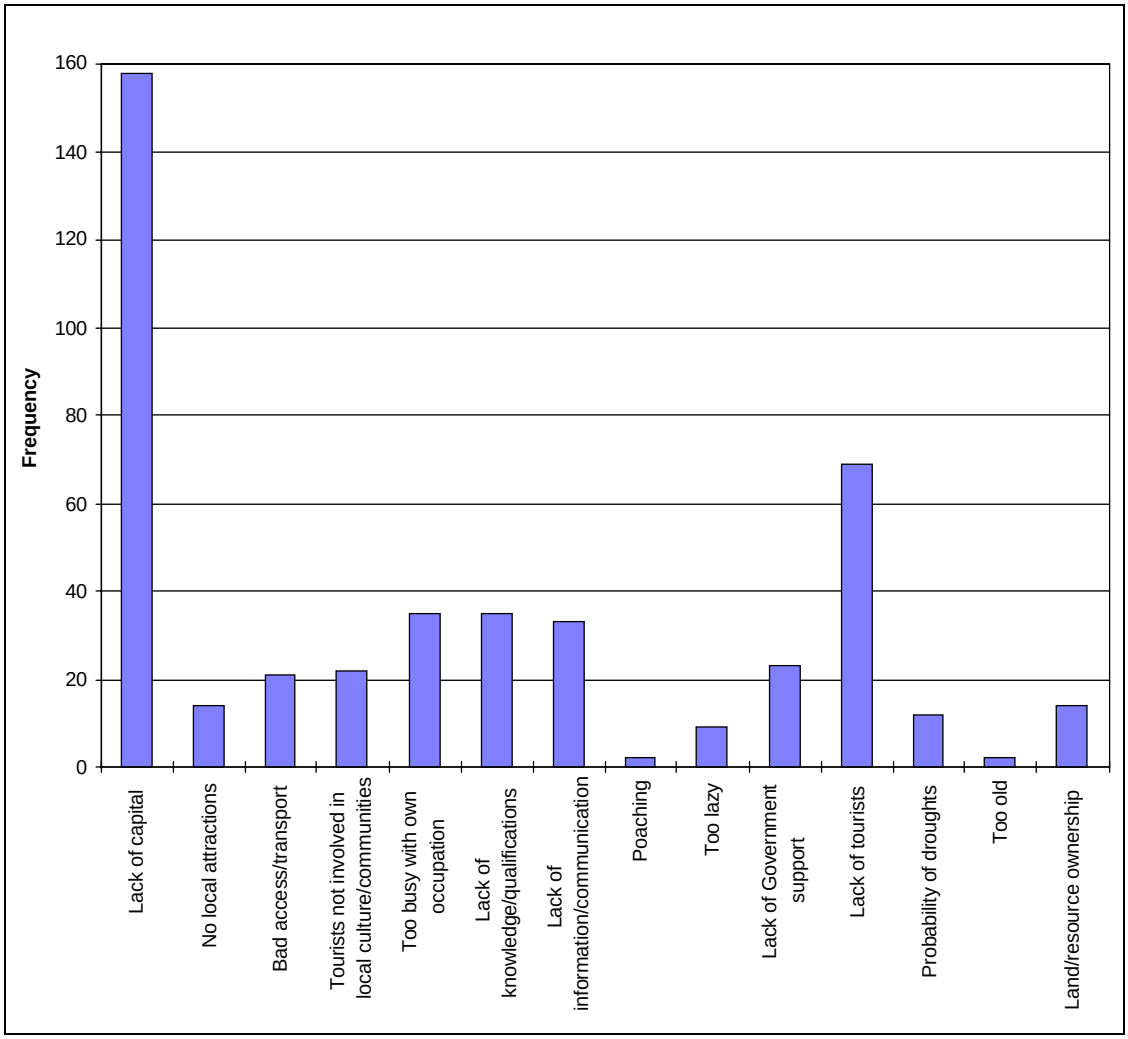

Figure 5.3 Respondents opinions on difficulties preventing tourism.

5.1.2 The Second Survey

A second survey was conducted in five locations in order to put a prompted list of services which local people might like to offer to tourists. The survey was conducted in the areas shown in Table 5.18.

Area	Frequency	Percent
Chibuwe	30	16.8
Chipinge	30	16.8
Chizvirizvi	30	16.8
Gudo	29	16.2
Matibi 2	30	16.8
Nyangambe	30	16.8
TOTAL SAMPLE	179	100.0

Table 5.18. Villages visited in second survey

Almost equal numbers of men and woman made up the sample population (52.5% male, 47.5% female). The largest age group represented in the sample was the 21 - 35 years age group at 42.7% of the population with the mean age being 34. Good coverage of all age ranges was achieved (Fig. 5.4).

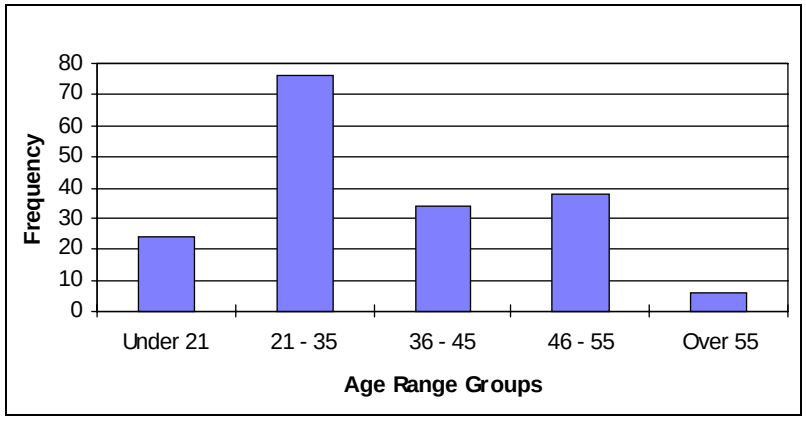

Figure 5.4. Age range of respondents in second survey.

The range of occupations was wide, as shown in Table 5.19**.**

Livelihood	Frequency	Percent
Retail/sales	2	3.4
Nurse	2	3.4
Student	3	5.1
Small scale crafts/repairs	3	5.1
Home/parent	3	5.1
Other	12	20.3
Teacher	14	23.7
Farming/agriculture labour	20	33.9
Total Sample	59	100.0

Number of missing cases 120

Table 5.19. Occupations of respondents in second survey.

The main livelihood cited in the responses was farming, with 33.9% of people involved in this activity as their main form of employment. This was closely followed by teaching at 23.7%. Only 5.1% were students. The sample included a wide range of peoples' livelihoods in the area. There was no survey data available against which we could check whether the sample was representative of the population. However, there were no significant differences in the responses given by different occupational types in this survey.

5.1.2.1 Assistance for Local People to become Involved in Tourism

The focus of the second questionnaire was on the potential for the involvement of local people in tourism. It is unsurprising that respondents were overwhelmingly in agreement with the proposition that local people should be assisted to establish enterprises and become involved in the tourism industry.

Q1. Local people should be helped to earn money from tourism by establishing their own enterprises. Respondents were asked to indicate their strength of feeling on the question on a scale from 1 to 5. The mean response was 4.7 indicating strong agreement with the statement.

	Strongly disagree				Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5
Frequency	0	1	6	38	130
%	0	0.6	3.4	21.7	74.3

Number of missing cases 4

Table 5.20. Range of respondent's opinions on whether local people should be helped to earn money from tourism.

96% of respondents agreed that local people should be helped to earn money from tourism by establishing their own enterprises.

5.1.2.2 Experience of Tourism

The respondents were asked whether tourists had ever been in their village and 144 people (83.2%) said that tourists had not visited. Again this is indicative of the relatively small number of tourists in the lowveld**.** Question 3 showed how few tourists were entering villages, and given the difficulties of translating the word, the figures probably significantly overstate the numbers.

Q3. How many tourists have you seen in your village in the last week?

Visitation Level	Frequency	Percent
Zero	153	88.4
1 - 5	7	4.0
6 - 10	9	5.2
> 10	4	2.3
Total Sample	173	100.0

Number of missing cases 6

Table 5.21. Number of tourists that visited respondents villages.

21 of the respondents (11.9%) said that they had had direct contact with tourists and they were asked to specify the type of contact (Table 5.22.)

Type of Contact	Frequency	Percent
Via Employment	1	5.3
Other	1	5.3
Conversation	4	21.0
Greeting/Passing contact	13	68.4
TOTAL SAMPLE	19	100.0

Number of missing cases 2

Table 5.22. The type of contact respondents had with tourists

Local people have had little contact with tourists. 83.2% of people reported that tourists had never been to their village. Indeed 88.4% reported that no tourists had been to their village in the last week, whilst 9.2% claimed that less than 10 tourists had been to their village during the same period. Only 11.9% of people have had direct contact with tourists. The main form of contact (68.4%) was by way of a greeting whilst passing a tourist. This was followed by general conversation (21.0%).

5.1.2.3 The Potential Involvement of Local People in Tourism

144 people (83.7%) thought that local people could earn money from tourism and gave a range of answers as to how this could be achieved (Table 5.23).

How could local people earn money?	Frequency	Percent
By increasing employment opportunities	2	1.4
Sell firewood	3	2.1
Other	4	2.8
Levy for community development on tourists	5	3.5
Wildlife hunting/ranching	5	3.5
Set up enterprises	8	5.6
Construction/building cultural village	12	8.4
Entertainment	15	10.5
Produce & sell agricultural products	18	12.6
Guides	24	16.8
Produce & sell handicrafts	47	32.9
Total Sample	143	100.0

Number of missing cases 1

Table 5.23. Ways that respondents thought that local people could earn money from tourism.

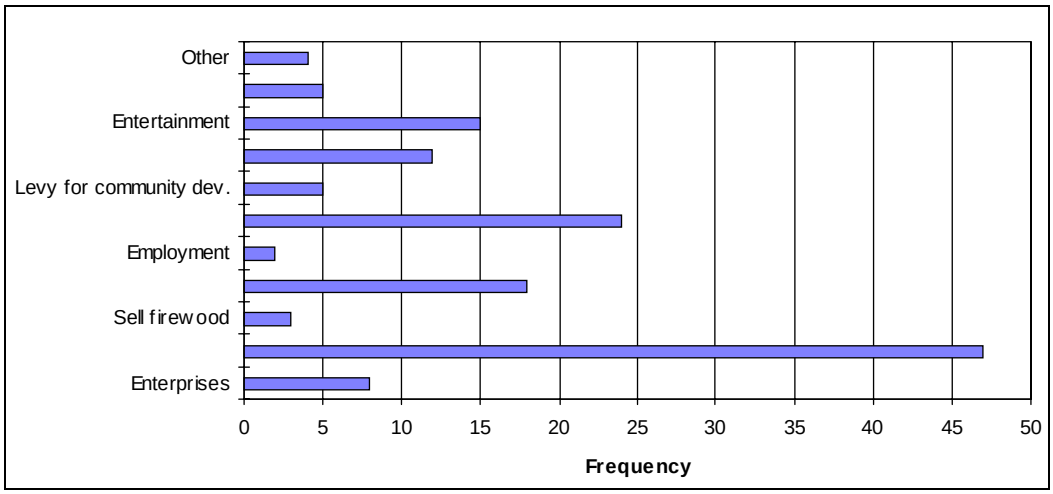

Figure 5.5. Ways that respondents thought that local people could earn money from tourism.

The majority of people (83.7%) believed that local people could earn more money from tourism. They reported that this could best be achieved by setting up small enterprises to service the tourism market. Services cited most often were the

production and selling of handicrafts (32.9%), providing a guiding service (16.8%), selling agricultural produce (12.6%) and providing entertainment (10.5%).

5.1.2.4 What Prevents People Becoming Involved in Tourism

We asked, in an unprompted question, what prevented people from benefiting from tourism.

Prevention	Frequency	Percent
Lack of education/skills	1	0.8
No local attractions	1	0.8
Lack of opportunity for locals	1	0.8
Land/resource ownership issues	5	4.2
No market to sell products	6	5.1
Lack of organisational skills	6	5.1
Poor infrastructure	6	5.1
Other	6	5.1
Lack of knowledge & capital	8	6.8
Not enough tourists	31	26.3
Lack of start-up capital	47	39.8
Total Sample	118	100.0

Number of missing cases 26

Table 5.24. Respondents opinions on the factors that prevented them from benefiting from tourism.

People claimed that they were currently prevented from providing such services as they had no access to start-up capital (39.8% cited this) and that there were currently insufficient tourists in the area (26.3%).

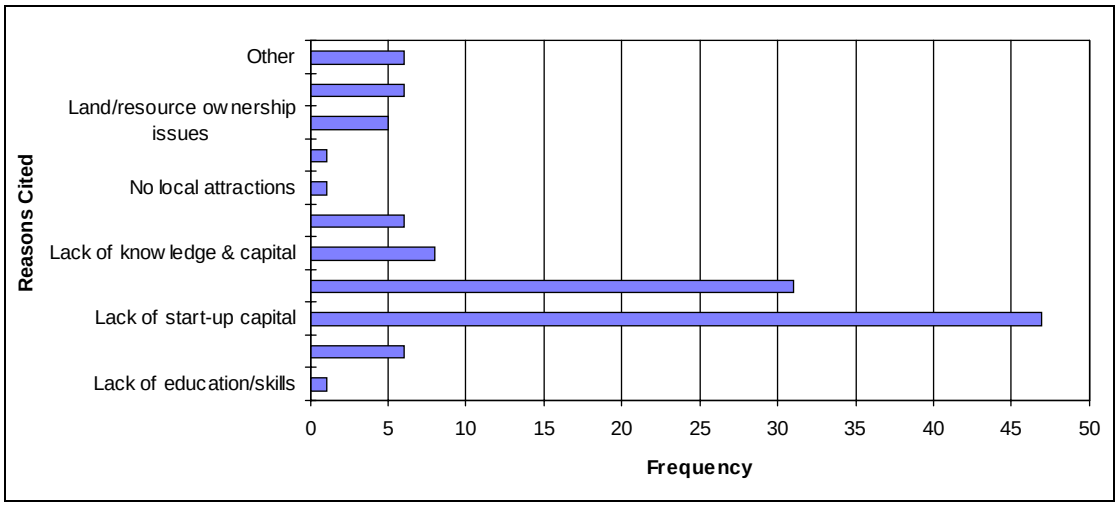

Figure 5.6. Reasons for not exploiting tourism opportunities.

5.1.2.5 The Potential for Local People to Enter the Tourism Sector

The sample was then asked using a prompted question whether or not they would be interested in providing a range of services to tourists.

Service	Percent	Frequency of a 'Yes' response	Level of interest expressed by tourists
Providing textiles to lodges	0.6	1	*
Canoe safaris	0.6	1	
Botany tours	0.6	1	
Other	0.6	1	
Selling beverages in village	1.1	2	
Bush survival training	4.5	8	38.3%
Storytelling & theatre	5.1	9	10.3%
Providing chickens/eggs to lodges	5.1	9	*
Bird watching tours	6.7	12	
Boat trips on the river	9.0	16	18.7%
Teaching wildlife tracking	11.8	21	48.6%
Providing vegetables to lodges	11.8	21	*
Music & dancing performances	56.2	100	10.3%
Tours around your village	61.2	109	14%
Cooking a meal in your home	64.6	115	10.3%
Selling handicrafts in your village	74.7	133	10.3%

Number of missing cases 1

Table 5.25. The services respondents would be interested in providing for tourists.

People expressed an interest in providing certain suggested services to the tourism industry if they had the opportunity to do so. The most popular services were producing and selling handicrafts (74.7% expressed an interest), cooking a meal in their homes for tourists (64.6%), tours round their village (61.2% were interested in providing this service to tourists) and music and dance performances (56.2%).

The figures on the number of tourists interested in the various activities are drawn from the lowveld tourist questionnaire conducted in the same period. The figures are presented where a comparable question was asked of the tourists, those marked * are services which the Conservancies, Conservation Trust and/or Zimsun at Mahenye and Chilo have expressed interest in purchasing.

There are significant areas of overlap in handicraft sales, village meals, village tours, wildlife tracking, music and dance performances, story telling and bush survival training. There are local people wanting to provide the services and tourists wanting to purchase them. As numbers of tourists increase in the lowveld there is the potential to develop a number or local enterprises, owned by people from the local communities and being able to diversify their sources of income through tourism.

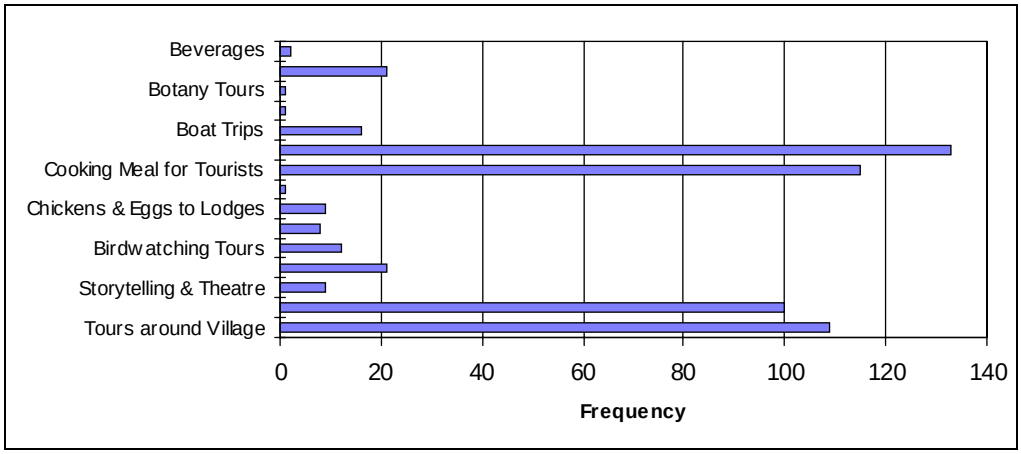

Table 5.26. The services respondents would be interested in providing for tourists.

The level of interest in providing certain services differed significantly by location (%)

	Chibuwe	Chipinge	Chizvi-rizvi	Gudo	Matibi 2	Nyanga-mbe	Chi-squared
Tours round village	86.2	46.7	60.0	55.2	43.3	76.7	17.829 df 5, p<0.05
Music & dancing performances	89.7	46.7	40.0	48.3	46.7	66.7	20.673 df 5, p<0.05
Teaching wildlife tracking	13.8	3.3	16.7	6.9	0.0	30.0	17.094, df 5, p<0.05
Running bird-watching tours	3.4	0.0	10.0	0.0	3.3	23.3	18.962 df 5,p<0.05
Running boat trips on river	0.0	13.3	3.3	37.9	0.0	0.0	40.349 df 5, p<0.05
Selling vegetables to lodges	20.7	13.3	10.0	0.0	3.3	23.3	12.146 df 5, p<0.05

Table 5.27. The level of interest expressed for certain tourist activities in different villages.

	Chibuwe	Chipinge	Chizvirizvi	Gudo	Matibi 2	Nyangambe
1st Choice	Music & dance productions 89.7%	Selling crafts to tourists 76.7%	Tours round village 60.0%	Selling crafts to tourists 79.3%	Selling crafts to tourists 73.3%	Selling crafts to tourists 80.0%
2nd Choice	Selling crafts to tourists/ Tours round village (equal 2nd) 86.2%	Cooking a meal in their home 70.0%	Cooking a meal in their home 56.7%	Cooking a meal in their home 62.1%	Cooking a meal in their home 53.3%	Tours round village 76.7%
3rd Choice		Music & dance production/ Tours round village (equal 3rd) 46.7%	Selling crafts to tourists 53.3%	Tours round village 55.2%	Music & dance productions 46.7%	Cooking a meal in their home 70.0%

Table 5.28. The three most popular tourist activities that respondents in each village were interested in becoming involved with.

This suggests that as the number of tourists visiting the lowveld increases and as small service businesses are launched there will be a diversification and some village specialisation in the services provided.

5.1.2.6 Gender and Age Differences

Significantly greater numbers of males than females were interested in providing bird watching tours, bush survival training, tours around their village and selling chickens and eggs to the lodges (Table 5.29).

	Bird Watching	Survival Training	Tours round village	Selling chickens/eggs to lodges
Males	10.6	7.4	69.1	8.5
Females	2.4	1.2	52.4	1.2
Chi Squared	4.810, df 1, $p<0.05$	4.045, df 1, $p<0.05$	5.254, df 1, $p<0.05$	4.951, df 1, $p<0.05$

Sample size: 178

Table 5.29. Male and female preferences in providing tourism services.

Similarly, the interest level in teaching tourists about wildlife tracking increased with age (Table 5.30). This was the only factor which differed significantly between the age groups and perhaps indicates that wildlife tracking skills have not been passed down to young people with the taking away of local people's traditional hunting rights.

	Under 21	21 - 35	36 - 45	46 - 55	Over 55	Chi-squared
Interested in teaching tourists about wildlife tracking (%)	0.0	7.9	14.7	21.1	33.3	10.217 df 4 $p<0.05$

Sample size: 178

Table 5.30. Age group differences of opinion % (Wildlife tracking lessons)

5.2 VALUE OF TOURISM TO LOCAL ENTERPRISES

There are relatively few tourism-related enterprises outside of the lodges and hotels featured in the case studies. There are two business hotels; The Planters Inn and the Tambuti Lodge but neither of them accommodates significant numbers of tourists. Tourism has not yet developed to levels significant enough to generate tourist orientated businesses. As discussed in the introduction, there is increasing evidence of the development of tourism in the south east lowveld but it was not significant during the period of this field research in 1996.

A survey of the enterprises in the district centre, Chiredzi, was undertaken. All the businesses in Chiredzi which were in any way likely to be involved with tourism were visited and the manager was asked a series of questions in a structured interview. Of the sample of 20 enterprises, 25% was composed of enterprises involved in food (manufacturing and retail) and 25% was garages. Two craft shops, two NGOs, a travel agency and three hardware/farmer merchants were included. The size of the sample and the small size and diversity of the population makes generalisation very difficult and unreliable.

A series of questions was asked about turnover. However the range is so great that the presentation of averages is pointless and the sample so small that confidentiality would be breached. However, some generalisations can be made. For the majority of businesses tourism is less than 5% of turnover. There are three businesses which report that **domestic** tourism accounts for 50% or more of their turnover ranging from 50-80%.[5] The majority of businesses report turnover from domestic tourists at below 5%.

There are 5 businesses which report that **foreign** tourists contribute more than 20% of their turnover. They are all food and craft businesses. One of the town's builders merchants reported 20% of his turnover as attributable to foreign tourists. It supplies building materials for the construction of lodges.

The survey provides some useful indication of the perceptions of local entrepreneurs and managers:

- All but one of the businesses surveyed were pleased to see **domestic tourists**.[6]
- All but one of the businesses surveyed were pleased to see **foreign tourists.**[7]
- Only 8 businesses reported that **domestic** tourists were important (2) or very important (6) to their business. Only 7 businesses reported that **foreign** tourists were important. These were food businesses and garages.
- 9 business reported that **domestic** tourists were not important and 13 that **foreign** tourists are not important.
- 8 businesses would like to be more involved in tourism.
- 19 businesses thought that Chiredzi would benefit from having more tourists, one was unsure.
- 13 businesses thought that tourism had created more jobs for local people
- There is a peak in tourism related turnover in December.
- Half (10) of the businesses surveyed supplied the local hotels.
- 11 of the businesses surveyed supplied the Conservancies and 19 businesses said that the Conservancies and/or that the Malilangwe Conservation Trust would bring more tourists to Chiredzi.

5 The travel agency has been excluded as its business is based on sending domestic tourists out of the lowveld.
6 The exception being the crocodile and ostrich farm which is closed to visitors.
7 Ditto.

- Over the next five years half the businesses surveyed expected, in an unprompted question, to see a growth in tourism and two expected to see improvements in transport.

- 8 businesses thought that increased numbers of tourists would increase prices.

- 11 businessmen saw opportunities to develop businesses to sell goods and services to tourists. Three in an unprompted response mentioned expanding their existing businesses in food and crafts. Other suggestions were car hire (2), accommodation (2), photographic supplies (4) and handicrafts (1).

The Tourist Survey contained some questions which sought information about expenditure in the local economy Those questions which were concerned with spending on roadside crafts are dealt with in more detail in the case study. The figures on reported and expected spending on roadside crafts are substantial. Masks, jewellery and textiles were amongst the items which tourists reported that they had been unable to find, but would have liked to purchase.

5.3 EMPLOYMENT AND INCOMES

This sections is a review of the evidence on employment and incomes drawn from the case studies.

5.3.1 Lodges on the perimeter of the Gonarezhou National Park

5.3.1.1 Construction phase

During the construction of the Mahenye and Chilo lodges and the associated infrastructure Zimbabwe Sun Ltd. spent in the order of Z$7.5m[8] on local labour, at December 1995 values, US$806,452. This paid for 7,300 man months of labour at an average Z$1027per month (US$110). 120 permanent and 40 casual local workers were employed on the project.[9] Very few of the employees were female. A number of local workers completed apprenticeships during the construction; electricians, plumbers, carpenters, bricklayers, plasterers and steel fixers.

5.3.1.2 Lodge Staffing

Full details of the staffing of the Lodges can be found in the Mahenye ward section of this report. This table of local employment is constructed from the more detailed tables in the case study.

8 Estimate by Graham Johnson, Projects Director, Zimbabwe Sun.
9 Estimated by David Hartwell, the building contractor.

Job Title	Local Employees	Male	Female	Monthly Wage
Accountant	1	1	0	1,008
Barman	1	1	0	1,000
Housekeeper	1	0	1	950
Cooks	5	5	0	900/910
Laundry	2	1	1	900
Bedroom hands	5	3	2	900/870
Stores	1	0	1	890
Waiters	9	8	1	890/850
Kitchen Porters	4	4	0	875/850
Bar hand	1	1	0	870
Security	1	1	0	850
Cleaners	3	3	0	850
General Hands	3	3	0	850
Boiler Hand	1	1	0	800
Total	38	32	6	

Table 5.31. Local Employment at Chilo and Mahenye Lodges.

	Mahenye	Chilo	Total
Beds	16	28	44
Total Staff	18	42	60
Local Staff Total	11	27	38
Local Staff Female	03	03	06
Monthly Mahenye wage bill.	Z$11,400	Z$23,038	Z$34,438

Table 5.32. Lodge Staffing in Mahenye Ward.

The two lodges employ 1.36 staff per bed, at higher levels of bed occupancy this might rise to 1.45. 63% of the jobs are staffed by people from the local community, but only 6 (15.8%) of these local jobs are occupied by women. There are 14 job titles used to describe jobs for which local people have been employed. This is consistent with the undertaking made by Zimbabwe Sun Ltd to employ as many local people as possible. All the women are employed in the top 8 categories in terms of salary. Z$34,483 per month is earned by people from the local community, Z$413,796 per annum (US$37,103 in March 1997).

5.3.2 The Conservancies and the Conservation Trust

5.3.2.1 Change in Land Use From Cattle to Wildlife: Employment and Incomes.

	Employment pre-drought	Current Employment	Net change in Employment
Malilangwe	80	192[10]	+112
Bubiana	n/a	400†	n/a
Chiredzi River	n/a	175	n/a
Save (46%)	146[11]	296[12]	-
SVC	350[13]	642[14]	+292

† Includes all local employees, including labour intensive irrigation

10 Actual figure 12/96.
11 Extrapolated from sample figures on three properties.
12 Actual figure 02/97.
13 Price Waterhouse (1994).
14 Extrapolated from 02/97 figure for 46% of the Conservancy.

Table 5.33. Total Employment on Conservancies and the Conservation Trust.

	Habitat and Species Management	Tourism	Total	Local Female %
Malilangwe	171	8	179	0
Barberton Ranch	30	12	42	16.6%
Senuko Ranch	38	14	52	5.76%

Table 5.34. Local Employment on case study ranches.

5.3.2.2 Non-consumptive Tourism: Lodges

	Nduna, Malilangwe	Barberton, Bubiana	Senuko. Save Valley
Beds	12	8	16
Total Staff	17	17	18
Local Staff Total	8	12	14
Local Staff Female	0	4	3
Monthly local wage bill.	Not available	Z$5,424	Z$9,628

Table 5.35a. Lodge Staffing on case study ranches.

5.3.2.3 Direct and Indirect Staffing Ratios for Lodges

	Direct	Total
The Mahenye Lodges	1.45	n/a
Nduna, Malilangwe	1.43	14.92
Barberton, Bubiana	2.12	5.26
Senuko, Save Valley	1.12	3.25

Table 5.35b. Local staff per bed.

There is a fundamental difference between the situation of the Zimbabwe Sun properties at Mahenye, which do not manage the habitats they "sell" and the Lodges based in the Conservancies which do.

The Zimbabwe Sun Ltd lodges at Mahenye purchase game viewing from Gonarezhou National Park on a per capita basis.

The Lodges in the Conservancies have to support their game and habitat management staff and the costs of maintaining the environment which they sell. Although, they are able to off-set some of these costs with consumptive tourism, live animal sales and cropping. The Conservancies therefore create significantly more jobs per bed than do the lodges built on the perimeter of the park. However, as the number of Lodges on each conservancy property increases the staff per bed figure will reduce. A second property with the same staffing levels on Senuko would drop the staff per bed ratio to 2.

Malilangwe is not under pressure to be commercially sustainable and has a much higher number of staff per bed.

5.3.3 Roadside Crafts: the Informal Sector

Much larger numbers of local people are involved in the handicrafts industry, although these are not full-time jobs. Chitakira's study[15] shows that in the 18 markets between Chivi South and Tokwe there are 2285 stall-holders, 74% of them female. For individual sole traders the average income is reported as Z$638 per month, and for members of co-operatives Z$102 per month. For the members of co-operatives this income may well supplement other regular income. Although 12.5% said that the income was not sufficient to meet basic needs, 70.8% said that their revenue from handicraft sales was sufficient for basic needs, and 8.3% said that their revenue was enough for luxury needs as well.

5.4 POTENTIAL FOR FURTHER ECONOMIC ACTIVITY LINKED TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF TOURISM ACCOMMODATION COVERED IN DETAIL IN THE CASE STUDIES.

Many opportunities have been identified for involving local people in the development of complementary enterprises linked to tourism development, where the Conservancy, Trust or Lodge development would assist with, or take responsibility for, the marketing. These suggestions are summarised in Table 5.36. Details of the schemes, in so far as they have been developed, are dealt with in the case studies. It should be noted however that in many cases the ideas remain at an early stage. Irrigation, draught power and other non-tourism related projects and good neighbour programmes, which are charitable in nature, have been omitted from this table.

15 see Section 9

The development of tourism on the Conservancies has only just begun and the Mahenye development has only just been completed. It will take some time for these ideas to stimulate the development of locally owned and managed enterprises to be implemented. The viability of these enterprises is dependent upon the volume of tourists attracted to the lowveld. None of these enterprises are yet financially sustainable.

● idea has been discussed
●● implementation has been commenced
●●● in operation

	Zimsun Mahenye	Malila-ngwe	Bubiana Conser-vancy	Chiredzi River Conser-vancy	Save Valley Conser-vancy
Supply of Goods					
Curio Manufacture	●	●	●		●●●
Furniture Manufacture			●		●●
Manufacture and supply of building materials	●				●●●
Uniform Manufacture		●●●	●		●
Food and Vegetable Production			●		●
Supply of Services					
Game meat retailing and distribution			●●		●●
Provision of Transport					●
Retailing and distribution of fuel wood					●
Complementary Tourism Enterprises					
Cultural Tourism	●		●		●
Tourist Accommodation	●				
Traditional Show Village	●●				●●
Community Based wildlife projects			●	●	●
Joint Ventures					
Accommodation Joint Ventures		●●			
Incorporation of resettlement of communal lands into conservancies			●	●	●
Wildlife ownership on Conservancy land earning dividends				●	●

Table 5.36. Tourism Related Complementary Enterprise Development in the Lowveld.

Local communities have benefited significantly from the good neighbour programmes of the Malilangwe Conservation Trust and from the activities of particular ranchers within each of the Conservancies. However these charitable activities have not been generated by tourism as such.

5.4.1 Infrastructural Development in Mahenye Ward

The development of the Mahenye and Chilo Lodges has brought infrastructural development. A piped water supply and electricity have both now reached Mahenye Ward, the community contributed to the cost of providing the water supply but this

was only for the trench in which the pipe was laid. Zimsun met the other costs. The electricity supply has been extended from the Zimsun properties into the village, with the community meeting the costs of extension to the village from its lease earnings. The road has been improved to service the Zimsun developments but it is not clear to what extent this would have occurred anyway and to what extent it is a tourism gain to the community. Telephone lines have been brought on from the Zimsun properties to the village and there are a very limited number of phones in Mahenye. The all weather landing strip is an infrastructural gain but it is of no immediate benefit to the Mahenye community.

5.4.2 Community Revenues in Mahenye Ward

The Mahenye community stands to earn significant sums from the lease payments by Zimbabwe Sun Ltd.
Projected gross payments are

1997	Z$250,000
1998	Z$320,000
1999	Z$470,000
2000	Z$600,000
Total	Z$1,640,000

The net payment to the Mahenye community can be calculated by deducting known and probable expenditures.

Deduct 20% for Chipinge Rural District Council	Z$328,000
Deduct Z$120,000/park entrance fees	Z$480,000
Deduct full cost of electricity supply	Z$140,500
Total deductions	Z$948,000

Therefore the Net earnings to Mahenye Community from 1997-2000 is **Z$692,000**

This is equivalent to US$62,049 at March 1997 exchange rate values.[16] This represents a household dividend of US$82 per household assuming 751 households, the number who benefited from the last CAMPFIRE distribution in 1995. In addition to this the community will have paid for the installation of an electricity supply valued at US$12,598.[17]

Donations to the Mahenye Community

Most tourists visit the clinic and the school, there has been one donation of US$500 for fans for the clinic and perhaps a further US$250 for the clinic. Approximately US$250 has been given to the school, mainly in books, pens and pencils.[18]

16 March 7 1997 US$ rate 11.1525Z$
17 at March 7 rate.
18 Paul Perez pers. comm.

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6. INTEGRATION INTO THE INTERNATIONAL MARKET

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to "identify and quantify the benefits and problems created by integration into the international market."[1] The south-east lowveld is regarded as relatively remote from Harare and from the Bulawayo, Hwange, Victoria Falls and Zambezi Valley-Kariba concentrations of tourists. Gonarezhou is located beyond Great Zimbabwe and the Eastern Highlands and could, as part of a southern circuit, be a significant tourism destination linking these two relatively well visited areas.

Of the foreign visitors to Gonarezhou surveyed for this project, nearly half (49.1%) were also visiting Victoria Falls and nearly 40% Hwange (39.7%). About one third were combining their visit to Gonarezhou with Matopos (34.5%) and Kariba (33.6%). Just under a third were combining their visit to the south east lowveld with a visit to Nyanga (29.3%) and Chimanimani (28.7%) in the Eastern Highlands.

6.2 IMPLICATIONS FOR THE PARK

Gonarezhou is relatively under-visited by international (and domestic) tourists. The park is very poorly integrated into the international market. There were 227 regional and 260 international tourists in 1991/92. In 1995/96 there were 2,482 regional visitors and 552 international visitors. There was a ten fold increase in regional, mainly South African tourists in the four years, whilst the number of international tourists more than doubled. Gonarezhou continues primarily to be visited by Zimbabweans.

	1991/92	1995/96
National	88.5	61.1
Regional	5.3	31.8
International	6.1	7.1
Total Foreign	11.4	38.9

Table 6.1. National, Regional and International Visitors to Gonarezhou

Gonarezhou is an important tourism asset, offering a wilderness landscape and spectacular scenery. Gonarezhou offers tourist experiences very different from Zimbabwe's other parks, many of which are very closely integrated into the international market. The park is central to the development of the region for international and domestic tourism and this is an important part of the development strategy for the south east lowveld.

The World Bank plan for the development of the park, considered in the Gonarezhou case study, is designed to open Gonarezhou to regional and international tourists. The major tourism problems confronting the park are the difficulty of viewing wildlife in the park and the lack of facilities. However, the park is valued for its wilderness features. It will be difficult to strike an appropriate balance between maintaining the

1 Scientific/technical objective e.

park's wild character and developing tourism facilities there. Development may deter those who value its scenic and wilderness characteristics, whilst game densities remain too low to attract the international tourists who flock to Hwange.

6.3 THE NATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

Until the 1960's, foreign tourism grew slowly in Zimbabwe, declining after UDI in 1965. It began to recover at the end of the 1960's but was then hit by the international recession caused by the oil price shock. In the latter part of the 1970's, tourist numbers were very low because of the internal political situation. There was a recovery as a direct result of independence in 1980, but numbers declined again in the early 1980's because of the internal political situation. Following the Unity Accord in 1985 international tourist arrivals grew.[2] Between 1985 and 1990 the number of holiday makers arriving in Zimbabwe increased 65%, and between 1990 and 1995 international arrivals increased from 635,000 to 1,335,000, an increase of 110%. This growth in international tourist arrivals to Zimbabwe meant that increasingly the parks were used by foreign visitors. In 1980 foreign visitors accounted for only 17% of overnight visitors to national parks, but in 1990 this figure had increased to 56%. Foreign tourists had become the predominant users of the accommodation available in the parks.

The tourism industry in Zimbabwe is largely based on the National Parks. This is reflected in the structure of the Ministry of Environment and Tourism which is responsible for both the DNPWLM and the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority. The Authority is expected to develop Zimbabwe's tourism industry with a strong emphasis on product development and marketing.

In the early 1990's there were a series of studies which identified some of the key issues in the marketing of Zimbabwe's tourism. The 1992 *Passenger Exit Survey* showed that Zimbabwe has a large proportion (34%) of VFR[3] tourists and 39% were regional tourists from South Africa. Both groups had a high propensity to stay in private homes[4] (and relatively cheap parks accommodation). The lack of beach tourism was seen as a major handicap, particularly in comparison with Kenya which offered combinations of beach and photo-safari holidays. The *European tourism demand and strategy study* reported that Zimbabwe needed seven international tourists to generate an income equal to one international tourist to Kenya.[5] This is particularly relevant to the lowveld since it is hoped (and anticipated) that the opening of Moçambique's beaches for tourism will enable Zimbabwe to offer two centre holidays. Overland access to the Indian Ocean would be through the lowveld.

The strategy document recommended a host of product and marketing changes which the industry and the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority are beginning to implement. Major constraints on the growth of tourism were identified as the lack of a national tourism strategy, inadequate marketing, shortages of skilled labour and under-funding of

2 Goodwin, et al (1995).
3 Visiting Friends and Relatives.
4 Flannery, J. (1993).
5 Op. Cit.

National Parks. Given their estimate of 95% of Zimbabwe's tourism being nature-based remedying this under-funding was identified as a priority.[6] Of particular relevance to Gonarezhou is the issue of access by air: "the south-east lowveld is waiting to take off as an important tourist hub in Zimbabwe. However, entrepreneurs are reluctant to invest in tourism operations in the lowveld, until a regular air service is established." [7]

The new Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, funded by a 2% bed-night levy, will have significant resources available to it for the promotion of tourism to Zimbabwe. The extent to which the ZTA will, in the immediate future, promote development of tourism to the lowveld remains to be seen. Increased flows of tourists to Great Zimbabwe will bring substantial numbers of tourists much closer to Gonarezhou. The marketing activity of Zimbabwe Sun Ltd, the Conservancies and the other properties being developed in the lowveld will increase the volume of international visitors flowing into, and staying in, the area. However, this will take time and it will require consistent effort over a prolonged period to establish the area in the international market. Gonarezhou, "the land of the elephant," has features which are attractive to international tourists, and tourism in the area is just beginning to "take-off". It will take time to establish awareness of the park and to overcome the associations of the park with poaching and drought. Game numbers and visibility are real issues.

6.4 THE INTERNATIONAL TOURIST PERSPECTIVES

6.4.1 Motivation for Travel

The ODA project foreign tourist survey included a question which asked respondents to rank a range of possible motivations for travel to Zimbabwe on a 1 to 5 scale. Wildlife viewing scored 4.79[8], closely followed by landscape and scenery which scored 4.51. Culture and people scored 3.72, history and archaeology scored 3.26. Markets and shopping (2.5) and art and architecture (2.45) both scored below 3. Two thirds of respondents said that their primary motivation for travel was wildlife viewing (65.9%). Landscape was cited as the most important reason by a fifth of respondents (20.5%), and culture and people by a tenth (9.1%).

The motivation for travel of wildlife viewing is supported by the responses to the question about activities. Wildlife viewing from vehicles rated 4.14 and wildlife viewing on foot rated 3.9. Bird watching rated 3.84 and wildlife viewing at night 3.09. There is a more detailed discussion of these results in the Gonarezhou case study. It is the presence of elephant (rated 4.17 on a 1 to 5 scale), lion (4.08), leopard (4.07) and buffalo (3.78) which is most important to the park visitors. The "big five" are of primary importance, so much so that black rhino and white rhino scored 4.04 and 3.87 respectively. 64 people (69.6%) said that the presence of white rhino was important or very important in their decision to visit Gonarezhou. The corresponding figure for black rhino was 74.7%. This is despite the fact that rhino are extinct in the park.

6 Goodwin et al (1995).
7 Ibid. 46.
8 All respondents scored it as important (4 or 5), apart from two who scored it as unimportant (1).

Giraffe (3.7) and hippo (3.79) were also important, Lichtenstein's hartebeest, a rarity in Zimbabwe, scored 3.39.

Although wildlife viewing, as would be expected, dominated the responses to the question about activities, being in a wild landscape was most important, with 79.4% of people rating it very important.[9]

When asked how important their visit to Gonarezhou was as part of their holiday on a scale of 1 to 5, the average score was 3.95, with one third of the sample rating it 3.

1	2	3	4	5	Mean	N
4.0	1.3	29.3	25.3	40.0	3.95	75

Table 6.2. How important is your visit to Gonarezhou as part of your holiday?

6.4.2 Visitor Satisfaction

Respondents enjoyed being in a wild landscape but were disappointed with two aspects of wildlife viewing: seeing rare species (30.8% disappointed) and seeing large herds of animals (46.2%) disappointed. These are very high dissatisfaction levels. 70% of the sample reported that they had not seen enough wildlife. Gonarezhou is valued for its wild landscape but frequently disappoints as a game viewing area. There is some evidence that visitors going into the park with guides see more wildlife. Half of those who were surveyed at Mahenye or one of the other lodges, and who would therefore be accompanied by guides, reported that they had seen enough wildlife.

Activity	Importance ranked 1 to 5	Enjoyed most N=111	Most disappointing N=78
Being in a wild landscape	4.5	35.1	0
Seeing Rare species	4.1	9.9	30.8
Seeing a wide variety of birds	4.1	16.2	1.3
Seeing a few animals close up	4.0	15.3	6.4
Seeing animals whilst on foot	3.9	14.4	3.8
Seeing large herds	3.7	0.9	46.2
Learning about wildlife and habitats	3.7	0	0
Walking	3.4	2.7	0

Table 6.3. Activities ranked as important at Gonarezhou and the % of respondents saying that they enjoyed them most, or found them most disappointing.

There are only 19 species of which more than 10% of the sample reported sightings. The average number of each species seen is also low.[10] There were only 9 species where the sample reported seeing more than two animals on average. Aside from baboon and impala the respondents saw very little game. Only baboon, crocodile, elephant, hippo and impala were seen by more than half of the respondents.

9 The next highest preference was birds, with 52.7% saying that this was very important.
10 See Gonarezhou case study below.

6.5 THE TOUR OPERATOR PERSPECTIVES

6.5.1 Zimbabwean Tour Operator Perspectives

Tour operators in Zimbabwe are predominantly based in Bulawayo and Harare. The lowveld is relatively remote from these centres. There is little incentive for operators to expand to the lowveld where game viewing has long been regarded as difficult and where there has consequently been an absence of accommodation. There has been a significantly stronger tradition of consumptive tourism in the south east lowveld with a number of operators based there.

In 1995 there were three non-consumptive tour operators in the area. Two of theses were the game viewing operations of the Malilangwe and Mahenye lodges. Mungwezi Safaris offered walking safaris and accommodation on Chiredzi River Conservancy, although this was primarily sold separately as self-catering accommodation to domestic tourists. The Conservancy non-consumptive operations will organise their own game viewing and for the foreseeable future, tour operators in the lowveld will continue to be specific to particular lodges.

6.5.2 International Tour Operator Perspective

A survey of tour operators in the UK and Germany who operate to Gonarezhou was conducted by Jordan and Metcalfe as part of the ODA project.[11] 10 German and 33 UK companies who operate to Zimbabwe responded to the survey. For the German respondents Zimbabwe represented 36% of their business. For the UK companies Zimbabwe accounted for only 16.9%. The sample was selected on the basis of featuring the three National Parks rather than identifying companies who featured the countries.[12] When asked on a scale of 1 to 5 how important Zimbabwe was to their businesses, the mean score for German companies was 1.71 and for UK companies 3.71. These figures include all respondents in the survey which deflates the average. 5 German companies regarded Zimbabwe as important to their businesses as did 22 UK companies.

The tour operators were asked how their perception of Zimbabwe as a tourist destination had changed in recent years. Respondents were asked to express their opinion on a scale of 1 (worse) to 5 (better). The results are favourable to Zimbabwe with 50% German operators surveyed and 70% of UK operators expressing the opinion that Zimbabwe had improved as a tourist destination.

11 These surveys were undertaken by Claire Jordan and David Metcalfe within the Institute of Mathematics and Statistics at UKC, under the supervision of Dr Kim Parker and the other members of the team. Jordan, C (1996); Metcalfe, D (1996).

12 For a discussion of the comparative results of the survey see the Comparative Report Chapter 7.

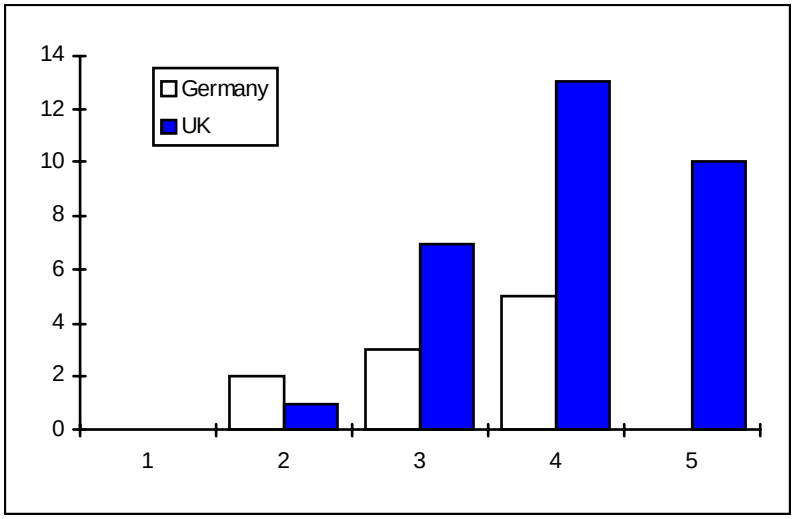

Figure 6.1. German and UK Tour Operator Perceptions of Zimbabwe

The respondents were asked about the volume of their business to Zimbabwe and about their expectations of growth. This reduced the number of respondents, only 70% of the German and 66% of the UK operators responded. We asked the Tour Operators to give figures on the number of people they carried to Zimbabwe in 1995 and to estimate numbers for 1996 and 1997.

Eleven German operators responded. The total figures were

1995	1275	
1996	1635	% increase over 1995 28%
1997	1880	% increase over 1996 15%

The expected growth in passengers from Germany to Zimbabwe between 1995 and 1997 for the 7 operators participating in the survey was 47%.

22 British Operators responded. The total figures were

1995	3511	
1996	4246	% increase over 1995 21%
1997	5329	% increase over 1996 25%

The expected growth in passengers from the UK to Zimbabwe between 1995 and 1997 for the 22 operators participating in the survey was 52%..

German operators were asked about their perceptions of the motivations of their clients in choosing to travel to Zimbabwe.

		Not very important				Very Important	
N		1	2	3	4	5	Mean
Culture/People	10			4	3	3	3.9
Landscape/Countryside	09		1	2	6		3.5
Wildlife viewing	09	0	3	1	2	3	3.5
Art/Architecture	10	1	3		4	2	3.3
History/Archaeology	10		3	4	2	1	3.1
Markets/shopping	11	3	2	2	4		2.6

Table 6.4. German Operators: How important are the following factors/ features to your clients in Zimbabwe?

The German operators responding to the survey placed the greatest importance on culture and people with an average rating of 3.9, landscape and wildlife viewing both scored 3.5.

UK Operators were asked the same question with very similar results.

		Not very important				Very Important	
N		1	2	3	4	5	Mean
Wildlife viewing	33	0	0	0	3	30	4.8
Landscape/Countryside	33	0	0	5	15	13	4.1
Culture/People	33	1	4	9	13	6	3.5
History/Archaeology	33	4	12	19	3	4	2.7
Markets/shopping	33	8	9	14	1	1	2.3
Art/Architecture	33	10	13	7	1	2	2.1

Table 6.5. UK Operators: How important are the following factors/ features to your clients in Zimbabwe?

The operators were asked a series of questions specifically about Gonarezhou.

	Not very important				Very Important			
	1	2	3	4	5	No Response	Mean	N
Germany	6	2	2	0	0	0	1.6	10
UK	15	10	4	3	0	1	1.8	33

Table 6.6. How important is Gonarezhou and the south east lowveld to your marketing of Zimbabwe?

No German companies regarded Gonarezhou as important to their marketing of Zimbabwe, and only 3 of the British companies.

	Not very important				Very Important			
	1	2	3	4	5	No Response	Mean	N
Germany	2		1	6	1		3.4	10
UK	5	1	8	9	9	1	3.5	33

Table 6.7.How useful would more information about Gonarezhou National Park be to your operations?

Half of the UK operators and 70% of the German operators thought that having access to more information about Gonarezhou was important to them.

Gonarezhou is not regarded as of very much tourist interest by tour operators in the UK and Germany, although 12 of the 15 tour operators who did not respond said that they have insufficient information. This suggests that efforts to inform operators about the park would be useful.

	1 Little	2	3	4	5 Great	DK/ No Response.	Mean	N
Germany			1	3		6	3.7	10
UK			8	7	1	15	3.6	30

Table 6.8. Perceptions of tourist value of Gonarezhou National Park.

The tour operators were then asked a series of questions about nature tourism issues and Gonarezhou. On a 1-5 scale the German and British operators both rated Gonarezhou 3.5 for conservation value. The level of non-response is high 14 British operators said that they had insufficient information to judge.

Poor conservation value good conservation value

	1	2	3	4	5	DK/No Response.	Mean	N
Germany			2	2		6	3.5	10
UK		2	7	3	3	18	3.5	33

Table 6.9.Perceptions of the conservation value of Gonarezhou

Poor good

	1	2	3	4	5	Insufficient Information	No Response	Mean	N
Germany				5		5	-	4	10
UK			1	2	1	19	10	4	33

Table 6.10. Perceptions of the quality of wildlife viewing at Gonarezhou

Half of the German operators and 58% of the British operators felt that they had insufficient information to make a judgement about the quality of wildlife viewing in Gonarezhou National Park, and this is amongst operators featuring the park in their brochures.

	Yes	No	No Response	Total Respondents
German Operators	10	0	0	10
	100%			100%
UK Operators	10	5	18	15
	66.7%	33.3%	54.5%	45.5%

Table 6.11. Would your clients pay extra for a fully trained local guide around the park?

This question was asked to gauge the likelihood of tour operators being prepared to engage guides if a cadre of fully trained local guides were available. The responses

from the German operators are very encouraging, the UK operators less so. The situation in Zimbabwe is that in the presence of dangerous game, guides have to be qualified to a high standard.

*6.6 **THE UK TOUR OPERATORS PERSPECTIVE** FRANCES PIRIE*

This section summarises work by Frances Pirie on the marketing of Zimbabwe's National Parks in the UK.[13] This comprised a content analysis of tour operator brochures and a postal survey.

6.6.1 Content Analysis of Brochures

The power of the **visual** image to create an attractive and persuasive image of a destination makes it particularly crucial for local tourism and conservation managers to understand the picture of Zimbabwe that is being projected to potential tourists.

The most widely featured parks were Victoria Falls and Hwange, with Lake Kariba and the Zambezi River also receiving large numbers of mentions. Gonarezhou was mentioned in 10 brochures (18%) of the sample .Lonestar Reserve, now known as Malilangwe Conservation Trust, it was mentioned in 9 brochures and the lowveld more generally was mentioned in 2 brochures.

6.6.1.1 Analysis of visual content

Overall, tour operators devoted most space to wildlife and landscape. Elephant were the most common fauna depicted, while Victoria Falls was the prevailing subject of landscape scenes, although rivers and lakes also featured prominently. Compared to the NTO brochures, tour operators placed less emphasis on social, cultural and historical aspects of the country.

	Tour Operators*	Zimbabwe NTO
(No. of brochures)	(N=45)	(N=2)
Fauna & flora: total	31.0	18.4
Elephant	11.8	6.1
Lion	3.1	0.2
Buffalo	2.2	0.2
Rhino	2.3	0.2
Leopard	0.3	0
(Big Five: total)	(19.7)	(6.7)
Birds	2.6	1.2
Hippo	2.4	0.4
Zebra	2.0	1.3
Antelope	1.8	0.9
Other fauna	2.3	6.3
Flora	0.2	1.6

13 Pirie, F (1996).

Landscape: total	28.2	34.7
Victoria Falls	18.8	13.2
Lake/river	6.8	5.1
Urban/city	0.7	10.2
Savanna/plains	1.0	1.3
Mountains/forests	0.9	4.9
Facilities/services: total	18.2	0.3
Hotels/lodges/campsites	14.0	0
Food & drink	1.2	0.3
Transport/vehicles	3.0	0.8
People: total	7.5	11.3
Black Zimbabweans	0.9	10.0
Tourists with wildlife	4.8	0.5
Tourists: other	1.8	0.7
History/Culture: total	2.4	14.3
Archaeological sites	1.0	11.9
Monuments	0.5	0.2
Arts/crafts	0.9	2.2
Sports	4.1	12.6
Maps	8.6	7.5
Grand Total	100.0	100.0

Note: * Excludes Overland Safari companies

Table 6.12. Main topic of brochure visuals.

Generally speaking, tour operators' representation of Zimbabwe did not differ markedly from the way they represented neighbouring Botswana and Zambia. For all three countries, most emphasis was placed on fauna, followed by landscape and services. By contrast, Overland Safari company brochures assigned greater weight to cultural themes, and tended to have a profile that was closer to that of the NTO brochures than to other tour operators.

6.6.1.2 Analysis of textual content

Of the 55 brochures, fewer then half (N=21) contained detailed descriptive prose about Zimbabwe and its National Parks. A further 22 brochures contained some information about National Parks, but mostly in the form of itineraries or descriptions of tour services. The remaining 12 brochures made little or no mention of National Parks or what they had to offer.

A brief summary of some of the more frequent descriptions of Zimbabwe and the National Parks contained in the brochure text can be seen in the following Table 6.13. Note that these are general observations only. Items in parentheses indicate relatively fewer mentions.

Brochures were also examined for any reference to environmental conservation. Of the 55 brochures, only about one in three (N=17) gave any indication that the tour operator supported conservation efforts or endorsed environmentally responsible tourism. Of these, 7 brochures included a few paragraphs or a small box of text stating support for specific conservation organisations (e.g., Friends of Conservation, WWF). A similar proportion (6 brochures), however, simply displayed the logos of the conservation trusts that they claimed to support or else made some very vague or non-specific claims to be 'environmentally responsible.'

Only 5 brochures devoted more than one quarter page to the tour operator's commitment to the environment or communicated this in any great detail. These brochures not only stated the company's philosophy towards conservation, but also explained the concept of sustainable tourism and how it could benefit the environment and generate revenues for local communities. The tour operator's specific activities, such as donations to conservation, sponsorship of wildlife species, use of paper from sustainable sources, etc., were also featured.

Table 6.13. Typical descriptions of Zimbabwe and the National Parks in tour operators' brochures.

Zimbabwe	Hwange	Victoria Falls
• Land of contrasts/ variety • Ancient/mysterious civilisation • Abundant wildlife • Victoria Falls/Hwange/ Lake Kariba/Zambezi River • Good quality guides/ facilities • (Real/authentic Africa/ heart of Africa)	• Great variety & abundance of wildlife • Renowned for elephants • Vast size • (Arid, dry savanna/ scrub) • (Big Five game) • (Wild dog)	• Rainforest/riverine vegetation • Awe-inspiring falls • Sporting activities • (African tribal dancing)

Mana Pools	Matusadona	Chizarira
• Good concentrations of game • (Remote wilderness) • (Hippos, waterfowl, other aquatic wildlife) • (Trees/flora/ vegetation)	• Excellent wildlife viewing • Abundance of game • Big Five game • Black rhino • (Lakeside environment)	• Magnificent scenery/ escarpment, gorges • Wild/untouched/remot e • (Variety of game) • (Back rhino)

Matopos	Gonarezhou	Zambezi
• Unusual landscape/ granite outcrops • Cave paintings/bush art/history & culture • White & black rhino • (Black eagle) • (Leopard)	• Unique ecosystem/ habitat • Untouched/remote/ well-kept secret • Elephant/rhino[14] • Rare species	• Riverine habitat/ wildlife • Close to Victoria Falls • (Birds)

Eastern Highlands/ Nyanga/Chimanimani
• Rolling hills/mountain peaks/valleys • Forests/lush pine, upland vegetation • Rivers & streams • (Unique/unlike stereotypical image of Africa/similar to Scotland) • (Rarely included on travel itineraries • (Hiking/walking/fishing/golf)

Note: Parentheses ( ) indicate relatively fewer mentions

Almost all of the tour operators' brochures mentioned Hwange and Victoria Falls, and these two appeared to be standard destinations in most itineraries. A majority of brochures also made reference to Matopos, Matusadona and Mana Pools National Parks. Chizarira was mentioned in approximately one third of the brochures. Nyanga, Gonarezhou, Chimanimani and Zambezi were given considerably less exposure, while mention of Kazuma Pans was negligible.

The widely differing levels of exposure given to each National Park highlight the need for parks such as Nyanga, Gonarezhou, Chimanimani, Zambezi and Kazuma Pan to get themselves included in tour operators' promotional literature. Although many tour operators today are prepared to create customised tours for clients that include destinations not featured in their brochures, it is nevertheless important for the lesser known National Parks to generate greater levels of awareness by all possible means, including mention in travel brochures.

Apart from the National Parks, other widely featured natural attractions were Lake Kariba, the Zambezi River, the Eastern Highlands, and Vumba Botanical Gardens. Various individual private game reserves and other nature areas were featured in tour itineraries, and some were mentioned by more than one operator, notably the Lonestar Reserve (now Malilangwe Conservation Trust) near Gonarezhou and the Chirundu Safari Area. Almost all of the overland safari companies included the Chipangali Animal Orphanage in their itineraries, since several of them sponsored animals there. Cultural monuments such as Great Zimbabwe, Stone Age cave paintings (particularly those in the Matobo Hills), and the burial place of Cecil Rhodes were also quite frequently featured.

14 This is an error, there are no rhino in Gonarezhou.

Photographs and illustrations were a significant component of brochures on Zimbabwe and in many cases the space devoted to visual elements was greater than for textual information. This would imply that readers' impressions of Zimbabwe are very likely to be coloured by the visual images presented by tour operators.

With some exceptions, the visual image of Zimbabwe presented by UK tour operators is very different from the 'official' portrayal by the Zimbabwe NTO. It is predominantly one of nature, to the virtual exclusion of human society and culture. Visual imagery in tour operators' brochures was dominated by wildlife (31%) and landscape (28.2%). The variety of fauna shown was relatively limited, with 'big five' game (elephant, lion, buffalo, rhino and leopard) occupying the most space (19.7%). Furthermore, although brochures often described Zimbabwe as a land of great variety and contrasts, the pictures did not necessarily support this, depicting instead primarily aquatic habitats. Victoria Falls was the prevailing subject of landscape scenes (18.8%), although rivers and lakes also featured prominently (6.8%). Although few illustrations had titles identifying either location or subject matter, these aquatic landscapes were most probably the Zambezi River and Lake Kariba.

The social and cultural aspects of Zimbabwe were not featured to any great extent in these tour operators' brochures. Local people were rarely depicted (less than 1% of space), and the few photos of black Zimbabweans tended to show them in subordinate roles (e.g., hotel doorman, waiter). Tourists themselves were much more likely to be shown, notably in wildlife-watching scenes (4.8%). Relatively little space was devoted to photographs of historical sites or local arts and crafts (2.4%).

Compared with tour operators' brochures, the Zimbabwe NTO publications depicted a more varied and complex picture of the country. Landscapes and scenery included mountains and forests (4.9%), as well as contemporary urban scenes (10.2%), while in addition to the typical plains game, a variety of other fauna (6.2%) were shown. But most significant was the greater emphasis on the social and cultural facets of Zimbabwe. Of the space devoted to illustrations, 10% showed black Zimbabweans engaging in economic activity or in scenes of everyday life, and 14.3% were of historical or cultural subjects, notably archaeological sites such as Great Zimbabwe.

While it was not possible to classify all of the brochures according to type of company, some differences between tour operators were apparent. As might be expected, brochures of Nature-oriented companies emphasised flora and fauna (34.5%), whereas Recreation-oriented ones were more preoccupied with landscape (42.5%), notably Victoria Falls (26%). Recreation-oriented operators also seemed more concerned than others about showing readers pictures of accommodation (22.3%), perhaps to reassure them about the standard of facilities. Like the Nature-oriented segment, brochures of the small minority of Adventure-oriented firms focused mainly on fauna and flora (38.1%). In keeping with the outdoor/active nature of their tours, these brochures devoted less space than others to facilities such as hotels, but showed more pictures of sports (7.0%).

None of the brochures devoted much space to social/cultural topics, with pictures of people taking up no more than 10% of space, and history/culture less than 4%. Nature- and Adventure-oriented brochures devoted more space to these topics than others, although pictures of people were far more likely to be of white tourists than of local people.

Results suggest that the representation of Zimbabwe tour operators' brochures was overall very similar to the way these represented Botswana and Zambia, with most emphasis being placed on fauna (Zimbabwe 34.1%; Botswana 38.6%; Zambia 40.2%), followed by landscape (Zimbabwe 26.5%; Botswana 20.5%; Zambia 19.2%) and services (Zimbabwe 21.2%; Botswana 17.1%; Zambia 21.4%). Cultural themes carried very little weight in any of the three countries (Zimbabwe 3.3%; Botswana 3.4%; Zambia 7.3%).

By contrast, the brochures of Overland Safari companies conveyed a more balanced mix of fauna (27.1%), landscape (29.1%), recreation (19.0%) and culture (20.9%). The weight given to cultural themes was in marked contrast to other tour operators. Considerably more space was devoted to pictures of local people, which often showed scenes of everyday life as well as interactions between Black Africans and tourists.

The emphasis of the Zimbabwe NTO brochures was markedly different from the tour operators' in that scenery and landscape (39.6%) took precedence over wildlife (13.4%). As noted previously, social and cultural aspects were far more widely covered (22.6%) than in tour operators' brochures, with the exception of the Overland Safari companies. As might be expected from an organisation marketing the destination rather than the service components of the travel industry, facilities such as accommodation and transport did not feature greatly. Service-related themes comprised only 6.4%.

Despite the diversity of landscapes and wildlife offered by Zimbabwe, the image projected by UK tour operators (at least visually) is relatively limited. Emphasis is placed on the "big five" game, and on plains or river/lake scenery. This implies that many brochures may be reinforcing a stereotypical image of the country that does not differentiate strongly enough from other African destinations. Results also point to a similarity in the tour operators' presentation of other countries in the region. If Zimbabwe is depicted as a 'generic' African destination, easily substituted by others in the region, it risks losing its competitive edge.

These results suggest that few UK tour operators are taking the opportunity to portray Zimbabwe's human assets as well as its natural attractions. The country has a history, culture and artistic tradition capable of instilling national and local pride, and local people who have expert knowledge of wildlife and habitats, yet these are rarely featured in the brochure illustrations. This raises the question as to whether UK tour operators are denying Zimbabwe the opportunity to benefit from a more diversified imagery and a form of tourism that generates maximum benefit for both the local communities and the environment.

6.6.2 The Postal Survey

The sample for the postal survey was all UK tour operators who operate to Zimbabwe for general recreational and nature-oriented tourism. As in the case of the brochure analysis, companies whose tours were targeted at highly specialised niche markets (golf, bird-watching, etc.) were excluded from consideration, primarily because the activity rather than the destination was likely to be the defining factor of the travel products offered.

6.6.2.1 Profile of tour operators

Small companies predominated, with close to half the sample comprising five or fewer employees.

Tour operators were asked to describe their customer base in terms of the proportions in each of five pre-determined categories. The majority of companies (see Figure 6.2) claimed to cater to 'nature tourists' (N=28), 'recreational tourists' (N=27) and 'adventure tourists' (N=28). Most also reported having 'cultural tourists' among their customers (N=23). Fewer then half (N=17) claimed to have 'eco-tourists' as customers, and several respondents queried the meaning of this term.

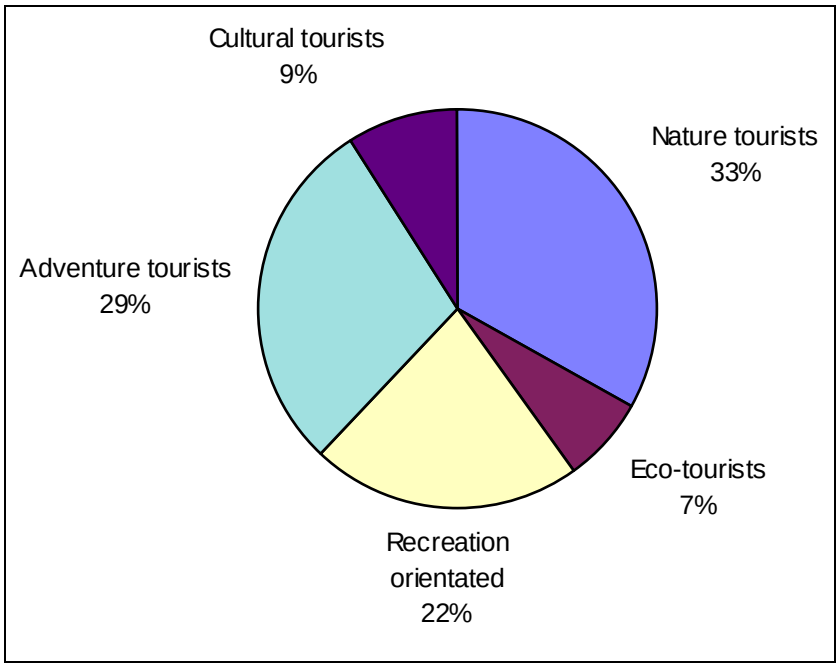

Figure 6.2. Tour Operator Perception of Customer Base.

The term 'eco-tourism' has become a common buzzword among conservationists, academic travel researchers and industry analysts. Despite its wide usage, there is as yet no broadly accepted definition of the term; often it is used loosely to describe all nature-oriented tourism, although some writers argue for a more stringent definition. Interestingly, this research suggests that 'eco-tourism' is not a term used to any great extent by UK tour operators to describe their clientele to Zimbabwe. In fact, some respondents even queried its meaning when responding to the questionnaire.

Classification of tour operators according to their perceived customer base yielded 16 Nature-oriented companies, which comprised the largest segment at 40%, 9 Recreation-oriented tour operators, and 7 Adventure-oriented companies. The remainder had a mixed clientele or gave no information about their customers.

A majority of the sample (75%; N=30) considered Zimbabwe important to their business, giving it the top two ratings on a 5-point scale (Figure 6.3). For most tour operators (60%; N=24), however, Zimbabwe accounted for less than 40% of their business. Almost all tour operators (93%; N=37) intended to continue operating to Zimbabwe in 1997.

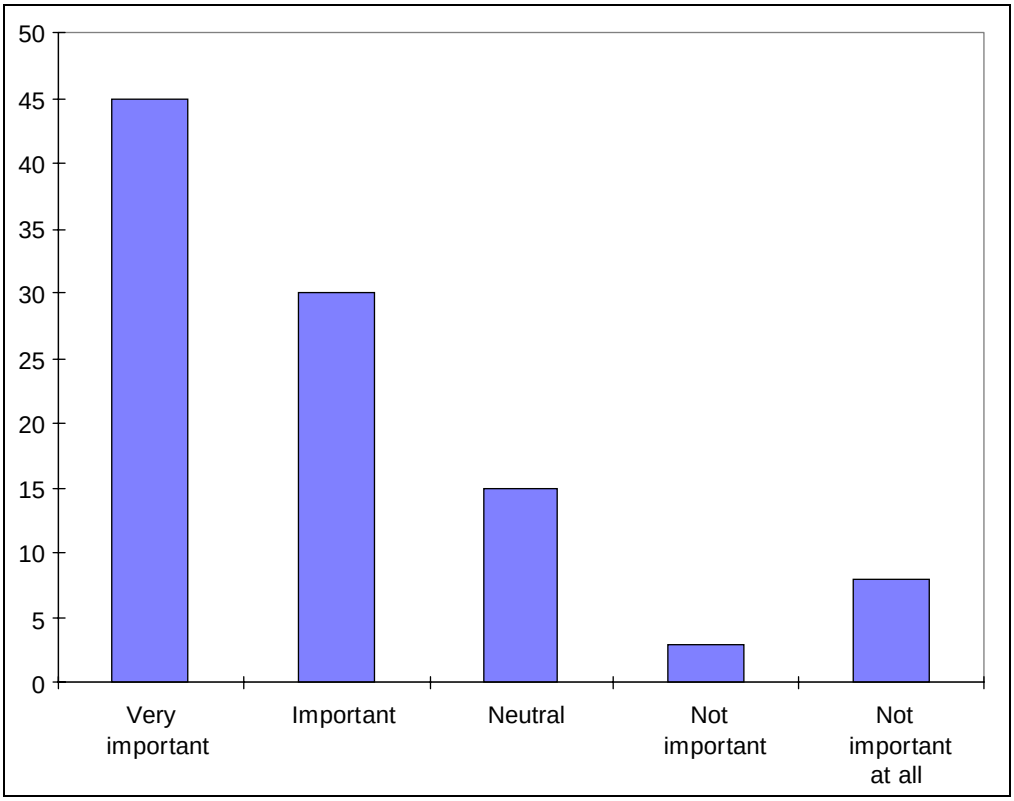

Figure 6.3. Importance of Zimbabwe to the Surveyed Companies % of respondents.

6.6.2.2 Opinions of Zimbabwe as a tourist destination

Zimbabwe was evaluated as a tourist destination on the same 14 attributes that tour operators rated in terms of importance. Results are summarised in Figure 6.4. Zimbabwe was rated most highly overall in terms of 'Good wildlife viewing,' followed by 'Standard of local guides/personnel is high,' 'Good ground handlers,' 'Safe to travel there,' 'Interesting landscape/scenery,' and 'Political stability.' All of the above received mean scores of more than 4.0 on a 5-point scale.

UK tour operators attached considerable weight to a destination's commitment to conservation when deciding whether or not to promote it. The factor 'Takes conservation seriously' received a mean score of 4.36 on the 5-point importance scale, with a majority (N=33) assigning it the top-two ratings. Tour operators' own

commitment to conservation was demonstrated by the number (N=24) who made financial and other contributions to conservation. Most of these (N=15) supported conservation projects/organisations in Zimbabwe or Southern and Eastern Africa.

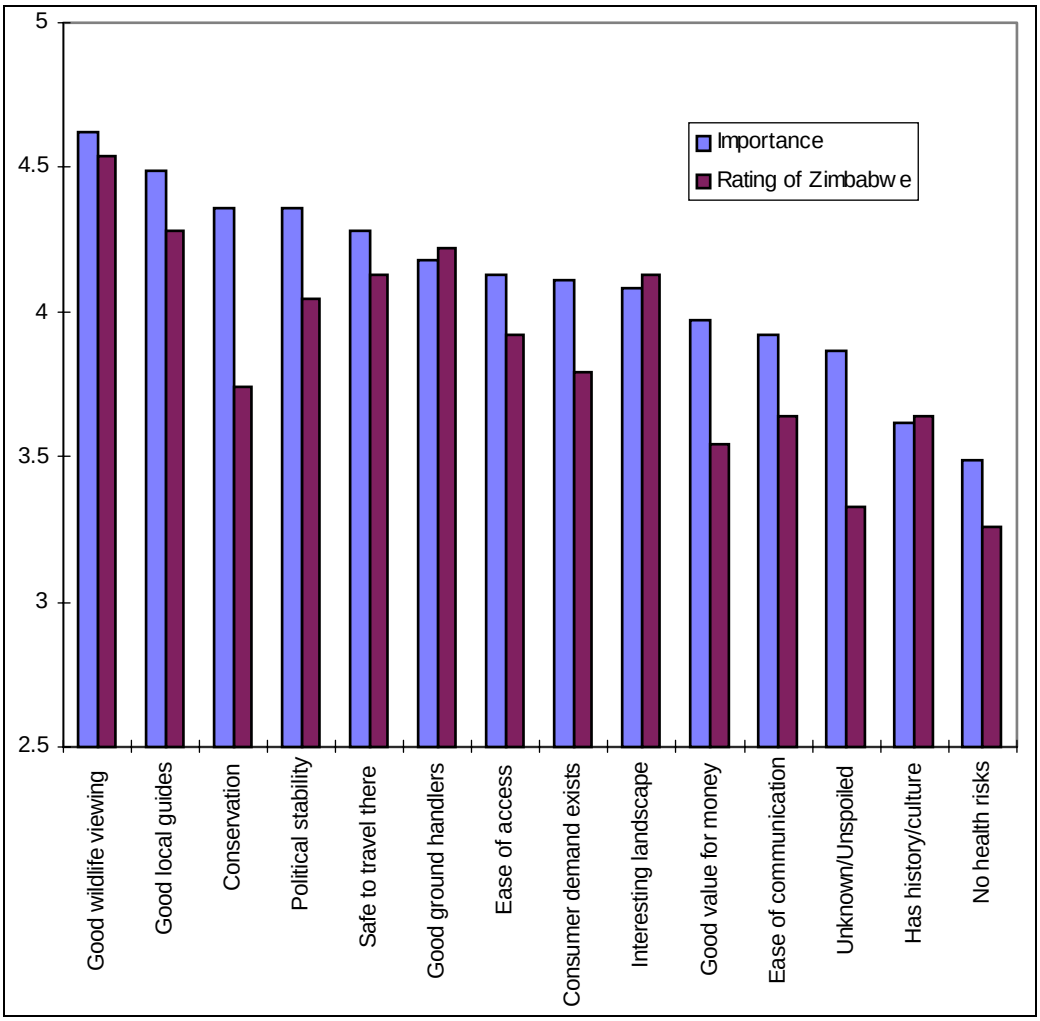

Figure 6.4. Opinions of Zimbabwe compared with opinions of important attributes of destinations in Southern Africa.

Lowest ratings went to the following, although none was rated lower than the neutral 3.0 on average: 'Good value for money,' 'Unknown/unspoiled' and 'No health risks.' The highest incidence of negative opinions concerned the 'health risk' aspect. Seven tour operators (18%) gave Zimbabwe ratings of 1 or 2, whereas no more than 4 respondents (10%) rated any other factor unfavourably.

6.6.2.3 Development of brochures

A large proportion of tour operators participating in this survey comprised no more than 5 employees. Being primarily small organisations, therefore, UK tour operators are largely self-reliant in their brochure production. The majority of the sample developed brochure materials mainly in-house, although most operators involved or

consulted others in the process of development, primarily their partners, affiliate companies and ground agents in Zimbabwe

Asked how important the opinions of various individuals and organisations were when deciding what to feature in their brochures on Zimbabwe, tour operators indicated that customers/tourists, the product manager (where applicable), the company's own UK staff, and the managing director/chairperson carried most weight. For both textual information and visual materials, the most frequently used and most important sources were the company's own staff, followed by partners/affiliates in Zimbabwe. The third most important written source of information was guide books. It is significant how little tour operators rely on the Zimbabwe NTO or the National Parks themselves for information. No more than 3 and 1 tour operators respectively felt that these organisations were of great importance to brochure development.

6.6.2.4 Perceptions of National Parks

Figure 6.5 shows the National Parks that tour operators intend to feature in their 1997/1998 brochures and promotional materials, and compares these with their inclusion in the operators' current brochures. The figures suggest a significant increase in interest in Gonarezhou.

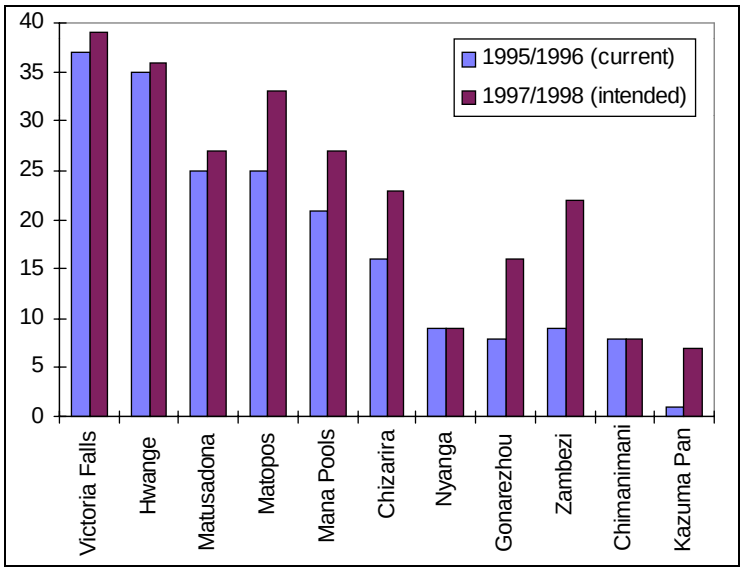

Figure 6.5. Incidence of Featuring Zimbabwe's National Parks in Tour Operators' Brochures

For each of five specified National Parks respondents were asked to indicate all of the reasons they felt that tour operators might have for featuring the park in their brochures. These reasons are summarised in Table 6.14. Note that only tour operators with direct experience or knowledge of each park were expected to give an opinion.

Another set of five parks was presented so that respondents could indicate why they felt tour operators might **not** feature certain National Parks. Table 6.15 summarises

reasons for not featuring each park. Results of these two questions are indicative of the top-of-mind perceptions of each park--the attributes that tour operators most readily associate with that park relative to others.

Generally speaking, there was little to differentiate between the parks in terms of the perceived professional standard of the local guides or safety and security matters, and almost all had similarly favourable reputations on these points. Most parks were also perceived as having good accommodation and other facilities.

	Hwange		Mana Pools		Matopos		Chizarira		Gonare-zhou	
Base	N=36		N=27		N=31		N=24		N=20	
		%		%		%		%		%
Have good contacts there	22	61	15	56	20	65	14	58	7	35
Tourists want to visit	33	92		70	15	48	7	29	3	15
Easily accessible	33	92	10	37	22	71	5	21	2	10
Good wildlife viewing	33	92	27	100	45	45	12	50	7	35
Can handle large groups	13	36	0	0	3	10	0	0	0	0
Spectacular scenery	4	11	16	59	26	84	18	75	7	35
Good accommodation/ facilities	27	75		48	17	55	12	50	10	50
Historical/cultural value	0	0		0	23	74	3	13	1	5
Safe/good security	16	44		48	16	52	11	46	7	35
Unique/unusual	6	17		70	20	65	19	79	12	60
Not crowded/few visitors	5	14		63	10	32	21	88	15	75
Guides are professional	21	58		70	18	58	17	71	13	65

Note: Figures in parentheses ( ) are actual numbers

Table 6.14. Reasons for promoting National Parks in brochures/promotional literature.

Base	Gonare-zhou	Nyanga	Zambezi	Hwange	Kazuma Pan
	N=31	N=28	N=15*	N=20	N=29
	%	%	%	%	%
Overcrowded/too developed	0	0	40	95	0
Lacks experienced guides	13	21	0	5	10
Not well-known	77	54	33	0	90
Not easily accessible	68	29	13	0	28
Poor wildlife viewing	32	43	13	5	10
Lacks scenic interest	0	0	13	30	3
Poor accommodation/ facilities	10	7	13	5	24
Clients lack time to visit	52	46	7	5	28
Safety is a problem	13	0	7	0	3
Nothing unique about it	3	7	0	10	10
Lack sufficient information about park	52	43	33	5	69

Note: * Caution: extremely small base size **Table 6.15. Reasons for not promoting National Parks in brochures/ promotional literature.**

For Gonarezhou the major reasons why it is not promoted by more tour operators are a function of access and the time taken to visit it, the poor wildlife viewing and most important the fact that the park is not well known. 52% of the operators agreed that they lacked sufficient information about the park.

6.6.2.5 Wildlife and habitats

According to tour operators, visitors to Zimbabwe most often wanted to see the 'big five', specifically elephant and big cats such as lion, leopard and cheetah (Figure 6.6).

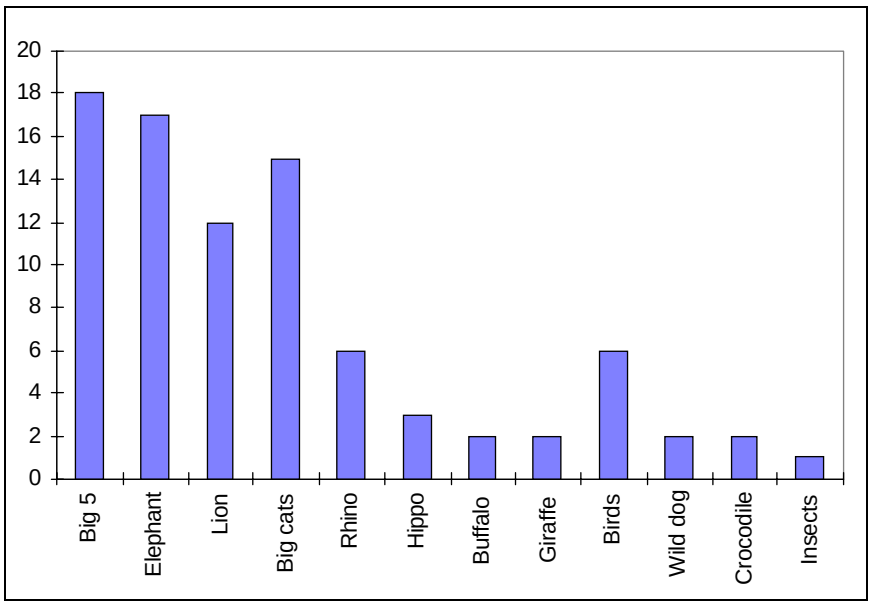

Figure 6.6. Tour Operators Ratings of Species Tourists Want to See on a Trip to Zimbabwe

The large majority of tour operators (93%; N=37) claimed that it was important to show their clients a range of different habitats during their trip to Zimbabwe.

6.6.2.6 Tour operators' perceptions of, and attitudes to, Zimbabwe.

UK tour operators' opinions of Zimbabwe were mainly very positive with a majority considering Zimbabwe to be important to their business, and almost all intended to continue operating to Zimbabwe in 1997.

Overall, Zimbabwe was evaluated favourably on those aspects regarded as important prerequisites to promoting a destination, suggesting that the country is on target with its tourism development strategy. In particular, UK tour operators reiterated the widely held view that Zimbabwe offers quality wildlife viewing, security both in terms of political stability and safety of travel within the country, and a good tourism infrastructure, including well-trained local personnel.

Zimbabwe's highest mean ratings on a 5-point scale were for:

- Good wildlife viewing (4.54)
- Standard of local guides/personnel is high (4.28)
- Good ground handlers (4.22)
- Safe to travel there (4.15)
- Interesting landscape/scenery (4.13)
- Political stability (4.05)

During preliminary personal interviews tour operators emphasised the role that local personnel, especially wildlife guides played in enhancing tourism appeal. These results indicate that Zimbabwe was rated favourably in terms of the calibre of its local guides, a factor of prime importance to tour operators when deciding whether to promote a destination in the region. Tour operators felt that good guides were not only the key to customer satisfaction, but they could be instrumental in modifying tourists' expectations. Several noted that experienced, knowledgeable guides were able to stimulate interest and educate tourists about less common wildlife and habitats.

"The standard of guides (in Zimbabwe) is very high--very professional."

"Our clients going to small camps/lodges usually go out with or talk to the owners or professional guides. They return normally very enthusiastic about conservation. In other words, the guides educate the clients."

"(Tourists want to see) the Big Five to start with, but with good guides learn to find more./Good guides can convert people to other wildlife once there."

"Experienced trackers can make even insect life interesting."

One of Zimbabwe's strengths is its variety of interesting landscapes; not only do the various locations of the National Parks reflect the geographical diversity of the country, but often the parks comprise a range of different habitat types within their boundaries. As noted above, tour operators rated Zimbabwe favourably on 'Interesting landscape/scenery,' and their comments indicated that some at least appreciate the country's diverse scenery:

"Chizarira...has such a diversity of vegetation. Although it doesn't have much big game, it's so remote and diverse."

"Zambezi has stunning scenery."

"Matopos provides a good contrast to other parks we visit in Southern and East Africa (South Luangwa, Lake Kariba, Okavango). We try to offer a variety of scenery."

"Matusadona has a variety of landscapes."

"The Eastern Highlands have scenery that you don't normally associate with Zimbabwe."

"The Eastern Highlands are very different. More like Scotland than what people expect from Africa, with golf, fishing and mountain scenery."

Furthermore, the large majority of tour operators maintained that it was important to show customers a variety of habitats. Interestingly, content analysis revealed that the visuals in their brochures did not always do justice to the range of scenery and habitat types that Zimbabwe has to offer. In particular, the unique landscapes of Nyanga, Chimanimani, and the Southeast lowveld were rarely depicted.

Another of Zimbabwe's assets is its history and culture. Although wildlife was the major attraction, tourists were reportedly eager for cultural and social experiences, since 'Opportunities to meet local people' was cited by tour operators as one of the key attractions of a trip to a Southern African destination.

"Southern Africa does not have too many historical sites. The Great Zimbabwe ruins are probably the biggest historical site in Southern Africa."

"The cultural aspects are beginning to develop, and historical trips are becoming popular."/"The culture--meeting people and visiting the local tribes (is attractive to customers)."

"Our customers are interested in the African cultures, the artefacts. They want to get close to the reality of Africa--the animals and tribal people."

According to the findings of this study, Zimbabwe had no obvious weaknesses as a tourist destination, although this would be difficult to assess without comparing it with other destinations in the region. Lowest ratings on the 5-point scale went to the following three aspects, although none was rated lower than the neutral 3.0 on average:

- Good value for money (3.54)
- Unknown/unspoiled (3.33)
- No health risks (3.26)

The highest incidence of negative opinions (N=7) concerned the 'health risk' aspect. This may be attributed in part to recent media reports on the AIDS crisis in Zimbabwe. However, health issues, while important, were not of primary concern to travel agents operating in Southern Africa, perhaps because it was recognised that Zimbabwe was no better or worse than other countries in this respect.

"Health risks (in Zimbabwe) are poor--as in all of Southern Africa."

One potential threat to Zimbabwe's attractiveness as a tourist destination is its relatively low rating in terms of 'Good value for money,' another point that merits further investigation. A trip to Africa is a big ticket item for most consumers, although Zimbabwe probably offers better infrastructure, facilities and services than many African countries. Nevertheless, cheap holidays to Asian destinations are increasingly

available and given the superb level of service offered in Asia, tourists' expectations of value are likely to change. Unless the level of services and facilities both overall and in National Parks continues to improve, Zimbabwe risks losing its competitive edge, especially if pursuing a policy of high-value tourism. Overpricing of tourism services was identified by Price Waterhouse consultants as a key problem in the Zimbabwean tourism industry (Zimbabwe Council for Tourism, 1996).

"Value for money could become a problem, with Africa losing out to the Far East. It's very expensive for the level of service, and Asia is offering incredible bargains. People's expectations will change as a result."

"It's too expensive for what you get in many cases."

"Value for money (is an important issue), especially fees to enter the National Parks."/"The National Parks are becoming more expensive."

Some concern should also be shown for the relatively low rating on 'Unknown/unspoiled.' As revealed by the brochure analysis, Zimbabwe tends to be presented as a natural wilderness, distinct from crowded mass-tourism destinations. Accordingly, with the slightest indication that it has become the target of mass tourists, Zimbabwe risks losing its appeal as an exclusive destination.

6.6.2.7 Factors that influence tour operators' choice of which National Parks to promote to customers

Compared to current brochures, there were marked increases in the number of operators who claimed that certain parks would be featured in next season's brochures: Chizarira (from 16 to 23), Zambezi (from 9 to 22) and Gonarezhou (from 8 to 16). Nyanga, Chimanimani and Kazuma Pan, however, look set to remain poorly promoted, with no more than 9 tour operators mentioning these parks, despite some intended improvement in the latter's exposure (from 1 to 7).

Turning to the reasons why tour operators might choose to feature or not feature certain National Parks in their brochures, the following discusses the content of Tables 6.14 and 6.15 highlighting the apparent differences in perceptions of the parks.

Tourist 'demand to visit' was a key reason for featuring **Hwange**, as were the park's accessibility and quality of wildlife viewing. Relative to other parks, Hwange was perceived to have a particularly good supporting infrastructure in terms of accommodation and other facilities. This park was virtually the only one considered able to handle large groups of tourists. On the downside, Hwange was not perceived as being unique or unusual, particularly in terms of scenery. Furthermore, a sizeable proportion of tour operators consider overcrowding and over-development to be a reason why they might not promote Hwange.

On the positive side, the key differentiating perceptions of **Gonarezhou** were its lack of crowding and uniqueness. Frequent mention was also made of the high quality of guides and facilities, but neither point discriminated strongly from other parks.

Main reasons cited for not featuring Gonarezhou in promotional materials were its perceived inaccessibility, the fact that it was not well-known, and the lack of sufficient information about the park. Not only did tour operators consider it difficult to visit the park, they also noted that their clients lacked time to get there. Compared to other parks, few felt that the park was in high demand or that they had good local contacts in the area. There was also a perception that the quality of wildlife viewing in the park was not as good as elsewhere. While not a major issue, a few concerns about safety were also voiced, a reflection perhaps of recent guerrilla activity in the region.

Three key factors explain why certain National Parks do not get greater exposure in UK tour operators' brochures: **availability of information**; **accessibility**; and perceived **quality of wildlife viewing**. The current research, however, was not able to determine which of these factors was most important, and their weight may well differ by park. For example, although tour operators assigned highest importance to 'Good wildlife viewing' for African destinations in general, this factor alone may not be sufficient to generate greater tourism volume to remoter parks. Rather, accessibility, higher awareness levels, and better facilities/services may be the key.

Lack of knowledge about parks on the part of both tour operators and potential tourists was a major shortcoming, particularly for Gonarezhou, Nyanga, and Kazuma Pan. Without sufficient information, tour operators are unlikely to feature these parks in their brochures, and this appeared to be borne out by the low incidence with which these parks were mentioned in current travel brochures. In turn, this lack of exposure means that tourists are less likely to include such destinations in the opportunity set from which they select destinations to visit. There were also indications that tour operators lacked accurate and current information about certain parks, as reflected in the following unsolicited comment:

"I thought Gonarezhou had been poached out (of wildlife) and that only Zimbabwe residents could visit."

Difficulty of access combined with the limited time available to visit also explained why the more remote National Parks were not promoted to a greater extent. Given recent improvements in transportation infrastructure, this problem may be as much one of perception as reality. Nevertheless, UK tourists reportedly spent no more than about two weeks in Zimbabwe, often visiting other countries as well. This suggests that if flight schedules and journey times to destinations such as Gonarezhou and Nyanga were not compatible with their itineraries, they were unlikely to want to go there.

Typical comments about accessibility made during preliminary personal interviews included:

"Gonarezhou is difficult because of access."

"It is so remote, so you can't send first-timers or family groups."

"There is a good airport, but it needs regular services. It's a Catch 22 situation. Until the demand is there, there won't be a more frequent schedule

"The logistics of getting to Gonarezhou and out again on schedule are difficult. And it's very expensive to charter for small groups. Also, if people are visiting more than one country they lack to the time to spend in one place."

"Getting to the Eastern Highlands is related to the time available, especially if tourists are heading to the north-western corner of Zimbabwe."

The quality of wildlife viewing offered by destinations in Southern Africa was of prime importance to tour operators, who indicated that their customers sought both an abundance of wildlife and the opportunity to see wildlife at close quarters. Although this may have to be substantiated by further research, tour operators seemed to feel obliged to deliver what their clients expected: namely, big game. Hwange and Mana Pools National Parks were apparently able to satisfy these expectations. Hwange was cited most frequently by tour operators as the best place to see elephant, lion, wild dog, cheetah, and leopard. Mana Pools was also widely recommended for various species, especially hippo. Gonarezhou and Nyanga, on the other hand, were perceived to have relatively poor wildlife viewing opportunities.

"Lack of game can be a problem for tourists who are unable to enjoy their holiday unless they see the Big Five."

"There is pressure on tour operators to deliver."

"We would love to feature Gonarezhou, but the poaching problem has caused a lack of game. It's too risky to take first-time travellers there because they might be disappointed, so we do the Big Game in 'safe' areas."

Currently, UK tour operators do not appear to consider overcrowding to be a major problem in the National Parks. Nevertheless, there are signs that certain parks or sections of parks are beginning to be perceived as 'overdeveloped.' Results of this study suggest that Hwange, Victoria Falls and Zambezi are potential problem areas. It is worth noting in this respect that at least one tour operator was planning to drop Zimbabwe from their portfolio next year, primarily because of perceived environmental degradation at Victoria Falls. Other comments made by tour operators included:

"Our business (to Victoria Falls) has declined to 0% this year. It is becoming a mass tourism area and we cannot compete on price even though our product is superior."

"Hwange is overcrowded in the 10 mile sphere (of the main gate), but not in the wilderness areas."

"Hwange is vast and only a small section is open to visitors...but maybe that's a good thing. It's too busy in areas where everyone goes, however."

"We feature Hwange because it's famous, but it's not particularly attractive and it's getting more overcrowded."

"Hwange is now overdeveloped...It has a mass market appeal."

"Victoria Falls--everyone wants to see them./It has become the major playground of Africa."

"Mana Pools is a 'must do' for tourists, so we have to include it. But because of the canoe safaris it's getting overcrowded."

These negative perceptions of Hwange and Victoria Falls may be to Gonarezhou's advantage, or tour operators may promote parks elsewhere in Southern Africa which are less commercialised and with greater concentrations of game.

7. THE LOWVELD CONSERVANCIES 101

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7. THE LOWVELD CONSERVANCIES

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The three conservancies, Bubiana Conservancy, Chiredzi River Conservancy and Save Valley Conservancy are all located in the southern lowveld of Zimbabwe (see Map 1.1). The conservancies are characterised by the amalgamation of a number of properties into a single wildlife management unit large enough to enable the efficient management and development of shared wildlife. Each of the conservancies is presented in this report as a separate case study. There has been contact between the three conservancies, particularly through the auspices of the Department of National Parks and Wild Life Management (DNPWLM) in relation to the management of rhino, and in 1993-94 when Price Waterhouse were working with all three conservancies in developing this alternative land use option. However, it is important not to treat these three conservancies as one and the same. They were initiated in different particular circumstances and they have evolved differently. The conservancies are the product of the individuals who comprise them and the solutions which the conservancies have evolved in order to develop towards their goals. This chapter of the report does not seek to summarise the experience and achievements of the individual conservancies, these are presented in the individual case studies.

With the signing of their constitutions, the members of the three lowveld conservancies pledged to undertake joint wildlife-based ventures, managed in an ecologically sustainable manner and based on trophy hunting and high quality non-consumptive tourism. A Price Waterhouse study published in 1994 used economic and agricultural production models to show that wildlife-based enterprises were economically more viable than cattle as a form of land use in the lowveld conservancies. In addition, it highlighted the potential socio-economic benefits that tourism and hunting could bring to the region.[1]

This chapter considers the concept of a conservancy and the goals of the lowveld conservancies featured in the case studies. An initial assessment of the development of the conservancies follows.

When Mrs Rushesha, then Deputy Minister for Environment and Tourism, suggested that we should undertake our research in the lowveld, she also suggested that we include the conservancies in our research. This stretched the resources available to the project considerably. However, the opportunity to study the conservancies through their formative years and to present the case studies was readily accepted. It should be remembered that the research was primarily concerned with Gonarezhou and that the number of tourists staying in the conservancies has been too small to allow of a detailed treatment of non-consumptive tourism there.

1 Price Waterhouse 1994.

7.2 The Creation of the Conservancies

7.2.1 History

The Chiredzi River Conservancy Area (CRCA), incorporating three individual properties, was established in September 1989 and a joint wildlife management policy created. This was the first of the lowveld conservancies to be created. The Chiredzi River Conservancy Area resulted from an agreement between the Buffalo, Ruware and Chiredzi South ranchers, late in 1987, to meet every two or three months to discuss poaching.[2] They also began to discuss over-stocking. Buffalo Range had established wildlife-based operations in 1961, the longest-standing game ranch in Zimbabwe. In August 1993 the Chiredzi River Conservancy Area became the Chiredzi River Conservancy, when an additional nine properties were incorporated, and a constitution was signed by all members.

Both Save Valley and Bubiana Conservancies were formed in June 1991, when the various landowner-members of the conservancies signed their respective constitutions.

The lowveld conservancies emerged from a prolonged process of evolution as the ranchers re-evaluated their farming methods and adapted their personal goals and businesses to the changes which were occurring around them. The ranchers who became members of the conservancies did not subscribe to a new form of organisation, rather they were part of a process which evolved a new form of organisation as a response to a particular set of circumstances and experiences. Different ranchers subscribed to the conservancy concept for different reasons and with different degrees of enthusiasm, bringing with them different skills and resources. There were considerable changes of land ownership in all three conservancies, so that the membership of the conservancies changed during the period of their formation.

7.2.2 Rationale

Each of the conservancies in the south east lowveld was the product of a different set of particular circumstances described in the case studies. However, there are some significant common concerns:

- excessive off-take of game
- poaching
- over-stocking with cattle
- greater economic and ecological resilience in the face of drought
- the conservation of species, particularly of endangered species (e.g. the rhino)
- the opportunity to manage resources on a more appropriate scale
- the opportunity to make a contribution to the conservation of habitat and of soil and water

The ranchers were increasingly concerned to manage cattle ranches in a sustainable way. In forming the conservancies the ranchers committed themselves to the collective stewardship of their wildlife, and to the collective purchase of game for reintroduction. The creation of the conservancies was given initial impetus by the

2 interview with T Ballance.

requirement to create, and protect, sufficiently large areas to conserve and breed black rhino. This is a collaborative programme with the DNPWLM.

By participating in the project, each of the groups of ranchers who were subsequently to form the conservancies, committed themselves to joint management of habitat and to the employment and management of a large staff of game scouts who need to be trained and equipped to protect the rhino. This stimulus was central to the creation of the conservancies**.**

7.2.3 Rhino

In the mid-1980's, with rhino under increasing pressure from poachers, the DNPWLM sought more secure areas where rhino could be translocated to form breeding nuclei. The creation of viable breeding groups on private land was seen as an insurance policy for the species, to be implemented concurrently with efforts to protect the residual populations on State land in Intensive Protection Zones.

Demographic and genetic constraints suggested that an initial breeding group of 30-40 animals would be required, and allowed to expand as rapidly as possible to over 100 through uninterrupted breeding. Several such breeding groups would be necessary to maintain genetic variability within the species and allow crossbreeding to minimise the inbreeding problems associated with small, isolated populations. In addition, for the lowveld area, a maximum density of 1 black rhino per 10 k^{m2} was believed to be prudent.

None of the individual ranches prepared to assist in the conservation of the black rhino (to be relocated from the Zambezi Valley where poaching was rife) was large enough to receive a group of over 30 rhinos which could expand to over 100 at a density of 1:10 km^2. It was therefore necessary to amalgamate groups of ranches to form suitable refuges, totalling over 1000 km^2 where possible. Hence the formation of the lowveld 'rhino conservancies'.[3]

Rhino recruitment has been good on the conservancies although they have been expensive to guard.

		N^o of Rhino Introduced	Latest available population figure
Bubiana	1988	38	61
Chiredzi	1988	8	13
Save Valley	1986-1993	35	54
Total		81	128

Table 7.1 .Lowveld "Rhino" Conservancies, Rhino Introductions and Recruitment.

It was envisaged when the rhino were accepted that the high costs of security for the rhino would be defrayed by income from non-consumptive tourism. There has not yet

3 Price Waterhouse, 1994.

been sufficient tourism to generate any significant revenue to off-set against the costs of taking responsibility for the rhino. The potential may also be less than was envisaged.

UK tour operators (N=40) were asked in an unprompted question to name the species which their clients were most interested in seeing in Zimbabwe. Only 6 (15%) mentioned rhino, the same score as for the generic 'birds'. 18 mentioned the 'big five', 17 elephant, 15 big cats and 12 mentioned lion. In the visitor questionnaire, which was prompted, black rhino rated 4.04, fourth of the 'big five'.[4]

7.2.4 Unsustainable Cattle Ranching

Whilst an important motivation for forming the conservancies was rhino conservation, the landowners realised that cattle-ranching in the south-east lowveld had a bleak future. The vegetation could no longer sustain viable cattle stocking rates, and beef was no longer profitable. There was an increasing realisation that wildlife-based operations - the development of multi-use wildlife production systems based on high quality consumptive and non-consumptive tourism - offered an attractive alternative to cattle mono-culture. A multi-use wildlife production system presented significant economic potential, which was important since the financial burden of the rhino protection programme on conservancy land falls solely on the landowners.

In Bubiana this realisation coincided with an increasing disenchantment with the low economic returns associated with cattle ranching, which was perceived as unstable and a cause of veld degradation in drought cycles. In Save Valley the deciding factor was the severe drought of 1991/92, during which no cattle survived on the land whilst a surprising number of wild animals did. In Chiredzi River Conservancy there was already a history of game ranching, and all CRC members see wildlife-based operations as being an important part of the future activities of their ranches. The recovery in cattle prices between 1994 and 1995 reduced the willingness of members of the Chiredzi River and Bubiana Conservancies to further reduce cattle numbers, although Save Valley Conservancy has removed all cattle.

It was clear that any move from conventional cattle ranching to wildlife production as a primary land-use would need to be justified in economic and socio-economic terms in order to secure political support at local and national levels.[5] The Price Waterhouse study showed that in economic terms wildlife enterprises were more economically viable than cattle enterprises. Cattle enterprises lacked economic viability because of aridity, the controlled price of beef, restricted marketing opportunities because of veterinary restrictions and, in some cases, poor management. 'By and large, wildlife enterprises were shown to be more economically viable and efficient than cattle enterprises' in regions III to V[6].

The argument for wildlife or multi-species utilisation was a powerful one in the context of veld degradation from overstocking and the 1991/92 drought. At

4 Elephant 4.17, lion 4.08, leopard 4.07, white rhino 3.87 and buffalo 3.78
5 Price Waterhouse 1994, p.12.
6 ibid. p.96.

Gonarezhou the November 1991 to October 1992 rainfall was a mere 87.6 mm, only 17.8% of the yearly average 1991-1996. Rainfall in 1995 equalled the mean and in 1996 was 36% above the mean. Rainfall in the current rainy season is also above average. In this context the pressure to move out of cattle has been reduced**.**

7.3 The Vision

7.3.1 The Conservancy Concept[7]

Raoul du Toit, DNPWLM Ecologist responsible for liaison with the conservancies, and in particular for the rhino programme, wrote the chapter in the Price Waterhouse 1994 Lowveld Conservancies report on The Conservancy Concept. He was involved in the development of the concept in all three conservancies and he is quoted at length here. du Toit provided a clear statement of the thinking which lay behind the concept of the conservancy and the linkage with the 1975 Parks and Wildlife Act.

du Toit defined a conservancy as:

"any number of properties which are amalgamated into a single complex in order to enable more efficient management, utilisation and protection of some or all of the natural resources in that area".[8]

"*The Parks and Wild Life Act (1975, with amendments) provides an ideal legislative foundation for the formation of conservancies and the ongoing management of their wildlife resources. The particular feature of this Act is that it confers stewardship of wildlife on landowners. It does so by abolishing the conventional, colonial-style state controls on hunting seasons, off-take quotas, license fees, etc., and instead identifies the landowner or the lessee as the 'appropriate authority' in this regard. However, the State does reserve the right to intervene in situations where the privileges of appropriate authorities are being abused, or where there is a clear need for some form of wildlife management. The usage rights of individual landholders, as the appropriate authorities, may be readily extended to private contractual arrangements governing mutual use of wildlife by groups of landowners. These contractual arrangements are embodied within the constitutions of each of the lowveld conservancies."*

"*The conservancies' constitutions are based on the following principles.*

a) That there are measures to maintain sound, scientifically-based management of all the Conservancy's wildlife resources, and not just a few species of animals.

b) That members jointly meet requirements for recurrent expenditure involved in running a Conservancy, including the necessary anti-poaching measures.

7 R. F. du Toit quoted from Price Waterhouse 1994, pp.15-17.
8 Ibid. 15.

c) *That internal game fencing is strictly limited in order not to divide a Conservancy into compartments and thereby interfere with the movement and breeding of animals.*

d) *That in the event that any property within a Conservancy passes into the hands of an agency whose land-use and wildlife management practices do not conform with the stated objectives of the Conservancy, such property be excised from the Conservancy according to arrangements which minimise the loss of the Conservancy's assets (including wildlife).*

Following regular wildlife surveys and professional ecological advice, each conservancy member is allocated an annual quota for the consumptive utilisation of different wildlife species on his property. It is then his decision as to how he wishes to use his quota (e.g. for safari hunting, live sales of wildlife, game cropping, or no harvest whatsoever). The concern of some ranchers that they would be surrendering their individual rights to wildlife utilisation, and would instead be dictated to by the conservancy committees, was the biggest stumbling block to the formation of the conservancies. However, this concern has given way to the realisation that the conservancy concept is a refinement, rather than a reversal, of the landholder's rights which are entrenched within the Parks and Wild Life Act. This is so because it caters for the sustainable, self-determined use by a ranching community of animals that cannot be effectively managed in the long term on separate ranches of average size.

The wildlife resources within a conservancy are 'communally-managed', as opposed to uncontrolled 'common property'. The type of conservancy represented by the lowveld models is fundamentally a mechanism for collective decision-making, so that the individuals are provided with the assurance that others will not misuse shared resources. This situation of controlled use, by specific individuals, of commonly-managed property is very different to both the co-operative approach, where members receive dividends from a single, jointly-managed company, and the 'open access' situation, where there are no rules governing access to and use of common resources.

The objectives of the conservancies, as stated in their constitutions, are similar and amount to the following.

a. To develop and maintain opportunities for the conservation and sustainable utilisation of natural resources in the conservancy area, through co-ordinated and mutually supportive action between landowners involving:

i) the specification of, and strict adherence to, sound ecological management policies aimed at preventing:

a) *exploitation of the natural resources by any user, at the expense of other users*;

ii) re-introduction of wildlife species that have either been eradicated or reduced to low numbers within the conservancy area, provided:

a) *these species are compatible with accepted ranching activities;*

b) their founder populations can be made large enough to constitute viable breeding groups;

iii) construction and maintenance of perimeter game fencing to a specified standard, while limiting game fencing within the conservancy to the minimum amount required for protection of crops, construction of holding bomas, or other basic management needs, thereby ensuring that:

a) small populations do not become fragmented and isolated, thus creating inbreeding problems;

b) *species with narrow habitat preferences are able to move seasonally between areas that are temporarily suitable for them;*

iv) promotion of mutually beneficial schemes for deriving economic returns from wildlife, through either consumptive means (e.g. game cropping and safari hunting) or non-consumptive means (e.g. tourism);

v) development of an effective anti-poaching system, together with a programme to enhance communication with, and co-operation from, surrounding communities;

vi) full liaison between elected representatives or employees of the conservancy and relevant local authorities and government agencies (such as the Department of National Parks and Wild Life Management and the Zimbabwe Republic Police) and non-government agencies (such as funding bodies, conservation organisations and the Wildlife Producers' Association).

b. *To assist where possible in the attainment of national objectives for wildlife conservation, notably the protection and breeding of endangered species, in the hope that these species shall eventually become components of a sustainable land-use system; however, the conservation of endangered species within the conservancy would not be necessarily dependent upon economic incentives; conditions outlined in a) ii above shall also apply to endangered species.*

c. To promote bona fide research into ecological and economic aspects of natural resources management (both to guide the development of the conservancy and to yield information of relevance to land-use in similar areas) and to develop monitoring systems appropriate to the needs of conservancy management".

Price Waterhouse in *The Lowveld Conservancies: New Opportunities for Productive and Sustainable Land-Use* recognised that the conservancies could not solve the development issues in the resettlement and communal areas surrounding them.

However there were four ways in which the conservancies could improve the situation by generating:

1) direct employment in the conservancies and conservancy businesses
- construction
- on-going conservancy businesses, in particular lodges

2) indirect employment in the conservancies and conservancy businesses
- meat, fruit, vegetables, eggs, soft furnishings, uniforms and curios would be sourced in the communal and resettlement areas.

3) local community involvement in the conservancies
- supply of meat at affordable prices into the surrounding communities
- direct involvement in community businesses, it was envisaged that investment would be "made in kind with donor support."
- as members through "incorporation of non-arable sections of communal land within the Conservancy complexes", whilst this would be difficult because of population pressure there were areas of "broken granitic terrain with wildlife potential"

4) regional development
- generation of new economic activity and infrastructure
- creation of a "southern circuit" spreading tourism into the lowveld

Parts V and VI of the Price Waterhouse Report presented a series of case studies which sought to demonstrate the financial and economic value of the conservancy approach. One of the case studies was for Senuko, details of the projections and the current situation are included in the case study.[9] Part VI considered the potential of the conservancies for off-setting the development constraints in Communal and Resettlement Areas. This section dealt with the employment effects and the opportunities for local community involvement in the conservancies[10] and pointed to the regional development potential of tourism in the lowveld.[11]

7.3.2 The Widening of the Concept

There is no formal definition of the term conservancy. It has been applied to a number of wildlife management schemes in Southern Africa in Namibia, South Africa and Zimbabwe. In Zimbabwe "conservancy" has been used to describe wildlife management on private land. The term has been used to describe both collaborative institutions involving a number of landowners (as is the case with the lowveld conservancies) and a number of wildlife areas on commercial farm land without any collaborative management element. There has been confusion about the nature of a conservancy as a consequence of this diverse usage of the concept. In Zimbabwe there is no legal definition of a conservancy and they have been created under civil contract. The concept has been exclusively used by private landowners to describe

9 see VII below.
10 See Chapter 5 above, and the individual case studies.
11 See Chapter 1 above.

their wildlife management practices. To date there has been little or no contact with RDCs, CAMPFIRE or the Communal Land farmers.

In South Africa, where game farms are licensed, conservancies exist where there is collaborative management of habitat and species by two or more landowners. The legal status of the conservancies, as in Zimbabwe, is based on civil contract. The creation of conservancies has been supported by some nature conservation agencies. Natal Parks Board has encouraged a conservancy approach to encourage farmers to manage their land in ways which maintain the ecological integrity of water catchments. There is some doubt about the value of these initiatives in Natal; Murphree and Metcalfe's judgement is that "they have not played a significant role in conserving species, catchments, nor as economic units of production."[12]

In Namibia, conservancies emerged as a response to government policy. Since 1968 landowners have had the right to use and benefit from wildlife on their land. One of the conditions is that the land should have a boundary game proof fence. Groups of farmers pooled their land in order to create large units which could be managed jointly to maximise the wildlife benefits whilst reducing the cost of fencing. Since 1991 the government has recognised conservancies and defined them as

"… a group of farms on which neighbouring landowners have pooled their resources for the purpose of conserving and utilising wildlife on their combined properties."

The concept of a conservancy can be applied to commercial and communal land in Namibia. The Ministry of Environment and Tourism (1995) has concluded that the conservation of wildlife has been improved and that the "multi-million Namibian dollar game farming, hunting and tourism industries" contribute to the national economy "while requiring very little financial and technological support from the State."[13] Since 1996 farmers on communal land have had the right to apply for an area of communal land to be declared a conservancy acquiring the rights to manage and utilise the wildlife on the designated land.

Murphree and Metcalfe (1997) argue that there are four generalisations about conservancies which hold true in Namibia, South Africa and Zimbabwe:

- The motivation for the creation of the conservancies includes ecological, economic and managerial objectives

- The conservancies are "in all instances" collaborative institutions "involving two or more land and natural resource owners/users". The conservancies are managed for individual and joint ends.

- The term conservancy should not be applied where the unit is under single or sole management.

12 Murphree M W and Metcalfe S C (1997).

13 Namibia Government, Ministry of Environment and Tourism (1995) Wildlife Management, Utilisation and Tourism in Communal Land (Windhoek, 1995) cited in Murphree M W and Metcalfe S C (1997):2.

- There is no reason why a conservancy cannot include communal farmers or other tenure categories.

Murphree and Metcalfe suggest that a conservancy should be defined as

"a contractually legitimated co-management entity involving two or more recognised land and resource authorities formed for the use and conservation of natural resources on land under their jurisdiction."[14]

Murphree and Metcalfe argue that the conservancy concept can be used by private land and communal land farmers.[15]

7.4 Biodiversity and Conservation Value

Species richness in the three conservancies is high, considering the amount of degradation that the land has experienced. For example, 390+ species of birds have been identified so far in Bubiana. Large mammal species have been, and are continuing to be reintroduced, and each conservancy supports a diverse array of plant communities. Although full species inventories have not yet been compiled, once veld degradation has been reversed these are likely to be comparable in size and content to those of Gonarezhou National Park which lies in close proximity to Save Valley and Chiredzi River Conservancies in the south-east lowveld of Zimbabwe.

A significant amount of land has been put back to wildlife in the lowveld, although in the Chiredzi River and Bubiana conservancies cattle continues to be run alongside wildlife, the stocking densities are significantly lower. Veld degradation has been halted. There has been considerable regeneration of grasses and soil erosion has already been substantially reduced.

The value of the conservancies to conservation has three aspects; their potential for contributing to the conservation of endangered species; their general contribution to wildlife conservation, (550,000 ha has been put back to wildlife), and; their potential to contribute to the restoration of degraded ecosystems in the lowveld. In addition, they constitute financially self-sustaining operations where conservation and sustainable use of rangeland are not dependant on public or donor funding in the long term.

The most important of the three aspects above is the contribution of the conservancies to the protection and conservation of the endangered black rhino in Zimbabwe. Not only do the conservancies provide refuges of adequate size but also a co-ordinated anti-poaching programme that would not be possible were it not for the joint initiative between conservancy members. Apart from the rhino, other rare or endangered species also occur on the conservancies. The Bubiana and Chiredzi River Conservancies have healthy populations of cheetah, while wild dog is now well

14 Op cit. 4. This definition was offered in the context of policy debate, it was not intended as a formal legal definition.
15 Ibid. 5.

established in the Save Valley Conservancy. A small population of Lichtenstein's hartebeest is established in Chiredzi River Conservancy.

Species	3 Conservancies	Malilangwe
Buffalo	370	233
Cheetah	2	0
Eland	50	255
Elephant	627	0
Gemsbok	0	30
Giraffe	300	147
Hartebeest	0	10
Hippo	2	0
Nyala	0	52
Ostrich	0	49
Reedbuck	0	20
Rhino, white	1	3
Sable	173	103
Tsessebe	85	0
Warthog	0	101
Waterbuck	85	83
Wildebeest	621	200
Zebra	278	99
Total Animals	2594	1385

Table 7.2. Mammal Restocking to January 1997.

Table 7.2 records the restocking which has taken place on the conservancies up to January 1997, involving considerable numbers of animals. The conservancies all plan to purchase more animals for restocking as and when they become available. Malilangwe has had the advantage of considerable charitable funding and a clear set of objectives.

In terms of general wildlife conservation, the conservancy programme reverses one of the greatest threats to biological diversity, namely habitat fragmentation. This global problem causes both a decrease in total habitat area and a splitting of the residual area into ever more isolated patches. Conservancies amalgamate previously divided areas thus reducing habitat fragmentation, and constitute areas which are large enough to maintain the ecological viability of species such as wild dog which require extensive home ranges. In addition, in a largely anthropogenic environment they provide a closely related network of protected areas with the potential for the establishment of connecting wildlife corridors. This would permit the expansion and genetic interaction of isolated, residual wildlife populations across the lowveld, dramatically increasing their long-term viability.

Finally, the conservancies contribute to the restoration of degraded land in the lowveld. Commercial cattle ranching, through inevitable overgrazing, accounts for a widespread pattern of veld degradation, including erosion, woody plant species encroachment, and grass community degradation to a point where productivity, nutritional value and palatability are all reduced. The development of a mixed community of indigenous ungulates with a wide variety of food preferences utilises the system more efficiently and also more leniently, and allows the development of a vegetation cover that will encourage reclamation of the hydrological and soil systems.

By demonstrating the ecological and economic success of wildlife ranching, conservancies will also help to introduce wildlife as a viable land-use option in adjacent communal land, thus promoting further restoration in the lowveld.

7.5 Consumptive and Non-consumptive wildlife utilisation

By early 1992, in the wake of the drought, members of the conservancies were reported to be increasingly aware that they were in the process of establishing a major economic asset: "large contiguous areas of land under wildlife".[16] These areas of land could be used for a range of income generating activities including tourism. Many members had previously treated their membership of the conservancies as "a sideline, or even a hobby" with limited economic potential.[17]

The non-consumptive (tourism) and consumptive (hunting) wildlife potential of the conservancies was thought to be considerable. The existing industry is almost completely based on the PWLE and the communal lands. Suitable hunting concessions are now nearly all taken up and prices are said to be rising. Existing white operators were reported to be finding it more difficult to renew their existing leases as prices rise and the government seeks to indigenise the industry.[18] The dramatic growth in tourism to Zimbabwe had resulted in the overcrowding of Mana Pools, Matusadona, and Hwange and tour operator entry permits are now restricted for these reserves by DNPWLM.[19]

There was reported to be considerable potential for the development of the tourism and hunting industry on private land providing that a sufficiently large contiguous area can be stocked with the essential density and variety of wildlife. Concessionaires in the conservancies could be granted periods of tenure long enough to enable them to earn a sufficient return on the investment and they would have more flexibility over the form of infrastructure development and operations. In the conservancies, game watering and viewing facilities could be constructed, night viewing organised and animals baited.

7.6 Surrounding Communities

The population of the south-east lowveld experiences considerable poverty. The area has high and increasing population densities, low agricultural potential and there are few opportunities for paid work. The two major employers are the government and the sugar industry which employs about 18,000 in the Chiredzi District, at Triangle, Hippo Valley and Mkwasine. There is serious environmental degradation as a consequence of unsustainable use of the land, characterised by de-forestation and erosion. Erosion and siltation has also been caused by the cattle ranching and this land is unsuitable for use as intensive agricultural land. Siltation of dams and rivers is pronounced.

16 Price Waterhouse 1994, p.12.
17 ibid.
18 Save Valley Conservancy Project Outline June 1994, p.14.
19 ibid.

84% of the Save Valley Conservancy boundary abuts communal lands and resettlement areas. The figure for Bubiana Conservancy is 66% and for Chiredzi River Conservancy is 33%. This is some of the most densely populated land in Zimbabwe and the pressures are increasing (see Table 7.3).

	1992	2022
Save Valley Conservancy	1,072,000	4,053,000
Chiredzi River Conservancy	530,000	1,994,000
Bubiana Conservancy	479,000	1,766,000

Table 7.3. Population Sizes and Growths in Surrounding Communal and Resettlement Areas (de la Harpe 1994, p.115)

Most of this land is classified as Natural Region IV and V and is unsuitable for dry-land cropping and intensive livestock. Very small areas have been irrigated[20] and intensive livestock production is the norm because of overcrowding. These are areas characterised by low levels of economic activity and subsistence agriculture which produces low crop yields. Drought relief is a regular requirement. There is very little money in circulation in these areas and this has frustrated the development of the planned business centres.

Poverty forces people to over-use their natural resources with consequential land degradation and decreasing returns to support the increasing population. Agriculture cannot sustain current living standards as the population increases, let alone provide a rising standard of living. Non-farming activities must be developed to supplement agriculture.

'Merely making more land available to the masses will not result in the growth of resources for sustainable development in the country. There is a limit to resettlement, as there is a limit to the land available.. Therefore, the long term problem is not just land, it is how Zimbabwe's natural resource base can be exploited for the long term survival of the nation ....'[21]

The Masvingo Provincial Development Plan for 1990-1995 identified the 'promotion and conservation of natural resources including wildlife' and the 'identification and preservation of areas of scenic beauty and their exploitation for tourism' amongst its major goals.

In 1994 the members of the conservancies believed that they had the potential to contribute to the alleviation of poverty in the south-east lowveld through the creation of economic activity and employment and the triggering of regional development through tourism. The development of tourism in the lowveld will bring some improvements in the transport and communications infrastructure which will be of benefit to the region as a whole. The conservancies argue that the construction of tourist facilities and their ongoing operation creates direct employment opportunities.

20 0.02% in Masvingo Province, de la Harpe 1994, p.112.
21 Moyo 1991, quoted in de la Harpe 1994, p.108.

The ranches which now comprise the Save Valley Conservancy previously employed 350 people in cattle ranching. Forty ten bedded lodges are expected to developed within the Save Valley Conservancy providing 1200 tourism related jobs including game scouts, trackers, maintenance personnel, chefs, cooks, waiters, cleaners, drivers etc.. Training would be provided through the conservancies. It is expected that wages paid in the tourism industry will be higher than in cattle production.

Indirect employment opportunities will be created through the formation of small businesses supportive of, or complimentary to, the conservancies. The Londolozi experience suggests that 80% of the overhead bill is spent in the immediate region. The conservancies will create demand for meat, fruit, vegetables, eggs and other foodstuffs and soft furnishings, uniforms and curios. The conservancies, they argue, can enhance rural development through employment and by encouraging and supporting the creation and development of small businesses. There will also be business opportunities for the sale of meat from culling and hunting on the conservancies to the local communities.

Conservancy members also argue that local communities could become involved in the business activities taking place on the conservancies, the investment being made in kind or through donor support. For example the Save Valley Conservancy members have insufficient capital for adequate levels of wildlife restocking. It has been proposed that a company should be created to restock the conservancy - donor funding could be provided to the local communities who would then own the wildlife and receive a return on their investment from the Conservancy, providing an income stream for the local communities. The same principle could apply to tourism and hunting concessions in the conservancies.

The members are well aware that the long term development of the conservancies is dependent upon the support of local communities. It may be possible for the local communities to become members of the conservancies through the incorporation of non-arable sections of their communal lands into the conservancies. The land pressure in these areas makes it difficult to imagine how this land could be vacated in order to free it for wildlife. However, there are areas of broken granite and of scenic interest which could be included. The Save River forms the eastern boundary of the Save Valley Conservancy and it may be possible to include some of the pans and ilala palm groves on the communal side of the river within the Conservancy and introduce a CAMPFIRE scheme.[22]

7.7 The Policy Issues

The formation of policy on conservancies in Zimbabwe is still in the estimation[23] phase and the development of the conservancies has not yet reached a stage where it is possible to review their progress. It should also be remembered that the conservancies were not the primary focus of the research in the lowveld.

22 de la Harpe 1994.
23 Murphree and Metcalfe op cit. 10.

As is clear from the case studies each conservancy has developed in different ways and has reached a different stage in its development. It is important not to generalise too far. The three lowveld 'rhino' conservancies are at an early stage in their development and it is too early to do more than discuss some of the policy issues which have been raised by the developments.

7.7.1 Conservation

The idea of returning large contiguous areas of land to wildlife is extraordinary. The realisation of the objective would create an important example of land use change to the advantage of wildlife and biodiversity.

In August 1995, Claude Martin, Director General of the World Wide Fund for Nature endorsed the Save Valley Conservancy as an "excellent example" of an initiative to reverse the trend towards extinction which faces the world's wildlife. He pointed to the Save Valley Conservancy's significance in involving the creation of the world's largest privately owned nature reserve and embodying the principles of contemporary conservation strategy:

- "The implementation of the sustainable use of wildlife as a preferred land use option

- The integration of an impoverished rural community in the conservation process through their participation in a wildlife based economy

- The rehabilitation of degraded range lands

- The reintroduction of those species of indigenous large mammals which were previously depleted or extirpated."[24]

The regeneration of the veld has been dramatic. Species reintroduction and subsequent recruitment has markedly increased the wildlife population of the lowveld. The most significant contribution to national conservation objectives has been the contribution to the DNPWLM's national programme to stabilise and then build the black rhino population. This has been expensive for the conservancies. It is not clear that rhino are as valuable a commercial asset for non-consumptive wildlife tourism as has often been suggested.

All three conservancies have, in various ways, discussed plans to undertake conservation education programmes involving the local communities and undertaken some "good neighbour" activities to assist in the improvement of the local environment.

7.7.2 The Game Fence and Buffalo

The planned re-introduction of wildlife on the conservancies caused concern and opposition from surrounding cattle farmers about the risks of disease spreading from wildlife to cattle. The particular concern was foot and mouth disease following the

24 Letter from Dr. Claude Martin to Save Valley Conservancy 28 August 1995.

reintroduction of buffalo. Buffalo were regarded as of primary importance to the viability of wildlife based production systems on the conservancies for both consumptive and non-consumptive tourism. It was regarded as essential to restock with the "big five" of which buffalo is one in order that the quality of wildlife viewing could compete with other high-high quality operators. Buffalo is central to the viability of consumptive tourism operations, the presence of buffalo in the trophies offered allows the length of the hunt to be doubled and the day rate to be increased more than two fold. Child (1988) calculated that the presence of buffalo more than doubled the financial return.

The need to re-introduce buffalo and the consequent foot and mouth risk required the conservancies to erect two parallel fences separated by a road and to strip vegetation from the area between the fences and for one metre on either side of the fence. The outer game face had to be a minimum of 1.9m high with 10 strands of wire. The inner buffalo fence had to be 1.2m high, Both fences had to be electrified at 5000v.

This veterinary fence was required at all three conservancies. Chiredzi has constructed 2/3 of its fence and intends to run buffalo rather than cattle. The last cattle were removed from Save Valley Conservancy in January 1996 and the buffalo were released. Bubiana has decided to run foot and mouth free buffalo alongside cattle, "inter-cropping" wildlife with cattle in the long-term. Chiredzi River Conservancy is in a transition phase with buffalo still paddocked but it is moving towards the removal of cattle. In the current situation cattle remains and important source of revenue to both Bubiana and Chiredzi River Conservancy members.

The requirement to erect the veterinary fence had two highly significant consequences:

- local communities felt that the white commercial farmers had isolated themselves behind a double electrified fence which denied them access to resources which they had customarily had access to.

- the members of the conservancies were required to find very significant capital to erect the fences, this placed them under some immediate financial pressure and delayed the attainment of commercial sustainability for their ranch tourism operations.

7.7.3 A Long Term Investment

The wildlife option will only produce an economic return in the medium to long term, there are no quick profits to be made from sustainably managed wildlife resources. Each of the conservancies has been through a long period of internal debate in order to build consensus about the goals and methods of these new organisations based on civil agreements reached between the members. The conservancies require that members accept some considerable reduction in the degree of autonomy which they may exercise in the management of their land.

For many of the members it has been difficult to find the financial resources to maintain their membership through a period when money has had to be invested, but when there has been no income form the properties. Money has had to be found to

finance the fence, to invest in restocking and to pay principals and staff whilst little or no money had been earned. Membership of a conservancy requires the ability to maintain a net inflow of money for some years yet.

There have been considerable changes of ownership in all three conservancies. In some cases new investors have come in permitting ranchers, unwilling or unable to proceed, to leave. In other cases wealthier members have bought land from members with fewer financial resources in order to enable them to fence to veterinary standards or pay the levy for restocking. As Murphree and Metcalfe (1997) have argued "secure tenure is the bedrock of sustainable land use".[25] Conservancy members have been convinced of the ecological and economic importance of the wildlife option but political uncertainties have reduced the confidence of conservancy members in the long term security of their investment. Land values are reported to have increased but these assets are vulnerable to changes in government policy. Wildlife has a commercial value but it is a highly regulated market. Government controls, through licenses, the opportunity to buy and sell (and translocate) wildlife. The ownership of wildlife remains a highly politicised issue.

7.7.4 The Political Context

7.7.4.1 DNPWLM

The regulation of the wildlife industry in Zimbabwe is the responsibility of the DNPWLM which has recently become a fund holding parastatal. Uncertainty exists about policy and its implementation and there has been talk of the repeal of the 1975 Act. If this were to occur it would undermine the conservancies and the CAMPFIRE programme. The mere idea that the 1975 Act could be repealed is a significant cause of uncertainty and a deterrent to long term investment. The DNPWLM has since it became a parastatal ceased to be primarily a regulator and become an operator. It is both a competitor and potential supplier to the conservancies.

7.7.4.2 Land Use Change

The lowveld conservancies are in Natural Region V areas, characterised as severe risk areas for dryland crop production and high risk for livestock production. This risk was clearly demonstrated in the 1991/92 drought, but since then there has been relatively good rainfall. The change in land use from cattle to wildlife is a national political issue. The lowveld conservancies were occasioned some considerable political difficulty by the use of the conservancy to describe sole proprietor wildlife enterprises on Natural Region I, II and III land. In October 1995 the Minister of Environment and Tourism spoke at a staff seminar.[26]

The Minister insisted that:

"Government will not allow the privatisation of wildlife resources through the back door, that is, through unplanned and uncontrolled private conservancies. We are fully aware of such Machiavellian plots to privatise wildlife resources from Kenya to South Africa"

25 Ibid. 5.
26 Mushandike Training Centre, Masvingo 3-6 October 1995.

The State, he asserted, would remain in charge of wildlife. The Government's objective was to "ensure protection and sustainability" through careful planning and control of ecotourism. Private conservancies, "private farms carrying out game ranching", had been established with support from DNPWLM. Some owners had seen this as an opportunity for back door privatisation and some prime land in regions I, II and III was being used. This had to be controlled in order to maintain agricultural production.

The Minister argued that conservancies should be restricted to ecological regions IV & V, where on region V land there is empirical evidence that tourism can outperform cattle ranching by a factor of between 5 and 10. The amalgamation of ranches "in approved parts" of regions IV & V into areas sufficiently large to accommodate "the number of animals necessary to sustain tourism operations" could be approved, but conservancies should operate on a licence basis. The licence would be

> "given on condition that in its design, there is a formal and meaningful relationship between the particular Conservancy and the surrounding rural communities. The flow of benefits should therefore be an essential ingredient of the design of such conservancies. The surrounding rural communities should be turned into strong stakeholders in the process."

The Minister pointed out that the "erection of electric fencing enclosing large tracts of land can be emotive" and that it could "create tensions between the rural communities and the Conservancy members." It was essential that the benefits of the Conservancy extend beyond the perimeter fence. He mentioned specifically community based cultural tourism, game meat, small scale agricultural and industrial projects and pointed to the employment opportunities which they present.

The creation of conservancies would also create a market for the sale of surplus wildlife from the National Parks so long as this did not deplete the species or weaken their genetic viability. The conservancies would establish a market enabling the DNPWLM to maximise the financial return from their surplus. However he reminded his audience that "all animals in Zimbabwe are owned by the State" and reasserted that it would remain so. Animals on private land could be sustainably utilised by the owner, but this was "through a system of approvals and licences." The challenge was to develop a practical mechanism to achieve this. The conservancies existed as a preferred land use option using wildlife to earn revenue from tourism. But this commercialisation of wildlife had to take place with social responsibility. The Ministry was not

> "opposed in principle to the establishment of private wildlife farming or private conservancies ... but only to the neo-colonialist and racist thinking demonstrated by some of the white farmers. We are therefore determined to thwart any such evil schemes in wildlife management."

The lowland conservancies had been given a green light but there was a clear reminder that wildlife remained the property of the state.

The question of land distribution is a very sensitive national political issue and it is replicated in microcosm around the conservancies. The larger ethnic group has been fenced out of the land belonging to a minority ethnic group which has reserved the land for wildlife and tourists. The issue of land redistribution in Zimbabwe is a considerable cause of uncertainty and one which is likely to continue for many years. Some of the land currently within the conservancies is used for irrigation and is a major source of employment. Conservancy members are confronted by the need to further invest in tourism infrastructure to create an income stream for themselves and an enlarged workforce whilst being uncertain as to their long term tenure.

7.7.4.3 RDCs and Local Community Involvement

The process of forming the conservancies commenced in the late 1980's, well before the creation of the new Rural District Councils. The new RDCs have taken some time to establish themselves and the conservancies often neglected to keep them informed of the changes which were taking place and to discuss the changes in land use and employment which would result. The RDCs were often left as recipients of plans which they had not been involved in formulating. This was a cause of considerable concern to the RDCs. The Save Valley Conservancy's experience when it launched the Trust is indicative of the problem. The RDCs were effectively being asked to "rubber stamp" a Trust and Trustees which they had played no part in forming or appointing.

For the RDCs the primary issue is the involvement of the adjacent communities in the conservancies and a strongly held view that the conservancies should not be handing out money for projects according to its own preferences, but that the RDC s should be involved in the formulation of projects and the decisions about which should be funded.

7.7.4.4 Indigenisation

Indigenisation is a national government priority. The national government has made clear that access for black entrepreneurs into the large-scale commercial sector is a key issue. This national political issue affects the conservancies. The absence of black entrepreneurs in the ownership of the conservancies is an important issue. There are two properties in Save Valley Conservancy which are owned by the state, but government is looking for black entrepreneurs to secure other business opportunities within the conservancies. The lack of an immediate financial return on any investment in the conservancy is an additional problem in this regard.

7.7.5 Interdependency

Some of the individual ranchers have operated as "good neighbours" for many years, lending draught animals and tractors, transporting maize, assisting with construction and repair of dams and boreholes, loaning bulls to improve the livestock on communal land and permitting access to wood and grass. Interdependency may begin with these interactions but it means more than that. The Trust funds developed by the Bubiana Conservancy and the Save Valley Trust are good examples of traditional forms of "good neighbour" activity.

The Save Valley Conservancy has explicitly committed itself to the development of interdependence between the Conservancy and its neighbours and this principle is

evident in the practice and thinking of the Bubiana and Chiredzi River Conservancy as well. Interdependence across tenure categories is not easy to achieve and it has to amount to more than rewarding local people for not poaching. Interdependency implies that the two parties are mutually dependent upon each other, not that one is dependent upon the other. The dispensing of largesse will create dependency not generate interdependency.

Murphree and Metcalfe (1997) make the point well:
"When conservancies are created which involve contractual relationships of benefit and responsibility between, for example, commercial and communal farmers, linkages of mutual benefit are put in place which instigate a process modulating inequity."[27]
There has been discussion of a wide range of initiatives designed to demonstrate interdependency and they are recorded in the case studies and presented in a table in section 5.4. Community businesses have been suggested to produce food, curios, uniforms and soft furnishings for the conservancy businesses. There are a number of proposals for joint ventures and other community businesses designed to sell into the market which can be guaranteed by the tourism developing on the conservancies but progress is dependent on the development of the tourism infrastructure on the conservancies and that is only just beginning. One example is the traditional village being developed at Gudo with a guaranteed market through Senuko.

7.7.6 Equity

As Murphree and Metcalfe report the "current racial composition" of the participants in the conservancies "means that Government is ambivalent about supporting conservancies unless they address the dual equity issues, land reform and indigenisation."[28] One of the key political questions concerns the legitimacy and acceptability of having large areas of land in the ownership of a small minority, surrounded by a large population of subsistence farmers with very limited access to land.

Revenue can be secured through a bed night levy, gate levy or turnover tax. But such a levy amounts only to Kenyan style "parks and neighbours" policy. A number of suggestions have been canvassed which would give local communities a genuine stake in the conservancies:

7.7.6.1 Community ownership of wildlife.

This could be achieved by the DNPWLM vesting the rights to translocated wildlife in local communities thus providing them with an equity stake in the conservancies. This is likely to be unattractive to the DNPWLM when it requires revenue from live sales to fund its operations.
Community ownership of wildlife could also be funded by the use of donor grants to purchase wildlife and vesting ownership in the local community. This would secure a permanent income stream for development. This was the strategy which Save Valley Conservancy adopted but it found considerable resistance in the international donor community. When approached donors were reluctant make a grant to communities which also benefited the private sector, despite the continuing annual dividend.

27 Ibid. 6.
28 Ibid. 6.

The conservancies could vest ownership of restocked wildlife in local communities, but if the conservancy members borrow to fund wildlife restocking this reduces their capacity to contribute to the local communities.

7.7.6.2 Community ownership of land.

Murphree and Metcalfe (1997) suggest that conservancies composed of more than ward could be granted Appropriate Authority status by DNPWLM. This would offer a middle level structure between the individual village or ward and the RDC. CAMPFIRE could be extended to allow "trans-tenure category conservancies" where small-scale farmers on lease farms or communal land are enabled to enter conservancies.

There are a number of areas of communal and resettlement land where there has been discussion of the possibility of membership of a conservancy. This would be achieved by "fencing in" the land, the local community becoming a member. There are sections of the Nyangambe Resettlement Area which could be fenced into Chiredzi River or Save Valley Conservancies, or both, creating a wildlife corridor between the conservancies. There is appropriate land available on the east bank of the Save River and in the Devure Resettlement Area.

7.7.7 Employment

The figures on employment were considered in Section 5.3 above. What evidence there is supports the original Price Waterhouse projections and their argument that the wildlife option would create more employment on the conservancy land than did cattle ranching.

7.7.8 Tourism

Tourism development on the conservancies has only just begun. To date there has been very little non-consumptive tourism Many of the ranchers have little or no experience of tourism and there has been scepticism, as is evident in the case studies, about the profitability of non-consumptive tourism. Conservancy members have been nervous about investing in luxury lodges, although the proven success of Barberton and the opening of Senuko will do much to encourage others to follow. There are now 14 tourism enterprises functioning on the conservancies and 13 planned, details are in the case studies.

Much work remains to be done in marketing the lowveld to the national, regional and international tourism markets but a critical mass is being developed. The commitment to the high value, low volume market will mean that it takes some time to establish a sufficient volume of tourists to stimulate economic development in the region.

7.7.9 Local Economic Development

The effects of the economic development within the conservancies will take sometime to become evident in the local economy but on the evidence available to date the conservancies are on course to deliver the benefits described in the Price Waterhouse report and the development of consumptive and non-consumptive wildlife tourism on the conservancies does not preclude other forms of economic development in the lowveld.

However, the development of independent tourism businesses outside of the conservancies is very dependent upon the attraction of sufficient numbers of tourists moving around outside the conservancies to provide a viable market. The experience of the roadside craft stalls,[29] demonstrates that there is already some potential for independent entrepreneurial activity.

29 See Case Study VII

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CASE STUDIES

A. GONAREZHOU NATIONAL PARK

A.1 Vision Statement for Gonarezhou National Park

'Gonarezhou National Park will contribute to the protected areas system of Zimbabwe by protecting the integrity of the wild and largely undeveloped south-eastern lowveld landscape and the associated plants and animals within the park. The park's remoteness and rugged, harsh environment are special qualities that will be sustained for park visitor experiences.

The park will fulfil an important national and international role in representing the ecological transition between the south-east coastal zone of Africa and the central Zimbabwean watershed. Plant and animal associations, together with the history of the Shangani people, contribute to the importance of the park and its region.

Gonarezhou National Park will sustain opportunities for visitor use, education and appreciation that are based on the special qualities of the area. Visitors will be encouraged to experience and interact with the park environment without jeopardising its ecological integrity.

The park will be managed and operated to serve as an integral part of the region, both ecologically and economically. This is crucial because the wildlife and plant communities in the park are important parts of wider community associations that transcend the international borders with South Africa and Moçambique. Co-ordinated and co-operative approaches to natural resource management and tourism involving all interested groups will best ensure that the park contributes significantly to local, regional, national and international conservation.' [1]

Wildlife conservation is the overwhelmingly dominant land use in the Park and there has to date been only limited usage for non-consumptive tourism. There are two communications routes through the park: the Maputo railway line and an all weather dirt road which bisects the Mwenezi area of the park. There is a proposal for a tarred road from Chiredzi to Boli and on to Sango on the Moçambique border. Exploitation of the park for minerals is a possibility. Rio Tinto are currently prospecting for diamonds in the park and the exploitation of coal-bed methane in Matibi N^{o}.2 Communal Land may lead to requests for access to the park.

Gonarezhou has in recent years been badly hit by the conflict in Moçambique and the drought of 1991/92. Its isolated location, seasonal park closures and the absence of development have meant that the park maintains a wilderness quality long since lost at Hwange.

1 DNPWLM 1993, p.7.

A.2 Site Profile[2]

A.2.1 Location

Gonarezhou National Park is located in the South-east Lowveld of Zimbabwe, along the border of the country adjacent to the Gaza Province of Moçambique, 21°06'-22°12'S, 31°20'-32°25'E. The total area of the park is 505, 300 ha (Figure A.1).

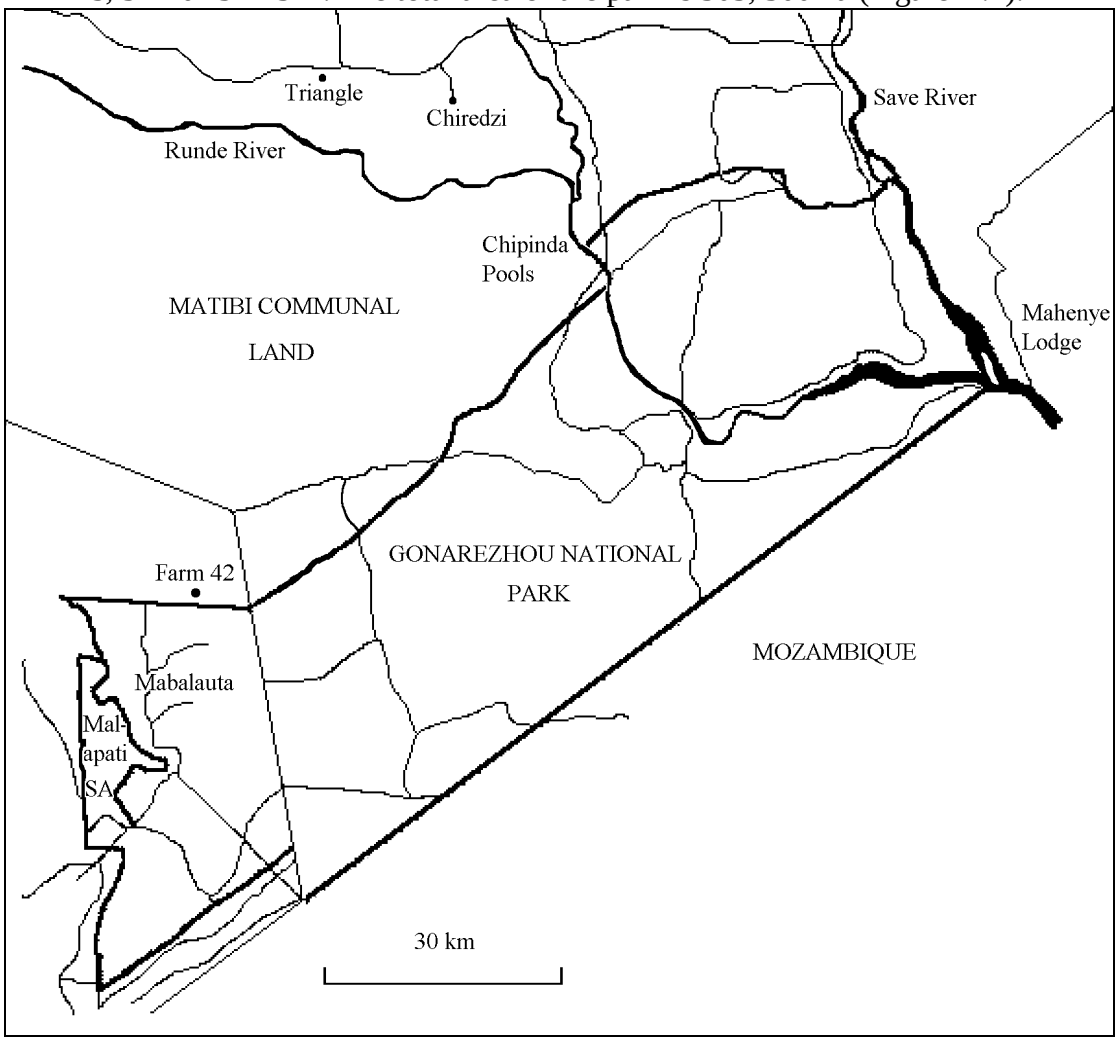

Figure A.1. A map of Gonarezhou National Park

A.2.2 Physical features

The park is characterised by low altitude (162-578m), generally flat to undulating country interrupted by the valleys of the Mwenezi (Nuanetsi), Runde and Save rivers and by the Chiwonja range and other isolated hills. A third drainage system, the Guluene/Chefu basin, occurs in the middle of the park. River incision of the Cretaceous sandstone forming the plateau has formed a number of scarp slopes, which, on the south bank of the Runde, make up the spectacular Chilojo Cliffs which rise more than 180m above the river course. Sandstones on the north bank of the Mwenezi have been similarly, though less spectacularly, incised to produce the Red Hills (Ntabelomvu). Sandstone cliffs, together with the riparian woodlands on alluvial

2 The description of flora and fauna in this section draws heavily on Price Waterhouse, 1994. Additional information from WCMC.

soils flanking the major rivers, form some of the most attractive scenery in the region.

The sandstone plateau is characterised by numerous pans, some of which hold water throughout the dry season. This depends on the amount of precipitation during the previous rainy season, and the level of use by large mammals.

The Save and Runde rivers, with their larger tributaries in the park, form steep-sided rocky gorges with waterfalls and rapids where they cut through granite and basaltic formations. The Save/Runde junction is the lowest point in the park.

The Chiwonja range in the north of the park, with peaks at Makamandime (578m) and Mutandawe (571m) is a north-east tending ridge which continues, to the south-west of the Runde, as the Sibonja Hills. These comprise more resistant granophyres and granites.

The soils are mostly derived from the Cretaceous sandstones and range from deep sands of the regosol group to medium-textured soils of the siallitic group. Basaltic, granophyre and granite strata produce a variety of soil types depending on relief.

A.2.3 Climate

The climate of the park is characterised by high temperatures and low rainfall. There is a short, dry winter season in June and July with average maximum temperatures below 30°C. The hot, wet summer season lasts from November to April when daily temperatures frequently exceed 40°C, reaching a peak in January and February. The remainder of the year can be regarded as hot and dry periods that precede and follow the summer rains.

Rainfall may occur throughout the year, but the most reliable rains fall in the summer between November and March (Table A.1). During the dry periods, the south-east lowveld receives periodic invasions of maritime air, which give rise to the "guti" or drizzle conditions that are characteristic of the region. Mean annual rainfall is 484 mm (range 84-896 mm). Severe droughts (<200 mm rainfall) have occurred twice since 1961, most recently in 1991/92. The November 1991 to October 1992 rainfall in Gonarezhou was 87.6 mm, only 17.8% of the yearly average between November 1991 and October 1996.

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
January	0.0	25.0	89.7	41.7	122.1	219.2
February	227.0	0.0	122.2	23.0	204.7	185.4
March	80.0	15.0	7.5	10.8	44.0	33.3
April	0.0	4.0	20.0	0.0	8.5	16.5
May	9.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	20.3	6.0
June	10.0	0.0	6.0	0.0	0.0	1.7
July	0.0	0.0	33.7	2.5	2.5	36.6
August	0.0	0.0	5.5	0.0	9.0	1.5
September	6.5	1.4	0.0	1.9	0.0	1.0
October	0.0	0.0	17.7	10.0	0.5	0.0
November	12.5	20.5	130.5	6.5	41.8	62.5
December	29.7	243.5	35.4	78.5	27.8	95.8
Total	375.2	309.4	475.7	174.9	481.2	659.5

Table A.1. Monthly Rainfall (mm) in Gonarezhou, 1991-1996.

A.2.4 Vegetation

The vegetation of Gonarezhou is typical of the semi-arid *Colophospermum mopane* zone and is predominantly dry deciduous savanna woodland of varying types. Woodland and woodland savanna constitute 59% of the vegetation, scrubland 40% and savanna grassland 1%.

A (probably incomplete) plant checklist for the park includes 924 species from 118 families and 364 genera, with 256 trees, 310 shrubs, 55 woody climbers and 137 grasses.

Mixed *Brachystegia glaucescens* woodland occurs in higher parts of the area north of the Runde on granophyre hills. *Acacia nigrescens, A.welwitschii* and *Colophospermum mopane* are also common, with steeper slopes dominated by *Kirkia, Commiphora* and *Adansonia digitata.*

On the limited basalt areas *Colophospermum mopane* is dominant, with *Kirkia acuminata* and *Adansonia digitata* occurring frequently within this woodland type.

The dominant vegetation of the non-eroded, level Cretaceous sands is a mixed community of deciduous woody species of the following major genera; *Combretum, Strychnos, Terminalia, Pteleopsis, Xeroderris* and *Pterocarpus. Androstachys johnsonii*, of the monogeneric family Androstachydaceae, is confined in Zimbabwe to this south-east corner of the country and forms small, dry evergreen forest/thicket patches on the sandstone and granophyre. *Guibourtia conjugata* occurs in pure stands on the edges of the level sands associated with the Runde valley. *Julbernardia globiflora* woodland typically occurs as round patches of nearly closed canopy woodland on sandstones at altitudes above 490m.

Low-lying riparian woodland is dominated by *Xanthocercis zambesiaca, Spirostachys africana, Lochocarpus capassa, Combretum imberbe* and *Cordylia africana* trees, as well as *Acacia tortilis* and *Croton megalobotrys.* A piece of relict riverine forest contains several giant *Cholophora excela*, a very rare tree in Zimbabwe, and a number of species with a coastal distribution that occur in Zimbabwe, and only in Gonarezhou. Two aloes, *Aloe suffulta* and *A.lutescens,* are similarly unique to Gonarezhou. *Adeniuna obesum* and *Pachypodium saundersii* are well represented.

A.2.5 Fauna

Gonarezhou National Park has a diverse vertebrate fauna that includes 89 species of mammal, 400 birds, 76 reptiles, 28 amphibians and 54 fish.

Despite the generally low effective rainfall, the park has an interesting mammal fauna which includes several species of the Moçambique plains which are rare or absent elsewhere in Zimbabwe. It includes 23 large herbivores and 8 carnivore species. The large herbivore community is dominated by elephant which make up approximately 80% of the total biomass, followed by buffalo, giraffe and impala which contribute another 10 %. It is also Zimbabwe's stronghold of nyala, suni and Lichtenstein's hartebeest. The sympatric occurrence of steenbok, grysbok, grey duiker, Livingstone's suni and oribi, with klipspringer on nearby hills, is probably a unique association of

these small antelope. The occurrence of red squirrel is also of interest. As well as the 89 species of mammal recorded, a further 61 species, mostly insectivores and rodents, are considered likely to occur. Introductions have been limited to Lichtenstein's hartebeest (66 from Gorongoza in 1972) and black rhino (49 from Mt. Darwin, 1969-71). Rhino subsequently became extinct in the park.

The 1991/92 drought had a major impact on the park. It is estimated that 1500 elephant, 620 hippo and 2700 buffalo died in Gonarezhou during the drought.[3] Estimates of mammal populations from the latest (August 1996) aerial survey are presented in Table A.2.

Species	Estimated population size	Species	Estimated population size
Elephant (Females)	3164	Hippo	249
Elephant (Males)	680	Honey Badger	31
Elephant (Total)	3874 (2148-5601)	Hartebeest	8
Buffalo	361	Impala	5979
Bushpig	33	Kudu	762
Crocodile	95	Ostrich	19
Duiker	439	Roan	110
Eland	36	Warthog	32
Giraffe	213	Waterbuck	13
Grysbok	122	Zebra	515

Table A.2. Population estimates for large mammals in Gonarezhou N.P.

The bird checklist of 400 species includes a further 88 species considered likely to occur. 11 species are rare or of limited distribution, and of conservation interest. Noteworthy among the avifauna are an impressive array of large birds (raptors, vultures, ostrich, bustard etc.), birds associated with riverine and pan habitats (pelicans, plovers, storks, skimmers, fishing owl etc.), and birds with an eastern lowland distribution, whose range just extends into Zimbabwe (black sawing swallow, thickbilled weaver etc.).

The herpetofauna of Gonarezhou includes about 6% of the Southern African endemics and 14 species of special conservation interest, including the Zambezi soft turtle *Cycloderma frenatum*, a freshwater species. There is a significant crocodile population in the park.

50 fish species have been recorded in Gonarezhou, primarily from the Save and Runde rivers, but recent declines in water quality and flow patterns of the major rivers may have reduced this number. The Mwenezi system may contain additional species. Noteworthy species include lungfish and killifish that occur in seasonal pans in the Guluene/Chefu catchment, and the Zambezi shark and small-toothed sawfish, recorded at the Save/Runde confluence.

3 Gonarezhou Plan 1994, Annex 7, p.3 and Annex 9, p.3.

A.2.6 Culture

The Shangaan people who previously occupied some of the territory of the park used some sites for communal activities. No effort has yet been made to collect the oral history of the area and determine which areas have important cultural associations, for example traditional hunting, fishing and rain making ceremonies. There is also little information on sites of archaeological and palaeological interest. There are a number of medium and late Stone Age sites, but no fossils have yet been found.[4]

A.3 PROTECTED AREA STATUS

A.3.1 History

The history of Gonarezhou as a protected area began in 1934, when an unassigned area of land bounded by the Moçambique border, the Runde and Mwenezi rivers and Matibi N^{o}.2 Reserve (now Communal Land) was proclaimed as the Gona-re-zhou Game Reserve.

The following year, the Game Reserve was extended by the addition of an area of land bounded by the Chiwonja Hills, and the Save and Runde rivers, creating a total area similar to the present park.

In 1940/41 the Game Reserve was deproclaimed as tsetse fly eradication programmes were initiated in the Save and Runde river valleys, to halt the westward spread of fly into adjacent agricultural land. In 1950, the area between the Save and Runde rivers was again designated as a Game Reserve, but subsequently deproclaimed to enable tsetse eradication to continue. Between 1941 and 1970 86,401 animals were killed in the campaign in the south east lowveld to eradicate tsetse fly. 88% of the total was shot on Communal Land, and 11% (9,725) in the area of Gonarezhou National Park, where kudu, steenbok and duiker were killed in large numbers. The figures indicate the density of wildlife in the lowveld in the post-WWII period.

Species[5]	Number Destroyed	Species	Number Destroyed
Baboon	1910	Kudu	19514
Buffalo	3335	Oribi	692
Bushbuck	4527	Reedbuck	2095
Bushpig	2169	Roan	835
Duiker	26126	Sable	2687
Eland	2983	Steenbok	708
Elephant	554	Warthog	1758
Grysbok	599	Waterbuck	2869
Hartebeest	2150	Zebra	2822
Impala	5342		

Table A.3. Recorded results of Tsetse and Trypanosomiasis Control by Department of Veterinary Services, 1941-70.

Throughout the 1950s and 1960s a variety of land use changes occurred, and after a long administrative battle Gonarezhou National Park was eventually proclaimed in

4 Gonarezhou Plan 1994, Section I p.10 and Annex 8.

5 Species with recorded losses of over 500; 98 Black Rhino were also shot.

1975.

Further minor changes to the park boundary were made in the 1980s when the Veterinary Department erected foot and mouth disease control fences around the park to prevent buffalo from occupying the same land as domestic livestock. These changes have not been gazetted.

A.3.2 Rationale

The purposes of National Parks as defined in the Zimbabwe Parks and Wild Life Act (1975) are:

"to preserve and protect the natural landscape and scenery therein;
to preserve and protect wildlife and plants and the natural ecological stability of wildlife and plant communities therein, for the enjoyment, education and inspiration of the public".

In Gonarezhou this applies especially to healthy populations of the full spectrum of large mammal species whose effective range extends into the park, to the riparian biological communities associated with the major rivers, and to those dominated by *Androstachys johnsonii*.

A.3.3 Management

A 1981 draft Policy Document for Gonarezhou National Park and Malapati Safari Area includes a Declaration of Policy.

"The ecosystems will be managed according to a defined scientifically based management programme.....This programme will take into account that the complex is not an ecological entity and that terrestrial ecosystems and the flow regime of the major rivers has and will continue to be modified by modern man. It will also acknowledge that these systems are influenced by past and changing patterns of land use in the region.
Permissible visitor use will be zoned and the activities of visitors will be controlled by regulations augmented by park rules. Staff facilities and visitor amenities will be subject to a defined development plan, which will recognise the paramountcy of recognising the Park's and Safari Area's basic natural values."

A.3.4 Habitat Management

The document goes on to discuss the management of ecosystems in more depth, in terms of maintaining ecological stability in the face of accelerated changes induced by modern man. This is with particular regard to the present physiognomic character of the vegetation (before severe elephant modification) and to healthy populations of all organisms native to the area, with the exception of tsetse. Special mention is made of the conservation of thickets of *A. johnsonii* and of species representative of the Moçambique littoral plains whose range extends into the park. The use of artificially supplied game water-holes was advocated only as part of a well-conceived management plan. These would be used to provide for the needs of sensitive species where there would be no risk of the modification of vital habitats or of serious veld degradation.

A.3.5 Tourism Management

In order to effect sound management of the park and to provide amenities for visitors with minimal conflict between the two, a system of zoning was advocated in the 1981 document. Four zones were envisaged according to the level of development and type of use permitted in an area: Special Conservation; Wilderness; Wildland Recreation, where low levels of visitor activity are encouraged, and Recreation where the greatest intensity of visitor activity will be available year round.

The first park plan completed in 1974 proposed the construction of 515 km of game viewing roads to supplement the existing network of 240 km. It was envisaged that a maximum of 156 vehicles should be permitted to use the roads at any one time, giving an overall density of one vehicle per 5 km. Little of this work was undertaken. 16 of 31 proposed picnic sites were provided and one of three proposed gates. Two interpretation centres were proposed but not built.[6] A second park plan was commenced in 1986 but not completed.

A.3.6 Poaching, Culling and Translocation

In the 1980's there was a major poaching problem in Gonarezhou with open conflict between DNPWLM and the Shangaan people, and the war in Moçambique spilling over the border. The records, which are incomplete and probably understate the numbers, show that between 1983 and 1991 896 elephant were poached, 823 of them in 1988. In 1983 1,400 elephant were culled and 1,208 in 1986. 5,572 have been culled since 1971. The last cull was in 1992, when some 300+ animals were killed. A total of 557 animals were removed that year, including culling and live sales. In 1993, 670 live animals were sold from the park for translocation elsewhere. The population estimate for 1975 was 5,159 and for 1993 5,241. The latest estimates have been slightly lower. The October 1995 survey estimated 4,300, and the August 1996 survey estimated 3,164. The latter is probably an underestimate due to the timing of the survey, in August, when the trees are more in leaf than in October. During the 1980s black rhino numbers were reduced from between 120 and 225 to zero. Law enforcement was the primary activity of two thirds of the staff. In 1995 there were contacts with poachers using AK47s in the Mabalauta area. Contacts were occurring every three months or so.

A.3.7 Fire

Fire has also been a major problem. On average there are four uncontrolled fires each year and 25% of the park is burnt. The majority of fires are started by illegal hunters (51%), some originate from the railway line (7%) and some spread from Moçambique (19%) or adjoining Communal Land (22%). In 1996 there were two fires, both started by Zimbabwean poachers in the park.

A.3.8 The GEF Plan

In December 1993 a management plan for Gonarezhou National Park was completed. This comprehensive document was prepared by the GEF (Global Environment Facility) as the first phase of a development programme for the park which includes a large amount of funding for the future implementation of the plan. A total of Z$112 million has been allocated for the restructuring of parks in Zimbabwe as a whole, with

6 Gonarezhou Plan 1994, p.4.

Z$50 million earmarked for the south-east Lowveld. At the time of writing a final decision to proceed was awaited pending discussions and negotiations between the World Bank and the government of Zimbabwe.

A.4 BIODIVERSITY AND CONSERVATION VALUE

The park is very species rich, with almost 1000 plants, 400 birds, 89 mammals, 104 reptiles and amphibians and 50 fish. Together with this richness are a number of special characteristics.

The specific physiography and the associated environmental characteristics of the area result in a unique floral and faunal composition. The park is situated in a transition zone between the Cape zoogeographical region and the Eastern and Tropical Central African zoogeographical area, and lies between the Moçambique coastal region and the cooler highveld to the north-west.

Gonarezhou contains many mammals of conservation significance. Animals considered rare in Zimbabwe which occur in Gonarezhou include pangolin, bat-eared fox, wild dog, suni, Lichtenstein's hartebeest, roan antelope and nyala (among the larger mammals). The elephant population in Gonarezhou belongs to a race also found in Kruger National Park, South Africa, and parts of Moçambique, but not elsewhere in Zimbabwe. It is characterised by small body size and, in mature bulls, relatively large tusks.

The herpetofauna of Gonarezhou is unusual in Zimbabwe, as it includes many species which typically occur on the East African coastal plain. Reptiles and amphibians are good indicators of biogeographic boundaries, and their occurrence in the park illustrates its biogeographic importance. The herpetofauna includes about 6% of the Southern African endemics and 14 species of special conservation interest.

Perhaps most importantly, the significance of Gonarezhou lies in its geographical location on the border of Zimbabwe. Its proximity to Kruger National Park in South Africa and to conservation areas in Moçambique offers the potential for the development of a cross-border, transnational protected area, should the political climate for such an undertaking prevail.[7]

7 Brown, 1995.

A.5 TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

A.5.1 History of Tourism

Tourism in Gonarezhou grew steadily from 1968-75, after which the struggle for independence resulted in the closure of the park between 1976-82. In 1982 tourism began to increase again but in 1984 Moçambiquean guerrillas began an incursion into Gonarezhou and in 1988-89 it was again closed to tourism. With the resolution of this conflict in 1990 it was opened for local tourism and in 1991 to tourists from SADC countries. It opened for foreign tourists again in 1994. Geographical remoteness, poor park roads, drought, military conflict and seasonal park closures have all contributed to the relative lack of development of the Gonarezhou National Park, and to its value as a wilderness area.

Access

The Park is operated as two distinct units: Chipinda Pools, from where the northern part of the park is managed, and Mabalauta in the south. Chipinda Pools is the main entry point, 59 km from Chiredzi. Mabalauta is accessed from the Beitbridge road along a dirt track, for which 4WD transport is desirable. There is another entrance gate in the north east of the park. This is used by visitors staying at the Mahenye and Chilo Lodges, but also by residents from the highlands, especially Chipinge, and people from Chiredzi wishing to use particular campsites closer to that entrance of the park.

There are two roads within the park suitable for 2WD vehicles. One is the main Chipinda Pools to Mabalauta road, and the other runs parallel to the Runde river as far as Fishans Camp (see below). Other roads are passable only in 4WD vehicles. Until 1996, the park was only open to visitors from May to October, since the roads within the park become inaccessible during the rains. However, since 1996 the park has been opened all year round. Although 4WD vehicles could use the roads during the wet season, they would cause considerable damage and a corresponding increase in maintenance bills. This is of particular concern to the park authorities.

There is relatively little tourist infrastructure in the vicinity of the park. There are good roads, but Gonarezhou is remote from Harare and not on an existing tourist route. There are two hotels at Chiredzi; the Planters Inn in the middle of town, and the Tambuti Lodge three kilometres from the centre on the main road. However, both of these cater primarily for business clients.

Three safari operators are registered with the park. Chipinge RDC hold a registration for Mahenye and Chilo lodges. Tore Ballance (Mungwezi Safaris) visited the park three times in 1996, and is registered for 1997. The third operator, Wilderness Safaris (Nduna Lodge), only registers for six months each year (January - June). The park is valued for the wilderness experience, the quality of its scenery and the opportunities for walking and seeing animals on foot. Two of the operators use the park for camping in remote spots. There is some concern that the number of vehicles entering the park from the Zimsun lodges in Mahenye Ward will detract from the wilderness value of the park in the junction area and reduce its value to other operators.

Facilities

Chipinda Pools has 9 camp sites and the associated Chinguli camp has 4 sites. Each

site can accommodate up to 6 people and there are ablution blocks. Mabalauta has five camping/caravan sites, with a maximum of 6 people allowed on each site. There are chalets at Swimuwini (3 five bedded chalets and 2 three bedded chalets) close to Mabalauta, overlooking the Mwenezi River.

In addition, there are a number of campsites along the Runde River from Chipinda Pools (see Table A.4 and Figure A.1). They are all small sites accommodating only one or two groups of visitors. Facilities are basic; a long drop toilet, fire place and rubbish pit. Water is available from the river. All are situated at pools along the river, suitable for fishing which is permitted up to 50 m either side of the campsites along the bank.

Before 1981 there was an exclusive commercial camp inside the park at the Chilojo Cliffs which, being in a designated Wilderness Area, was closed. Although not listed as an official site and not available through the Central Reservations Office in Harare, visitors who ask the warden may camp there. It is a larger site, capable of accommodating bigger parties, but it is not known to most visitors. A large local church group uses the site each year.

For wildlife viewing, besides the campsites, there are a number of pans with viewing platforms distributed around the park. One of the most popular is Tambahata Pan, close to Mahenye, which offers particularly good bird watching opportunities.

Name of Campsite	Number of Plots	Name of Campsite	Number of Plots
Chivilila	1	Bopomela	1
Masasanya	2	Lisodo	1
Chinguli	4	Gota	1
Benji	2	Chitove	1
Fishans	1	Pokwe	1
Nyahungwe	1	Chomuluvati	1
Madamini	1		

Table A.4. Campsites along the Runde River

A.5.2 Visitor Activities

The most popular area in the park is Chipinda Pools, which besides being most accessible, ranks best for wildlife viewing. From the campsite there are excellent views over the river, with resident hippo and crocodile populations. The Chilojo Cliffs are a very popular scenic spot. Chinguli camp receives a high level of use by campers, followed by the Mabalauta/Swimuwini accommodation. The former is frequented mostly by organised safari groups, which can conduct walking and driving excursions from there. Tambahata Pan, near the Mahenye entrance gate, is the other very popular wildlife viewing site. Occupancy rates for accommodation units are quite low, e.g. around 20% for Swimuwini Camp during the week, rising at weekends.

The predominant activity in the park is game and bird viewing from vehicles and at pans, although fishing is very popular. It is also possible to book guided walking safaris. These are usually 5-7 days duration, departing from Chipinda Pools and following a circular route. In 1996, no trails were booked from Chipinda Pools. No

one-day trails are yet available although they are planned for the future. Climbing at the Chilojo Cliffs is also possible.

Fishing is restricted to within 50m of the camps. Licenses cost Z$10, with a limit of one hook per rod. Revenue from fishing licenses (Table A.15) suggests that it is a popular activity in the park.

A.5.3 Visitor Use Patterns

Visitor use of Gonarezhou has always been limited. Civil unrest has contributed to low levels of visitor use but the lack of all-weather roads and limited infrastructure for tourism in the region also constrains visitor numbers. The Gonarezhou Plan suggests that 400 people per day during the peak season is a reasonable target.

Monthly data, from 1992-1996, was collected from the park headquarters at Chipinda pools and Mabalauta.

Year	Chipinda Pools	Mabalauta	Chipinda Pools (%)	Mabalauta (%)
1992	2,607	678	79.36	20.64
1993	2,930	933	75.85	24.15
1994	5,938	839	87.62	12.38
1995	4,722	1,637	74.26	25.74
1996	5,201	1,279	80.26	19.74
Total	21,398	5,366	79.95	20.05

Table A.5. Proportion of Visitors to Gonarezhou National Park Passing Through Chipinda Pools and Mabalauta, 1992-1996

A.5.4 Spatial Trends

Data is available on visitor arrivals at the two administrative centres of the park, Chipinda Pools and Mabalauta (Table A.5). Over the past five years, the majority of visitors (79.95%) have entered the park through Chipinda Pools, whilst only 20.64% of visitors have entered the park through the more remote southern gate at Mabalauta. There has been little variation is this distribution from year to year.

A.5.5 Accommodation Trends

Visitors have the option of a single day entry or an overnight stay. Whilst camp sites are available near both Chipinda Pools and Mabalauta, chalet accommodation is only available near Mabalauta (Swimuwini camp).

Overall, the proportion of visitors using chalets has stayed fairly constant, whilst the proportion of day visitors has increased, and that of campers has decreased (Table A.6 and Figure A.1). In Chipinda Pools the ratio of campers to day visitors decreased from approximately 3:1 in 1992 to 2:3 in 1994, with an overall ratio for the five years combined of approximately 1:1 (Table A.7 and Figure A.2). In Mabalauta the proportion of campers has remained steady at around 25%, the proportion of day visitors has increased from 0% to almost 15%, and there has been a corresponding decrease in the proportion of chalet visitors (Table A.7 and Figure A.3).

Year	Chalets	Campers	Day Visitors
1992	14.86	65.21	19.94
1993	17.01	53.27	29.72
1994	8.51	37.16	54.33
1995	14.07	40.75	45.18
1996	11.50	36.28	52.22
Total	12.56	43.57	43.87

Table A.6. Proportions Visitors to Gonarezhou Split by Type of Accommodation, 1992-1996.

	Chipinda Pools		Mabalauta		
Year	Campers	Day Visitors	Chalets	Campers	Day Visitors
1992	74.88	25.12	71.98	28.02	0.00
1993	61.43	38.57	70.42	27.65	1.93
1994	38.82	61.18	68.77	25.39	5.84
1995	49.11	50.89	54.67	16.62	28.71
1996	38.53	61.47	58.25	27.13	14.62
Total	48.51	51.49	62.65	23.85	13.49

Table A.7. Proportions of Visitors to Chipinda Pools and Mabalauta Split by Type of Accommodation, 1992-1996.

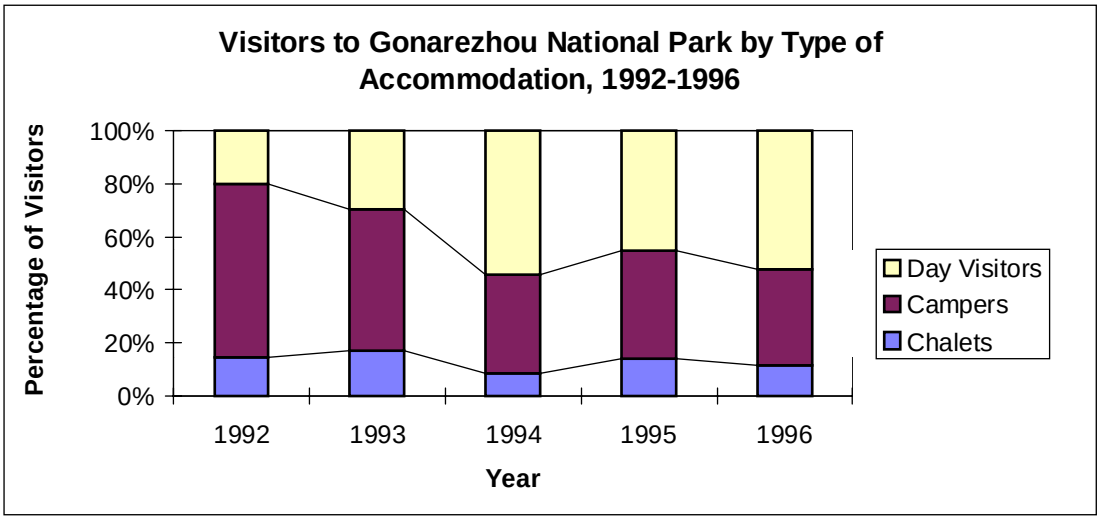

Figure A.2. The accommodation used by visitors to Gonarezhou National Park

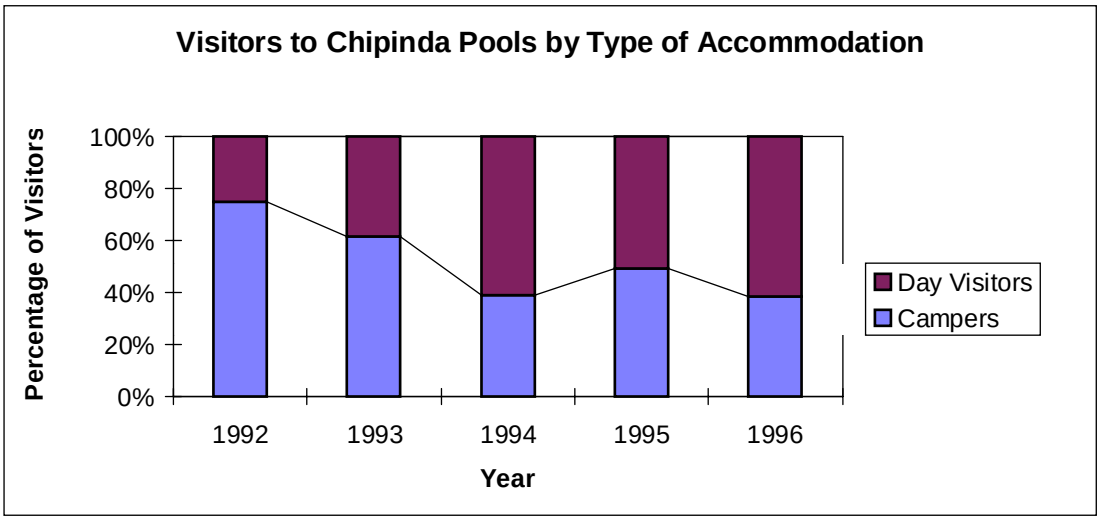

Figure A.3. The accommodation used by visitors to Chipinda Pools

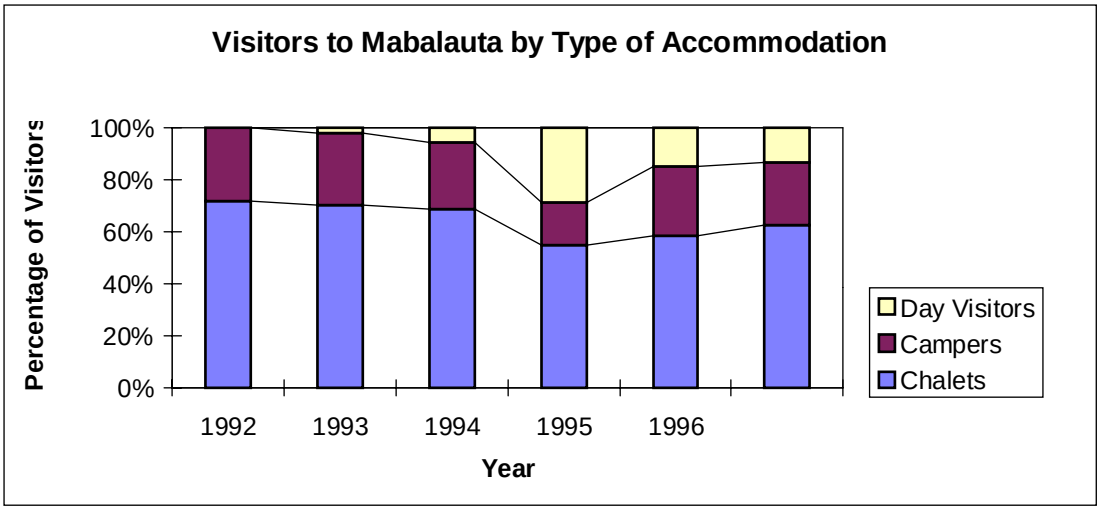

Figure A.4. The accommodation used by visitors to Mabalauta

A.5.6 Annual Trends

Annual visitation data is available from 1971 onwards (Tables A.8a, b). In 1971 there were 554 visitors, in 1973 and 1982 there were over 6,000 visitors, whilst throughout most of the 1980s the total was under 2,000. Since 1994 the figure has risen to over 6,000 again. The overall pattern (Figure 4), whilst seemingly erratic, can be explained to some extent by historic factors.

Prior to the closure of the park in 1976, visitation was fairly low, although in 1973 there seems to have been an inexplicable large number of campers (Figure A.7). Upon reopening of the park in 1982 there was a large influx of visitors, after which visitation settled down to a low level again. It began to rise in the early 1990s, and since 1994 there has been a regular influx of 6-7000 visitors per annum.

Visitation to Mabalauta has always remained at a low level, and most of the increase in recent years has been associated with Chipinda Pools. The use of chalets decreased from the reopening of the park in 1982, to a low in 1990. There has since been a steady increase (Figure A.6). Campers remained at a low level after the park reopened in 1982 until 1986. Since 1991 figures have been at around 2,000-2,500, rising slowly (Figure A.7). Day visitors have shown the most marked increase in recent years. Between 1982 and 1993 they fluctuated between 500 and 1,500. In 1994 there was a large increase in day visitors, to almost 4,000, and levels have remained high (Figure A.8).

The reopening of the park to overseas tourists has contributed to the increase in the number of visitors in the 1990's but the figures for numbers and types of visitors are erratic. Although overseas tourists do not make up a large proportion of visitors, there has been an increase in South African visitors in the past few years.

Table A.8a & b. Visitor Use of Gonarezhou National Park: 1971-1996 (Schuerholz & Moore 1993, and subsequently updated)

Year	Chalets	Camping		Day Visitors		Total
		Mabalauta	Chipinda	Mabalauta	Chipinda	
1971	286	137	149	-	-	572
1972	227	122	1,074	-	-	1,423
1973	428	3,736	2,463	-	-	6,627
1974	296	85	656	860	-	1,897
1975	378	260	1,537	1,088	1,196	4,459
1982	1047	47	422	8	5,888	7,412
1983	516	42	261	5	299	1,123
1984	419	35	348	10	473	1,285
1985	470	37	15	1,114	-	1,636
1986	632	129	2,302	17	638	3,718
1987	304	71	995	19	645	2,034
1990	255	34	942	364	-	1,595
1991	523	58	2,138	16	1,491	4,226
1992	488	190	1952	0	655	3285
1993	657	258	1800	18	1130	3863
1994	577	213	2305	49	3633	6777
1995	895	272	2323	470	2441	6401
1996	745*	347*	2004	187*	3197	6480*

Year	Total Chalet Visitors	Total Camping Visitors	Total Day Visitors	Total Visitors to Chipinda Pools	Total Visitors to Mabalauta	Total
1971	286	286	0	149	423	572
1972	227	1196	0	1074	349	1,423
1973	428	6199	0	2463	4164	6,627
1974	296	741	860	656	1241	1,897
1975	378	1797	2284	2733	1726	4,459
1982	1047	469	5896	6310	1102	7,412
1983	516	303	304	560	563	1,123
1984	419	383	483	821	464	1,285
1985	470	52	1114	15	1621	1,636
1986	632	2431	655	2940	778	3,718
1987	304	1066	664	1640	394	2,034
1990	255	976	364	942	653	1,595
1991	523	2196	1507	3629	597	4,226
1992	488	2142	655	2607	678	3285
1993	657	2158	1148	2930	933	3863
1994	577	2518	3682	5938	839	6777
1995	895	2595	2911	4764	1637	6401
1996	745*	2351*	3384*	5201	1279*	6480*

* Not including November & December 1996 data for Mabalauta

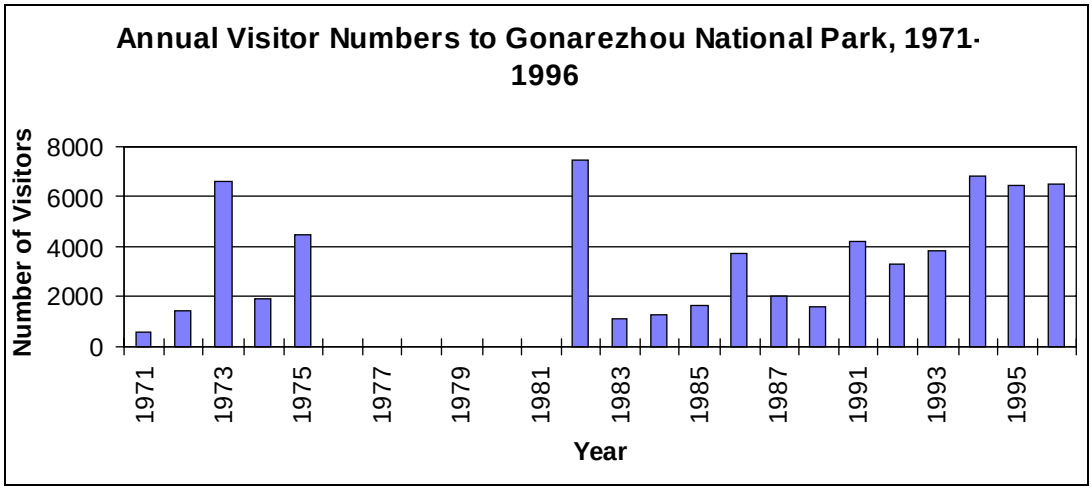

Figure A.5 Annual visitor numbers to Gonarezhou National Park

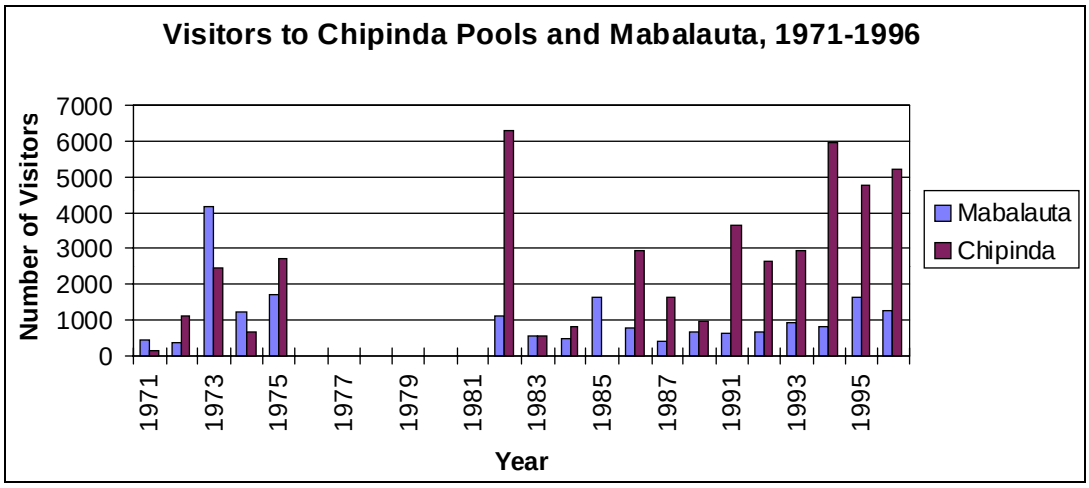

Figure A.6 Annual visitor numbers to Chipinda Pools and Mabalauta

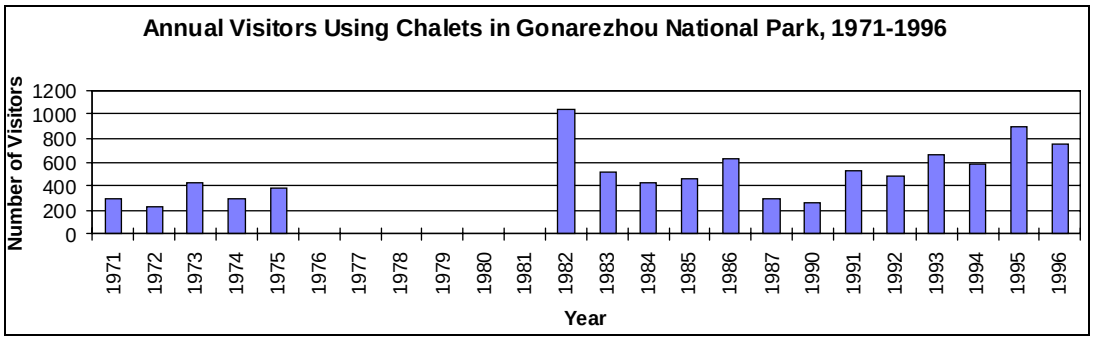

Figure A.7 Annual number of visitors using chalets in Gonarezhou National Park

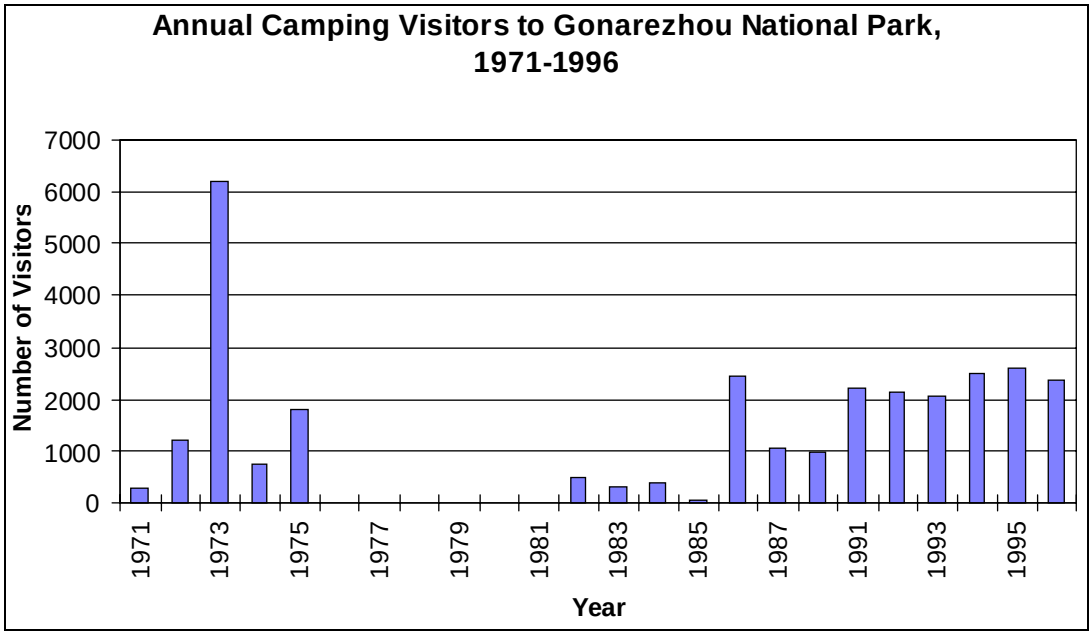

Figure A.8 Annual number of visitors camping in Gonarezhou National Park

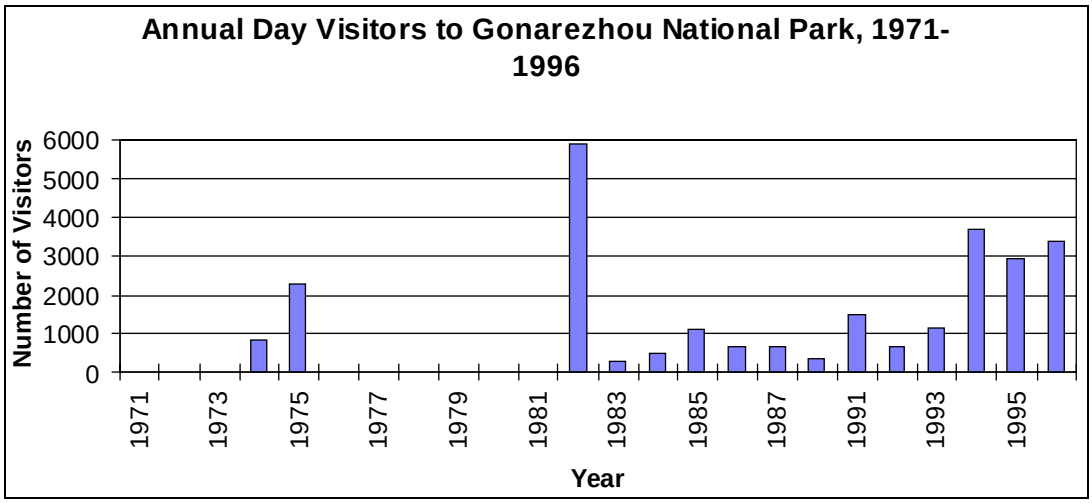

Figure A.9 Annual number of day visitors to Gonarezhou National Park

A.5.7 Seasonal Trends

The warden at Chipinda Pools considers the peak periods of visitation to be December-January, March-May, and August-September. This pattern is close to that shown by the data for the five years from January 1992 (Table A.9 and Figure A.10). There is a very defined peak of visitation in August, and a trough in February. April is higher than expected, and June somewhat lower. From 1993-1995, December received moderately high levels of visitation, possibly by domestic visitors over the Christmas holiday period.

The data has been split by region of the park to compare seasonality of visitation at Chipinda Pools and Mabalauta (Figures A.10 & A.11). Chipinda Pools shows a marked seasonal pattern with an August peak. The pattern at Mabalauta is more erratic from 1992-1994, after which a more recognisable pattern, similar to that of Chipinda Pools, emerges.

The data has also been split by day visitors, campers and chalet visitors (Figures A.12-14). Campers and day visitors show a marked seasonality. However, the pattern of chalet use is more erratic, with April, December-January, and July-August the consistently busier months.

Month	Total Chalet Visitors	Total Camping Visitors	Total Day Visitors	Total Visitors to Chipinda Pools	Total Visitors to Mabalauta	Total
Jan-92	55	181	159	340	55	395
Feb-92	16	125	82	207	16	223
Mar-92	18	97	18	115	18	133
Apr-92	94	137	46	174	103	277
May-92	69	346	101	447	69	516
Jun-92	53	212	80	292	53	345
Jul-92	69	194	18	212	69	281
Aug-92	21	197	60	257	21	278
Sep-92	0	121	3	124	0	124
Oct-92	60	190	26	216	60	276
Nov-92	8	272	21	112	189	301
Dec-92	25	70	41	111	25	136
Jan-93	28	66	4	70	28	98
Feb-93	23	36	0	36	23	59
Mar-93	15	47	29	76	15	91
Apr-93	86	221	138	343	102	445
May-93	51	163	66	217	63	280
Jun-93	7	201	64	260	12	272
Jul-93	104	213	104	297	124	421
Aug-93	139	435	459	861	172	1,033
Sep-93	69	294	50	341	72	413
Oct-93	35	159	117	258	53	311
Nov-93	24	6	0	0	30	30
Dec-93	76	217	117	171	239	410
Jan-94	36	167	117	284	36	320
Feb-94	22	18	47	65	22	87
Mar-94	23	51	31	57	48	105
Apr-94	95	320	127	392	150	542
May-94	23	240	362	577	48	625
Jun-94	43	178	170	322	69	391
Jul-94	36	426	574	953	83	1,036
Aug-94	94	507	830	1,294	137	1,431
Sep-94	72	231	629	841	91	932
Oct-94	46	195	288	475	54	529
Nov-94	70	54	220	265	79	344
Dec-94	17	131	287	413	22	435
Jan-95	104	100	44	116	132	248
						…cont.
Feb-95	38	24	16	30	48	78

Mar-95	28	37	52	79	38	117
Apr-95	76	359	311	636	110	746
May-95	126	144	214	329	155	484
Jun-95	48	156	224	332	96	428
Jul-95	106	425	264	584	211	795
Aug-95	70	571	546	911	276	1,187
Sep-95	76	373	291	460	280	740
Oct-95	111	208	324	505	138	643
Nov-95	56	67	321	363	81	444
Dec-95	56	127	266	377	72	449
Jan-96	58	51	213	241	81	322
Feb-96	12	19	142	148	25	173
Mar-96	41	84	134	203	56	259
Apr-96	95	264	243	455	147	602
May-96	78	200	279	444	113	557
Jun-96	79	266	341	562	124	686
Jul-96	99	434	285	594	224	818
Aug-96	101	398	585	840	244	1,084
Sep-96	99	341	311	586	165	751
Oct-96	83	97	193	273	100	373
Nov-96		87	507	594		594
Dec-96		110	151	261		261

Table A.9. Monthly Visitor Use of Gonarezhou National Park: 1992-1996.

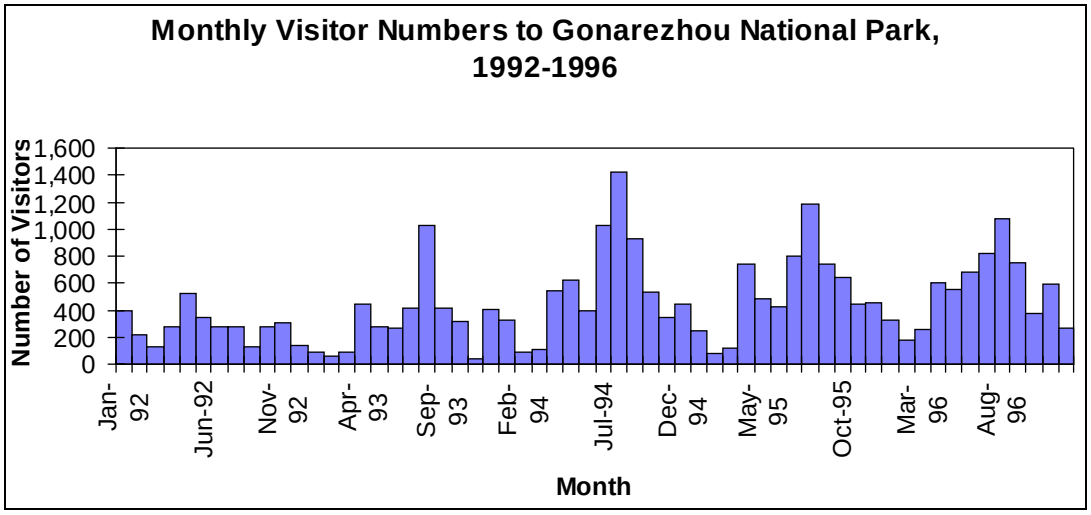

Figure A.10. Monthly visitor numbers to Gonarezhou National Park

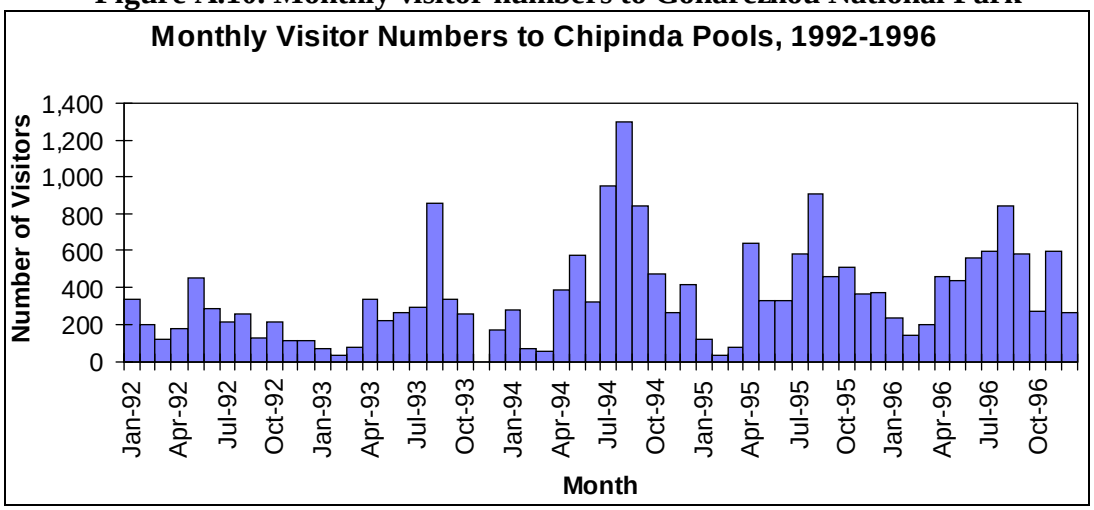

Figure A.11. Monthly visitor numbers to Chipinda Pools

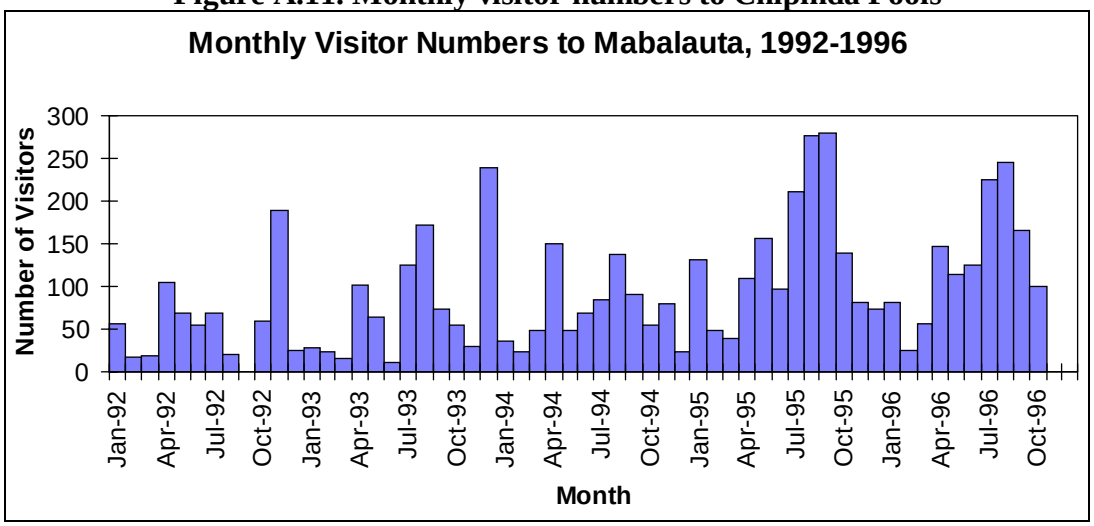

Figure A.12. Monthly visitor numbers to Mabalauta

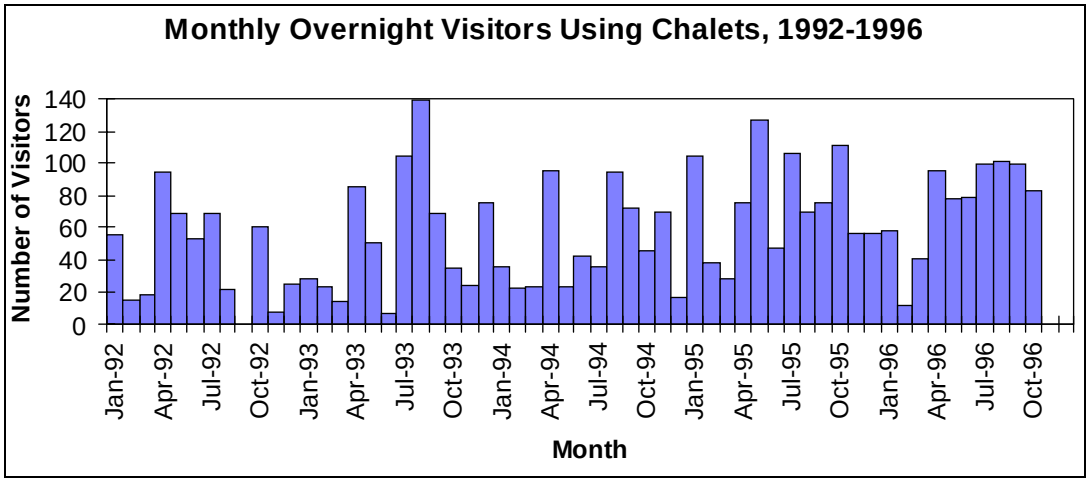

Figure A.13. Monthly number of visitors using chalets in Gonarezhou NP

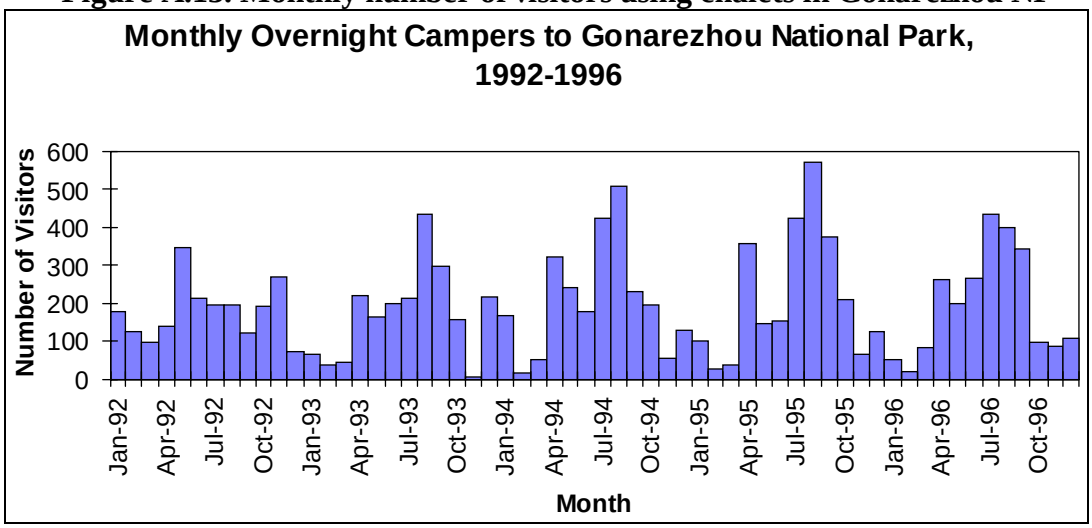

Figure A.14. Monthly number of visitors camping in Gonarezhou NP

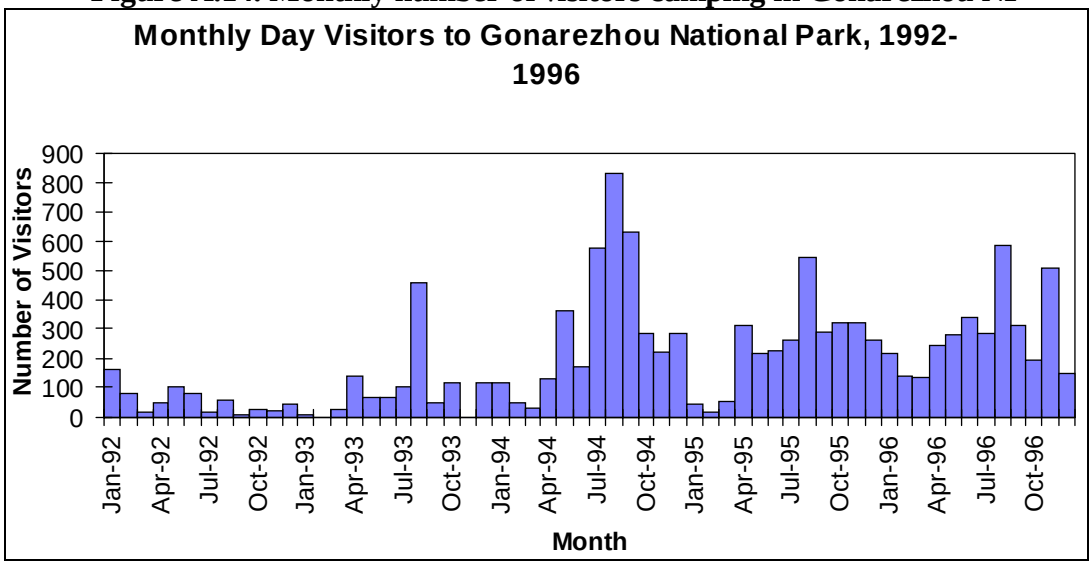

Figure A.15. Monthly number of day visitors to Gonarezhou NP

A.5.8 Nationality Trends

Visitors have been classified as either domestic tourists, regional tourists (95% South African), or overseas tourists (principally European, with some American and Australian). The nationality breakdown for 1991/92 has been compared with that for 1995/96 (Table A.10 and Figures A.15-16). It can be seen that the majority of visitors (60-90%) over this period have been domestic.

At Chipinda Pools, the proportion of overseas visitors has remained at a constant low level of 7-9% (Figure A.16), whilst in Mabalauta it appears to have increased from 2% to 9.6%. In both areas, there has been a large increase in Regional visitors (4.6%-34.0% at Chipinda Pools, 8.7%-23.5% at Mabalauta), and a corresponding decrease in the proportion of domestic visitors.

	Zimbabwean	Regional	Overseas	Total
1991/92				
Chipinda Pools	3094	161	245	3500
Mabalauta	674	66	15	755
Chipinda Pools (%)	88.4	4.6	7.0	
Mabalauta (%)	89.3	8.7	2.0	
1995/96				
Chipinda Pools, Camping	1519	1072	253	2844
Chipinda Pools, Day Visitors	2164	1028	143	3335
Chipinda Pools, Total	3683	2100	396	6179
Mabalauta	1090	382	156	1628
Gonarezhou Total	4773	2482	552	7807
Gonarezhou (%)	61.1	31.8	7.1	
Chipinda Pools, Camping (%)	53.4	37.7	8.9	
Chipinda Pools, Day Visitors(%)	64.9	30.8	4.3	
Chipinda Pools, Total (%)	59.6	34.0	6.4	
Mabalauta (%)	67.0	23.5	9.6	

Table A.10. Breakdown of Visitors to Chipinda Pools and Mabalauta by Region of Origin, 1991/92 vs. 1995/96.

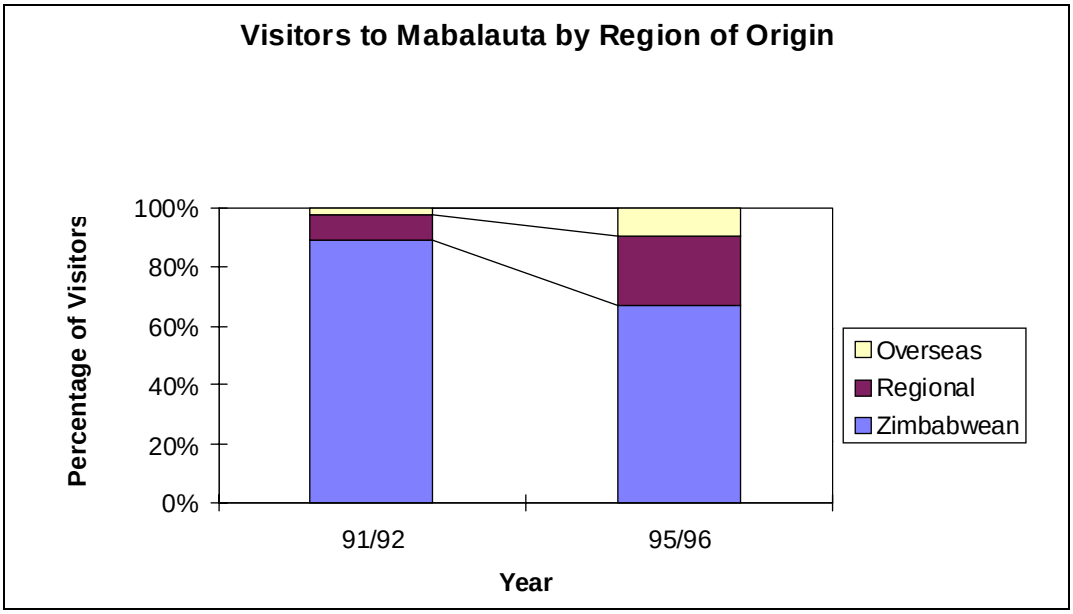

Figure A.16. Region of origin of visitors to Mabalauta

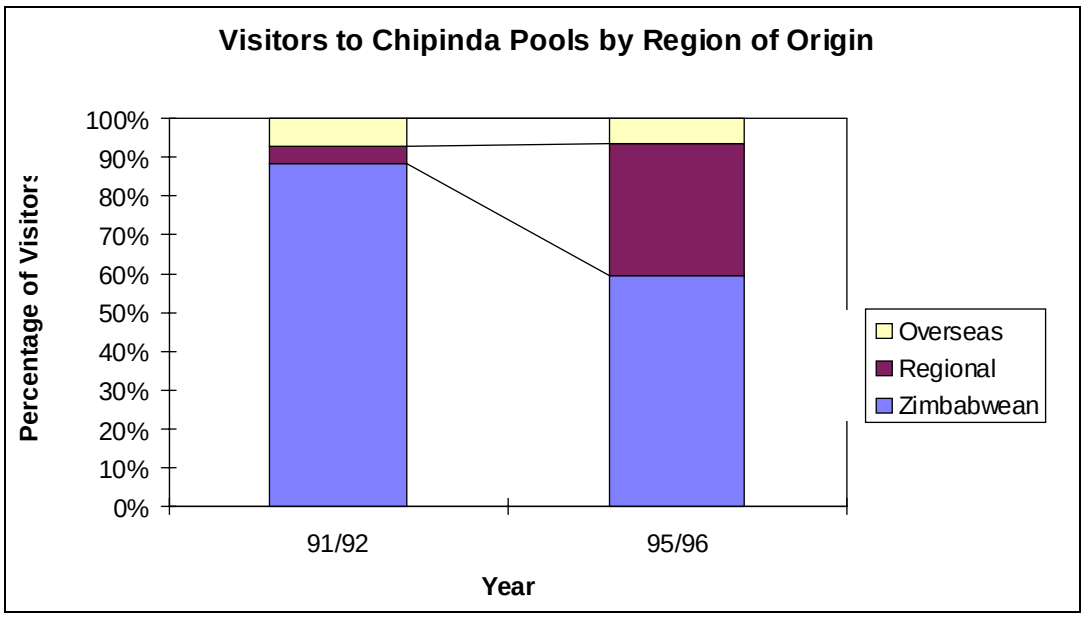

Figure A.17. Region of origin of visitors to Chipinda Pools

A.5.9 Future Tourism Developments in the Park

The Tourism Sector background paper for the Gonarezhou Park Plan[8] envisages promoting Gonarezhou to the overseas and regional markets as a wilderness experience for eco-tourists. For the relatively passive eco-tourist there would be well organised and scheduled guided activities in groups of up to 15 with a focus on wildlife viewing, scenic drives, photo excursions and the cultural and historical aspects of the park. Accommodation for these tourists would be rustic but comfortable.

For active eco-tourists there would be less rigidly organised guided activities in groups of up to 10 people, demanding better physical fitness with a focus on trekking, hiking,

8 Schuerholz & Moore 1993.

bird-watching and rafting. Accommodation would be in rustic shelters and tents. For the more up-market clientele high quality private sector accommodation would be available in the 'support zone'.

The December 1993, Gonarezhou National Park Management Plan envisages 'a more holistic wildland experience' and a special role for the park in developing public understanding and appreciation of ecological systems. The Management Plan makes clear the importance of emphasising the relationship to human culture. This approach will depend upon the availability of high quality guides and informed park staff. Considerable emphasis is placed in the Management Plan on visitor education and interpretation centres.[9]

The market segment appropriate for Gonarezhou is identified in the Management Plan as that which values its wild and remote character; its affordability; the quality and integrity of the resource-based experience and the moderate level of access and services. The Management Plan envisages the improvement of 11 existing day use facilities and the development of a further 10 with access, parking, signs, trails, picnic tables, grates, sun shelters, viewing blinds, toilets and garbage containers.

The development of campsites is seen as important because they lengthen the stay of visitors, provide the opportunity for a more in-depth park experience and enable local Zimbabweans to enjoy the park through a more economical alternative to lodges. Developed (15) and undeveloped (13) sites are envisaged. Undeveloped sites will be limited to three pitches and only toilet facilities and grates will be provided. Developed campsites will extend up to 5 ha, but with a maximum of 12 pitches (one large group pitch may be developed at each site), and there may be viewing platforms, interpretative programme facilities, water supplies and ablutions. It is intended that semi-permanent camps along the Runde river will be put out to tender to operators.

Recognising that chalet prices are likely to rise, following the Jansen Report, and that this will preclude local use, the Management Plan envisaged some site improvements at Swimuwini and the building of similar facilities at Chipinda Pools. Six sites for commercial lodges are identified in the Management Plan. Their development would aid regional economic growth and provide income to the park. External commercial facilities are envisaged at eight sites including Mahenye and Lone Star Ranch, now Malilangwe Conservation Trust. There is also a plan to fence out a 7.5 km^2 area of the park close to the Chipinda Pools entrance on the Runde river and build a tourist lodge there across the road from the park gate. The warden envisages relocating some of the staff accommodation into the same block of land.

Park brochures, a park handbook, personal in-park interpretative programmes and guiding services, including private sector services provided under lease agreements, are seen as central to improving the depth of understanding and visitor safety. Interpretation centres are planned at Chipinda Pools and Malapati - both would provide information and interpretation and contribute to the educational programmes of the local community.[10]

9 DNPWLM 1993, pp.33-34.
10 DNPWLM 1993.

The tourist survey conducted during 1996 in the park asked current users of the park to indicate on a five point scale the extent to which a range of additional facilities would enhance their visit.

Facility	1	2	3	4	5	Mean
Labelled trees & vegetation	7	5	16	25	45	3.96
Hides	11	5	20	17	44	3.79
Wildlife information boards at viewing points	26	14	14	17	26	3.04
Night-scope hire service	46	1	12	15	21	2.62
Visitor information centre	38	17	15	7	21	2.57
Binocular hire service	59	1	16	7	11	2.07
Telescope hire service	62		14	7	11	2.00

Table A.11. To what extent would the following additional facilities enhance your visit? grading 1 (marginally) to 5 (greatly)

The mean score provides an index figure for the extent to which the particular facility would enhance the current tourist's experience of the park. There are much higher scores for the labelling of trees and vegetation and for information boards than for a visitor centre. These are also significantly cheaper ways of providing interpretative and educational material to visitors.

Recognising that developments in the park which may enhance the experience for one group of visitors would detract from the experience for others, current tourists were asked about which developments would enhance their visit. Not all respondents answered this question and not all responded on each facility, which may be related to the respondent's strength of feeling on the issue. However, the responses, from current users, do reveal the conflicts of opinion amongst visitors.

Development	Enhance (%)	Spoil (%)	Difference	N
More viewing hides	90.0	10.0	+80.0	50
More platforms	73.9	26.1	+47.8	48
More graded roads	59.6	40.4	+ 19.6	47
Better toilets	46.7	53.4	-6.7	30
More chalets	36.8	63.2	-26.4	40
More picnic areas	29.4	70.6	-41.2	34
More campsites	22.5	77.5	-55.0	40
Café/restaurant	19.1	80.9	-61.5	47
Tar roads	8.5	91.5	- 83.0	47
Hotel	2.2	97.8	-95.6	46

Table A.12. Which developments would enhance/ spoil your visit to Gonarezhou?

Only three developments would enhance the park for a majority of current visitors. There is considerable resistance to the development of the park amongst current visitors who value for the park for its wilderness qualities, as do the existing tour operators.

A.6 ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM

At present visitor numbers are very low, so minimal environmental impact is evident. Visitor distribution is limited to roads, viewing platforms and campsites. Although no formal monitoring of visitor impact is carried out, a number of impacts are known to occur, chiefly at or around campsites, and efforts are being made to minimise them.

A.6.1 Impacts associated with roads

The number of vehicles entering the park at Chipinda Pools has more than doubled since 1992, from around 650 to over 1400 (Figure A.17). There is a strong seasonal pattern, with most vehicle entries in July-September (Figure A.18). However, a second peak has been developing around Christmas, and the rise in vehicles since 1992 has been more marked in the wet season (November - April) than in the dry (May - October) (Figure A.19).

Vehicles travelling within the park will cause some wildlife disturbance and mortality, and dust disturbed from the roads by passing traffic may be having an adverse affect on roadside vegetation. However, given the (at present) relatively low number of vehicles within the park, and the lack of baseline data, this project has not attempted to measure these impacts. More directly, since the roads within the park are not tarred, they are vulnerable to vehicle wear in the form of rutting and erosion. Vehicle damage to roads is more severe in the wet season, when the softer surface is more prone to rutting and erosion. The opening up of the park year round and the increasing amount of wet season traffic is a cause of concern to the park management. Remedial costs will be significantly higher as a result of these changes.

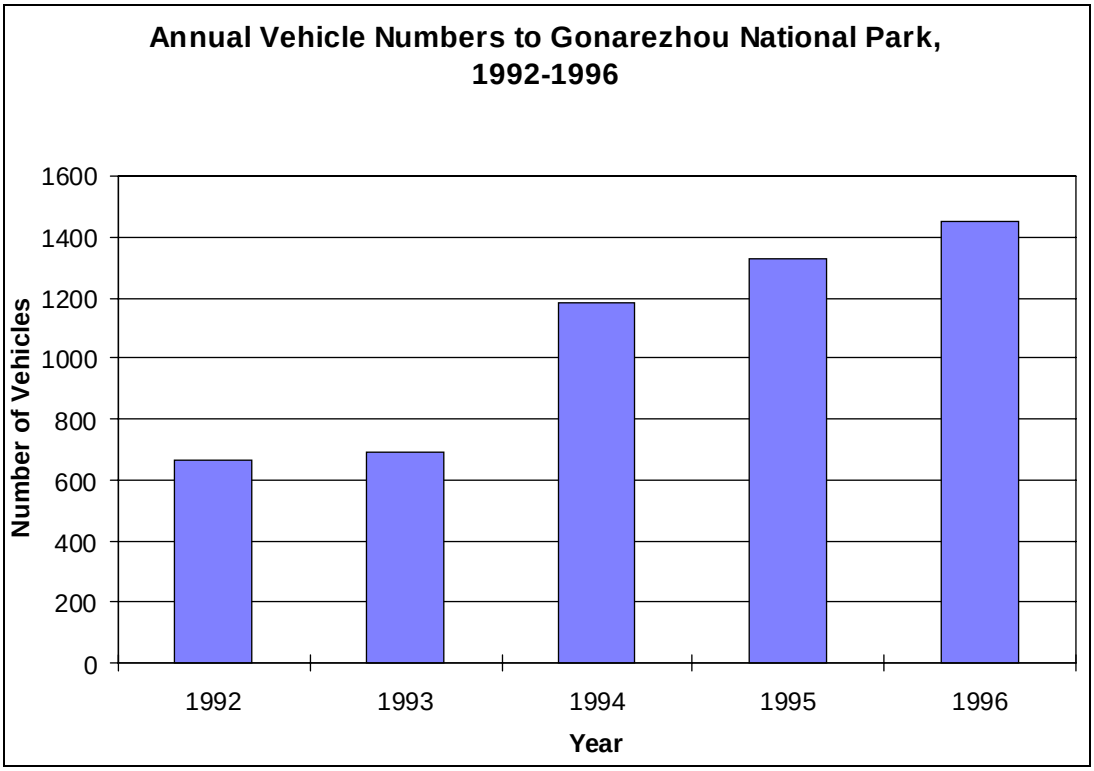

Figure A.18. Annual number of vehicles entering Gonarezhou National Park

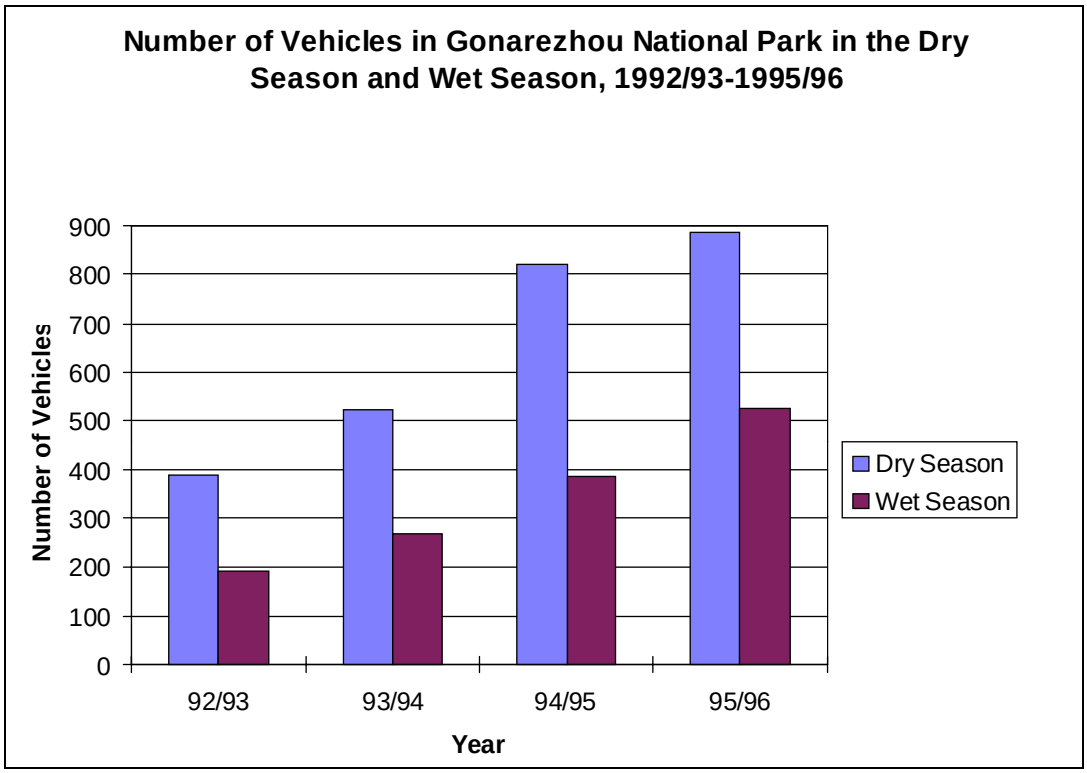

Figure A.19. Seasonal number of vehicles entering Gonarezhou National Park

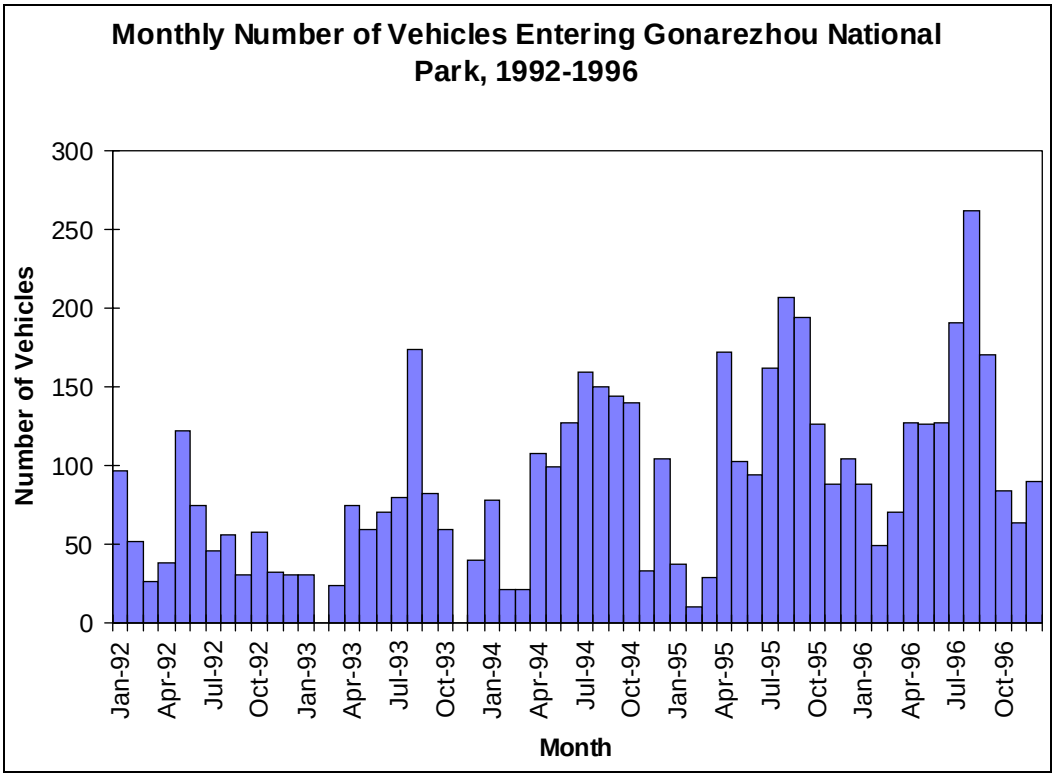

Figure A.20. Monthly number of vehicles entering Gonarezhou National Park

A.6.2 Impacts associated with artificial game waterholes

Despite some controversy, artificial waterpoints are used in arid environments throughout Africa to allow cattle to survive in marginal areas and to extend the dry season range of wildlife. For the latter reason, the practice is particularly prevalent in protected areas where artificial concentrations of game are maintained, using boreholes, as a tourist attraction. This is most dramatically evinced in Hwange National Park, which is an entirely artificially maintained "wilderness".

Artificial pans were first established in Gonarezhou in 1970, predominantly relying on boreholes which were installed in the 1950s for cattle, which were present on the land at that time. They are now used by wildlife, particularly in the dry season when natural resources are scarce. These pans are, however, associated with an increase in vegetation degradation and increased disturbance and predation of particular species, most notably roan antelope and Lichtenstein's hartebeest, both of which are rare in Zimbabwe.

According to the DNPWLM (1993), in Gonarezhou boreholes were established and are maintained for the following reasons:

To maintain and disperse populations of large mammals in an arid environment;
To relieve foraging pressure on riparian vegetation; and
To provide game viewing opportunities within the park.

The Management Plan for Gonarezhou National Park maintains that artificial waterpoints should only be established for drought relief and for the conservation of

endangered or sensitive species. It also highlights the need for further research into the effects of artificial waterpoints on the environment of the park. Despite this caution, some boreholes in the park are pumped, in locations close to access roads, to allow easy viewing of good concentrations of wildlife by tourists.

Although the maintenance of permanent water at waterholes is valuable to the Park, there are a number of considerations against their proliferation:

They are foci for vegetation degradation;
They disrupt the natural migratory cycles of animals;
They are difficult and costly to maintain;
Their ecological management is yet untried; and
They alter the ecology of pans through intensive use by ungulates, thus destroying the habitat for smaller animals.

In line with the opinions expressed in the plan, a proposal was developed to examine the impact of artificial waterpoints on wildlife populations and vegetation. The research was carried out by a DICE MSc student, in collaboration with Raleigh International (Rodriguez, 1995). This collaboration offers potential for the continuation of monitoring, carried out during this study, in successive seasons.

The project was carried out in the Mabalauta sub-region of the park. It aimed to compare the diversity and abundance of wildlife species, and the impact of wildlife concentrations on vegetation, of natural and artificial waterholes. The objectives of the study were:

- To record the level of utilisation of artificial waterholes by large mammals during the dry season;
- To quantify the loss of grass cover surrounding artificial waterholes;
- To record the degree of degradation of woodland, in terms of tree loss and damage to trees; and
- To report on the relative impacts of browsers, fire and drought to woodland.

The full report of this project is presented in Rodriguez (1995). Reproduced below is the conclusion from the project.

‘The establishment of artificial waterholes in Gonarezhou 25 years ago aimed to provide an alternative water source for mammals that were drinking from the Mwenesi river, thereby relieving pressure on the riparian vegetation and to provide viewing opportunities for tourists. An increased concentration of game at Manyanda and Nyamugwe pans was evident during this study, although not to the extent seen by other researchers. A number of factors may effect the frequency and duration of wildlife visits to waterholes. Predator avoidance and tourist/observer avoidance, along with the physiological constraints faced by each species for drinking and temperature regulation will all have effected the results of the observations made during this study. The concentration of game at these sites coupled with these behavioural adaptations in the animals accounts for the slightly increased impact on vegetation at artificial waterholes.

The two most notable impacts on surrounding vegetation were the increased proportion of small (<2 m.) trees and a decrease in grass cover found at the artificial waterholes. The reduction of canopy trees (>4m.) within 500 m. of the pan provides growing opportunities to small trees. This led to an increased tree density (trees/m^2) around artificial waterholes, primarily made up of small trees. Within the 500 m. belt transects conducted at each site, over 67% more trees were found at the artificial sites than at the control site.

The decrease in grass cover surrounding both the artificial and natural pans is a result of trampling and grazing by mammals visiting the waterholes. The sustained use of the artificial waterholes throughout the dry season allows for increased impact primarily through trampling, as grass is dry and not as attractive to grazers. The impact of this use was evident at artificial pans throughout the 500m. transects. As distance increased from the waterholes, and thus the foraging circumference increased, the impact on grass cover declined at both natural and artificial waterholes. Natural pans showed a full recovery to the level of the control site within 500m. of the pan, where as artificial pans showed only limited recovery.

The concentration of game around waterholes for an extended period of time will impact the surrounding vegetation. The complete eradication of woody species, which has been described by other scientists previously was not apparent during this study. The initial loss of woody species described in Gonarezhou, has perhaps climaxed around these pans, leading to a different kind of degradation. Tall (2m+) trees represent a smaller proportion of the trees at artificial pans than at the natural pans. Similar results were seen between natural pans and the control site. The increase in small trees, which suffer more from trampling, may lead to grassland encroachment in the future.

Other expected impacts were not seen as a result of establishing permanent water at waterholes, such as increased impact from browser species or the replacement of woodland by grassland. Browser damage was not significantly different between artificial and natural sites. It was certainly the most significant impact on vegetation considered in this study, effecting 59% of all trees encountered. Drought and fire damage were less noticeable than anticipated, accounting for less than 30% and 1% of damage to trees, respectively.

Although the establishment of artificial waterholes has had an impact on the vegetation surrounding these pans, the provision of water to wildlife in a drought prone environment and the inclusion of tourist revenue for the Gonarezhou are important management factors which must be considered. The impact on vegetation of 25 years of permanent water supplies is not as severe as has been suggested for Hwange and other African national parks. However, other factors such as the elimination of crustacean species, the alteration of grass cover from perennial to annual species, and the increased predation success which is associated with artificial waterholes must also be considered.'[11]

11 Rodriguez, 1995, pp59-61.

A.6.3 Impacts associated with campsites

A.6.3.1 Litter

At present, combustible waste is burnt at campsites by visitors themselves, whilst the remainder is deposited in a pit. This has attracted scavengers such as baboon and hyaena who regularly raid the pits and could become a danger to the public. It is intended that capped, concrete bins will be installed at each site, with regular waste collection. Responding to the tourist questionnaire, 16 tourists reported seeing litter at campsites, viewing platforms, pools and beside the track.

A.6.3.2 Fire

Although visitors are only allowed to make fires at designated campsites, some are illegally started elsewhere. These, coupled with the smouldering remains of campsite fires, pose serious hazards in the dry veld environment, where fire easily spreads out of control. There have been some extensive grass fires that have been attributed to irresponsible visitor behaviour. The problem is compounded by the lack of finance to establish firebreaks in the vegetation. Old roads that acted as fire breaks have been rendered inadequate as a result of bush encroachment.

There was one fire in 1995 and two in 1996, none of which were attributable to tourists. In the tourist surveys during 1996 there were four reports of fire damage.

A.6.3.3 Overfishing

Between June 1995 and July 1996, 35% of fishing licenses were sold to foreign visitors (principally South African), whilst 65% were sold to local visitors. However, this does not reflect the ratio of offtake by nationality. Overfishing is mainly caused by local visitors using the park as a source of produce for their businesses, despite a general rule that no more fish than can be reasonably used for domestic purposes should be taken. A lack of control over permits, and the difficulties of monitoring offtake and policing the violation of regulations, have raised fears that the resource is being overexploited.

Figures are available for the number of fishing licences sold each month at Chipinda Pools from July 1994 (Figure A.20). There is a strong seasonal pattern matching that of visitation in general, with more licenses sold in the dry season, specifically July - September.

In 1994, a monitoring exercise was carried out to survey fish species diversity and body size. This showed a marked decrease in diversity in the twenty years since a previous survey, but the sampling methodology was questioned. A more detailed survey is anticipated once funding becomes available.

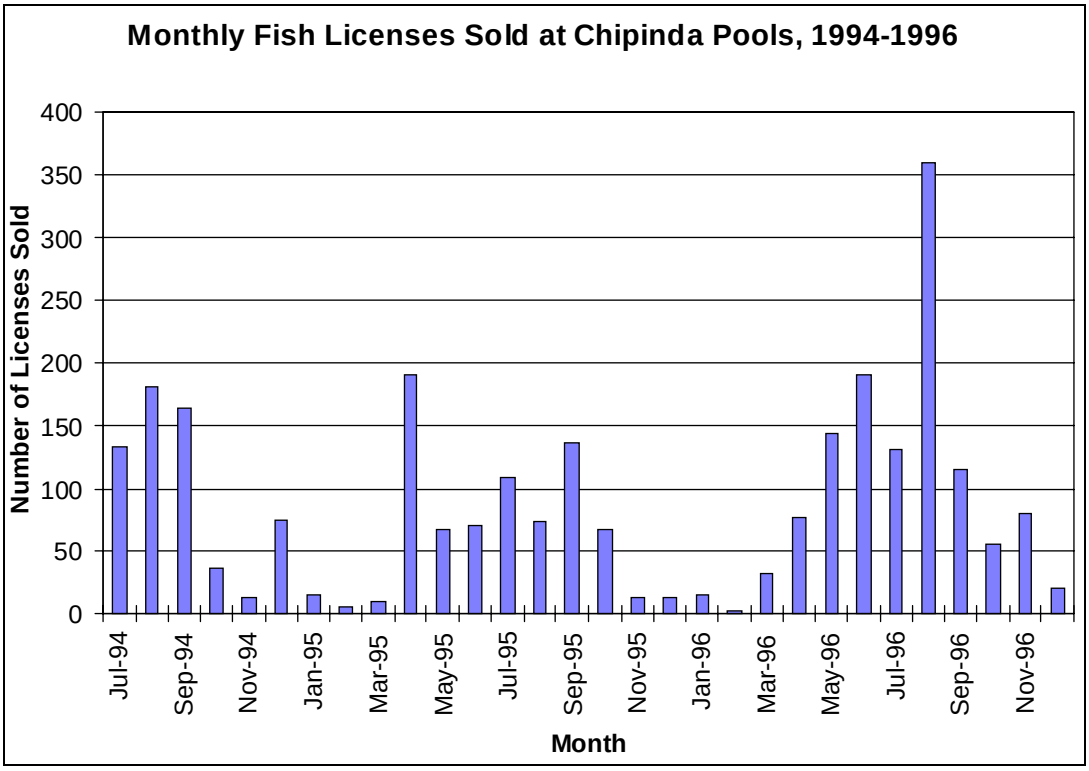

Figure A.21. Monthly number of fishing licenses sold at Chipinda Pools

A.6.3.4 Consumption of firewood

With increases in overnight visitors comes an increase in the demand for firewood. Whilst at present this is likely to be having a negligible effect, it should be closely monitored. Dead wood is an important feature of an ecosystem, providing niche space and nutrient resources, and localised collection may have long term implications for the local ecology surrounding campsites.

The price of a bundle of firewood has been increased to Z$40 per bundle from January 1997. This may increase the likelihood of visitors collecting wood within the park.

A.6.3.5 Poaching

Political instability and war had a serious impact. There were said to be 225 rhino in Gonarezhou in 1983; by 1991 there were none. The 1992 drought did serious damage to the Park and many animals were translocated, some to local conservancies for feeding. Game densities generally are now low.

Elephant poaching has long been a problem at Gonarezhou, with armed gangs crossing the border from Moçambique. The problem has lessened since the end of the war in the neighbouring country, but it still persists. Since October 1994, eleven bulls have been poached. Nine were found along the border with their tusks missing. The other two were wounded and then died elsewhere. Six visitors reported on the questionnaire seeing evidence of poaching. The evidence included bones, old snares, a bullet cartridge and commercial fishing by locals. One guide was reported to have seen poachers.

A suggested solution to this problem lies in a compromise with the local Moçambiquean community. A sizeable pastoralist population is living within the park with their cattle. They make use of a borehole on the Chefu River close to the border, a practice which has hitherto been tolerated. By threatening to remove this privilege, the parks staff may deter the people from poaching elephants. There was one incident in the 1980's of a visitor climbing the Chilojo Cliffs to raid a Peregrine Falcon's nest for eggs. There have been no recent reports of this problem recurring.

A.7 PARK FINANCE

Funding is allocated to the park from Head Office in a number of votes, or categories.

Vote	Designated Use	1995/96 Annual Allocation (Z$)	1996/97 Annual Allocation (Z$)
A	Salaries/Allowances	762,864[12]	953,840
B	Transport/Subsistence	176,000	221,500
D	Research/Management/ Conservation	89,000	279,500

Table A.13. Annual Monetary Allocations to Chipinda Pools, 1995-1997.

These budgets do not adequately cover the costs involved in running the park. There are constant problems over maintenance of equipment and fuel and rations for patrolling. Shortages are partially offset by the assistance given to the park by external organisations. In 1995/96, USAID provided Z$80,000 for anti-poaching activities, and is expected to supply material assistance in 1996/97. The Wildlife Society of Zimbabwe provided 80 days of labour to assist in road maintenance. Mkwasine Estate and Malilangwe Conservation Trust have also provided support in kind, including transport and labour.

A.7.1 Revenue from tourism

At present, all tourist revenue is returned to the State. Monthly totals collected, from 1992-1996, are shown in Table A.14, whilst a breakdown of revenue by source for the 1991-1992 and 1995-1996 seasons is shown in Table A.15.

Month	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
January	4,920	1,429	9,856	3,604	4,999
February	2,533	12,380	1,390	2,690	1,291
March	2,125	888	3,272	2,025	2,224
April	3,774	4,217	53,680	19,566	9,404
May	5,605	73,755[13]	10,474	7,309	10,198
June	4,615	4,532	4,925	6,957	13,991
July	1,923	5,561	33,653	23,088	23,674
August	4,911	8,997	32,791	20,445	24,975
September	5,147	6,569	15,546	20,081	20,917
October	3,581	10,208	11,506	9,981	8,238
November	1,489	5,717	4,771	5,200	24,887
December	2,092	4,094	9,508	7,912	17,750
Total	42,715	138,347	193,366	130,853	162,548

Table A.14. Monthly Revenue (Z$) to Chipinda pools, 1992-1996.

12 This figure is calculated by adding salaries of Z$ 53,158 and Housing Allowances of Z$10,414 and to give 63,572 per month x 12 to determine an annual budget.
13 There was a temporary deposit of Z$ 63,073.

	1991/92		1995/96		Chipinda 1995/96		Mabalauta 1995/96	
	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%
Entry	24,593	42.37	72,167	39.05	49,374	40.86	22,820	35.62
Chalet	11,295	19.46	25,070	13.56	0	0.00	25,070	39.13
Camping	12,481	21.50	57,616	31.17	53,596	44.38	4,020	6.27
Trails	680	1.17	2,600	1.41	800	0.66	1,800	2.81
Fishing	1,384	2.38	1,740	0.94	1,740	1.44	0	0
Firewood	2,499	4.31	9,504	5.14	3,784	3.13	5,720	8.93
Trophies	28	0.05	7,127	3.86	6,700	5.55	427	0.67
Misc.	5,083	8.76	9,002	4.87	4,792	3.97	4,210	6.57
Total	58,043		184,826		120,786		64,067	

Table A.15. Revenue to the Park[14] in 1991/92 and 1995/96, and broken down for 1995/96 by location in the park.

A.7.2 Costs of Tourism

This can be broken down into consumables and staff costs. 50% of the consumables stores budget of Z$48,000 is spent on toilet paper and soap for tourists, i.e. a total of Z$24,000.

Seven staff spend time on tourism-related duties, manning the entrance gates to the park (Table A.16). Of these, six spend only 50% of their time on these duties. Thus, the cost of tourism in staff wages amounts to four annual scout salaries, allowances and bonuses, a total of Z$80,424 (Table A.16).

Location	Number	% of time	Annual Cost (Z$)
South Gate	2	50	20,106
North Gate	4	50	40,212
Mahenye Gate	1	100	20,106
TOTAL	7		80,424

Table A.16. Staff time spent on tourism related duties, and associated costs

A.8 RELATIONSHIPS WITH SURROUNDING COMMUNITIES

The Park stretches across four administrative districts: Chipinge, Chiredzi, Mwenezi and Beitbridge. It is predominantly surrounded by Communal Land used for subsistence agriculture, at an average human population density of 21.6 people/km2. A number of opportunities exist for local people to benefit from the park.

A.8.1 Employment

Of the 51 permanent staff employed at the park, 22(43%) are from the surrounding communities (see Table A.17). This is a decline, due to deaths, from the July 1995 total of 24 (49%). Around two thirds of the locally-sourced permanent employees are general hands, with the other third being scouts. In addition to permanent scouts and general hands, there are opportunities for part-time and casual labour within the park. These include seasonal pump attendants, road and firebreak construction labourers

14 Jansen, 1993.

and general hands during culling and translocation exercises. Around 45 people can be employed for various periods of time in this way (see Table A.18).

	July 1995		January 1997	
Position	Number of Staff	Number of Locals (%)	Number of Staff	Number of Locals (%)
Senior Staff [15]	6	0 (0%)	4	0 (0%)
Scouts/Senior Scouts	23	9 (39%)	26	6 (23%)
General Hands	20	15 (75%)	21	16 (76%)
TOTAL	49	24 (49%)	51	22 (43%)

Table A.17. Number of permanent staff from surrounding communities as of July 1995 and January 1997.

Responsibility	Number Employed	Period	Wage/Month (Z$)
Game Water Supply	10	Apr - Oct	Z$483
Fire Breaks/Roads	15	Apr - Oct	13 @ Z$483 2 @ Z$622
Soil/Water Maintenance	20	1 month	Z$483

Table A.18. Number and wages of casual staff

Scouts receive an annual salary of Z$16,560 plus allowances and bonuses (Z$20,106), whilst general hands receive Z$12,372 plus allowances and bonuses (Z$15,599). Casual staff receive Z$483/month or Z$622/month, depending on their particular role. The approximate total income to 67 members of the local community from employment in the park is estimated to be Z$468,351, using January 1997 salary rates (Table A.19).

Income per Employee (Z$)	Scouts	General Hands	Casual Labour (a)	Casual Labour (b)	TOTAL
Monthly Salary	1,380	1,031	483	622	-
Annual Salary	16,560	12,372	3,381 (7mths)	4,354 (7mths)	-
Annual Housing Allowance	1,320	1,320	-	-	-
Annual Rural Travel Allowance	876	876	-	-	-
Annual Bonus	1,350	1,031	-	-	-
Annual Total	20,106	15,599	3,381	4,354	-
Number of local Employees	6	16	20 (1 mth) 23 (7 mths)	2 (7mths)	67
TOTAL WAGE BILL	120,636	251,584	87,423	8,708	468,351

Table A.19. Total annual income to local employees of the park

15 Warden, Chief Ecologist, Senior Ranger & 3 Rangers.

A.8.2 Resource Consumption

The warden allows local villagers to enter the park and cut grass for thatching, free of charge, if they first come and ask permission. Sometimes this is supervised by a scout.

Considerably more significant is the provision of meat from culling exercises. Although in the past, a nominal fee of 50 cents per carcass was charged, distribution is now free. At the last cull, during the drought, over 3,500 impala were slaughtered and given to families adjacent to where the animals were killed. Most went in the Malapati area, and also up along the border with the Communal Lands to Chibwedziva. Only the Chitsa area to the north of the park didn't receive any meat, but this is close to Mahenye and so benefits in other ways.

Meat was distributed as drought relief, at the rate of one impala carcass per household, per week. Similar culls happened every year or two since 1971. There has been no cull this year, however, due to a paucity of game. Although elephant could be culled, the preferred alternative is to translocate some of them.

A.8.3 Enterprise

As yet, no local enterprises have been established to exploit the tourist traffic. An application has been submitted to Parks Head Office from a women's group, with the support of the warden of the park, that wishes to sell woven crafts at the Malapati gate. There is potential for this type of enterprise to flourish at Chipinda also, but it is dependent on Head Office approval, which has not yet been granted.

Gonarezhou is seen by some as an important part of a 'southern circuit' for tourists which would bring much needed development to the south east lowveld. Significant development is envisaged in the immediate area of the Gonarezhou National Park. Zimbabwe Sun Ltd have already invested in a tourist camp and lodge at Mahenye, and offer a wilderness walking experience in Gonarezhou. Cresta Hotels has redeveloped the lodge on the Malilangwe Conservation Trust (formerly Lone Star Ranch). The Chitsa and Runde South communal lands are thought to have low tourism development potential but may well support 20 beds each. The possibility of building a lodge of up to 60 beds in a fenced off area of the park on the Runde river adjacent to Matibi N^{o}2 is under consideration. This, combined with the sale of food and supplies at the same site, would offer substantial opportunities to the local communities. Maoze Ward could become a successful wildlife area, very attractive to tourists. Its potential, and that of Manjinji Ward, where there is a small sanctuary zone popular with birders, is enhanced by its proximity to the Malapati gate. These areas both have good prospects of major lodge developments. Two sparsely populated areas of Matibi N^{o}.2 communal land are being used for safari hunting, and a number of farmers in the Gonakudzingwa[16] small scale commercial farming area have also expressed an interest in developing wildlife tourism. Sengwe Communal Land has a common boundary with Kruger National Park and it may be possible to establish a corridor of wildlife land between the two parks.[17] All of these opportunities could contribute to the creation of a park buffer zone characterised by wildlife related development.[18]

16 see Case Study below.
17 Gonarezhou Plan 1994, pp.11-12.
18 Schuerholz & Moore 1993, pp.3.45-3.46.

A.8.4 Visitor Satisfaction

The tourist questionnaire completed in Gonarezhou National Park was handed out by the scouts on the gate to the tourists as they arrived, and collected back as they left. The sample was 167, with 69% being surveyed in this way. The remainder of the survey forms were administered through the tour operators, predominantly Mahenye Lodge. 94% of the visitors entering Gonarezhou as independents were carrying binoculars, compared with 78% of those being brought into the park by an operator. Of the total sample 87.6% were carrying binoculars.

The respondents defined themselves as independent travellers (94%). Half the sample were staying in tents (52%) and half in lodges or hotels (44%). The remainder were staying in vans or mobile homes. The questionnaires were distributed one per vehicle and a large majority (61.3%) of those completing them were male. One third of the sample was travelling as a family group with children (29.5%), most lodges will not take children under 12. The sample by nationality was 35.5% Zimbabwean and 44.8% resident in Zimbabwe. 24% were from Southern Africa and 20.1% from Europe.

The Warden asked that the survey include some questions about complaints which the tourists had about the experience of being in the park. Only 32 people had complaints. There were complaints about the quality of information available from the Central Booking Offices in Bulawayo and Harare (5) and about the difficulty of organising a safari trip from Chiredzi (4). The facilities in the park were also the subject of complaint, water supplies (4), toilet cleanliness (5), road access (6) and the absence of signs and maps (2) were complained about. Three people complained about the non-enforcement of fish bag limits and four complained about the effects of poaching on game numbers.

A.8.5 Game Viewing

The tourist questionnaire included a question about the importance of particular species in the decision to visit Gonarezhou. Respondents were asked to rank a range of species on a scale of 1 to 5, the higher the score the more important the species. The species which received an average ranking of >4 were elephant (4.17), lion (4.08), leopard (4.07) and the black rhino (4.04). The white rhino scored 3.87. Neither species of rhino is found in the park. The buffalo, the other species of the "big five", scored 3.78. hippo (3.79), hyena (3.74), giraffe (3.71) and antelope (3.48) all scored more than the Lichtenstein's hartebeest (3.39) which has some interest as a rarity in Zimbabwe.

98 safari questionnaires were completed by tourists during 1996. The questionnaires were used as checklists during game viewing in the park. Half the reports were for an afternoon and half for a morning game drive. The average (mean) game viewing drive was five hours, with a mode of 2.5 hours).

Common name of wildlife species	Number of visitors sighting species (Frequency)	Number of visitors sighting species (%)	Mean	Median	Max	Total
Baboon	75	76.5	48.0	20	500	4707
Bird species	98	100.0	34.6	30	115	2044
Buffalo	9	9.2	2.9	0	200	286
Bushbuck	12	12.2	0.7	0	50	70
Cheetah	4	4.1	0.2	0	20	23
Crocodile	63	64.3	3.2	1.5	25	314
Duiker	19	19.4	0.3	0	5	29
Eland	5	5.1	0.4	0	20	44
Elephant	50	51.0	5.9	1	50	579
Giraffe	10	10.2	0.3	0	10	34
Grysbok	1	1.0	0.1	0	1	1
Hippo	54	55.1	5.9	2	40	584
Hyena	17	17.3	0.5	0	8	58
Impala	68	69.1	84.4	24	1000	8152
Jackal black backed	19	19.4	0.4	0	5	36
Jackal side striped	1	1.0	0.0	0	1	1
Klipspringer	10	10.2	0.2	0	5	23
Kudu	40	40.8	1.9	0	14	188
Leopard	3	3.1	0.0	0	1	3
Lion	10	10.2	0.4	0	10	40
Mongoose	2	2.0	0.0	0	2	3
Monkeys	33	33.7	4.2	0	50	412
Nyala	13	13.3	0.6	0	12	64
Oribi	1	1.0	0.0	0	1	1
Ostrich	3	3.1	0.2	0	12	17
Rhino black	0	0.0	0.0	0	0	0
Rhino white	0	0.0	0.0	0	0	0
Roan	3	3.1	0.1	0	8	10
Sable	0	0.0	0.0	0	0	0
Snake	2	2.0	0.0	0	1	2
Steenbok	11	11.2	0.2	0	5	19
Tsessebe	0	0.0	0.0	0	0	0
Warthog	4	4.1	0.1	0	5	10
Waterbuck	37	37.8	3.1	0	27	305
Wild dog	6	6.1	0.2	0	16	22
Wildebeest	3	3.1	0.1	0	9	12
Zebra	24	24.5	1.5	0	30	147

Table A.20. Game Reported as Seen by Visitors in Gonarezhou in 1996

There are only 19 species where more than 10% of the sample reported sightings. The average number of each species seen is also low (Table A.20). There are only 9

species where our sample reported seeing more than two animals on average. Aside from baboons and impala our sample saw very little game. Only baboon, crocodile, elephant, hippo and impala were seen by more than half of the respondents.

Common name of wildlife species	Number of visitors sighting species (Frequency)	Number of visitors sighting species (%)	Mean	Median	Max	Total
Buffalo	9	9.2	2.9	0	200	286
Waterbuck	37	37.8	3.1	0	27	305
Crocodile	63	64.3	3.2	1.5	25	314
Monkeys	33	33.7	4.2	0	50	412
Elephant	50	51.0	5.9	1	50	579
Hippo	54	55.1	5.9	2	40	584
Baboon	75	76.5	48.0	20	500	4707
Impala	68	69.1	84.4	24	1000	8152

Table A.21. Species with Average Recorded Sightings > 2

It is not therefore surprising that 70.5% of the respondents reported that they had not seen enough wildlife. The groups which were accompanied by guides saw significantly more wildlife and 51.1% said that they had seen sufficient wildlife.

In order to understand more of visitors' expectations of wildlife viewing we asked "Which activity did you enjoy most and which was the most disappointing?"

	Enjoyed most	Most disappointing
Seeing large herds	0.9	46.2
Seeing rare species	9.9	30.8
Seeing a few animals close from vehicle	15.3	6.4
Seeing animals whilst on foot	14.4	3.8
Seeing wide variety of birds	16.2	1.3
Being in a wild landscape	35.1	0.0
Sample	111	78

Table A.22. Visitor Satisfaction with game viewing (%)

There is disappointment about the difficulty of seeing large and rare species.

A.8.6 Visitor Activities

This question provides further evidence of the importance of being in wild landscape to people currently visiting the Gonarezhou National Park. Seeing rare species, a wide variety of birds and seeing a few animals close up from a vehicle all score over 4. Seeing large herds is reported as being relatively less important (3.67) These are relatively passive forms of activity. Seeing animals whilst on foot, walking and learning about wildlife and habitats all score over three and are more participatory. The interest in night game drives is a mere 2.79.

	unimportant				very important	
Activity	1	2	3	4	5	Mean
Being in a wild landscape	4.9	3.9	2.9	8.8	79.4	4.54
Seeing wide variety of birds	4.5	4.5	16.1	21.4	52.7	4.14
Seeing rare species of wildlife	5.3	5.3	13.3	15.9	48.7	4.10
Seeing a few animals close-up from a vehicle	8.8	4.4	11.5	23.9	46.9	4.00
Seeing animals whilst on foot	8.3	5.5	15.6	18.3	42.2	3.89
Learning about wildlife & habitats	8.3	8.3	17.7	18.8	36.5	3.74
Seeing large herds of wildlife	8.1	9.0	18.9	17.1	33.3	3.67
Walking	19.1	4.3	17.0	16.0	30.9	3.40
Night game drives	24.7	6.5	16.1	10.8	15.1	2.79

Table A.23. How important are each of the following activities as part of your visit to Gonarezhou? (%)

107 visitors completed the question which asked about activities in which they had taken part, and the activities in which they would like to take part. Clearly this only records the preferences of current users who filled in the questionnaire but it does provide some indication of the kinds of activities which it is worth considering providing.

Only one third of respondents had done any day time viewing from a hide or platform and 55% would like to do so. The provision of more opportunities for game viewing from hides and platforms would reduce the impacts of vehicles on the park and the disturbance which they cause to wildlife. However it is difficult to envisage how the provision of these facilities could be charged for unless they were rented out.

Night time viewing from a hide or platform, learning about wildlife tracking, night game drives, walking safaris, wilderness training are all activities in which more than 30% of respondents would like the opportunity to participate. These all present opportunities for the park management to earn revenue from either directly providing the services or, indirectly, granting permits and concessions for operations in the park. It may also be possible to devise ways in which additional jobs could be created in the local community for people to provide these services in the park after suitable training.

However, these activities would all require support vehicles and/or licensed professional guides because of the presence of dangerous game. Night sky viewing, boat trips and horse riding are also relatively expensive to provide and would require capital. By contrast the guided walk around a village, having a bush dinner, or a meal in a village, a genuinely local music and dance performance, local story telling and theatre and buying crafts from the maker in the village could all be provided by local people with no, or very little, capital outlay.

Activity	Already taken part (%)	Would like to take part (%)
Day time viewing from hide or platform	29.9	54.9
Assisting with wildlife research	0.9	53.3
Night time viewing from hide or platform	4.7	50.5
Learning about wildlife tracking	12.1	48.6
Night game drive	24.3	46.7
Half-day walking safari	11.2	41.1
Wilderness survival training/ living off the bush	4.7	38.3
All-day walking safari	1.9	34.6
One-hour walking safari	19.6	29.9
Night sky viewing through a telescope	1.9	26.2
Seeing rock art	11.2	25.2
Horse riding	4.7	24.3
Boat trips on river	15.0	18.7
Sundowner boat trips	12.1	17.8
Walking in/around local village with a local guide	5.6	14.0
Having a 'bush' dinner	8.4	13.1
Having an African meal in a village	0.9	10.3
Local music & dancing performances	4.7	10.3
Local story telling & theatre	0.0	10.3
Visiting local villages to buy handicrafts	6.5	10.3
Fishing	17.8	6.5

Total Sample 107

Table A.24 Which activities (a) have you taken part in already here and (b) would you have liked to have done?

A.8.7 The Wilderness Experience

As shown in Table A.23 being in a wild landscape rates 4.5 on a one to five scale and it is rated as the most important activity to existing visitors to Gonarezhou. Respondents were asked to rate Gonarezhou as a wilderness experience and the overall rating was 4.1 on a scale of 1 to 5 from managed to wilderness (N=69). They were also asked whether or not they had been to Kruger and Hwange.

Of those who had been to Kruger (N=39) 64% preferred Gonarezhou to Kruger. In an unprompted question 30% said that it was because Gonarezhou offered a wilder landscape, 22% because it was less commercialised and there were less tourists, and 14% because there were fewer people. 36% preferred Kruger to Gonarezhou because it had more wildlife or they were equally attractive parks.

Of those who had also been to Hwange 52% preferred Gonarezhou, again because of its wilder landscape (31.7%), because there was less tourism and commercialism (17%) and because there were fewer people (7%). For the 48% of people who preferred Hwange the main reason was the quantity of wildlife.

Current users of the park certainly did not regard it as overcrowded. 83% of respondents reported seeing 3 or less vehicles per day and 98.7% reported seeing 7 or less per day. Only one person thought that there were too many people visiting Gonarezhou and only 2 people reported that any area of the park was overcrowded.

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B. CAMPFIRE in MAHENYE WARD: Consumptive and Non-consumptive tourism

B.1 INTRODUCTION

There has been a history of conflict between the local community and DNPWLM in Mahenye. This was mitigated by the development of a CAMPFIRE scheme which gave ownership of the wildlife in Mahenye Ward to the community. Revenue from consumptive tourism has provided both group and individual benefits to the community. The building of a Lodge by Zimbabwe Sun Ltd at Mahenye has brought revenues from non-consumptive tourism too. However, as Booth (1991) cautions, although Mahenye is probably more advanced in its development of CAMPFIRE schemes than any other community 'the future socio-economic security of this community cannot rely solely on developing its wildlife resources'.[1] This case study chronicles the history of the development of consumptive and non-consumptive tourism in Mahenye Ward.

The Mahenye Ward lies on the north east border of Gonarezhou National Park, its eastern boundary being the Moçambique border. It is a narrow wedge of land of about 210 km^2 between the Save River on the west and the Rupembi River which forms the border with Moçambique (Figure A.1). Mahenye Island is close to the confluence of the Runde and Save Rivers. Mahenye is in the southern-most corner of Ndowoyo Communal Land. It is part of Chipinge Rural District Council, previously Gazaland District, which has its council offices at Chipinge. Chipinge Rural District Council was created in July 1993 when local government was reorganised. Chipinge is 150 km away on the tarred road and the tarred road begins 45 km from Mahenye. The Mahenye Ward has a relatively low population density at 12-19 people per km^2. In Manicaland Province (of which Mahenye is a part) the population density is 43 persons per km^2.

Mahenye is accessible via the Jack Quinton Bridge on the Chiredzi-Tanganda road and a daily bus service runs from Jack Quinton Bridge to Mahenye. Away from the main access road, tracks are passable only by 4x4. There is a government rest camp, two safari lodge sites, a clinic, a school (c.500 pupils) and a National Parks station just over the river in Gonarezhou National Park.

B.1.1 History

The Mahenye Shangaan people originally settled, in 1838-40, on the lower reaches of the east and west banks of the Save river as far south as the Runde-Save junction and across the border in Moçambique. Hunter gatherers, they developed a regulated hunting system enforced by the chief in order to ensure sustainable yields. A relatively small group hunted on behalf of the community as a whole. Breeding seasons were respected, the areas of hunting were rotated and there was an annual fish drive.

1 Booth 1991, p.37.

When all game became the property of the Crown in 1891, the Shangaan were denied legal access to wildlife and they became poachers. What had been traditionally regulated hunting became poaching, since the wildlife was no longer the property of the community. The traditional cultural basis of their society was lost. The majority of the Shangaan lived within the controlled hunting area of Gonarezhou and the area slowly became depopulated. In 1966 the west bank of the Save was incorporated into Gonarezhou National Park and the Shangaan were evicted and their villages destroyed. The Shangaan also lost the Mission station and school, their store and the recruiting post for the Midlands Shabani Mine. Hostility to the government and to DNPWLM resulted. A rebel community had been created, unwilling to respect the National Park boundary.

During the War of Independence land ownership was a major issue. The Shangaan had been displaced from their land and the land taken for wildlife and for, predominantly white, tourists. The Shangaan expected their land to be returned to them and at Independence the Mahenye people made a request to be allowed to return to their homeland through the local council. Their request was denied in 1981, the government needing tourist foreign exchange revenue.

Some Shangaan resettled on the north bank of the Save River and several villages were established on Ngwachumeni Island (also know as Mahenye's Island) in the Save River on the boundary of the Park. Incursions by bandits from Moçambique forced the villagers to consolidate into three villages of c130 households at Tongogara in the north and Tawina and Mudavanhu in the south. Terrorist incursions from Moçambique continued until 1990.

Chipinge Agritex Planning Branch has a provisional land use plan which envisages three villages, with each household being allocated 6-8 ha of land for sorghum and maize. The wildlife zone comprises 9,438 ha (created on land abandoned by villagers because of bandit pressure) compared with 11,027 ha for cattle.[2]

Cropping and livestock production remain important priorities, but they are limited by the harsh environmental conditions of the area, and low and erratic rainfall. The population is partially dependent upon the Department of Social Welfare's drought relief programme. There are no significant cash crops in the area, although there is some trade with Moçambique.

B.1.2 Conflict with DNPWLM

Wildlife utilisation is an attractive opportunity for the Shangaan people of the Mahenye Ward - they are traditional hunters and their land is unsuitable for both intensive and extensive agriculture. Fishing has been an important source of protein, but since the 1950's catches have been falling due to upstream irrigation schemes and siltation of the Save River - in part because of cattle ranch erosion in what is now the Save Valley Conservancy.

2 Booth 1991, pp.10-12.

Resenting the loss of their homeland and resettlement on relatively impoverished land, and under pressure from Moçambiquean terrorists, the Shangaan people continued to hunt for protein within the Gonarezhou National Park.[3] The elephant culls which took place in Gonarezhou were seen as an unnecessary waste of animals by the Shangaan people. Relationships between the Shangaan and the National Park authorities became very strained when they were evicted from the National Park.

The Shangaan felt that the DNPWLM was slow to respond to requests for Problem Animal Control (PAC) and that the animals which they were no longer permitted to hunt were now destroying their grazing and crops. A food source to which they had been denied access was destroying their agriculture. Parks staff crossed the river to arrest poachers but appeared unconcerned about problem animals. Requests for PAC had to go from the community to Gazaland District Council (itself remote), from there to the Manicaland Provincial Warden in Mutare, from there to the Victoria Provincial Warden in Masvingo and from there to the Warden of Gonarezhou National Park for action. This was a slow process.

There was open, and violent, conflict with DNPWLM in 1980-1982 when the Mahenye people were hunting in the park and widely believed to be assisting ivory hunters.[4] Local people reasoned that if they were being excluded from the Park because it was being preserved for tourists and if there were no animals the tourists would not come, then it made sense to hunt the wildlife to extinction and claim back the land. Shadrack, who headed the team of poachers, is estimated to have killed between 20 and 30 large elephant bulls each year for 15 years. He became a local folk hero. Rhino were also killed. The proximity to the Moçambique border enabled them to evade capture. The banditry associated with the conflict in Moçambique caused the villagers of the Mahenye area to consolidate into three villages and cease to use some of their productive land.

The Mahenye people's crops were being destroyed by elephants, people were being killed, traditional fish drives were banned and there was constant conflict with the Park authorities over illegal hunting. The Park's officers frequently raided the area in pursuit of poachers but they were slow to respond to requests for problem animal control. DNPWLM said that they would only deal with PAC once the illegal poaching by the Mahenye people had ceased. Following Independence locally elected councillors were introduced into the government of communal lands, reducing the traditional role of the chief. The Mahenye community responded by electing Phinias Chauke, a brother of Chief Mahenye, as their councillor.

B.1.3 Dialogue

In 1982 the Mahenye Councillor invited the Gonarezhou Warden, David Scammel, to Mahenye to discuss the conflict between the Community and DNPWLM. David Scammel asked Clive Stockil, grandson of the Rev Stockil who had established the

3 Peterson 1991, Dalton 1992 report that the Shangaan people continued to poach believing that if there were no animals in the Park there would be no reason to preserve the area for tourists and they could have their land and their hunting rights back.

4 There were weekly contacts between DNPWLM Anti-poaching Units and Shangaans (interview with Clive Stockil, July 1994).

Mission Station and School, to accompany him and to act as translator. Between sixty and seventy elders took part in the meeting which became very heated, Stockil's role changing from translator to mediator.

The elders argued that land with no wildlife is dead land, that they had been denied the opportunity to live in harmony with wildlife and that the responsibility to hunt was an integral part of a Shangaan man's social responsibility. Agriculture was practised by women and supplemented hunting. Denied the opportunity to take wildlife sustainably, they now saw DNPWLM culling large numbers of elephant every 5 to 10 years in a 'wasteful and sacrilegious fashion'.[5]

'The white men came and said that the government owned all the fish and wild animals. The game we had been using for hundreds of years, we were now told belongs to some strange government we could not see. We were now poachers. We were told we couldn't use the animals, our own way of survival, our only way of feeding our families. To keep on living we had to kill animals. So our own local rules were destroyed by the government, and we had to ignore the government rules to survive. The whole system broke down. For ninety years we had to survive illegally. Then in addition, we were displaced by the park. Now we lost our land as well as the use of the animals. We don't see the government policy working there in the park. Even though it is a park, there is less game than before. National Parks came and culled 2000 elephants. We never wasted animals like this[6].

The Shangaan elders clearly defined the issue:

'The conflict between us and the Parks is over the wildlife. We were displaced and we don't have the game we used to have. We have to depend on our agriculture. We must grow our crops to survive. Their animals cross over the river and eat our crops. We have no food when our crops are eaten, so we have to eat their animals or we would starve. If they would control their animals, we could grow our crops. Then there would be no poaching.'[7]

Stockil wondered whether the wild animals could be considered as livestock under local ownership as had been the practise with wildlife on commercial farms following the 1975 Wildlife Act. Stockil offered to represent the community in Harare and suggested two options based on the principle that the wildlife which crossed the river should be considered the property of the village. 'Suppose I found a buyer for your cattle and brought him to your village and he only wanted to shoot the cow and take the horns home and you kept the meat. Would you sell the cow in this way if I brought the buyer?'[8]

Stockil's first option was to fence the boundary with the National Park and let the Mahenye community hunt any wildlife remaining on communal land. The second option was for the Mahenye community to take responsibility for the wildlife on their

5 Clive Stockil, interview.
6 Peterson 1991, p.10.
7 ibid.
8 Clive Stockil, quoted in Peterson 1991, p.11.

lands and to apply their traditional knowledge to the management of the wildlife ensuring that the use was sustainable.[9] The Mahenye community chose the second option and decided that two animals constituted the sustainable yield.[10]

Stockil argued that once wildlife crossed the river from the Park it was 'owned' by the community. The Shangaan would be issued with permits to lease hunting concessions through safari operators to private hunters. The Shangaan would receive revenue from leasing the hunting concession and they agreed to live with the wildlife without killing it as long as the wildlife had value for them.

Stockil put this proposal to Dr Graham Child, then Director of DNPWLM, and he agreed to a one year trial period. The meat from animals killed by sport hunters would go directly to the community, as under Operation Windfall, but the trophy fees went directly to the Treasury. In return the Shangaan were expected to demonstrate their willingness to co-operate with DNPWLM.

Permits to hunt two elephants per year were allocated by DNPWLM in 1982-84 and Stockil was issued with a permit to hunt them. It was a condition of the permit that the animals should be sold to foreign clients for foreign currency. While Stockil was in the USA, selling the hunts, a DNPWLM anti-poaching unit raided Mahenye and in a two week period made 81 arrests for poaching wildlife ranging from elephants to fish. Distrust between the Mahenye people and DNPWLM was exacerbated.

B.1.4 Restoration of Traditional Control

The hunts began in August 1982[11]. 12 tons of elephant meat was received by the Mahenye people in the traditional ceremonial manner[12] and distributed through the tribal system to over 500 villagers ensuring that everyone benefited and that ownership rested with the community not with individuals.
The maintenance of traditional methods of distribution contrasted with the more usual method which was to sell the meat from culling operations to individuals and their families. The traditional distribution of the meat was an immediate demonstration of the value of the wildlife and its ceremonial and traditional distribution had ensured that it was a community experience. The Mahenye people were beginning to change their patterns of behaviour as they realised the value of the wildlife. An Anti-poaching Unit raid late in 1982 found less evidence of poaching.[13] Shadrack was arrested, with help from the local community. He was subsequently offered employment as a National Park's game scout. He never took up the appointment, as shortly after this he was caught poaching again and arrested.

In 1982 during the first elephant hunt in the Mahenye Ward, Clive Stockil had noticed that most of the elephants sighted in the Ward moved from the Park to Mahenye

9 This option was similar to one taken under Operation Windfall implemented in the Chirisa Safari Area, where meat from PAC and elephant culling was distributed to local communities.
10 Interview with Clive Stockil.
11 Two Americans purchased the hunt. In the same year 9 elephants were shot in Gazaland District under PAC, Peterson 1991, p.35.
12 For details see Peterson 1991 p.14.
13 Peterson 1991.

Island at night, returning to the park by the morning. Stockil suggested that if the people moved off the island and created a wildlife area more elephants would stay there.

Mahenye Island[14] lies in the Save River just above the confluence of the Save and Runde Rivers on the border of the Gonarezhou National Park. It is a long low island, 5 km long and 6 km^2 in area, largely covered in lowland evergreen forest. It is attractive to elephant, particularly during the dry season. In 1982 seven villages were on the island with a total population of about 100 people. They used the alluvial soil for maize cultivation, and practised some illegal hunting. Deforestation and the siltation of the river had made the island increasingly vulnerable to annual floods and it was very vulnerable to raids by the Moçambiquean resistance movement.. The villagers left the island, pulling down their villages and turning it into a wildlife management area, recognising that it was an area attractive to elephant.

In June 1983 there was another anti-poaching patrol raid. This time only 8 villagers were arrested, all for illegal fishing. This marked improvement occurred despite the fact that the villagers had only received meat so far from two elephant.

B.2 CAMPFIRE: CONSUMPTIVE WILDLIFE TOURISM

From 1986 the annual hunting quota was increased to four bull elephant[15], one buffalo, one nyala, one hippo and one waterbuck. The Mahenye people continued to receive the meat from elephant hunts, but the revenue from the sale of permits and trophy fees was not reaching them. Under the 1975 Wild Life Act money could be dispersed only when a formal proposal for a project had been approved by Gazaland District Council in Chipinge, the Ministry of Local Government and DNPWLM. This was not easily achieved and in the meantime the Shangaan were not receiving compensation for the damage done to their crops by elephants. By 1986 the revenue generated by the Mahenye wildlife utilisation programme was Z$30,461, but it had not yet been distributed.

For the revenue to go direct to the Mahenye community, rather than via the Treasury, Mahenye had to have Appropriate Authority status within the terms of the 1975 Parks and Wildlife Act. The Mahenye community had first to be restructured to form a Ward of Gazaland District Council and then be recognised within the terms of the 1975 Parks and Wildlife Act. The Gazaland District Council initially proposed that the revenue be distributed equally between all 22 Wards of the District. This proposal was rejected by DNPWLM as within the CAMPFIRE programme it is regarded as essential that the revenue goes to those directly affected by wildlife to encourage those communities to tolerate the wildlife. The situation had reached a stalemate. DNPWLM was blocking proposals from the local council and the Ministry which did not comply with the CAMPFIRE principle - that wildlife revenue should to the directly affected community to encourage the protection of wildlife.

14 Also known in the literature as Long Island, Ngwachumeni and Mwachumeni Island.
15 Peterson 1991, p.17. This quota is based on 0.7% of aerial counts and total population estimates.

The community began to see the scheme as a trick to get them off the island and deprive them of their land[16], and there was some concern that hunting revenues were being siphoned-off. However, poaching remained at low levels. The District Council had to be persuaded to amend its proposal, and initiate the agreement to enable DNPWLM to release the money to Mahenye Ward.

It took five years from the commencement of the wildlife utilisation programme in 1982 for the Gazaland District Council to accept the principle that wildlife funds should go to the wildlife producing ward. In 1986 DNPWLM made clear to Gazaland District Council that Z$30,461 was available for expenditure in Chief Mahenye's area.[17]

In October and November 1986 the Mahenye representatives on the Gazaland District Council drew parallels between their wildlife utilisation programme and cattle herding. They proposed that all funds from the sale of cattle within the district and all revenue from wildlife should be divided equally amongst all 24 wards. Chief Musikavanhu, from the northern end of the district, endorsed their argument and was instrumental is persuading the majority of the Gazaland District Council to accept that the wildlife revenue belonged to the producer ward, in this case Mahenye Ward.[18] He said

'My children, what we have heard is the truth. We have no claim to the money. We did not sleep in the fields to protect the crops from elephants, as the people from Mahenye did. The elephants are theirs, not ours.'[19]

Gazaland District Council was the first in the country to commit itself to the principle that proceeds from wildlife should go to the producing wards.

In 1984 the Mahenye community looked to the wildlife revenue to complete the school. There followed a written request from Councillor Chauke in January 1986 for completion of the school, and the building of a grinding mill. In 1987 the Gazaland District Council submitted a new proposal to DNPWLM in which they gave Mahenye Ward their full support. In February 1987, Z$33,461 was released for the building of the Mahenye School, a maize grinding mill and teachers' accommodation. Three months later building materials arrived in Mahenye and the District Council employees began work. Mahenye Councillor Phinias Chauke and the Gazaland Chief Executive Officer Mlambo[20] concluded that wildlife now had a tangible value for the local community.

'There was a problem with suspicion. Many people were beginning to believe that there was a plan to fool us and to extend the park boundary to take even more of our land. Some people were afraid that this wildlife programme would just lead to our removal from here. I tried to assure them that the delay was just the way government

16 Peterson 1991, p.21.
17 ibid. p.19.
18 Personal interview with Clive Stockil, Cumming 1988, Peterson 1991, Dalton 1992, Thomas 1994.
19 Peterson, 1991, p. 20.
20 In 1990 and 1991 new ward councilors were elected and Phinias Chauke ceased to be Vice-chairman of the council and Mahenye's representative changed.

was and that we would actually receive the money. But when the cheque came the people's patience was very thin. The people were also a little alarmed when the cheque was presented and then it went back to Chipinge. But then three months later, when the materials finally began to arrive for the construction of the school, the people were very happy. The people looked at Stockil as their security in the project, and after the materials began coming, they were no longer suspicious of him.' [21]

Subsequently further funds were dispersed to provide two staff houses for teachers and in 1990 the US Ambassador's fund for community self-help provided money for school furniture. By 1991 the school had 11 teachers, 8 classrooms and 500 pupils on the roll and by 1994 the school had over 700 students and four staff houses. Secondary education remains a problem. The nearest school is 40 km away and does not have boarding facilities.

Since 1982 the road to Mahenye Ward from the Jack Quinton Bridge has been substantially improved and a bus service now operates, although there are still problems in the rainy season. A small clinic has been established. The maize grinding mill established in 1988 was too small to cope with prolonged use and suffered from breakdowns, particularly when grinding shipments of drought relief maize.[22] A second grinding mill was constructed between 1994 and 1996. There are continuing discussions about wildlife utilisation revenues being used to improve the grinding mill, provide household and/or individual cash dividends, and to provide specific compensation for crop damage or for the construction of fences to reduce the incidence of crop damage.[23]

The Mahenye wildlife utilisation programme commenced before CAMPFIRE became a government policy, but it did not develop in complete isolation from it. The Gazaland Senior Executive Officer and the Mahenye Ward Councillor both attended Zimbabwe Trust workshops at Beitbridge, and in October 1989 the Gazaland District Council began to make plans to be incorporated within the CAMPFIRE programme. They applied for Appropriate Authority status entitling the District Council to receive wildlife utilisation funds directly and to develop a multi-ward wildlife programme. CAMPFIRE offered a framework within which the Mahenye Ward programme could be expanded beyond safari hunting. Plans were also made for a wildlife utilisation programme in the Mutandwe Ward.[24]

B.2.1 Cattle or Wildlife: Conflicts over land use

As early as 1984 Gazaland District Agritex staff proposed that 100 km^2 of land within the Mahenye ward, due to become available under a land re-distribution programme, should be set aside for a cattle grazing scheme. The Mahenye community did not become aware of this until 1990. The designated land was characterised by hilly wooded terrain without easy access to water, and with low rainfall it was unsuitable

21 Peterson 1991, p.22.
22 For further details see Peterson 1991, p.30.
23 Zimtrust 1990 and Peterson 1991, p.30.
24 Peterson 1991.

for agriculture. The community objected and the Gazaland District Council supported their counter-proposal that the land be used for wildlife[25].

Mahenye's land was not overgrazed because of lower population densities, and local commitment to wildlife utilisation, as well as cattle rustling from Moçambique. Raids from Moçambique intensified in 1987 and the Mahenye community lost nearly all its cattle and approximately 60 people were murdered.[26] The last murder attributed to raids from over the border took place in September 1990. The intensification of security problems in the area frustrated the development of initiatives in the Mahenye Ward including a WWF Multi-species Animal Production Systems Project.[27]

Whilst the land use remained undecided, a herd of 500 cattle was moved into the area by a resident of the Gaza-Komanani District, and other herds of cattle were moved into the north of Mahenye during the drought.[28] This grazing encroachment resulted in overgrazing in the north of the Mahenye Ward. The Mahenye community appealed to the Veterinary Department, National Parks and the local police, who responded by driving the cattle out.[29]

Agritex revised its land-use plan for the Mahenye Ward which subsequently included wildlife management and a small scale irrigation scheme.[30] The reintroduction of 500 impala translocated from Gonarezhou has been advocated, and a borehole has been dug to provide water for a small scale irrigation scheme. Booth recommended a fence to enclose the area and prevent crop damage but the cost of this may be prohibitive. The creation of a wildlife area would require a new land use plan and a reallocation of fields. Elephant control remained an issue with the DNPWLM still being called upon for Problem Animal Control, conflict between wildlife and people remained an issue.[31]

The 1991/92 drought brought crisis management to Gonarezhou. There was considerable translocation of animals to nearby conservancies and the random culling of individual bull elephant from various herds. There were reports of 100 bull (potential trophy) elephant being culled within a few kilometres of Mahenye.[32] 100 bulls was equivalent to 25 years of hunting trophy quotas for the Mahenye community. The Mahenye community believes that the reduction in the number of potential trophy elephant has had a serious impact on revenues from trophy hunting in Mahenye. Not since 1992 has it been possible to shoot the allocated quota in Mahenye Ward. The hunting concession is paying the minimum 25% deposit as specified in the contract.

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25 Zimtrust 1990; Peterson 1991; Dalton 1992.
26 Thomas 1994, p.14.
27 Cumming 1988; Peterson 1991, p.29.
28 Mackie 1990; Peterson 1991; Dalton 1992.
29 Dalton 1992.
30 Booth 1991.
31 Clive Stockil pers. comm.
32 Thomas 1994, p.22 and Dalton 1992. DNPWLM regard this cull as part of the normal cycle of elephant management essential when the number of elephant exceeds the carrying capacity. The community wrote a number of letters asking why so many bull elephant had been culled and expressing concern at the consequences for their quotas.

	Elephant Quota	Elephant Shot	Revenue Z$
1991			68,800
1992	4	4	180,000
1993	4	1	158,000
1994	4	2	163,736
1995	4	1	138,445
1996	4	1	138,495

Table B.1 Mahenye Revenues from Consumptive Tourism

The WWF monitored districts which have attained Appropriate Authority status and they undertook aerial surveys in Mahenye Ward to count wildlife and domestic stock in 1990 and 1992.[33] DNPWLM carried out a survey in 1991. In both the 1990 and 1992 surveys very little game was seen. In the 1992 survey only two wild species (buffalo and duiker) were seen in very low densities. Ground counts by the wildlife monitors reported grysbok, bushbuck and impala in numbers which would be missed by aerial survey. In the 1990 survey two elephant were counted, in 1992 none were seen. This was attributed to the reduction of elephant in Gonarezhou. Some of the decline could be attributed to the drought but there had also been increased poaching pressure in the ward.[34] The aerial surveys suggest that animal populations are too low to permit any immediate expansion of consumptive wildlife utilisation although recolonisation is to be expected as the Gonarezhou National Park recovers from the drought.[35]

B.2.2 Appropriate Authority Status

By 1990 significant revenues from wildlife utilisation had accrued to the Mahenye community but had not been distributed. These revenues could not be distributed until Gazaland District Council achieved Appropriate Authority status within the meaning of the 1975 Wildlife Act. This was finally agreed by central government in January 1990. This delay caused resentment.

1984 sale of ivory & hide from problem animals[36]	28,000
1987 sale of trophy animals	33,000
1990 sale of trophy animals	28,000
1991 sale of trophy animals	68,800
1992 sale of trophy animals	180,000
1993 sale of trophy animals	158,000
1994 sale of trophy animals	163,736
1995 sale of trophy animals	138,445
1996 sale of trophy animals	138,495
Total Revenue generated	**Z$936,476**

Table B.2 Revenues to Gazaland District Council from Wildlife Utilisation for Consumptive Tourism in Mahenye Ward.

In Mahenye Ward, wildlife management was placed in the hands of a community wildlife committee under the Rural District Council and they engaged a safari

33 Mackie 1992.
34 Ibid.
35 Booth 1991.
36 In 1982 nine bull elephant were killed by National Parks problem animal control staff and a further two elephant and one buffalo in 1990.

operator, Clive Stockil. A Ward Wildlife Management Committee of 11 members was established, members being elected from each of the villages. The wildlife committee does not act until a consensus within the community has been developed.[37] The committee employed an executive officer and several field employees, salaries being met from wildlife revenue. The field employees have been trained as game guards to increase protection against poachers, to maintain accurate PAC records and to maximise Mahenye's income by ensuring, through the better processing of hides, that higher revenue is generated from PAC animals. Any poachers caught within the community are taken before the chief and elders in handcuffs..

Following the reorganisation of local government in July 1993 the Mahenye Wildlife Committee continued to be elected by the community. The Committee Chairman and the Ward Councillor represent the Ward on the Campfire and Conservation Committee of the Chipinge Rural District Council. This functions as the Natural Resources Committee of the RDC. The RDC takes 20% [38]of the revenues and 2.0% is remitted to the Campfire Association at national level.

The revenues were used to fund projects, to meet the costs of administration and management and to pay an individual household dividend.

	Household Dividends	Community Projects	Total Going to Mahenye Community	Management	Administration
1991	79.4		79.4		20.6
1992	48.4	28.5	76.9	6.0	17.0
1993	50.7	14.5	65.2	17.7	17.0
1994	49.6	12.1	50.7	16.7	21.6
1995	52.6	4.9	57.5	20.1	21.6

Table B.3. % Allocation of Mahenye Ward Revenues from Consumptive Tourism between Management, Administration, Household Dividends and Community Projects.

The management costs are largely spent on the employment of Mahenye people to manage wildlife. The administration charges are retained by the RDC.

	Total Household Dividends	Total Community Projects	Total
1991	10,706		10,706
1992	15,840	9,351	25,191
1993	11,620	3,333	14,953
1994	9,670	2,352	12,022
1995	7,836	725	8,561
Total	55,672	15,761	71,433

Table B.4. Mahenye Ward Household Dividends and Community Project Expenditures Derived from Consumptive Tourism in US$.

Between 1991 and 1995 the Mahenye Ward received US$71,443 worth of benefits from consumptive tourism, 22% of which was taken in community benefits and 78%

37 Peterson 1991.

38 This is an increase of 5% on the original 15% figure, but there have been changes in the way the wildlife monitors are paid. The increase in the proportion going to the RDC covered the increased costs incurred by it.

in household dividends. This represents a significant source of income in a community still largely dependent upon subsistence farming.

	Households	Household Dividend	Total Household Pay out	US$ Equivalent
1991	390	140	54,600	10,706
1992	484	180	87,120	15,840
1993	581	138	80,178	11,620
1994	647	126	81,552	9,709
1995	751	† 105	72,872	7,836
Total		689	376,322	55,711

Table B.5. Distribution of Household Dividends from Consumptive Tourism in Mahenye Ward in Z$

† There is a **small** discrepancy in the household dividend figures which it has not been possible to resolve.

Between 1991 and 1995, households received US$55,711.

The collective community benefits from consumptive tourism included school buildings and furniture and two grinding mills.

Year	Benefit	Expenditure Z$
1987-1990	School buildings, furniture and construction of grinding mill house	80,000
1988	First grinding mill engine	15,000
1992	Second grinding mill engine	50,000
1994-1996	Second grinding mill house at Chipote	30,000
1995	Gun cabinet and two shot guns	9,700
	Total	184,700

Table B.6. Community Benefits from Consumptive Tourism

By 1994 the school had over 700 pupils and four staff houses. The maize grinding mill has been improved and there were plans to develop a pipeline to carry water from the borehole to the clinic and to build a meat-handling facility to increase the efficiency of the distribution of meat from the hunting quota.

B.2.3 Mutandahwe Ward and Chiredzi District Council

Mutandahwe Ward is immediately to the north of Mahenye and it shares a short border with Gonarezhou, a zone within which much of Gombe Island, in the Save River, falls. Gombe Island has potential for wildlife utilisation.[39] Initially the Mutandahwe people expressed little interest until an elephant was shot under the Mahenye quota on Mutandahwe land in 1989 and the Mutandahwe community applied to form a wildlife committee. Z$42,710 (US$7,765) was paid out in 1992 in household dividends.

39 Peterson 1991, pp.32-33.

The Mutandahwe Ward may provide a bridgehead for the development of wildlife management into the Gaza-Komanani (Chiredzi) District, where Sangwe Communal Land lies across the river from the Mutandahwe Ward. The Sangwe Communal Land shares a border with Gonarezhou which is a common resource base for both communities. There was discussion, in the early 'nineties about the option of establishing a combined crocodile/ostrich farm on Gombe Island. Currently a campsite is being developed on Gombe Island by the Sangwe community.

B.3 NON-CONSUMPTIVE WILDLIFE UTILISATION

Consumptive wildlife utilisation does not present an immediate opportunity for further development in Mahenye Ward, as it is not possible to find sufficient trophy elephant to fulfil the quota. Non-consumptive opportunities are enhanced by Mahenye's proximity to Gonarezhou National Park and Mahenye Island which has riverine forest of great aesthetic and botanical interest.[40] The riverine forest is one of only two true lowland evergreen forests occurring in Zimbabwe. The island had ornithological interest because it has several bird species endemic to lowland evergreen forest. More frequent in Moçambique, they are rare in Zimbabwe.[41]

Game counts conducted by DNPWLM and WWF showed that the levels of game in the Gonarezhou National Park and the adjacent communal land were too low to sustain trophy hunting, a situation exacerbated by the drought. In 1991 the Mahenye Ward advertised two safari concessions in the press, one for consumptive hunting and one for photographic and game-viewing safaris. Clive Stockil successfully bid for both concessions. He approached several hotel groups seeking an investor to develop the non-consumptive usage.

Gazaland District Council received in 1991 a joint venture proposal from Mahenye Ward to establish:

A ten bed safari camp at Chivirira Falls, estimated minimum net income to Gazaland District Council: Z$7,200 /annum. The camp would be used for hunting safaris and game viewing in Gonarezhou.

Continued safari hunting on Mahenye Island, estimated annual income of Z$100,000.

Development of wildlife management areas thorough provision of water points, training game scouts and restocking.

Development of small scale irrigation scheme below the Chivirira Falls.

Jointly with the neighbouring Chitsa Ward of the Sangwe Communal Land, develop a crocodile and ostrich farm on Gombe Island.[42]

Expected benefits included economic development, international awareness of the area through foreign tourism and the development in Mahenye of the capacity to

40 Mackie 1991 and Peterson 1991.
41 Booth 1991.
42 Booth 1991, p.35.

manage and conserve the ward's natural resources. Gazaland District Council became Chipinge Rural District Council in July 1993.

In 1996 the Sangwe Community began development of a campsite on Gombe Island, but the proposed crocodile and ostrich farms have not been established. The small scale irrigation scheme has begun. Safari hunting has continued, although it has not been possible to fulfil the quotas. The development of a wildlife management area is stalled.

Clive Stockil went into partnership with Zimbabwe Sun Hotels and the Mahenye community to develop a safari lodge for tourists interested in 'conservation packages'[43]: bird-watching, game-viewing and photography. Mahenye Lodge accommodates 16 people on Gayiseni Island in the Save River . It was built in 1993. It began receiving guests in February 1994 and was officially opened in July.

B.3.1 The Development of the Mahenye and Chilo Lodges

Zimbabwe Sun Ltd
Zimbabwe Sun Ltd is the leading hotel and leisure orientated company in Zimbabwe. In 1990 it was floated as a public company. In March 1995, 2,886 Zimbabwean residents owned 84.2% of the shares, 521 companies owned 15.2%[44].

	1994	**1995**	**1996**
Dividends	8.11	8.97	11.76
Number of employees	3,342	3,344	3,090
Room nights sold per employee	112	116	132
Room occupancy	57.2%	63.5%	60.5%[45]

The mission statement of Zimbabwe Sun Ltd asserts its commitment "to participate responsibly in the controlled social and environmental development of the regions" in which its facilities are located. In order to maintain the "sanctity of all eco-systems" for future generations, Zimbabwe Sun Ltd regards itself as under an obligation to:

- undertake Environmental Impact Assessments for new developments
- use environmentally friendly technology to minimise waste
- support research into the protection of the environment
- use environmentally friendly products and services
- promote environmental awareness, and training among employees and public
- continuously monitor and audit it's environmental standards
- use raw materials and resources prudently
- promote the recycling and reprocessing of waste

1996	Turnover	Operating Assets	Income
Resorts	52%	53%	58%

43 de la Harpe 1994, p.78.
44 The remaining 0.6% of shares are owned by 19 non-residents.
45 On increased availability.

Cities	32%	28%	25%
Safaris	16%	29%	17%

Zimbabwe Sun Ltd sought to "aid and sustain" the environment which they were exploiting around the Mahenye Safari Lodge,

the emphasis is on quality, not quantity, game drives and excursions are tailored to the wishes of a maximum of 16 guests

the lodge relies on solar power for lighting[46], and uses only dead wood for its boilers

the lodge promotes knowledge of local wildlife

the lodge has a policy, wherever possible, of employing only local Shangaan people

local designs and materials were used in the lodge decoration and interiors

opportunities to get to know the Shangaan culture in an unobtrusive way are offered to guests

Chilo Lodge is a more luxurious development, and was completed in September 1996.[47] It is located at the District Commissioner's camp, with views over the gorge and the Gonarezhou National Park.. It offers 28 beds. The bed occupancy ratio forecast in 1994 was 65%. Between 1,000 and 2,000 tourists were expected in 1995/6. These two developments, the safari lodge and the exclusive camp, were forecast in 1994 to yield a return of 22% on the capital invested.

	Safari Lodge (Chilo)	Exclusive Camp (Mahenye)
Bed occupancy	65%	50%
Capital Invested	Z$ 16m	Z$ 2m
Gross revenue/annum	Z$ 9m	Z$ 1m
Profit	Z$ 3.5m	Z$ 441,000
Employment	86 people	25 people
Foreign currency generated	Z$ 5.38m	Z$ 700,000

Table B.7. Zimbabwe Sun Ltd Forecasts (de la Harpe 1994, p.78)

The actual asset cost of construction (buildings, plant and equipment) is reckoned to be for Chilo Gorge Z$16m and for Mahenye Z$7m. In addition the water purification, pumping and reticulation system , electricity supply and the DDF redevelopment cost Z$1.9m.[48]

46 The Zimbabwe Sun Ltd. development has also brought a power supply to the area.

47 It was officially opened by Vice-President , Simon Muzenda, in November. The Mahenye Community celebration of its opening took place in December.

48 Estimated by Graham Johnson, Zimbabwe Sun Ltd., Projects Director).

Mahenye and Chilo are marketed by Zimbabwe Sun Ltd as Safari Lodges. Chilo has excellent views over the Save River and extensive and luxurious guest facilities including a conference centre. Mahenye Safari Lodge has eight twin-bedded chalets, constructed from local wood and thatch, with intricately woven reed screens. There are strong cultural elements in the marketing of the Lodges.

Mahenye Safari Lodge, a group of cool Shangaan-style thatched lodges, nestle in the shade of indigenous leaf canopies on the dry river bed of the Save River.

Here one awakes to the cacophony of bird calls as dawn breaks on the untamed Gona-re-zhou National Park. Nearby, where lily trotters search for food and Bateleur eagles scan the horizon for prey, is the Tambahata Pan. At night meals with a local flavour are enjoyed in the central Boma, a traditional African meeting place
Mahenye, a statement of local culture, awaits the bird lover and big game viewer alike

Reed matting is a local traditional craft product often traded for cash. Reed mat walls, cupboard and door panels of local design and manufacture were used in the construction of the lodges, with the intention of creating local employment and maintaining the local culture.

There are local game drives into Gonarezhou National Park which offers a wilderness experience and foot safaris and to Mahenye Island. The lodge seeks to promote knowledge of the local flora and fauna and of the culture of the Shangaan people, as well as the CAMPFIRE programme.

	International in US$		Regional in Rand	Local in Z$
	Individuals	Group		
1995	150		600	500
1996	229	165	628	765
1997	227 ‡	195	383	765

Table B.8. Twin Share Rates at Mahenye & Chilo Safari Lodges
‡1997 Single Room Supplement US$29

Since the opening of Mahenye Lodge around 150 guests have arrived by air, using the airstrip. Aero-Air are reported to be planning a weekly Johannesburg-Buffalo Range-Mahenye flight for 500 Rand per person return in a 28 seater DC3. At the time of writing the service has still not commenced. Zimbabwe Sun Ltd have organised a Sabi Star connection using luxury minibuses travelling from Harare via Great Zimbabwe and Nyanga. Access has been predominantly by car or safari vehicle.

Average bed occupancy is still below what was forecast in 1994, the figures reflect the special efforts made to attract domestic tourists with opening offers in 1995/6 and the opening of Chilo in September 1997. The Safari Division of Zimbabwe Sun Ltd still has some way to go to get to viable bed occupancy ratios. The 1995/6 average occupancy was 37% and the average occupancy for April to November was 26%. This contrasts with 1994 forecasts of 65% for the Chilo development and 50% for Mahenye. The 1997 forecast is for an average 40% bed occupancy. Zimbabwe Sun Ltd. still have much to do in marketing the two developments in Mahenye Ward.

	1995/6	1996
April	18	30
May	30	16
June	17	20
July	55	42
August	74	44
September	68	‡24
October	46	24
November	43	10
December	35	
January	36	
February	22	
March	25	
Yearly Av.	37	26

Table B.9. Bed Occupancy % at Chilo and Mahenye

‡ opening of Chilo

	Total Guests	Full Tariff		Inclusive Tours		Sunset discount	
Local	1,336	92%	1,233	2.8%	37	7%	66
Regional	112	71%	80	28.6%	32	N/A	
International	237	16%	39	86%	198	N/A	

Table B.10. Client Revenue Structure April - November 1996

Only 16% of the international tourists are paying the full tariff. In the opening years of a new property significant numbers of bed nights are used to promote the property. The average bed night price from April 1995-March 1996 was Z$364, at the December 1995 exchange rates the US$ equivalent is US$39. The comparable figures for April 1996 to November 1996 are Z$967 and US$103.

The contribution of the development to foreign currency earnings is still lower than anticipated, reflecting both the declining value of the Z$ against international currencies and the predominance of Zimbabweans amongst the guests. The forecast for 1997 is for 54% Zimbabweans, 17% regional (predominantly South Africans) and only 29% from outside of Southern Africa. The profitability of Chilo and Mahenye heavily depends upon the success of Zimbabwe Sun Ltd in marketing them internationally. The marginal costs of a bed night are a modest Z$131[49], equivalent at the March 7 1997 exchange rate to US$11.75. The net revenue on the group rate of US$195 is therefore US$183, with the marketing costs carried by Zimbabwe Sun Ltd.

49 Composed of vehicle costs for game drives Z$6, food Z$80, alcohol Z$45, from 1997 there will be significant costs associated with park entry.

	4/95-3/96	4/95-3/96 %	4-12/96	4-12/96 %
Bed nights	1598	100	1880	100
Zimbabwean	1162	72	1485	79
Regional	127	8	138	7
Europe	143	9	112*	6
RoW	166	10	145	8

Table B.11. Market Origin of Guests

* of which British visitors 52

B.3.2 The Views of the Mahenye Community

In January 1996 a special meeting of the Mahenye Wildlife Committee was convened in the village to discuss the tourism development and to draw up a questionnaire to be used to survey the views of the community about the impact of tourism on the community. Thirteen members of the Mahenye community were present, including one woman. The committee was asked to produce a list of advantages and disadvantages of the Zimbabwe Sun developments. The discussion was in Shangaan[50], and the outcome of the discussion was put on the blackboard in English by a member of the committee. The four most significant advantages were then placed in order of importance by the committee. It was more difficult to draw out disadvantages.

The results are presented below. These statements were then incorporated into a structured interview survey which was conducted by two members of the committee. Unfortunately the data went astray after it was collected and we are not able to present the survey evidence intended to complete the exercise. The statements below are recorded as they were put on the blackboard.

Advantages of Tourism	Ranking
• Creation of jobs	1
• Construction of the road	
• Power line and telephone infrastructure	2
• Increased standard of living	
• Gaining foreign currency	2
• Livestock	
• Meeting of different races	
• Education is now easier	2
• Publicity for the area (journalists)	
• Better environmental awareness	

Disadvantages of Tourism

- Changes in the traditional culture and way of life
- in the way of dressing[51]
- in the form of greeting[52]
- loss of hunting and net fishing

50 Clive Stockil translated for the researcher.

51 This was primarily a concern about the length of skirts and the modesty with which young women dressed.

52 The traditional form of greeting was to kneel, this has all but disappeared.

- thefts
- Livestock disturbance, loss of watering in front of the Lodge.
- Problems of wage disparity with younger workers earning more than their elders.

The committee wanted information about tourism for the school. They felt that it was something which should be taught about in the village.

The changes in the traditional culture are in part a consequence of development, a process in which tourism plays an important part. The Mahenye community has experienced thefts of cattle and they have been accused of being responsible for thefts from the workshops on the construction site. They place the responsibility on the workers brought in for the construction of the Lodges. The loss of hunting and net fishing is as a consequence of the regulations governing National Parks. The Mahenye community still regards the National Park rules as being for the benefit of tourists rather than broader and local conservation objectives.

It was clear from the discussion that the balance of views amongst members of the Wildlife Committee was positively in favour of the tourism development. It is regretted that the survey data went missing.

B.3.3 The Relationship Between the Mahenye Community and Zimbabwe Sun Ltd.

Zimbabwe Sun Hotels lease the land from the Mahenye community and give a percentage of the turnover annually to the District Council. A lease has been negotiated and agreed between Zimbabwe Sun Ltd and Chipinge Rural District Council, it has not yet been signed as it must first receive the approval of the Minister of Local Government, Rural and Urban Development It is expected to be signed shortly, and the first distribution of household dividends will follow at a public CAMPFIRE general meeting.

Zimbabwe Sun Ltd agreed to pay Chipinge Rural District Council annual payments based on gross trading revenue, defined as all sums of money paid to Zimbabwe Sun Ltd as a result of its activities in Mahenye, including sales of accommodation, food, beverages and sales of non-consumptive safari activities and photographic activities, less sales tax payable.

First three years	8% of gross trading revenue.
Next three years	10% of gross trading revenue.
Final four years	12% of gross trading revenue.

Zimbabwe Sun Ltd forecasts lease payments as follows:

1997	Z$250,000
1998	Z$320,000
1999	Z$470,000
2000	Z$600,000

There is a binding commitment on Zimbabwe Sun Ltd to pay a minimum of Z$220,000 per annum from the signing of the lease and Memorandum of Agreement and on Chipinge Rural District Council to pay for six vehicles to have full access to Gonarezhou National Park for game viewing and photo-safaris. If the cost of these permits exceeds Z$120,000 then Zimbabwe Sun Ltd. would meet the additional costs.[53] Z$120,000 is the cost of permits for 6 vehicles on block client basis, where the operator pays for the vehicle and is not charged for driver or clients. This system has ceased to function before the lease is signed and comes into effect. It has been superseded by a fee structure which charges a yearly Z$5,000 per vehicle and for each client on each visit.

Zimbabwe Sun Ltd and Chipinge Rural District Council undertook jointly through a committee to
"ensure the proper and efficient preservation, management, responsible usage and protection of the natural habitat and wildlife found in the Unit, and further to ensure that the usage by ZSL is as unobtrusive and beneficial to the Mahenye Ward Community as possible."[54]

Zimbabwe Sun Ltd undertook "wherever reasonably possible" to "utilise and pay for labour available from the Mahenye Ward Community for purposes of constructing the required accommodation and supporting infrastructure" and "utilise wherever possible the work-force potential of the Mahenye Ward Community"[55]. The agreement makes clear that access to the Lodges is restricted to pre-booked guests and is open only to residents.[56]

Chipinge Rural District Council undertook to ensure that ZSL "enjoys peaceful and undisturbed possession", and "use its best endeavours to ensure the continued popular support of the Mahenye Ward Community for the projects and/or activities" of Zimbabwe Sun Ltd.[57] Chipinge RDC undertook that its administration charges should not exceed 20% of the lease fees paid to it by Zimbabwe Sun Ltd, the balance of revenues would be distributed to the Mahenye Community "in accordance with the principles and procedures established by the Campfire Association… it being understood by the parties that the payment of such revenues to the Mahenye Community is of fundamental importance to this agreement."[58]

In order to develop the Mahenye Safari Lodge Zimbabwe Sun Ltd needed to include within their lease agreement with the Mahenye community a clause prohibiting the watering of cattle in front of the property, destroying the ambience of the wild. This was achieved by providing piped water to the village from the supply being developed for the Lodges. The PVC water pipe line and the supply was provided by Zimbabwe Sun Ltd, the community undertook to dig the trench. They did this by using Z$10,000 from hunting revenues to dig the trench..

53 Memorandum of Agreement §3.1 and §6.2
54 Memorandum of Agreement §4.1
55 ibid. §5.5 and §5.6
56 ibid. §6.1
57 ibid. §6.1 and §6.6
58 ibid. §6.4

From the first lease payment Z$30,439 will be deducted as the first instalment of the Z$140, 499 which was the cost of installing the power line to the village. It is not possible to predict what the household payments will be in 1997.

Zimbabwe Sun Ltd is forecasting a lease payment of Z$250,000, Chipinge Rural District Council can deduct up to 20% for administration and it is expected that Z$30,239 (the first instalment on the electricity supply) will be deducted as a communal benefit. At the time of writing the detailed figures are still being agreed between Zimbabwe Sun Ltd and Chipinge RDC. The benefits accruing to the villagers, even where there are substantial minimum payments and where the payment is calculated on turnover, are heavily dependent on the commercial success of the enterprise.

B.3.4 Entrepreneurial Opportunities for the Mahenye Community

The manager of the Chilo and Mahenye Lodges has been unable to secure supplies of local crafts from the village. He would like to purchase snuff boxes, baskets, bows and arrows and reed mats for sale to guests. He reports that he has placed orders which have not been fulfilled. The reed mats are traded through Mahenye but are all sold on contract to Harare. He now favours the community establishing their own sales area, probably in the traditional "show" village, where tourists will be able to see the crafts being employed and purchase directly from the local community. He recognises that the mark-up he needs to make in the Lodge shop deprives the Mahenye community of some of the potential income and may make the crafts and curios too expensive. He is sourcing some wooden statues from Chishumbanje, some distance from Mahenye. Demand has increased the cost from Z$35 to Z$75 in a year.

The construction of a traditional village adjacent to the sacred forest in the village began in 1995. Completion of the village was delayed when poles cut for the village some 7 km from Mahenye were left beside the road, following a problem over transportation and were removed and used by others. The building of a show village has been financed by a loan of Z$4,000, to enable the community to employ its own members to construct the village, thus ensuring that the show village belongs to the community. The loan will be repaid from revenues earned by the village, thus the enterprise will be owned by the community.

The traditional show village, planned to be between 5 and 10 huts, is situated close to Mahenye and Chilo Lodges to avoid tourist intrusion into the daily life of the Mahenye community and to maintain their privacy. Shangaans will be employed at the show village to demonstrate aspects of their subsistence economy and of their culture, particularly dance. The show village would also offer opportunities for the sale of Shangaan art, including baskets, pottery and wooden spoons. There is also a possibility that Shangaan people will act as local guides and that tourists will be able to sleep in the traditional huts in the "show" village. The Mahenye community think that there will be tourists who cannot afford to stay in the Zimbabwe Sun Ltd accommodation and who will be looking for a cheaper alternative, as well as some tourists who would like to have a genuine cultural experience.

The Wildlife Committee, at a specially convened meeting in January 1996, identified the following possible commercial developments in the Ward related to tourism in addition to the traditional show village.

- Traditional dancing
- Manufacture and sale of artifacts
    a) bows and arrows
    b) reed mats
    c) pestle and mortars
    d) clay pots
- Accommodation for budget travelers (funding was identified as a major issue here)
- Better transport system for travelers
- Story telling (performance and story book sales)
- Guided walks and talks on useful plants for culinary and other purposes

The management of the Lodges is not currently purchasing any food supplies locally, but they are still planning to source salads and vegetables locally, providing seed and growing calendars. There are DDF plans to provide irrigated plots in the village of 1 ha per family, which will provide the infrastructure necessary for the commercial growing of vegetables.

B.3.5 Benefits to the Mahenye Community

The development has brought an all-weather airstrip, telephone, electricity and piped-water to the area and the road has been improved by the DDF. The Mahenye Zimbabwe Sun Ltd development has brought piped water to the village and the clinic. The community used some of the anticipated revenues from their lease agreement with Zimbabwe Sun Ltd to bring electricity to Mahenye Ward. The community contributed Z$10,000 from its consumptive earnings for the digging of the trench for the water supply from Zimbabwe Sun Ltd to the Mahenye Business Centre and the livestock drinking trough. Zimbabwe Sun Ltd. paid for the pipe and pumping necessary to supply the water in order to displace cattle watering from the front of the Lodges.

It is not possible to accurately forecast residual revenues to the Mahenye Community. The scale of benefits distributed to households will depend heavily upon the scheduling of repayments on the electricity supply and upon the decisions of Chipinge RDC about the administrative levy. Forecasting is further complicated by the lack of information upon which to base a calculation of the costs of park entrances. These costs are the responsibility of Chipinge RDC up to Z$120,000.

	Z$
Zimbabwe Sun Ltd forecast of 1997 lease fees	250,000
Less first instalment on cost of power line	30,439
Less 20% administration charge Chipinge RDC	43,912
Less Chipinge RDC maximum share of park entrances	120,000[59]

On the basis of these estimates ±Z$55,000 will be available for individual household benefits
depending upon further decisions about spending on communal benefits.

Employment

Construction Phase

During the construction of the two properties and associated infrastructure Zimbabwe Sun Ltd spent in the order of Z$7.5m [60] on local labour, at December 1995 values, US$806,452. This paid for 7,300 man months of labour at an average Z$1,027 per month (US$110). 120 permanent and 40 casual local workers were employed on the project.[61] A number of local workers completed apprenticeships during the construction; electricians, plumbers, carpenters, bricklayers, plasterers and steel fixers.

Safari Lodge Employment

The safari lodges are intended to employ as many local people as possible[62].

Mahenye Lodge 8 rooms and 16 beds

No	Job description	Gender M	F	From Mahenye	Wage per month Z$	Total per month Z$
1	Manager	1			0	
2	Guide	2			0	
1	Barman	1		1	1000	1,000
3	Cook	3		1	900	900
2	Bedroom hand	0	2	2	900	1,800
2	Kitchen Porter	2		2	875	1,750
3	Waiter	2	1	3	850	2,550
1	Security	1		1	850	850
2	Cleaner	2		0	850	1,750
1	Boiler Hand	1		1	800	800
18		15	3	11		11,400

Table B.12. Employment and wages at Mahenye Lodge.

59 Actual costs will be significantly higher than this following the introduction of the new Parks Fees from January 1997, these additional sums will fall to Zimbabwe Sun Ltd. Accounts.

60 Estimate by Graham Johnson, Projects Director, Zimbabwe Sun.

61 Estimated by David Hartwell, the building contractor.

62 In the first set of interviews 5 out of 12 of the people appointed were from outside Mahenye - there were misunderstandings about who was local and who had relatives in the area.

Chilo 14 rooms, 28 beds

No	Job description	Gender M	F	From Mahenye	Wage per month Z$	Total per month in Mahenye Z$
1	Relief Manager	1		0		
1	Administrator	0	1	0		
4	Guide	4		0		
2	Driver	2		0		
1	Mechanic	1		0		
1	Barman	1		0		
1	Bar hand	1		1	870	870
2	Handyman	2		0		000
1	Maint. Supervisor	1		0		000
2	Accountant	2		1	1008	1,008
1	Housekeeper	0	1	1	950	950
5	Cook	5		4	910	3,640
2	Laundry	1	1	2	900	1,800
1	Stores	0	1	1	890	890
3	Bedroom hand	3		3	870	2,610
2	Kitchen Porter	2		2	850	1,700
6	Waiter	6		6	890	5,340
3	Cleaner	3		3	850	2,550
3	General Hand	3		3	850	2,550
42		38	4	27		23,038

Table B.13. Employment and wages at Chilo.

It is anticipated that a further two jobs may be created in each Lodge at higher room occupancy levels. The two lodges are administered and managed as one unit.

	Mahenye	Chilo	Total
Beds	16	28	44
Total Staff	18	42	60
Local Staff Total	11	27	38
Local Staff Female	03	03	06
Monthly Mahenye wage bill.	Z$11,400	Z$23,038	Z$34,438

Table B.14. Summary of Employment at Mahenye and Chilo Lodges

The two lodges employ 1.36 staff per bed, at higher levels of bed occupancy this might rise to 1.45. 63% of the jobs are staffed by people from the local community, but only 6 (15.8%) of these local jobs are occupied by women. Z$34,483 per month is earned by people from the local community, Z$413,796 per annum. At March 7 1997 exchange rates this is US$37,103.

Donations to the Mahenye Community

Most foreign tourists visit the clinic and the school. There has been one donation of US$500 for fans for the clinic and perhaps a further US$250 for the clinic. Approximately US$250 has been given to the school, mainly in books, pens and pencils.[63]

63 Paul Perez pers. comm.

C. FARM NO. 42, GONAKUDZINGWA 189

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C. FARM NO. 42, Gonakudzingwa[1]

C.1 INTRODUCTION

This ranch was acquired by Mr Rukuni in August 1992 during the drought. Farm 42 is held under an eleven year lease (1992-2003) with an option to purchase. The option to purchase can be exercised once the land has been developed through the building of a homestead, the development of water resources and fencing. Mr Rukuni is seeking a partner to develop a photo-safari business. The partner is expected to bring additional resources for investment, a marketing network and share the risk.

C.1.1 Location

Gonakudzingwa Small Scale Farms are situated in Chiredzi District of Masvingo province, at the Mabalauta end of Gonarezhou Park. Farm 42 (844 ha), shares a 5 km boundary on its south side with the National Park (Figure A.1) . Farms 1-10 were leased in 1959, farms 11-29 were leased in 1961 and farms 30-43 in 1992. The land is suitable for cattle and for cropping millet and sorghum. Farm 42 is 120 km south east of Chiredzi on country roads (graded dirt), 35 km from Mabalauta, 50 km from Manjinji Pan, 250 km from Masvingo and 230 km from Beitbridge. Farm 42 is easily reached by road in a two wheel drive vehicle. It takes only two hours from Chiredzi. The roads are accessible during the rains.

The farm is on a flat area at an altitude of 437 m, with light sandy soils. The farm was only recently settled, retains its wilderness character and has climax vegetation characteristic of sandveld. *Combretum* and *Colophospermum mopane* are the dominant woody species with scattered *Sclerocarya caffra, Julbernardia globiflora* and *Brachystegia speciformis*. The dominant grass species, *Panicum maximum* and *Urochloa mosambicensis*, provide good grazing for wildlife. The area retains a natural wilderness which would be attractive for a safari setting.

Farm 42 abuts the Gonarezhou National Park with an official gate at the boundary between Farms 41 & 42 and the Gonarezhou National Park. Development of a photo-safari camp on Farm 42 would not require the purchase of animals, as sufficient numbers occur on the property to provide immediate interest for visitors. There is easy access to game viewing from vehicles, and on foot, in the National Park. Wild dog, elephant, lion and white rhino have ranged into the nearby communal land areas from Kruger. There is a good variety of bird species in the area.

C.1.2 Indigenisation

The development of Farm 42 is proposed as a way of indigenising an industry presently dominated by whites. Herbert Murerwa, the Minister of Environment and Tourism at the Zimbabwe Travel Expo in February 1994 announced that the Government was ready to assist indigenous people to participate in the tourism

1 The budget was not sufficient to permit a visit to Farm 42, this section relies on interviews with Mr Rukuni and others, and on reports as referenced below.

industry and to train them in marketing and management if the banks were willing to provide financial assistance.[2]

Mr Rukuni argues that "Black people should be more involved in the running of the industry" and that "white operators should train more blacks as partners rather than workers".[3] "For a long time blacks have been taken on as drivers, trackers, waiters" it is time for more blacks to become professional hunters, guides and camp managers. Mr Rukuni has a Professional Hunter & Guide licence.

He argues that the Conservancies promise the involvement of blacks but the animals are fenced off from the communities and the communities are fenced out of the conservancies. He concludes that it is "time to know how communities will benefit from fenced out areas". How will blacks be involved and at what levels?

Mr Rukuni argues that one way forward is for big companies like Zimbabwe Sun Ltd. and Wilderness Safaris to go into joint ventures with blacks. This has not happened yet although in February 1997 Mr Rukuni is negotiating a joint venture with an established operator in order to develop Farm 42 for photo-safari tourism.

C.2 TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Mr Rukuni has plans to develop an 18 room photo-safari lodge and offer vehicle and foot game viewing safaris into the National Park.

Mr Rukuni has detailed plans for the lodge including a gift-shop which would sell the traditional crafts of the Shangaan, Venda and Sotho people including wooden and leather items, carved bones and beads. He considers culture to be an important constituent of tourism but nothing has been developed yet. Mr Rukuni points to the danger of tourist dollars changing the way of life of the local people and asserts that

"The Shangaan are no longer proud to be Shangaan and have lost their culture of cooking in clay pots or drinking water from the calabash. Cultural centres should be established while the present generation is still active".[4]

Mr Rukuni is seeking finance for the project and has plans for its marketing. This project would bring new investment to a very undeveloped area providing 25 - 30 jobs. It may also provide an exemplary model for other farmers on lease land in arid and semi-arid areas adjacent to National Parks. The budget required to establish a water supply and a small camp with 4 lodges (8 beds), including a Landcruiser for game viewing would be Z$300,000.

The ranch has not had cattle on it and there is no intention to stock it. He feels that if the farm is stocked with cattle they will destroy the habitat and it would be necessary to construct a game fence at a cost of Z$35,000 per kilometre.[5]

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2 Feasibility Report, Farm 42, Safari Lodge Project, March 1994, unpublished MS.
3 Survey March 1996.
4 Ranch Questionnaire and pers. comm.
5 Letter from Director of Veterinary Services to Mr. Rukuni June, 1994. Z$15,000/ km cost of erection,

The ranch is family owned and employs five people with a wages bill of Z$ 12,000 in November 1995. It is envisaged that there will be 32 tourism related jobs in five years time.

A campsite was opened in April 1996, the fly camp has been leased to a hunting operator who brought six hunting safaris to the camp between April and November 1996.

Farm 42 is presently completely dependent on sport hunting, in five year's time (2001) it is envisaged that the business will be 95% non-consumptive and 5% consumptive in terms of income generation. The sport hunting quota for the group of nine commercial lease farms including Farm 42 in the 1996 season was 3 elephants, 2 lions, 1 leopard plus kudu and impala.

The long-term plan is to construct 8 lodges (increasing to 18 over the next five years) using local materials, staff quarters, a service area and workshop and to sink a borehole for water.

It is envisaged that marketing of non-consumptive tourism could take three forms:
a) selling through agents.
b) negotiating a contract with Zimbabwe Sun Ltd at Mahenye to send tourists to use the fly-camp as the game viewing opportunities are better on the Mabalauta side of Gonarezhou.
c) entering a contract with an established operator like Landella.

C.3 GONAKUDZINGWA AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE LOWVELD

The development of Farm 42 for non-consumptive tourism would open up the section of Gonarezhou National Park to the west of the railway line and provide access to sandveld. The only other accommodation available in the area are the chalets at Mabalauta and there is plenty of scope for further development. Farm 42 would act as a catalyst for the development of accommodation and other tourist facilities in the Sangwe Communal Lands and on the western end of the Park. The success of tourism development in the area will turn on marketing and access.

Mr Rukuni is endeavouring to solve his marketing problem by forging a joint venture with an established operator with a viable marketing network. This area of the Park, Malapati and Sangwe have sufficient variety to be attractive to visitors as part of a series of experiences in the lowveld. Manjinji Pan, which is a sanctuary zone, is frequently visited by bird watchers and could be further developed for tourism. Manjinji Pan is under considerable pressure as a watering hole for cattle and its development for tourism could make a significant contribution to its management for conservation.

It is widely recognised in the lowveld that the regional market from South Africa is important to the development of tourism in the area. Currently South Africans enter

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Z$20,000/ km cost of materials.

through Beitbridge and drive north, if they are diverted to the lowveld they turn east at Ngundu Halt 190 km north of the border. There is a viable country road access to the lowveld just north of the Limpopo River which would take tourists through the communal lands north of the Limpopo and across the Bubi River directly into the south west areas of the Gonarezhou National Park accessed through Mabalauta. This would bring economic development in this isolated area of Zimbabwe and help to establish Farm 42 and other tourism development at Manjinji Pan and elsewhere in the communal lands. There is currently no marketing of this part of the lowveld but it is likely to be immediately attractive to the 4x4 South African market. In the longer term there are aspirations for a tar road access. This is amongst the projects being put to the World Bank as part of its development assistance to Gonarezhou and the south east lowveld.

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D. MALILANGWE CONSERVATION TRUST

D.1 INTRODUCTION

Malilangwe, formerly Lone Star Ranch, comprises 105,000 acres of *mopane* savannah woodland adjacent to Gonarezhou National Park (Figure D.1). Prior to the mid-forties the area was occupied by the Shangaan people, who used the land lightly. It was unsettled and there were only a few cattle grazed there. Extensive cattle ranching began in 1947. The area was fenced, predators were shot, and elephant were discouraged from entering the ranch. At times the cattle population reached 2,500 animals. In the early fifties, a belt of woodland was cut and cleared as a tsetse barrier between Gonarezhou and the ranch. Cattle ranching continued until the mid-eighties, and there was some safari hunting throughout this period. 400 ha was farmed on a rotation of cotton, sugar beans and fallow.

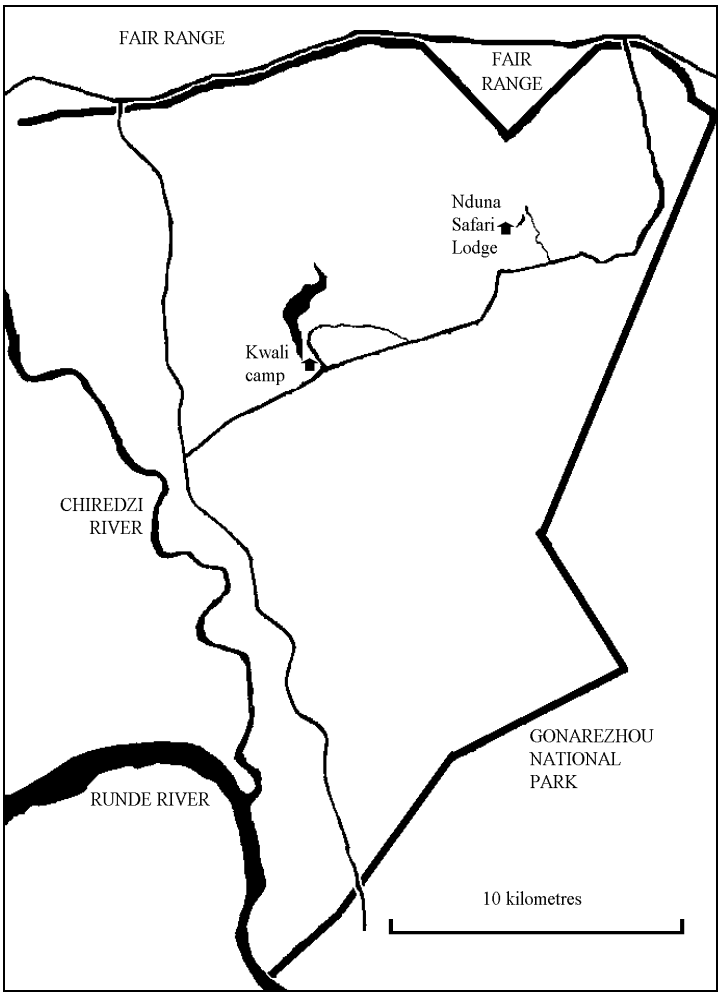

Figure D.1. A Map of Malilangwe Conservation Trust.

Lone Star Ranch is now owned by a Zimbabwean non-profit making organisation, the Malilangwe Conservation Trust. Dr Jeremy Anderson has been appointed to develop the reserve and to encourage scientific studies on the property. Where appropriate,

these are funded by the Trust. Revenue raised by tourism is to be routed back into reserve management and the surrounding local community.

'The Trust's mission is to establish and operate a multi-purpose wildlife estate which is ecologically, economically, politically and socially sustainable, and in so doing to set standards which will become a benchmark of excellence in Africa, and will establish beyond doubt that the Trust's philosophy and methods provide the best options for land use and community involvement for the estate.'[1]

D.2 CONSERVATION AND WILDLIFE MANAGEMENT IN MALILANGWE

Prior to cattle ranching, there was a small, but healthy, and diverse wildlife community on the land. With the introduction of artificial waterpoints for cattle, wildlife numbers increased. The increase in herbivores led to overstocking, coupled with the 1983 and 1992 droughts, resulted in a depauperation of both habitat and wildlife. Heavy grazing and the prevention of fires resulted in habitat modification, notably bush encroachment.[2] Up to 8,000 mopane saplings/ha have been recorded in areas of encroachment, which are unsuitable for the majority of ungulates. Since 1994, there has been some use of controlled burning for habitat management. A decrease in graze availability and competition from cattle, zebra and wildebeest, which are bulk grazers, resulted in a number of more selective grazing species disappearing. These include roan, Lichtenstein's hartebeest, reedbuck, and oribi. Ostrich also disappeared, possibly due to annual chick harvesting. In addition, sable declined from a healthy population of around 400 animals in the 1970's to less than 50 in 1994. Predators were destroyed whenever they presented a problem to the ranching of cattle. For the 10 years prior to the purchase of Malilangwe, lion and leopard were managed for trophy hunting.

Since the ranch was purchased by the Malilangwe Conservation Trust, ostrich have been reintroduced, and 9 Lichtenstein's hartebeest were bought in 1996 and have been placed in a paddock for captive breeding prior to reintroduction. 30 gemsbok are similarly enclosed. A number of other translocations have been made (see Table D.1 for estimates of mammal population sizes and total reintroductions). All wildlife is bought locally. If elephants are to be translocated, DNPWLM will only allow individuals from Gonarezhou, since the Hwange elephants are of a different race.

Since the Trust purchased the land in 1994, a total of 1,395 animals have been relocated in the reserve at a combined cost of Z$6,923,576.25. The total number of animals and the total cost of restocking for the past three years are given in Table D.2.

1 Malilangwe Conservation Trust Mission Statement (12/96).

2 Current research in progress at Malilangwe suggests that the tree lines have not moved far in the last twenty years.

Species	Estimated Population Size 1/97	Restocking 1994	Restocking 1995	Restocking 1996
Baboons	common	-	-	-
Bat eared fox	rare	-	-	-
Buffalo	600	145	88	-
Bushbuck	200	-	-	-
Bushpig	80	-	-	-
Caracal	normal density	-	-	-
Cheetah	10	-	-	-
Crocodile	variable (c.250)	-	-	-
Duiker	150	-	-	-
Eland	nomadic (c.200)	-	77	178
Elephant	150	-	-	-
Gemsbok	30 (captive)	-	-	30 (captive)
Giraffe	120	135	-	12
Hartebeest	10 (captive)	-	-	10 (captive)
Hippo	22	-	-	-
Hyaena	normal density	-	-	-
Impala	6000	-	-	-
Jackal	common	-	-	-
Klipspringer	common in hills	-	-	-
Kudu	500	-	-	-
Leopard	50	-	-	-
Lion	20	-	-	-
Nyala	120	-	50	2
Ostrich	15	-	8	41
Reedbuck	20	-	10	10
Sable	90	73	20	10
Serval	normal density	-	-	-
Sharpe's grysbok	normal density	-	-	-
Steenbok	40	-	-	-
Vervet monkey	common[3]	-	-	-
Warthog	140	-	-	101
Waterbuck	100	-	30	53
White rhino	15	-	-	3
Wildebeest	200	-	66	144
Zebra	640	-	-	99

Table D.1. Mammal population estimates (January 1997), and annual game restocking, 1994-1996.

3 Confined to the proximity of permanent water.

Year	Number of animals relocated	% of total	cost of translocation (Z$)	% of total
1994	353	25.3	1,827,100	26.4
1995	349	25.0	1,356,389	19.6
1996	693	49.7	3,740,086	54.0
TOTAL	1,395		6,923,576	

Table D.2. Number and cost of animal restocking annually, 1994-1996.

Since 1994, hunting has been substantially and the animals are becoming less disturbed by human presence.

Water management revolved around the provision of a great number of artificial water points. These were suitable for cattle ranching, but are too widespread for sustainable wildlife management, since no areas of land were free of animal pressure during the dry period. Species such as impala and zebra range widely where water is available, and reduce the long grass which is important for other species. Now, several of the original water points have been shut down. Boreholes still need to be pumped in places because the Chiredzi river is no longer perennial, and strategically placed game scout pickets require water. In addition there are two permanent dams and two seasonal dams.

50 km of the perimeter of the Malilangwe Conservation Trust has been game fenced at a cost of Z$25,000 per electrified km. The total cost of the fencing was Z$1,250,000. 22 people have been employed since June 1994 constructing the external fence and 14 km of internal paddock fencing. The fence building workers are paid at Z$700 per month.

D.3 CONSUMPTIVE AND NON-CONSUMPTIVE TOURISM IN MALILANGWE

Prior to the mid-eighties, some safari hunting was conducted on Lone Star. In 1987, cattle were removed and the ranch was converted exclusively to safari hunting. Limited photographic tourism was established in the early 1990s. Whilst game drives were undertaken by the landowners, a professional hunter from South Africa undertook the hunting in conjunction with Lone Star Ranch. Cresta Hotels were responsible for the management and marketing of the non-consumptive photo-safari facilities: Cresta Sandstone Lodge and Kwali Camp. In 1994, Lone Star Ranch was purchased by the Malilangwe Conservation Trust, with the intention of transforming it into one of the finest wildlife reserves on the continent, and to create a model example for other reserves to follow. Attractions include nature walks, game drives and a number of rock art sites.

D.3.1 Consumptive Tourism

Limited, selective and exclusive high quality safari hunting is identified in the Mission Statement as one of the functions of the Trust. However, it appears that sport hunting will remain of minimal economic importance to the Trust. Quotas are small, offtakes

to date always below the quotas set (Table D.3), and hunting is not marketed as a commercial activity. At present, with photographic tourism in the early stages of development, sport hunting is responsible for a significant proportion of total tourism income (Table D.4). Around Z$200,000accrued to the Trust from each of both hunting and photographic tourism in 1996. However, this is an insignificant proportion of the Trust's current yearly expenditure.

Species	1996		1997	
	Quota	Offtake	Quota	Likely Offtake
Buffalo	8	2	8	2-3
Bushpig	5	0	2	0
Crocodile	-	0	5	2
Duiker	5	0	2	-
Eland	5	0	5	2-3
Elephant	-	0	1	-
Impala	20	1	20	6
Kudu	10	0	10	8
Leopard	3	0	3	1
Lion	1	0	1	0
Sable	3	1	3	2
Steenbok	5	0	3	-
Warthog	5	2	5	3
Waterbuck	3	0	3	1
Wildebeest	5	0	3	3
Zebra	5	2	5	3-4

Table D.3. Hunting quotas and offtake for 1996 and 1997.

Year	Sport hunting	Photo-safaris
1996	c.50%	c.50%
2000	20%	80%
2010	5%	95%

Table D.4. Tourism Revenue: Estimated current and projected future ratio of consumptive to non-consumptive revenues.

D.3.2 Non-Consumptive Tourism

The provision of high quality international tourism at Nduna and at other camps yet to be constructed is identified as a primary function of the Trust. The target is for there to be 96 beds in ten years time. At 1.8 employees per bed there will be 170 employees involved in tourism. There is recognition of the benefits to be gained by diversifying the tourism product and increasing the numbers of tourists who can use the Conservation Trust without being aware of the presence of other visitors. Three day treks in the Malilangwe Hills could be organised without traditional photo-safari groups being aware of their presence.

Two tourist accommodation facilities existed at Malilangwe. The recently redeveloped Nduna Lodge has 6 twin bedded rooms with *en suite* bathrooms, and a swimming pool. It offers luxury accommodation for game viewing groups. Kwali Camp, with its

rustic accommodation and ablutions block, was originally developed as a budget alternative for backpackers and other overseas tourists. This did not succeed, although the site was well used by Zimbabwean visitors. It is now being made available to researchers and other educational and social groups. The Trust sponsors post-graduate students recommended by tertiary educational institutions to carry out goal-orientated research which benefit the Trust's management of Malilangwe and the student. They are undertaking joint research, with the National Monuments of Zimbabwe, in the Malilangwe Hills in which there are to be found many San rock paintings and ancient structures. The Trust plans to support conservation education initiatives for schools and other groups at Malilangwe and sponsors artists on its property "recognising that art is a powerful tool for conservation awareness"[4].

This policy is implemented in part through courses and other programmes of activity organised out of Kwali Camp. Amongst the visitors to Kwali in 1996 were;

- Outward Bound Zimbabwe (groups composed of children from local schools)
- Local Secondary and Primary Schools
- ZimTrust
- Africa 2000
- Plan International
- Department of National Parks and Wild Life Management
- Wisdom Foundation
- CAMPFIRE Association
- Zimbabwean and International Artist Groups

Nduna Lodge was redeveloped by the Malilangwe Conservation Trust who maintain ownership of the buildings. The redeveloped Nduna Lodge opened in May 1995.

Labour cost	Z$ 253,437
Materials cost	Z$1,203,050
Total	Z$1,456,487

It is operated as a joint venture between the Trust and Wilderness Safaris who operate groups on itineraries featuring the lodge as well as promoting the lodge to travel agents and tour operators. The contents of Nduna Lodge, the inputs, the revenues and any profits are shared 50:50 between the Trust and Wilderness Safaris. In addition, 5% of gross bookings accrue to the Trust. The property is represented by Wilderness Safaris at the London, Berlin and South African international trade shows.

Rates	Currency	1996	1997
Domestic	Z$	495	750
Regional	Rand	395	495
International	US$	192	200

Table D.5. Nduna Lodge rates, 1996 & 1997.

The marginal cost of accommodating a tourist is estimated at Z$250 for food and fuel.

4 Malilangwe Conservation Trust Mission Statement (12/96).

A good occupancy rate for Nduna Lodge is reckoned to be 60%. Occupancy for 1995 was expected to be 12%, the actual occupancy was 17%. In 1996 occupancy was 27%.

Nduna Lodge currently employs 12 people. By the year 2000 it is expected that 60 more people will be employed in the lodges (taking the total to 72) and that the current numbers in other game and habitat management roles will be maintained. There are plans to build a further 12-18 bed up-market lodge (Pamushana Lodge) in 1997 on a hill overlooking the dam adjacent to Kwali camp. There are also plans to construct a tented camp in 1998 for the budget market.

The Trust also intends to investigate the possibility of joint ventures in the Communal Lands. One possibility is the building of a 12 bed joint venture lodge at Tondweni, on the edge of Malilangwe closest to Gonarezhou, to be eventually run by the community. Malilangwe Conservation Trust will offer entrance to the camp at minimal cost. However, visitors will not be able to drive on Malilangwe.

D.4 LOCAL COMMUNITY BENEFITS

D.4.1 Employment

Currently around 192 local people are employed by the Trust, as compared with 80 employed on Lone Star before the 1992 drought (Table D.6). In 1996 the cost of employing local labour was Z$1.17 million. This included wages, pensions, welfare/medical, rations, uniforms and the general and reward funds. (Table D.7). Some employment within Malilangwe is tourism-related (Table D.8).

Date	Number of local employees	Monthly Wage Bill (Z$)
pre 1992	80	N/A
November 1995	220	121,126
December 1996	192	113,796[5]

Table D.6. Employees and wage bills before and after the 1992 drought

Category	Amount (Z$)
Wages (including bonuses and casual labour)	664,625
Pensions	146,315
Welfare/Medical	20,668
Rations	201,681
Uniforms	130,835
General Fund	3,449
Reward Fund	4,957
TOTAL	1,172,580

Table D.7. 1996 expenditure by the Trust on local employees

5 Not including casual labour or extras such as pensions, rations etc.

	Total Number	Men	Women	From Local Community	Non-Local
Fence Guards:	7	7		7	
Licensed Guides:	2	2		0	2
Game Scouts:	51	51		51	
Drivers:	9	9		9	
Lodge Staff:	15	14	1	8	7
Administrative	9	7	2	6	3
General Labour, upkeep of roads, fences, buildings, firebreaks and bush-clearing	98	98		98	
Total	191	188	3	179	12

Table D.8 Employment in December 1996

D.4.2 Neighbour Programme

Malilangwe Trust operates a neighbour programme to undertake collaborative projects with neighbouring communities and organisations to stimulate rural development, alleviate poverty, transfer skills, and encourage sustainable utilisation of natural resources. Since August 1995, a liaison officer has been employed to oversee this programme and develop new initiatives. Throughout 1996, information was gathered from the local people to inform the neighbour programme, so that it could most accurately address the specific needs of the surrounding communities.

In 1995 and 1996, a total of Z$661,182 was spent on a variety of projects in surrounding communities. A budget of Z$1,580,500 for the programme in 1997 has been proposed (Table D.9). Funding has been granted for school fees and materials, uniforms, infrastructure, training, agricultural development, Problem Animal Control, and a range of other community programmes (Tables D.10). Already within the Trust there is the feeling that a positive change has occurred in the attitude of the local people towards Malilangwe, as a direct result of the investment the Trust has made in the community.

Year	Amount Spent (Z$)
1995	163,196
1996	497,886
1997 (proposed)	1,580,500

Table D.9. Annual expenditure on neighbour programme

As can be seen from the table the Malilangwe Conservation Trust is donating large sums of money to the local community projects.. The Trust has funded and assisted with the improvement of infrastructure, repairing boreholes, helping to build and repair dams, fencing a clinic and electrifying schools. They have also purchased television and video equipment for use by local schools and are in the process of purchasing educational videos.

The Trust has paid the school fees for 200 orphans and children of single mothers in 1995, 313 in 1996. They have also provided school uniforms for these children, purchasing the cloth and equipping and employing local women's groups to make the uniforms.

The Trust has sponsored four U13 school netball and football teams. For adult teams the Trust has established the Malilangwe Football Trophy and sponsored the Sangwe Netball Association. With its commitment to art the Trust plans to sponsor arts and crafts in schools, helping 36 schools in 1997.

The Trust has assisted in transporting sorghum and grain on behalf of farmers in the communal lands and has mounted agricultural programmes. It has run courses and organised competitions in order to establish permaculture. 56 people attended the courses and 23 went on to show their produce in competition. Two further courses are planned in 1997. In 1997 it is planned to launch a shallow well protection programme.

Item/Project	Amount Spent (Z$)
1995	
School sports funding	4,383
School uniforms, fees, etc.	20,482
Women's affairs	4,495
Donations	1,450
CAMPFIRE workshop	300
Matabeleland WLS[6]	125,423
Clinic fence	2,868
Dam repair	686
Conservation efforts	3,108
TOTAL	**163,196**
1996	
School fees	15,839
School sports sponsorship	26,110
School uniforms	31,852
Staff training (sewing)	9,304
Training equipment	24,751
UPLIFT programme[7]	102,032
Liaison officer expenses	58,680
School electrification	103,609
Conservation efforts	86,139
LEAP[8] programme	4,780
Zimtrust training centre	7,399
Additional cash items	29,390
TOTAL	**497,886**

Table D.8. Benefits to the community through the neighbour programme, 1995/1996

6 Wildlife Society.
7 including a permaculture course, well protection, Outward Bound, etc.
8 Lowveld Environment Awareness Programme.

ACTIVITY	COST (Z$)	TIMETABLE
Schools		
Hostels: Dumisani/Mwenje	150000	Apr- Jun
Equipment		
Solar Lighting Equipment	48000	May-Aug
Learning Aids - boots etc.	25000	Apr, Jul, Oct
Income generating projects	20000	Apr - Sep
Fees and bursaries *300	30000	Jan, May, Sep
Uniforms - school and choir	40000	Jan - May
Sports trophies and kit	20000	Jan, May, Sep
School trips	15000	Jan, May, Sep
School art and craft	5000	Jan, May, Sep
Pre-school support	10000	Jan, May
Repairs to school buildings	15000	Jan - Dec
	378000	
Training and skill development		
Dressmaking	20000	Mar - May, Jul -Sep
Bee keeping	5000	Apr
Brick making	5000	Apr
Permaculture	30000	Mar - Jul
Training extension workers	10000	Jan, Jul
Youth skill development	10000	Mar, Aug
	80000	
Community projects		
Mothers shelter - Chizwirizwi	100000	May - Sep
Gallies, gabians & woodpacks	20000	Mar - Nov
Borehole repair	40000	Mar - Jul
Well construction	7500	Apr - May
Garden shows	6000	Jun, Nov
Agricultural shows	7500	Aug
Womens' self-help projects	25000	Jan -Dec
	206000	
Donations		
South East College	100000	Jun
Disabled and elderly	15000	Jan, Oct
Other	15000	Jan -Dec
	130000	
Extension wages	**45500**	Feb - Dec
Administration		
Stationary	7000	Mar - Sep
Fuel & transport	126000	Jan - Dec
Wages/Salary	67000	Jan - Dec
Books & journals	2000	Feb, Mar
Educational video tapes	2000	Feb, Mar
Other	15000	Jan - Dec
	219000	

Outward Bound Project		
Equipment	15000	Jan
Food & Accommodation	20000	May, Aug, Dec
Children's' kit	10000	Feb, May, Aug, Dec
Instructor's fee	12000	May, Aug, Dec
	57000	
Lowveld Research Institute		
Supply new 4*4 vehicle	**350000**	Jun
LEAP & Conservation Education	**15000**	Jan, May, Aug
Conservation efforts	**100000**	Jan - Dec
GRAND TOTAL	**1580500**	

Table D.9. Proposed schedule of benefits to the community through the neighbour programme, 1997.

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E. Bubiana Conservancy

E.1 INTRODUCTION

The Bubiana Conservancy (BC) is located in the south-west lowveld, with its western boundary being approximately 35 km east of West Nicholson. It is bounded to the north by the Mberengwa Communal Land, and to the east by the Maranda Communal Land. Commercial ranching areas lie to the west and south of the Conservancy.

The Conservancy comprises 8 individual properties, the total area of land being 127,546 ha (see Table E.1, and Figure E.1). The ranches making up the Bubiana Conservancy were established in the late 1950's and early 1960's. They are all local family-owned businesses, but most of the owners have other sources of income in addition to the ranches. The owners of Sovele and Peregwe have interests in the meat processing industry and Tygerberg and Rocky Glen has significant earnings from 100 ha of irrigation, fenced out of the Conservancy. All the ranchers, except Barberton, are involved in consumptive hunting and are drifting towards a joint concession.

Ranch	Owners	Area (ha)	% of total
Dwala	N & R Rosenfels	9,444	7.4
Ladi	J.M. Rorke/ P.Abbot	10,320	8.1
Barberton	G.Barber	10,680	8.4
Mkashi	D.Rochat	14,974	11.7
Peregwe	P.Abbot	17,261	13.5
Drummond Ranches	K. Drummond	28,792	22.6
Tygerberg & Rocky Glen Sovelele	N.York	36,075	28
Total		**127,546**	

Table E.1. Membership of the Bubiana Conservancy (de la Harpe 1994, p.35)

In the late 1980's, prior to the formation of the Conservancy, some of the ranches were part of an ICA. They were concerned that too much game capture was taking place by farmers and that the levels of off-take by some ranchers were ecologically and economically unsustainable. Individual ranchers began to discuss fencing their own land to prevent poaching, restocking and managing the game for consumptive and non-consumptive tourism. This evolved into adopting a common game fence perimeter to sustainably manage game. The first black rhino were moved by DNPWLM to Drummond's land in 1988. The Conservancy was formally founded in June 1991 with the signing of the constitution to ensure the sustainable use of wildlife and to conserve rhino.

The objectives of the Conservancy were to "develop and maintain opportunities for the sustainable utilisation of natural resources in the Conservancy area" through the determination and implementation of "sound ecological management policies" to prevent the degradation of natural resources and "the exploitation of the natural resources by any user, at the expense of other users".

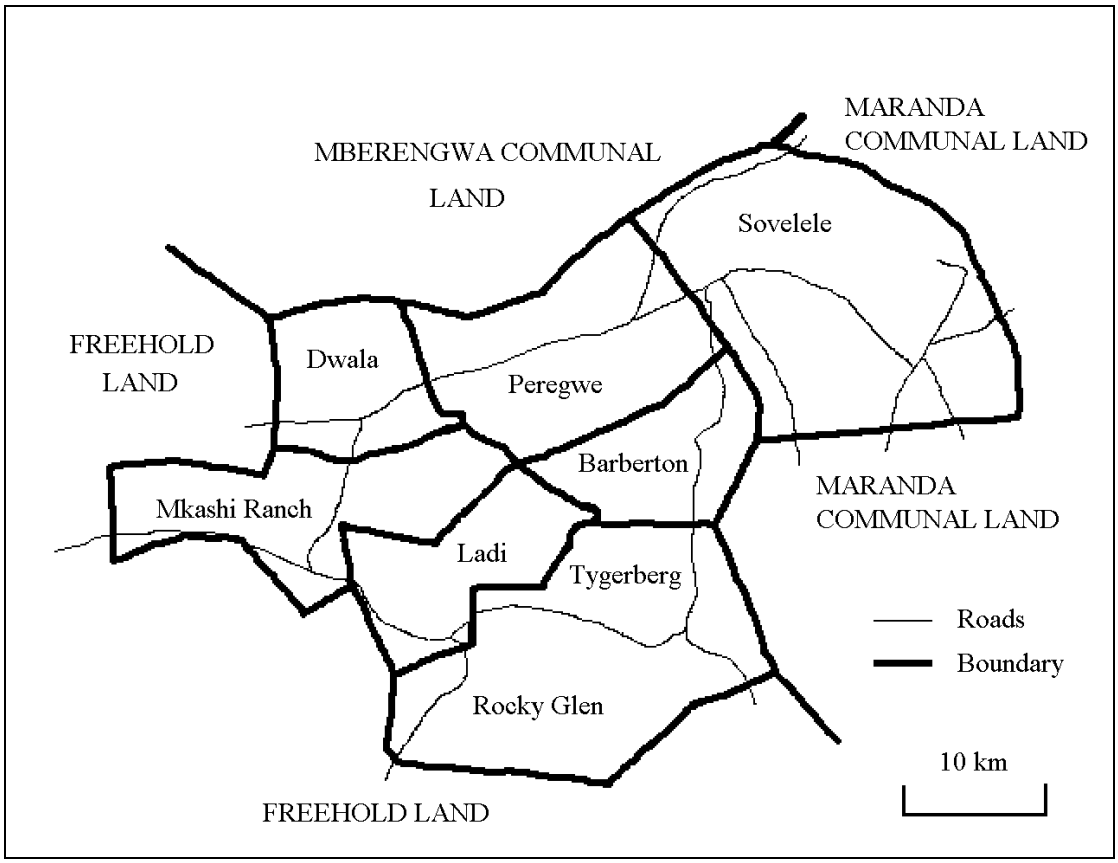

Figure E.1. A Map of Bubiana Conservancy

Reintroduction of species which had gone extinct or had been reduced to low numbers is undertaken within the Conservancy, provided that the species are compatible with ranching and that founder populations can be made large enough to constitute viable breeding groups. The constitution recognised the importance of perimeter game fencing with limited game fencing within the Conservancy to avoid the fragmentation of populations and likely inbreeding problems. Species with narrow habitat preferences need to be able to move seasonally between areas that are temporarily suitable for them.[1]

Bubiana Conservancy was formed as a co-operative management agreement based on shared conservation values with shared economic costs and benefits in order to ensure the sustainability of the benefits.

"It is appropriate to state emphatically that Bubiana is not an area isolated by a high fence, behind which wild animals reign supreme at the expense of commercial development, growth and employment. There has been no policy of 'cattle out.'... Bubiana is a fully integrated model of diverse productivity at all levels possible, encompassing a multi-species approach as opposed to the risks and weaknesses of a monoculture. ... [Wildlife] does not have to replace livestock altogether but rather complements and augments with agriculture, fully utilising all available resources. Wildlife completes the production spectrum leniently capitalising on resources that

1 Bubiana Conservancy Constitution

would otherwise be wasted at the expense of those few resources being over exploited to collapse. Wildlife should be seen as inter-row cropping as opposed to replacing the crop".[2]

The Beit Trust offered funding via the WWF for the 216 km fence. The fence cost Z$1.1m and its funding was conditional on the stocking of the Conservancy with game of equivalent value by the ranchers. 54 elephant and 16 hippo were brought from the lowveld during the 1992 drought. 25 black rhino were translocated to Bubiana because of poaching pressure in the Zambezi Valley, and along with individuals moved from private land, the total number of black rhino translocated to the Conservancy was 38. Protection of the black rhino is expensive. There are 51 game scouts armed with radios[3] and managed by a conservator. Each pair of scouts is based in, and controls, a 5,000 ha block, daily monitoring the rhino at an annual cost of between Z$400,000 and Z$450,000 in 1997.

The Bubiana Conservancy is more isolated from adjacent wildlife areas than either Save or Chiredzi. However, 600,000 acres of adjacent land to the south of the Conservancy (formerly Leibigs cattle ranch) has been bought by a consortium and renamed the Bubye River Conservancy. 50,000 acres of this area has been double fenced and stocked with a breeding nucleus of around 100 wild buffalo. An upmarket 8-12 bed lodge on the Bubye River is almost complete.[4] Other commercial ranches in the Mwenezi-Beitbridge area may choose to follow the same model of wildlife development, as may neighbouring Communal Land communities through CAMPFIRE projects. There has been some discussion of the possibility of the Tuli Safari Area being combined with some ranches (Sentinel ranch) and Communal Land to develop a wildlife complex on the Zimbabwe side of the Limpopo. This might be connected with adjoining wildlife areas in Botswana and South Africa.[5]

The members of the Bubiana Conservancy recognise that [6]

- Their land based production model has to be compatible with national objectives.

- Indirect employment opportunities have to be created in the surrounding areas in order to raise the standard of living through fish ponding, ostrich raising, crocodile breeding and tourist lodge operation

- Involvement of the local communities in the Bubiana Conservancy through
- the provision of meat at affordable prices
- involvement in Bubiana businesses
- investment opportunities and membership alongside existing members
- Bubiana Conservancy acting as a catalyst, stimulating sustainable development in the neighbouring communal areas

2 The Bubiana Maxim speech by Ken Drummond, Chair of Bubiana Conservancy, 5 January 1996.
3 although anti-poaching firearms were donated by the Beit Trust, they were confiscated by DNPWLM.
4 Guy Hilton-Barber, pers. comm.
5 de la Harpe 1994, p.21.
6 The Bubiana Maxim speech by Ken Drummond, Chair of Bubiana Conservancy, 5 January 1996.

- Resource management is essential in order to halt degradation and to rehabilitate the land by
- developing vegetative cover to restore the soils.
- increasing the biomass and the diversity of ungulates in order to maximise the use of the variety of grasses without overgrazing.
- Managing the Bubiana Conservancy on sound scientific principles

- Economic viability should not be sought at the cost of sustainability. A high density of domestic animals will make a quick return but at the expense of the long-term viability of the soils. Excessive capture or hunting of game will damage species viability.

E.1.1 Physical Features

Most of the Conservancy lies between 700m and 800m altitude. A large zone extending through the southern, central and eastern parts of the Conservancy is characterised by spectacular large dwalas and castle hills comprised of granitic gneisses. The highest of these domes is Silangwe, at 1,092m. This zone has an appearance similar to the Matobo National Park, but is more arid.

Along the northern margin of the Conservancy is a large schist belt forming a ridge (Mweza Range) which rises to about 1,100m. Adding to the hilly northern margin is a series of exfoliated batholithic granite whalebacks (e.g. Gaha mountain, 1,208m). The schist belt extends into the western extremity of the Conservancy in the form of a low ridge.

Soils are similar to those of the Save Valley Conservancy, being mainly siallitic and fersiallitic, medium-textured and shallow to moderately deep.

The Conservancy is drained by several large rivers, including the Bubiana, Bubye and Mwenezi. These often follow the angular faults of the underlying gneisses. Underground water availability is poor, but the Conservancy is well supplied with surface water. Several medium-sized dams have been constructed on the rivers, forming artificial lakes.

E.1.2 Climate

Mean daily maximum temperatures are 30^{o}C-31^{o}C in October to January (but maximum temperatures are sometimes above 40^{o}C), with mean daily minimum temperatures being 5^{o}C-8^{o}C in mid-year. Mean annual rainfall is 400-500 mm, but this is highly variable; during the 1991/92 drought it was under 150 mm. Perceptions of changes in rainfall have been important in changing attitudes to land use. In the 1970's annual average rainfall was around 500 mm per year, in the 1990's 200 mm per year is regarded as good. Bubiana does not have significant underground water.

E.1.3 Vegetation

Much of the vegetation of Bubiana is typical of the lowveld, as described for Save Valley below. *Colophospermum mopane* woodland is widespread in the granulitic

areas. This low diversity community gives way to a more mixed *Acacia-Combretum* savanna bushveld on the more mafic enclaves and on the schist velds where the soils are redder and heavier. The scanty grass cover of the mopane areas increases in the mixed bushveld and includes *Schmidtia pappophoroides, Themeda triandra, Digitaria* sp. and *Panicum maximum* in well-managed areas; overgrazed localities have more pioneer species such as *Tragus berteronianus, Enneapogon cenchroides, Aristida* sp. and *Urochloa* sp..

A mesophytic sandveld community (similar to that in Save Valley) is widespread on paler, sandier soils overlying more acidic granulites and granites, with *Terminalia sericea, Peltaphorum africanum, Cassia singueana, Combretum* sp., *Strychnos* sp., *Dichrostachys cinerea* and *Sclerocarya birrea* being distinctive elements. Where favourable moisture conditions exist, particularly on the granites in the north, *Julbernadia globiflora, Burkea africana, Pseudolachnostylis maprouneiflolia* and sometimes *Brachystegia boehmii* also occur. The major grasses are *Eragostis* sp., *Urochloa* sp., *Digitaria* sp. and *Aristida* sp., with *Hyparrhenia* and *Heteropogon* sp. in the less disturbed areas. Along the large river are gallery communities similar to those described for the Chiredzi River but with less understorey thicket.

In addition to these communities, and as one of the more unique features of the Bubiana Conservancy, there are patches of dense forest in the rubble-filled valleys of the granitic dwalas and castle hills. The soils in these valleys have a high humus content and receive considerable runoff from the rock surfaces, thus allowing the growth of trees, including some evergreens, which are not normally found in the arid lowveld. A full species list of these forest patches has not been compiled but would undoubtedly be extensive. In addition to the valley forests, the broken granitic areas have typical kopje vegetation in which *Brachystegia glaucescens* is common.

Biomass production has been in a downward spiral, exacerbated by soil damage, overgrazing and the changes in climate. This has brought sheet and gully erosion along fence lines and at water points and encroachment of communities of woody species, with grasslands being replaced by mopane woodland.

E.1.4 Fauna

The typical influences of cattle ranching on wildlife in the lowveld have applied in the Bubiana Conservancy. Firstly, eradication by ranchers of 'problem species', and secondly, habitat degradation under cattle management[7] and competition from cattle, leading to the loss of selective grazing species. There are indications that these influences have been somewhat less destructive in Bubiana than is the case elsewhere. Good numbers of leopard and hyaena, as well as a viable breeding group of cheetah, have survived. Sable, as a species whose decline is indicative of veld degradation, were exterminated, but with reduced cattle pressure there is a strong possibility of a come-back of this reintroduced species. The survival of predators can be a negative influence; as it appears that introduced populations of sable and other antelope will

7 The heavy red clay and sodic soils are fragile in structure and unable to withstand the heavy impact of animals in cattle mono-culture. Hoof action is as important as what the animals eat. The soils cap easily and can overheat.

have to be above some threshold size in order for their annual reproductive increment to exceed losses to predators. In January 1996 there were two lion within the Conservancy.

As with the other conservancies, there have been recent re-introductions of several species, including black rhino (38), elephant (54), hippo (16), and sable. There is also a contract to reintroduce nyala (see below). 14 species of plains game occur in total, along with healthy populations of leopard, cheetah and hyaena . The reintroduced elephant have been joined by an external group which moved onto the Conservancy, swelling the population to c.79. With young there may be now over 100 elephant on the Conservancy. The hippo population has also expanded to around 20 individuals.

Species	Estimated	Population Size
	1992	1996
Bushpig	185	276
Cheetah	89	91
Duiker	650	875
Eland	570	1130
Elephant	-	79
Giraffe	149	495
Grysbok	110	170
Hippo	-	20
Hyaena	-	-
Impala	9900	9300
Klipspringer	350	625
Kudu	915	1630
Leopard	302	345
Steenbok	220	750
Warthog	575	1090
Waterbuck	149	315
Wildebeest	221	880
Zebra	560	1110

Table E.2. Wildlife population estimates.

Bubiana is in an area free of foot-and-mouth enabling ranchers to introduce foot-and-mouth free buffalo to run alongside cattle. A nucleus of 24 FMD-free buffalo was received and is herded and held in a boma until fencing and permits are finalised. With 100% calving, this nucleus has expanded to 52 individuals. 8 young bulls have had to be separated from the main herd. In Bubiana the ranchers will continue to run cattle alongside the wildlife.

The 1991/92 drought did not lead to drastic declines in wildlife, due largely to early destocking of cattle. Subsistence poaching is rife on properties which abut onto Mberengwa Communal Land (especially Sovelele Ranch) and this pressure, coupled with a consequent lack of restocking, leads to reduced wildlife densities in the northern part of the Conservancy.

Bubiana supports over 390 species of birds, including many rare raptors and waterfowl. The artificial lakes attract numerous species, including heron, stork, geese and duck. The total species list of birds for the Conservancy is still growing.

E.1.5 Tourism Development

At present most of the commercial wildlife-based activity of the Conservancy is focused around trophy-hunting. Hunting concessions are run on a ranch by ranch basis, despite the fact that it was recognised that collective wildlife management would be more effective than individual wildlife management and that collectively the landowners could offer a more attractive area and range of animals to sports hunters.

Ranch	Tourism Development	Jobs	Sport Hunting
Dwala			+
Ladi			+
Barberton	Barberton Lodge, 4 chalets (8 beds) Gandahari tent-under-thatch camp, 4 chalets Biza Horse Safaris	17 02 03	-
Mkashi			+
Peregwe	10 bed 3 room Fishing Camp	3	+
Drummond Ranches: Tygerberg & Rocky Glen			+
Sovelele			+

Table E.3. Tourism Development and Activities in BC.

Non-consumptive tourism is seen as an expanding market and the landowners felt that the concept of the Conservancy would attract green tourism. They envisaged 100 beds on the Conservancy in about 10 lodges. Barberton Lodge, with eight beds, was opened by Guy and Myles Hilton-Barber in January 1993. Situated only one hour's drive from the Beitbridge to Bulawayo road, there are four individual 'stone-under-thatch' twin bedded suites, with *en suite* facilities and private patios. There is a dining and bar area, a gazebo plunge pool and a swimming pool. It is marketed through the 'Top of the Range' group. Barberton has rock art and grain bin sites and can offer walking, climbing, horse riding, fishing and game drives.

Biza Safaris, a horse-riding operation, moved to Barberton Lodge in July 1995 from Chiredzi River Conservancy. They have purchased a 49% share in the lodge, and have 12 horses available for clients to use. Organised horseback trails are also available, and a small tent under thatch camp is being constructed 5 km from the lodge to accommodate groups desiring a more adventurous experience.

During 1995, construction began on a fishing camp beside a dam on Peregwe Ranch. Since its opening on May 3rd 1996 it has been very successful, achieving around 40% bed occupancy. Two more dams with fishing camps are now planned for construction on Peregwe.

Bubiana has many of the ingredients to make it a successful tourist destination. Whilst it lacks high population numbers of many species (and, of the "big five", it has no lion as yet), it has some of the best scenery in the country and a number of alternatives to wildlife viewing. It suffers, along with the rest of the lowveld operations, in not being known as a tourist destination. However, the increasing popularity of Barberton Lodge and the developments on Peregwe are helping to publicise the Conservancy as a tourist destination.

E.2 ECONOMICS, LAND USE AND DEVELOPMENT

E.2.1 Expenditure

The contribution of the individual landowners to the financial cost of operating the Conservancy is calculated as a percentage based on the acreage within the Conservancy owned by the individual. As such, a landowner with a greater acreage will contribute proportionally more than one with a smaller ranch.

The costs which are divided between landowners in this way are:

- Wildlife restocking
- Scouts wages and uniforms
- The salary, domestic staff wages and school fees for the Conservator and his family.
- Vehicle running costs (although some sponsorship assistance obtained).
- One-off costs, e.g. game counts.

E.2.1.1 Wildlife restocking

The construction of the perimeter fence surrounding Bubiana Conservancy was funded by the Beit Trust as part of their Conservancy Programme in conjunction with WWF. This funding was donated on the understanding that an equivalent amount would be spent by the Conservancy members in restocking the area with wildlife. A total of Z$2,069,000, was spent on restocking up until March 1994. In addition to this, a further Z$2,151,000 was planned to be spent up until March 1997 on restocking (see table E.4).

Species	Total Planned Restocking	Cost/Individual (Z$)	Total Cost (Z$)
Wildebeest	247	3,200	790,400
Tsessebe	375	2,000	750,000
Zebra	119	3,500	416,500
Waterbuck	30	6,500	195,000
Total			2,151,000

Table E.4. Planned Wildlife Restocking to BC, 3/94 - 3/97.

However, the DNPWLM moratorium on game capture and movement affected the progress of this reintroduction plan. In addition, it was decided to postpone some of the restocking of plains game and use the money to buy buffalo instead (see below). It is hoped that in the near future it will be possible to buy buffalo to put into Tygerberg

Ranch. The reintroduction of plains game to date is shown in Table E.5. The division of costs for the restocking is being modified to take into account the cost of restocking which was carried out on Drummond Ranch before the formation of the Conservancy.

Species	Reintroduced by 9/95	Reintroduced in early 1996	Total Restocking to date
Wildebeest	131	350	481
Tsessebe	0	0	0
Zebra	83	50	133
Waterbuck	19	6	25

Table E.5. Actual Wildlife Restocking to Bubiana Conservancy, 3/94 - 3/97.

E.2.1.2 Scouts

A total of 51 scouts are employed by Bubiana Conservancy at a monthly wage of Z$435, with bonuses for convictions. The scouts are recruited locally and vetted by ZRP, they are then attested as A-role reserve police. Although employed and deployed by individual ranchers, they fall under the jurisdiction of the Conservator, who can replace and retrain any scout across the entire Conservancy. The number employed by each ranch is calculated by acreage (see Table E.6).

Ranch	Number of Scouts	Monthly Wage Bill (Z$)
Sovelele	14	6,090
Drummond Ranches	12	5,220
Peregwe	6	2,610
Mkashi	6	2,610
Barberton	4	1,740
Ladi	4	1,740
Dwala	4	1,740
Bubiana scout	1	435
Total	**51**	**22,185**

Table E.6. Cost of scouts employed by each ranch.

E.2.2 Revenue

At the outset, the members of Bubiana Conservancy envisaged income from trophy hunting (eventually to include all the "big five" except rhino), venison marketing (mainly from impala), commercial and sport fishing (there being a dozen dams with more planned), live game sales, ostrich and crocodile farming, taxidermy, hide tanning, curios and tourism. The following is a breakdown of current enterprises undertaken by individual members.

E.2.2.1 Hunting

Each landowner is free to operate his own hunting concession upon his own land. Game population sizes from which quotas are calculated were originally based on landowner estimates, although Conservancy-wide game counts are now being undertaken. The quota of trophies available on each ranch is decided at a joint meeting of the members. The quota may then be sold by the landowner if he wishes. At present there are hunting operations on all ranches except for Barberton, which

decided to cease hunting activities in 1997. The current sustainable trophy hunting business uses only old non-breeding animals amounting to only 2% of the wildlife population.

Safari hunting in Bubiana Conservancy is based upon leopard, with a variety of plains game also available. Operations on Drummond Ranches grossed Z$450,000 in 1994 with 3-5 leopards available. However, Barberton did not exceeded Z$100,000 in 1995 with 2 leopard and an option available on a third, whilst Ladi only grosses Z$40-50,000 per year from hunting. If buffalo herds were large enough to permit hunting, then more profitable 14 day hunts could be marketed.

All revenue from hunting accrues to the landowner, except for that generated by the consumption of "pooled game", which is divided between the landowners. Pooled game is that which has been reintroduced to the Conservancy as part of the restocking exercise. However, since most of the restocking has supplemented existing populations, rather than reintroducing locally extinct species, pooled game represents very little of the investment in wildlife made by the members. Only sable are considered pooled game (although buffalo will be too, when introduced), and it will be a long time before any quota can be taken from the population. Thus, landowners can only recoup the cost of restocking by utilising what exists on their own property. Under this system, equitable returns will only be realised if wildlife distributes itself evenly across the Conservancy, which is an unrealistic assumption. In practice, the largest financial contributor has the smallest hunting quota.

A fairer arrangement would be to offer the entire Conservancy as a single hunting concession, with the concessionaire paying a percentage of profits to each landowner in proportion to individual acreage. Under this system, all wildlife would be pooled, and all members contributing financially to the restocking would receive revenue, rather than only those members on whose land the wildlife occurs.

E.2.2.2 Tourism

Barberton is the only ranch with an established photographic tourist lodge, whilst Peregwe has a fishing camp.

Barberton

The Barbers estimate that a lodge needs 5000 acres plus river frontage and that the construction cost is Z$750,000 which can be recouped in five years at 40-50% bed occupancy. The other landowners in the Conservancy have not yet risked investing in non-consumptive tourism. The case study of Barberton lodge is presented at the end of this chapter.

Peregwe

Approximately the same number of people were employed in 1995 as before the drought, although the number of cattle had been reduced by 53%.

A fishing camp was opened in May 1996 with three rooms and ten beds, employing 3 people and a driver. The cost of building a medium size lodge is put at Z$65,000. No

materials were purchased from outside of Zimbabwe for the construction of the Lodge. The cost in food and fuel of running the lodge is put at Z$100 per tourist per night. Marketing is by word-of-mouth. Three people are employed.

The fishing camp is doing very well. Clients are primarily local fishermen from the Bulawayo area, with some South Africans. Plans now exist for the development of one or two other dams with associated fishing camps on Peregwe.

Peregwe had a quota of three hunts in 1996.

E.2.2.3 Cattle

Most of the landowners are running some cattle on their land, but well below pre-drought levels. Drummond Ranches breed only pedigree stock (a stud herd of Brahman cattle) at a very conservative density due to the constraints of drought and degradation.

In the absence of fully developed wildlife utilisation and tourism, cattle are the only means for landowners to generating revenue from their properties. Barberton project a gross income of Z$600,000 from cattle in 1996. The increase in the market price for cattle over the past couple of years is a further incentive for members to continue to stock cattle rather than accelerate the development of wildlife-based activities.

E.2.2.4 Other sources

Only the owners of Barberton and Drummond Ranches are entirely dependent on their land within the Conservancy for income. All the other members have substantial interests outside the Conservancy. These include abattoirs and butcheries, as well as other farms.

Drummond Ranches operate a 100 ha irrigation scheme *within* the Conservancy, growing a variety of market produce. They employ 100 people in the irrigation scheme and saw a return on their investment within one season. Peregwe has an ostrich breeding unit for export. However, a national ban on ostrich exports due to a disease outbreak has slowed the development of this business.

The Conservancy has the potential to produce substantial quantities of fish and game for commercial offtake. However, an independent consultant concluded that a combined fish and venison cropping operational would only be marginally viable in the short term, with an estimated net annual Conservancy income of Z$450,000[8]. Instead, individuals have gone ahead with their own impala cropping.

Historically there has been no successful commercial fisheries operations in Zimbabwe, except that of kapenta in Lake Kariba. However, with time and investment it may become a possibility for the Conservancy. The dams in the Conservancy currently have too many barbel for a commercial operation, and some members have decided to operate individual sport fishing enterprises on their own

8 Guy Hilton-Barber, pers. comm.

dams. Peregwe took 2 tonnes of fish, of a potential sustainable yield of 4 tonnes, out of one dam in association with its sport fishing operation.

E.2.3 Conflicts over expenditure, management and development

E.2.3.1 Development

The initial goals of the Conservancy, in terms of investment and development, have not been met. It was intended that an outside investor be found to inject Z$30 million, the equivalent of half the value of the Conservancy as calculated in 1991, to develop the concept. These funds were to be divided between restocking of wildlife, tourism development and rural development in surrounding communal lands (see Table E.7). 100 beds in up to 10 lodges throughout the Conservancy were envisaged, together with the development of a number of cottage industries associated with wildlife utilisation.

Amount (Z$)	Purpose
15 million	Wildlife Restocking
10 million	Tourism Development[9]
5 million	Rural Development

Table E.7. Proposed use of investor funding

A number of factors have contributed to the lack of progress in the development of the Conservancy.

- A lack of commitment to approaching investors
- Unwillingness to part with autonomy over property
- A negative attitude towards tourists and tourism
- Scepticism over the financial viability of tourism
- The existence of financial interests outside the Conservancy

There is certainly scepticism over the financial viability of tourism; it is felt that no one has satisfactorily proved that wildlife utilisation can work (Drummond, *pers comm.*). It is generally perceived that the Z$750,000 needed to build a lodge could not be recouped in 5 years. The early evidence from Barberton, achieving only 20% bed occupancy until recently, was not encouraging to the other landowners.

However, Barberton cost Z$450,000 and by the end of 1995 it had recouped its construction costs. This is over a period of only two years operation. Recent bed occupancy figures are much improved. So, financially, it appears that Barberton could in fact be very successful. In addition, its growing profile will mean that the lead in time for other lodges on the Conservancy to become profitable will be less.

Besides the financial question, however, there appears to be a negative attitude towards tourism, and the idea of allowing tourists to roam over what is essentially private property. All the landowners are individualists with some reluctance to relinquish autonomy over their land. This has led to objections not only to having

9 100 beds planned.

tourists on their land, but to inviting investors into Bubiana Conservancy, and undertaking joint ventures to develop their assets. All except Barberton and Drummond Ranches have outside interests, which not only provide an income, but also compete with Bubiana Conservancy in terms of the investment of time, effort and interest by each member.

E.2.3.2 Restocking and Wildlife Management

There has been some debate over the direction of the wildlife restocking exercise. One side advocates reintroducing species that have gone locally extinct, whilst the other sees more value in boosting the existing populations of species that are close to the minimum population threshold. Whilst the former is of unquestionable conservation value, the latter strategy will strengthen the genetic and demographic viability of existing populations, and accelerate population growth towards a size at which sustainable offtake can commence.

The debate is most sharply focused over the issue of buffalo. A suggestion has been made to fence off Tygerberg Ranch and stock it with 100 (increasing to 500) FMD-free buffalo. Over a period of 15 years the population would double and quotas for hunting would generate substantial revenue. The alternative is to spend an equivalent amount on mixed wildlife restocking over the entire Conservancy, which would boost populations of a number of species and increase quotas over a shorter time period.

There is opposition to the latter on the grounds that the substantial hyaena population in the Conservancy, emanating principally from Drummond Ranches, is consuming a significant proportion of restocked game. There has also been opposition to the former on the grounds that fencing off 20,000 acres of the Conservancy would be against the constitution and detrimental to the rhino protection programme. However, since this only represents c.5% of the area of the Conservancy, it is unlikely to affect the rhinos greatly. Since two sides of Tygerberg Ranch are already externally gamefenced, the investment to fence it entirely would be reduced. Currently, funding earmarked for plains game restocking is being held with a view to restocking with buffalo instead, should the DNPWLM ban on movements be relaxed in the near future.

E.3 CONSERVATION AND WILDLIFE MANAGEMENT

E.3.1 Cattle

The land use policy on Bubiana Conservancy is one of ‘intercropping’, by which cattle are maintained at sustainable densities alongside wildlife as part of a multi-species production system. It is assumed that, at low stocking densities, cattle do not interfere with most wildlife species, except for some sensitive species such as sable. In the absence of buffalo, cattle are performing the ecological role of bulk grazers, which is important for maintaining ecosystem functioning.

Cattle on two properties on Bubiana Conservancy have been herded since 1995, because of the hyaena problem (see below). There are a number of benefits from herding cattle:

- The animals become docile
- Bull power is doubled
- The herd is protected from predation and theft
- Calves are with their mothers 24 hours a day

A cattle herder keeps each group confined in a 3-4 ha area, which helps to minimise game disturbance. However, the presence of the herder may itself create a disturbance factor. The only conflict with game may be at waterpoints, where cattle tend to muddy the water; some game species will not use these disturbed waterpoints. In an effort to eliminate this problem, cattle on Barberton are only watered at specially constructed concrete troughs.[10]

E.3.2 Game Numbers

Game number estimates have historically been based on estimates by the landowners, and hunting quotas have been calculated from these. Norman Cooks, the Conservator, undertook the first game count in October 1995.

E.3.3 Rhino

The number of rhino increased from 38 to 53 in August 1995, to 61 in January 1997, the best recruitment in the country. It is suspected that there are now second generation Bubiana rhino being born on the Conservancy. The cost of maintaining the rhinos to the Bubiana Conservancy members is Z$400,000 per year.

Both Bubiana and Save are considered optimal black rhino areas and have achieved the best recruitment rates with minimal mortality (Leader-Williams, 1995). It is possible that some animals may be moved to Bubiana Conservancy from the Midlands Conservancy where less success has been achieved. However, since there have been no poaching incidents in Zimbabwe over the last 2-3 years, it is possible that animals may be moved back into IPZs within the PWLE. A recent meeting of rhino experts was held in Harare to evaluate the National Rhino Protection Programme.

E.3.4 Nyala

Barberton has entered into a contract with a Zimbabwean endangered species breeding organisation, the Tikkie Hywood Trust, to introduce nyala to Bubiana Conservancy. Around 15 females, calves and bulls, owned by the trust and held on a ranch near Triangle, are to be moved to the 1800 acre buffalo paddock on Barberton prior to release into the Conservancy once the group reaches a threshold size of 30-50 animals. Bomas are ready for the introduction of the animals, and feeding would continue in bomas after release. The first beneficiary of the progeny would be Barberton, after which the population would be considered as pooled game. Nyala have a local market value of Z$30,000 per individual.

E.3.5 Wildlife Recruitment and Hyaena

There is some concern that the substantial hyaena population on Bubiana Conservancy is having a significant impact on recruitment of restocked game

10 Guy Hilton-Barber, pers. comm.

populations. In the past, hyaena have taken a toll on cattle on ranchland, but some cattle are now herded and kraaled at night, so that it has become more difficult for hyaena to prey on them. It is suggested that the predators are now concentrating on the increased game populations in the Conservancy, and members are justifiably concerned that a lot of money is being spent for very little gain in populations because of the hyaena.

Gus Mills, a predator expert from Kruger NP in South Africa, was invited to come and assess the hyaena population and its threat to the wildlife restocking exercise. His opinion was that, without the "soft option" of cattle, the hyaena population would decrease in the area, rather than continue to sustain itself, at its present size, on the wildlife. Predator populations are usually dependent on the population density of their prey, and a depauperate wildlife population together with the removal of cattle as prey items would tend to cause a decrease in predator population size. However, any lag in response will result in further decrease in prey populations in the short term. This will be unacceptable when prey populations are being artificially supplemented at considerable financial cost. It can be argued, therefore, that in a managed environment, predator control may be necessary in the short term. In 1995 Barberton reported losses of 52 cattle and Peregwe 72 at an average value of Z$3,000 per animal.

A bounty of Z$3,000 was offered for about six months in 1995, from Bubiana Conservancy funds, for each hyaena destroyed. This is a fairly haphazard arrangement which results in a lot of money being spent for little gain, since the numbers actually destroyed are negligible. It would have been more profitable to employ a professional to reduce the population significantly in a short space of time and then leave it to reach a natural balance with ungulate populations. However, since there is disagreement over the impact that hyaena are actually having, a joint strategy for dealing with hyaena has not been reached. It has now fallen to individual landowners to control their hyaena as they see fit. This has resulted in some ranchers baiting with poison, to the considerable objection of other members who are concerned about the effect of poison on non-target species. However, in the short term this appears to have had some success, with Peregwe ranch reporting no cattle losses since early 1996.[11] It is believed that there have been no cattle taken from the other ranches in Bubiana Conservancy either during this time. However, the baiting solution is likely only to provide temporary relief, since whilst it deters other hyaena it does not reduce the population significantly.

An alternative solution would be to protect ungulate populations which are subject to restocking investment. A semi-protected game breeding programme could be employed, with the provision of a fenced area within the Conservancy, where predators could be kept out. This would have a positive effect on recruitment rates. However, it is against the constitution to fence any area off, since it decreases the area available to the black rhino. The only enclosure within Bubiana Conservancy is a 1800 acre paddock used to herd the FMD free buffalo in isolation from surrounding cattle.

11 Lyn Abbott, pers. comm.

E.3.6 Patrolling and Anti-poaching

An undercover report on scout efficiency on Barberton in 1995 yielded depressing conclusions. Scouts were not undertaking patrols when they were supposed to, and were reporting falsely. In addition, scouts and other employees were involved in small scale poaching activities within Bubiana Conservancy.

A tightening of procedures has been introduced at Barberton in an effort to improve efficiency and eradicate poaching. However, it is recognised that motivation and commitment can only be instilled in scouts if they perceive that their contribution is adequately rewarded, and this demands improved wages. The current scout wage is close to the national minimum wage; with higher wages, better performance may be witnessed.

Patrolling has undoubtedly improved since the appointment of the conservator. On Barberton the scouts are called upon daily to locate rhino for tourists to view, and this provides a regular check upon their activities. However, it is felt that another undercover evaluation may be due to ensure that improvements are widespread.

E.4 RELATIONSHIPS WITH SURROUNDING COMMUNITIES

E.4.1 Introduction

66% of the boundary of Bubiana Conservancy is either Communal Land or resettlement areas. To the north is the Mberengwa Communal Land, whilst to the east and south-east is the Maranda Communal Land (Figure E.1). Whilst Bubiana Conservancy falls within Gwanda District of Matabeleland South Province, parts of both Mberengwa and Maranda Communal Lands fall within Masvingo Province.

The lands around Bubiana Conservancy have a relatively high population density (see Table E.8). Current land use practices based on conventional agriculture has failed to sustain the population in Communal Lands. Environmental damage has led to severe soil erosion. As a result of two major droughts since 1983, cattle numbers have been significantly reduced. This may have decreased grazing pressure, but the lack of draft power for cultivation has led to food shortages. Social problems have arisen from the reliance on government food aid (Sparrow, 1994).

Ward	Population Density (people/km^2)
Mushandirapamwe	45-54
Mahlebadza	35-44
Chingechuru	>65
Chegato	55-64

Table E.8. Population densities in wards in Mweza Hills, Mberengwa Communal Land (Sparrow, 1994).

E.4.2 Existing Opportunities and Initiatives

Members have begun to establish communications with rural communities abutting the boundaries of their own properties. Pairs of ranches (Barberton/Sovelele,

Peregwe/Ladi, Mkashi/Dwala, and Drummond Ranches) each focus on a different ward. A number of initiatives have been developed to generate benefits for the surrounding communities. These and other potential projects are discussed below.

E.4.2.1 Employment

The Bubiana Conservancy employs some 400 people from the adjacent communal lands, with training in semi-skilled operations.

170 people are employed on Drummond Ranches, 95% of which are from the Maranda Communal Land. A total of Z$45,000 in wages flows into Maranda Communal Land every month. Taking account of seasonal employment, at least Z$400,000 is spent on wages every year.[12] 80% of these employees work on the irrigation scheme on Rocky Glen. Cattle ranching does not employ a great number of people (± 15 per 20,000 acres of ranch, and numbers employed in hunting operations are negligible.

E.4.2.2 Subsidised Food Supply

The carcasses from trophy hunting remain the property of the landowner. For the 1994 and 1995 hunting seasons, meat from giraffe and zebra carcasses has been given to a rural councillor to sell to villagers. The profits are then placed in trust accounts (see below).

Several tonnes of venison is made available to neighbouring communities as a donation, per season. In 1996, a total of over 18,000 kg was supplied free of charge (Table E.9). In addition, the supply of maize to Maranda Communal Land and areas to the north began in November 1994. Bubiana Conservancy met the cost of transport, and the maize was sold at cost price plus Z$6 per 50 kg sack. This profit was placed in the trust accounts for each area.

Species	Number of individual carcasses donated	Approximate mass of venison (kg)
Zebra	24	4,320
Giraffe	12	10,800
Wildebeest	4	600
Eland	6	2,400
TOTAL		18,120

Table E.9. Venison donated by BC to the communal lands in 1996.

Thatch grass and timber has also been supplied by the Conservancy for construction projects in the Communal Lands.

12 1995 estimates.

E.4.2.3 Clothing

A substantial amount of used clothing was donated to the Conservancy, by the charity SAVE Australia, to distribute in the surrounding communities. These clothes are being sold at very low prices, in Maranda Communal Land, with surplus given to shopkeepers for subsequent sale. Revenues generated in this way were also placed in the trust account. A further batch of clothing is awaited for distribution in the other two communal areas to the north.

E.4.2.4 Trust Funds

Accounts have been opened in the name of each of three surrounding areas, and are held in trust by the Conservancy. Any revenue gained from the sale of meat, grain or clothing, as described above, is placed in the relevant account. When a significant amount has been raised in this way, a committee from the area in question will decide how best to spend the money. A total of Z$38,500 has been accumulated as of August 1995 (see Table E.10).

Community	Date Account Opened	Amount Raised (Z$)	Source
Maranda Communal Land	December 1994	21,000	Meat Sales
Mberengwa Communal Land	March 1995	14,000	Meat and Grain Sales
Chingawa	March 1995	3,500	Grain Sales
Total		38,500	

Table E.10. Amount held in trust accounts communities surrounding Bubiana Conservancy, August 1995.

E.4.2.5 Dams and Boreholes

A small dam has been built in the Mberengwa Communal Land north of Peregwe by the Abbotts, a water reticulation scheme has also been built there. Conservancy members have carried out free repairs to boreholes in the Mlelzi area of the Maranda Communal Lands.

Finance is being sought to construct a dam in Maranda Communal Land which will supply water to the community as well as to the Conservancy. However, as of July 1995 a number of administrative obstacles still needed to be overcome, besides obtaining adequate funding for the operation. Estimated cost of Masambiri Dam Z$150,000.

E.4.2.6 Environmental Education

An initiative is being developed to produce small books for children, teaching them about the environment and the role of the Conservancy.

E.4.2.7 Local Enterprise Development

Interest free loans have been given to indigenous businessmen to establish their own businesses. Breeding bulls have been loaned to Communal Land farmers to improve the quality of their stock, and 80 oxen were lent to assist with ploughing. The Manuchi

Dam offers considerable opportunities for tourism development and irrigation potential.

E.4.3 Future Developments - The Sparrow Report

The above initiatives are all supported by the resources of individual members of the Conservancy. As yet there have been no distribution of the benefits of the Conservancy itself, since it has not yet progressed far enough to provide such benefits. With this in mind, a consultant was employed by the Beit Trust/WWF Conservancy Programme to identify and develop proposals for community development projects associated with Bubiana Conservancy (Sparrow, 1994).

The terms of reference for the consultancy were to identify and help promote projects at the interface between Bubiana Conservancy and the Communal Land communities. Such projects should show a clear conservation and development linkage in fostering mutually beneficial relationships between the two parties, in giving the communities some economic interest in the wildlife industry in Bubiana Conservancy, and thereby hopefully securing their co-operation in protecting the wildlife resource.

The types of project to be considered included;

- The possibility of inclusion of an area of the Mweza Range, in Mberengwa Communal Land, within the Conservancy, according to a CAMPFIRE-type concession agreement.
- The possible introduction of wildlife (e.g. buffalo) into the Conservancy from PWLE, with a proportion of the animals becoming the property of communities in Communal lands adjacent to Bubiana Conservancy. Revenues from trophy hunting would accrue to these communities, with the possible deduction of the value of any animals proven to have been poached by members of the recipient community.
- Schemes for the organised distribution of game meat produced in Bubiana Conservancy, through safari hunting or cropping, to local communities. The use of entrepreneurs in the Communal Lands to market the venison would hopefully induce them to stop buying from poachers.
- Co-operative Communal Land ventures which would supply vegetables, eggs, soft furnishings, curios and other items required for the tourism operations in Bubiana Conservancy
- Opportunities for "cultural tourism" whereby tourists visiting Bubiana Conservancy are shown facets of life in the Communal lands.

Two target areas were identified during the consultancy. Firstly, wards in the Mweza Hills area of Mberengwa Communal Land which have a common boundary with the northern border of Bubiana Conservancy which could be developed into a buffer zone or special development area. Secondly, Mlelezi ward in the Maranda Communal Land to the south of Bubiana Conservancy, where the local councillor and chief have been working on a number of existing initiatives (see above).

Initial inquiries identified the major problem facing any development projects to be the lack of an adequate communication channel between Bubiana Conservancy and the surrounding communities. Part of the problem is the cross-provincial boundary

between Bubiana Conservancy and the majority of its neighbours, such that standard official channels of communication at district and provincial levels are ineffective. In addition, mistrust has grown in areas where the population perceive the Conservancy to be a negative factor, associated with electric fences and anti-poaching patrols. These areas are those most associated with subsistence poaching and where development initiatives have yet to be implemented.

To be successful, members of the Conservancy must build on existing initiatives where communication links have been established. In Mlelezi Ward, very positive relations have been established between Bubiana Conservancy and ward councillors and traditional leaders. This area has already received benefits from meat sales. This sort of initiative needs to be developed in other surrounding communities to foster more positive attitudes.

During participatory consultation, communities themselves identified a number of initiatives that would most benefit them. These included;

- The provision of water at schools and clinics
- Technology transfer from Bubiana Conservancy in projects such as small-scale fish farming in dams
- Assistance with the provision of draft power
- Meat sales from hunting/cropping operations within Bubiana Conservancy

E.4.4 Discussion

Goodwill has now been generated in the surrounding communities towards Bubiana Conservancy, and the benefits of this are already being witnessed. Whilst subsistence poaching on Sovelele and the peripheries of the Conservancy has not declined, communities have requested that any poachers which are caught be returned to them to deal with in a traditional way. It is hoped that this will act as more of a deterrent than the threat of police action.

At present the Conservancy does not have the resources to fully develop its community linkage programmes. Individual initiatives are being undertaken by individual members, but only on small scale enterprises at present. The Conservancy is currently lacking a full time community liaison officer (cf. SVC and Malilangwe). This is vital for the identification and implementation of community priorities in each ward. It has also been suggested that an interface NGO be found, to which external donations can be made, and which is responsible for ensuring the correct use of funds for community development.

E.5 TOURISM CASE STUDY - BARBERTON LODGE

E.5.1 Construction

Barberton Lodge cost Z$400,000 to build in 1993, of which Z$50,000 was spent on labour. Only the deep freezers were imported, at a cost of Z$30,000.

E.5.2 Marketing

Since July 1995 Barberton Lodge has been marketed through Time for Africa (Harare and London) and Top of the Range (based at Victoria Falls). Time for Africa is the only operator to send clients throughout the year, block booking every two months, with a 60 day cancellation notice. Top of the Range is a group of ten owner-run "top of the range" lodges in Zimbabwe, which are sold to operators through a central office. This has not proved as successful as hoped, since the large variance in quality of the ten lodges makes it difficult to market them collectively. Other operators include World Archipelago and Tim Best Travel. However, an estimated 70% of Barberton's bookings are repeats or referrals.

	International (US$)	Regional (Rand)	Local[13] (Z$)
Barberton Lodge			
1994	95	350	350
1995	100	350	385
1996	150	400	400
1997	160	400	400
Gandahari Camp			
1997	100	300	300
Air transfers			
1997	US$80, return from Bulawayo		

Table E.11. Rates at Barberton Lodge[14], provisional rates for Gandahari camp, and air transfers from Bulawayo.

Since April 1995 bed occupancy rates have increased dramatically. Over 70% of bed nights for August 1995 were booked in advance, compared with a total bed occupancy of 20% in February 1995. Marketing has proved most profitable when directed at the wholesale tour operator rather than at the individual tourist. Major operators directing clients to the lodge are paid 30% commission.

E.5.2.1 Revenue and costs

The marginal cost per bed night is to some extent dependent upon the occupancy rate because of fixed costs. Annual overheads were estimated at Z$ 240,000 (Z$20,000 per month) for 1996. An occupancy of 40% results in 1168 bed nights which, at an average gross income of US$70 per bed night results in US$81,760 annual income. The marginal costs of a tourist bed night in food, alcohol and fuel is Z$240,000/1168 which equals approximately Z$205 (it was Z$184 in 1995).

13 not including 15% sales tax.

14 there ware be no seasonal price variations, since it has proved problematic to implement, and the increase in overseas clients has filled the seasonal gaps left by the Zim/S.African market.

The Lodge supplies are all purchased within Zimbabwe, but none are purchased in the local area.

Projections for Barberton based on 40-50% bed occupancy indicate that, in 1996, Z$1,200,000 could be grossed from the existing 8-bed lodge. This is twice that which could be made from cattle, and over ten times the amount that could be generated by hunting. The actual bed occupancy achieved was 40%**,** grossing approximately Z$880,000.

The Barberton Ranch hunting quota for 1996 was two leopard and plains game, worth Z$120,000. This quota was not used, and hunting will not be carried out in 1997. This is partly in response to the fears of tour operators that the presence of hunting would deter their clients. Barberton hope to be able to offer their hunting quota as live sales in future.

Activity	Projection (Z$)	Income (Z%)	% of Total Income
Cattle	600,000	600,000	40.5
Tourism	1,200,000	880,000	59.5
Hunting	100,000	0	0.0
Total	1,900,000	1,480,000	

Table E.12. Revenue projections and actual income for Barberton Ranch in 1996.

E.5.3 Visitor Activities

Many of the clients coming to Barberton in the first couple of years were special interest groups, particularly birders. Bubiana has the biggest variety of bird life in the country, with approximately 400 species recorded. This includes 60 spp which aren't supposed to be in the area. Depending on the weather guests see between 150 and 200 species in a two day trip. There is also an enormous diversity of tree species which attracts specialist groups.

For non-specialist clients, the following activities, in order of popularity, are offered at Barberton:

- Walks, including tracking rhino on foot.

Virtually every client is taken out to see black rhino. Scouts are sent to locate individuals in the early morning, and report sightings to the manager/guide, who then transports clients to within easy walking distance of the animal. In this way 2-3 different individuals can be sighted in a morning.

- Sundowner Boat trips on the Barberton Dam.

This, along with the rhino viewing, is the most popular activity. Weather permitting, most clients are taken on the dam on their first evening at the lodge. It can also be used for specialist bird watching. An alternative for the second night is a sundowner drive to the top of a nearby granite whaleback, with views across the entire Conservancy.

- Archaeological attractions

Visits to "grain bin hill", where the Kalanga tribe took refuge from Ndebele raiders. Other archaeological attractions include grave sites and San rock art.

- Horse riding.

Although Biza Safaris offer specialist horse safaris at US$150 per day, this has not been successful. However, horses are offered to clients as an early morning activity, and this has proved very popular.

The average length of stay at the lodge is 2-3 nights. A possible plan for the horse riding is a 4 night package with first and last nights at the lodge and the middle two in tented fly camps, to add a more adventurous element and allow for longer trails further from the lodge. The only problem is whether the lodge will end up remaining empty for the middle two nights, which is unacceptable, but not long enough to put other groups in. In addition, the longer specialist tours on horseback may be less marketable than simply having horses available for clients as part of the Bubiana experience. Due to the density of the bush and the nature of the terrain the horses walk, there are a few opportunities to trot; and the horses have been charged by elephant.

- Game drives.

Drives are not spectacular because of the thick bush and relatively low levels of game. However, visitors do see rhino, elephant, hippo and plains game. Barberton has built a 1,500 acre paddock around the lodge to improve the game viewing in the immediate vicinity of the lodge. In January 1996, the paddock contained one rhino, one eland, 30-40 kudu, two herds of impala totalling 50 animals, 10 klipspringer, 19 zebra and 40 buffalo. Leopard, duiker and steenbok pass through. This is a useful fill-in if other activities are not possible or clients particularly want to see game.

A popular new development has been a combined walk and drive with a surprise brunch. For example, an early morning walk to grain bin hill, followed by a game drive to a bush clearing where a picnic brunch has been prepared by lodge staff.

- Excursions to the Sandawna Emerald Mine and Communal Lands

Many clients who are flown into Barberton express an interest in the communal lands which they fly over on the boundary of Bubiana Conservancy. In addition, the lights of Sandawana emerald mine are a talking point at night at the lodge. There is sufficient interest to include visits to these sites as part of the client itinerary.

This option has not been fully developed yet, and less than 1% of clients visit Sandawana. However, it is felt that an arrangement could be made with the management of the mine for more regular visits. Along with visits to the local

community, it could become part of a '4th day' excursion after the core activities have been done.

E.5.4 Visitor Patterns

E.5.4.1 Seasonal Bed Occupancy Figures

Figures are available for total bed nights from November 1993. A breakdown of bed nights by region (Zimbabwean, South African, Overseas) is available from August 1995 (Table E.15). Annual bed occupancy rates have increased from 18% in 1993/94 to just over 40% in 1996 (Table E.13 and Figure E.2). An average bed occupancy of c.45% is projected for 1997. Overall, July - September and December are the busiest months, with January, February and June the quietest, although there is considerable variation from year to year (Table E.14 and Figure E.3).

Year	Total Bed Nights	Average Bed Occupancy (%)
1993[15]	92	18.85
1994	536	18.36
1995	1032	35.34
1996	1181	40.33

Table E.13. Average Annual Bed Occupancies, 1993-1996.

Month	Total Bed Nights, 1994-1996	Average Bed Occupancy (%)	1994	1995	1996
January	106	14.25	12.10	17.74	12.90
February	127	18.68	1.79	17.86	35.78
March	198	26.61	28.23	31.45	20.16
April	156	21.67	18.33	15.00	31.67
May	232	31.18	16.94	13.71	62.90
June	146	20.28	0.83	34.17	25.83
July	413	55.51	25.00	81.45	60.08
August	344	46.24	38.71	47.58	52.42
September	315	43.75	13.33	49.17	68.75
October	238	31.99	21.77	47.98	26.21
November	178	24.72	12.50	26.67	35.00
December	296	39.78	28.23	39.11	52.02

Table E.14. Average Monthly Bed Occupancies, 1994-1996.

15 November and December figures only.

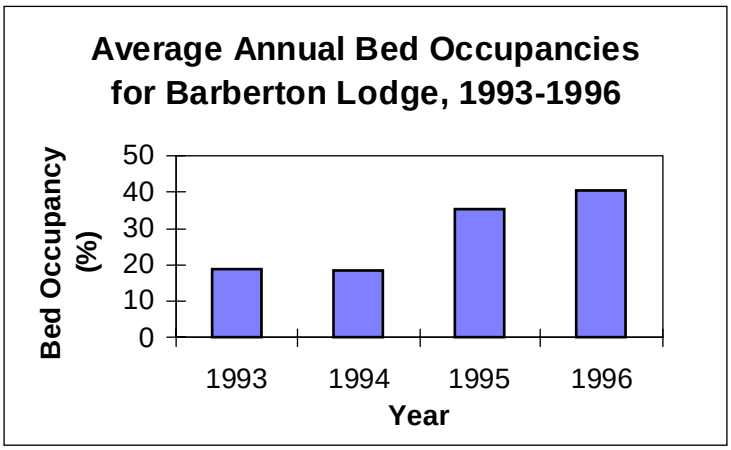

Figure E.2. Annual Bed Occupancies for Barberton Lodge, 1993-1996.

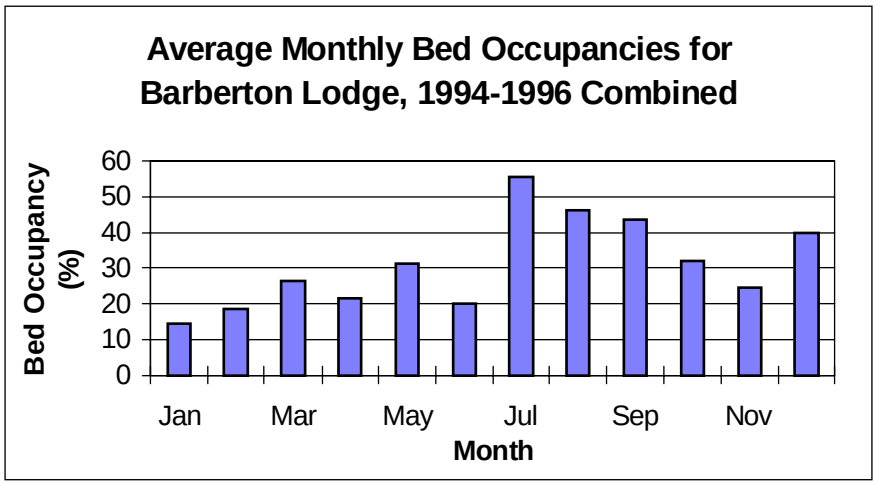

Figure E.3. Monthly Bed Occupancies for Barberton Lodge, 1994-1996, Combined.

Month	Total Bed Nights	Bed Nights Available	Bed Occupancy (%)	Domestic Clients	South African Clients	Overseas Clients
Nov-93	40	240	16.67			
Dec-93	52	248	20.97			
Jan-94	30	248	12.10			
Feb-94	4	224	1.79			
Mar-94	70	248	28.23			
Apr-94	44	240	18.33			
May-94	42	248	16.94			
Jun-94	2	240	0.83			
Jul-94	62	248	25.00			
Aug-94	96	248	38.71			
Sep-94	32	240	13.33			
Oct-94	54	248	21.77			
Nov-94	30	240	12.50			
Dec-94	70	248	28.23			
Jan-95	44	248	17.74			
Feb-95	40	224	17.86			
Mar-95	78	248	31.45			
Apr-95	36	240	15.00			
May-95	34	248	13.71			
Jun-95	82	240	34.17			
Jul-95	202	248	81.45			
Aug-95	118	248	47.58	34	36	48
Sep-95	118	240	49.17	34	20	64
Oct-95	119	248	47.98	47	26	46
Nov-95	64	240	26.67	12	39	13
Dec-95	97	248	39.11	54	18	25
Jan-96	32	248	12.90	24	0	8
Feb-96	83	232	35.78	43	24	16
Mar-96	50	248	20.16	13	0	37
Apr-96	76	240	31.67	28	18	30
May-96	156	248	62.90	77	24	55
Jun-96	62	240	25.83	22	12	28
Jul-96	149	248	60.08	31	38	80
Aug-96	130	248	52.42	45	0	85
Sep-96	165	240	68.75	76	0	89
Oct-96	65	248	26.21	10	0	55
Nov-96	84	240	35.00	48	4	32
Dec-96	129	248	52.02	77	0	52
Jan-97	78	248	31.45	34	18	26

Table E.15. Monthly bed occupancies and regional breakdown, 11/93-1/97.

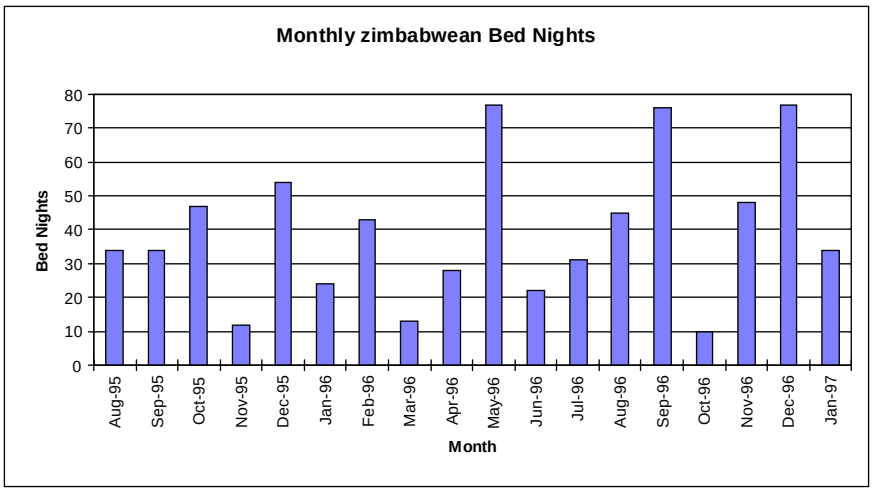

Figure E.4. Monthly Zimbabwean Bed Nights, 8/95-1/97

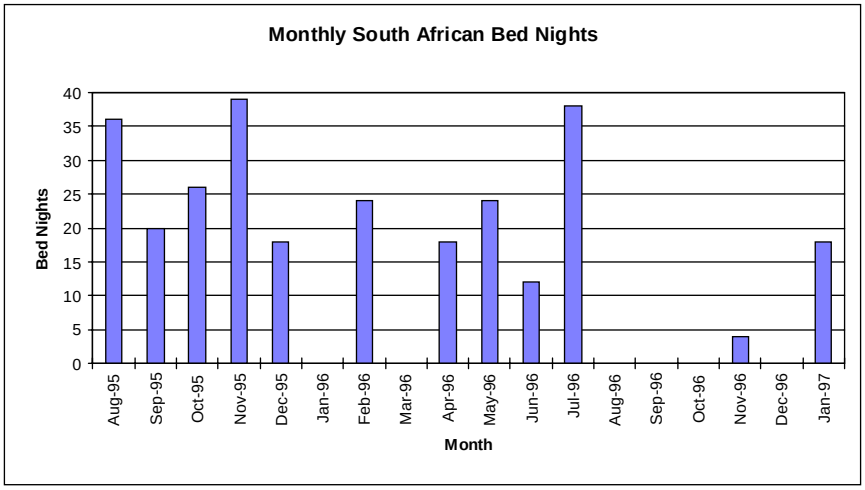

Figure E.5 Monthly South African Bed Nights, 8/95-1/97

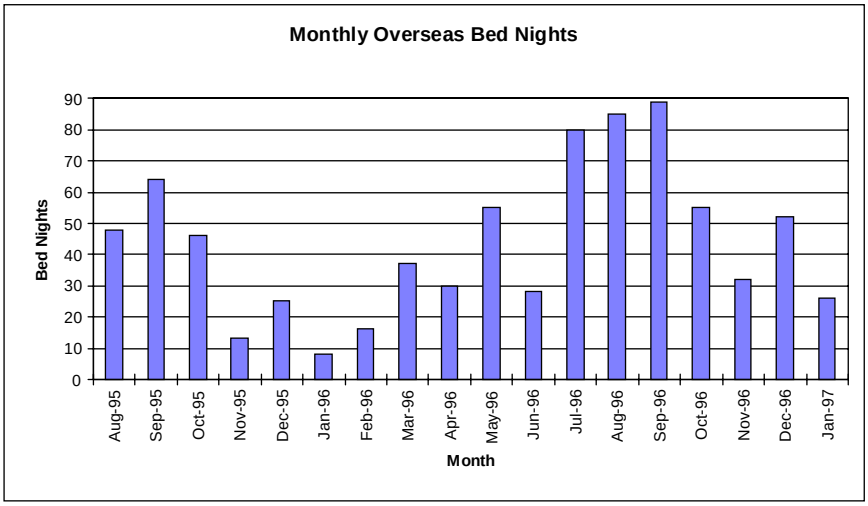

Figure E.6 Monthly Overseas Bed Nights, 8/95-1/97

E.5.4.2 Nationality Breakdown

From August 1995, bed nights have been classified as either domestic (Zimbabwean), regional (South African) or overseas (mainly British) (Tables E.16 and Figures E.7).

There is a distinct seasonal pattern in overseas visitation over this eighteen month period, with a peak in the European summer months and a trough in the winter months (Figure E.7). There is no obvious pattern to the Zimbabwean visitation, although December is the peak month in both 1995 and 1996, and both May and September 1996 are pronounced (Figure E.7). South African visitation is high in the last months of 1995, then becomes erratic for the first half of 1996, before virtually disappearing for the second half of 1996.

Visitor composition has been compared for the three consecutive six month periods from August 1995 (E.7). Between each six month period, the South African contribution has declined in both real and proportional terms. The overseas contribution has increased more substantially than the Zimbabwean contribution.

Period	Zimbabwean	South African	Overseas	Total
Bed Nights				
8/95-1/96	205	139	204	548
2/96-7/96	214	116	246	576
8/96-1/97	290	22	339	651
Percent of Total				
8/95-1/96	37.41	25.36	37.23	100.00
2/96-7/96	37.15	20.14	42.71	100.00
8/96-1/97	44.55	3.38	52.07	100.00

Table E.16. Comparison of domestic, regional and overseas visitation patterns for three consecutive six-month periods from August 1995.

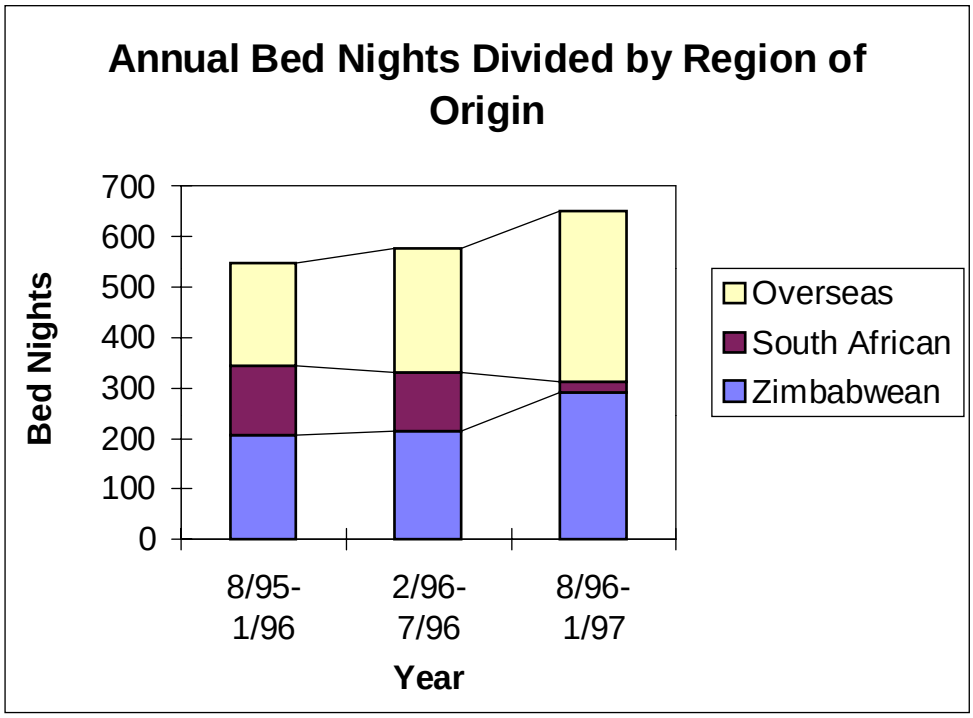

Figure E.7 Total Annual Bed Nights at Barberton Lodge Divided by Region f Origin, 8/95-1/97.

E.5.4.3 Mode of Transport Patterns

Barberton is 237 km from Bulawayo and 195 km from Beitbridge, the last 54 km of which is on dirt road. There is an airstrip beside the lodge, and air transfers from Bulawayo are provided for an additional fee. Some South Africans fly themselves in.

The proportion of flying and driving clients has not changed much between 1995 and 1996, and currently stands at about 40% flying. Most domestic visitors drive whilst almost all overseas clients fly. An increase in the proportion of flying overseas clients has corresponded with a decrease in the proportion of flying South African visitors.

	Flying				Driving			
Month	Zimbabwean	South African	Overseas	Total	Zimbabwean	South African	Overseas	Total
Jan-95	4	8	0	12	4	0	0	4
Feb-95	0	6	0	6	8	0	0	8
Mar-95	2	12	10	24	10	0	2	12
Apr-95	4	0	10	14	6	0	0	6
May-95	2	5	0	7	8	0	0	8
Jun-95	0	4	9	13	10	4	6	20
Jul-95	0	8	12	20	4	0	36	40
Aug-95	0	0	11	11	15	24	2	41
Sep-95	0	6	12	18	21	12	0	33
Oct-95	6	0	12	18	33	0	6	39
Nov-95	0	0	2	2	6	13	4	23
Dec-95	0	2	25	27	33	2	0	35
Jan-96	0	0	3	3	14	0	0	14
Feb-96	0	4	3	7	11	11	3	25
Mar-96	0	0	16	16	11	0	0	11
Apr-96	0	0	19	19	9	16	0	25
May-96	0	0	21	21	36	9	0	45
Jun-96	0	10	10	20	9	6	0	15
Jul-96	0	2	17	19	12	2	13	27
Aug-96	0	0	35	35	18	0	3	21
Sep-96	7	0	30	37	34	3	0	37
Oct-96	2	0	25	27	6	0	2	8
Nov-96	2	0	10	12	26	2	2	30
Dec-96	4	0	18	22	38	0	0	38
Jan-97	2	8	11	21	22	2	0	24

Table E.17. Monthly Visitors to Barberton by Mode of Transport and Region of Origin.

Year	Zimbabwean	South African	Overseas	Total
Flying				
Number of Clients				
1995	18	51	103	172
1996	15	16	207	238
% of Total				
1995	10.47	29.65	59.88	100.00
1996	6.30	6.72	86.97	100.00
Driving				
Number of Clients				
1995	158	55	56	269
1996	224	49	23	296
% of Total				
1995	58.74	20.45	20.82	100.00
1996	75.68	16.55	7.77	100.00

Table E.18. Annual Visitation by Mode of Transport and Region of Origin

Year	Flying	Driving	Total
Zimbabwean			
Number of Clients			
1995	18	158	176
1996	15	224	239
% of Total			
1995	10.23	89.77	100.00
1996	6.28	93.72	100.00
South African			
Number of Clients			
1995	51	55	106
1996	16	49	65
% of Total			
1995	48.11	51.89	100.00
1996	24.62	75.38	100.00
Overseas			
Number of Clients			
1995	103	56	159
1996	207	23	230
% of Total			
1995	64.78	35.22	100.00
1996	90.00	10.00	100.00

Table E.19. Annual Visitation by Region of Origin and Mode of Transport.

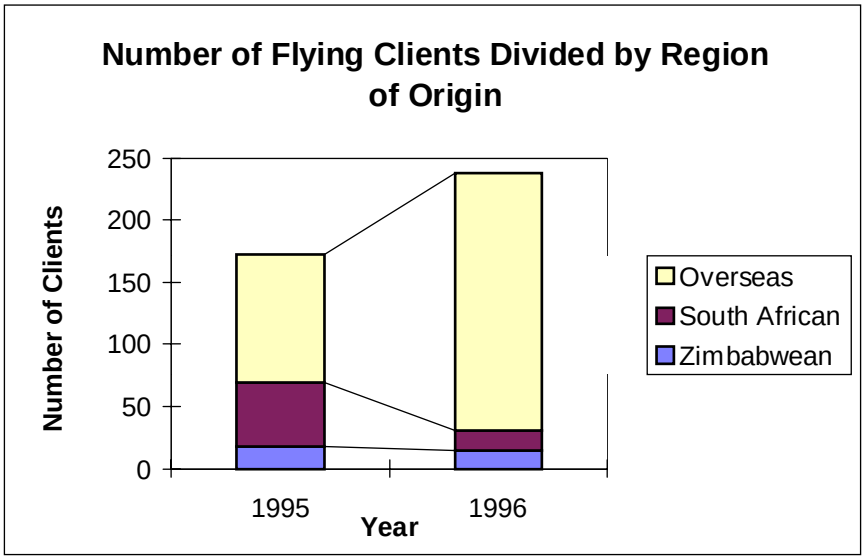

Figure E.8 Flying Clients to Barberton Lodge Divided by Region of Origin.

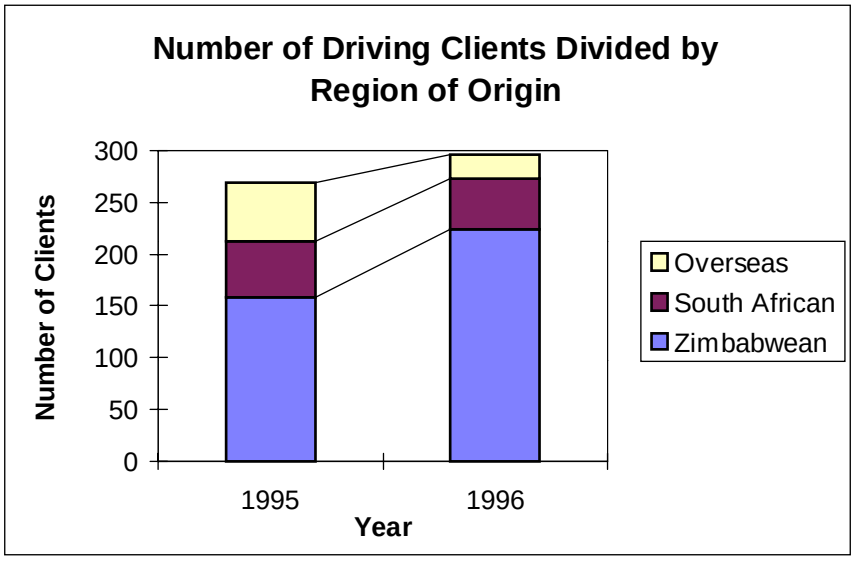

Figure E.9 Driving Clients to Barberton Lodge Divided by Region of Origin.

E.5.5 The Importance of black rhino to tourism

Tracking and viewing black rhino is a unique feature of the conservancies that should prove very marketable. However, Guy Hilton-Barber does not believe they are essential to the success of tourism in Bubiana Conservancy. They are expensive to protect, and are probably not the principal reason that clients visit. Results from visitor surveys will reveal how important they are to visitors when deciding on their destination.

E.5.6 Employment

In January 1997 there were 47 local people employed on Barberton Ranch.[16] This represents an increase of 135% on the pre-drought level of employment. All of these

16 The non-local lodge manager/guide and horse manager/guide are additional to this total.

employees are from the local area except for game scouts, in order to avoid family connections (Table E.20).

Job	Males Employed	Females Employed	Local (y/n)	Monthly Wages (Z$)	Total Wages Paid (Z$)
Tourism					
Cooks	2	0	yes		1,460
Waiters	2	0	yes	420	840
Gardeners	2	0	yes	387	764
Maids	0	4	yes	360	1,440
Grooms	2	0	yes	460	920
Sub-total local	8	4	yes	-	5,424
Conservancy					
Game Scouts	5	0	no	420	2,100
Buffalo Guards	2	0	yes	450	900
Sub-total local	2	0	yes	-	900
Ranch					
Cattlemen	19	0	yes	c.420	c.7,980
Builders	4	0	yes	temporary	c.1,680
Domestics	0	3	yes	c.360	c.1,080
Pump	1	0	yes	c.420	c.420
Workshop	1	0	yes	c.420	c.420
Sub-total local	25	3	yes	-	11,580
Total Local	**35**	**7**	**yes**	**-**	**17,904**
Total	**40**	**7**	**-**	**-**	**20,000**

Table E.20. Barberton Ranch Employment, January 1997.

Approximately Z$20,000 per month is spent on wages by Barberton.[17] The total estimated monthly wage bill for Barberton's 42 local employees is Z$17,904, plus bonuses. Of these, 12 are tourism associated jobs, providing a total of Z$5,424 in monthly wages, plus bonuses and tips. All the wages are equal to or above the current national minimum wage of Z$360 per month.

In addition, Z$120 worth (8 kg) of meat/fish ration are provided per person per month, and the annual cost per person for uniforms is Z$360 (Z$30/month). Game scouts receive a bonus of Z$10 per day when called upon to locate Rhino for clients, and

17 Excluding salaried non-local managers/guides.

grooms receive the same when clients are riding. Lodge staff (excluding gardeners) receive a bonus of Z$10 per day when the lodge is occupied.

E.5.7 Other Economic Activity

Barberton has 1000 cattle, herded by day and penned at night. There are no fences nor any other signs of domestic stock, tourists are unaware of the cattle. There are approximately 20% less cattle than before the drought, which is a conservative stocking rate.

E.5.8 Community Development associated with Barberton

The Barbers envisage further employment opportunities, the development of cottage industries, the opening of traditional villages to tourism, joint ventures to develop lodges in the communal lands and further meat supply benefits from culling operations.

There is a commitment to increasing the satisfaction and livelihood of employees. The following initiatives are either planned or operative;

- Plan to start a workshop for wives of employees, for dressmaking, curios, growing vegetables, as a sort of co-operative.
- Horticulture - can use wives, it is labour intensive, doesn't need much water, but transport is a problem.
- A pilot project with a tree that grows into a hedge has been running for two years. Can be planted in communal lands to reduce soil erosion, and provide revenue from sale of oil and beans. Nothing eats it and it grows in nutrient poor areas. Already some trees have been transplanted into the communal lands, at the request of local people.
- The future funding of schools and clinics in the communal lands

There are some problems. Associated with employment comes the problem of dependants. They are not allowed to live on the Conservancy because of problems of trespass, poaching and prostitution. The solution, embodied in some of the above plans, is to have these dependants employed on the Conservancy. Wives and partners without children are employed where possible. There is also a pass system in place for both entry and exit to Bubiana Conservancy.

E.5.9 Future Developments

It is felt that there is scope to source the goods for sale in the Barberton Lodge souvenir shop from the Communal Lands. This is not happening yet. They have identified reed mats, carved wood, jewellery, leather goods and ceramics as items which could be sourced locally for sale to tourists at the Lodge. Currently the lodge souvenir shop grosses Z$20,000 per month, including a 20% mark up. Were this shop to be located in the communal land, and visited as part of a village tour by clients to the lodge, considerable revenue could be generated by the local community. This is a scenario to be aimed at in the future.[18]

18 Guy Hilton-Barber, pers. comm.

In order to develop tourism in the lowveld, Barberton identifies the following as priorities:

1) the development of wildlife populations around the black rhino
2) build attractive lodges for up-market tourism
3) raise management skills to meet the demands of the market
4) develop a marketing strategy

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F. CHIREDZI RIVER CONSERVANCY

F.1 INTRODUCTION

The Chiredzi River Conservancy, in the south-east lowveld close to Save Valley, is approximately 10 km from Chiredzi town. The southern boundary of the Conservancy is the Ngundu to Tanganda road, whilst its western boundary lies to the east of the main Chiredzi/Triangle to Zaka road. The northern boundary is marked by the low escarpment around Manjirenzi Recreational Park. The area is bisected by the Chiredzi River. The Conservancy consists, in January 1997, of 15 individual properties, the total area of which is 79,225 ha (see Table F.1 and Figure F.1). The Conservancy is easily accessible from the tar road, is very close to Chiredzi and has an international airport (Buffalo Range) adjacent to it.

Ranch	Owners	Area (ha)	%
Ngwane Extension	Wildlife Management Services (Pvt) Ltd	2,000	2.5%
Chiredzi A	Ranchking Enterprises (Pvt) Ltd	1,866	2.4%
Melrose	Moonflower Enterprises (Pvt) Ltd	1816	2.3%
Glen Devon A & Dawlish Estate	N& B Holdings (Pvt) Ltd	5,645	7.1%
Combretum Safaris	Combretum Safaris (Pvt) Ltd	1,793	2.3%
Glendevon C	Hunters Services (Pvt) Ltd	1,802	2.3%
Sebenani	B. Van Arde	1,847	2.3%
Ngwane Estates	Ranchking Enterprise (Pvt) Ltd.	999	1.3%
Ngwane Ranch	Ranchking Enterprise (Pvt) Ltd.	2,060	2.6%
Ngwane Ranch A	Xeric Ranching (Pvt) Ltd	2,032	2.6%
Chiredzi Ranch North	Leased to D Sarpo	2,761	3.5%
Mungwezi	Mungwezi Ranching Pvt Ltd	3,544	4.5%
Dombodema	Chiredzi River Cons Trust	8,652	10.9%
Buffalo Range	Buffalo Range (Pvt) Ltd	15,652	19.8%
Ruware	A de la Rue & Co.	26,756	33.8%
Total		79,225	100%

Table F.1 Membership of Chiredzi River Conservancy[1]

The Chiredzi River Conservancy is in the process of adopting a new constitution, which is expected to be finalised by April 1997. The Conservancy is a voluntary association of landholders incorporated with a legal identity separate from that of its members. The draft constitution lists the objectives of the Conservancy as to develop sound ecological management policies and to stimulate economic development. These objectives are supported by membership and public relations policies, the latter to ensure that the Provincial Authorities, RDCs, national government and NGOs are kept informed of the activities of the Conservancy.

1 Third Draft of Chiredzi River Conservancy Constitution 20/1/97.

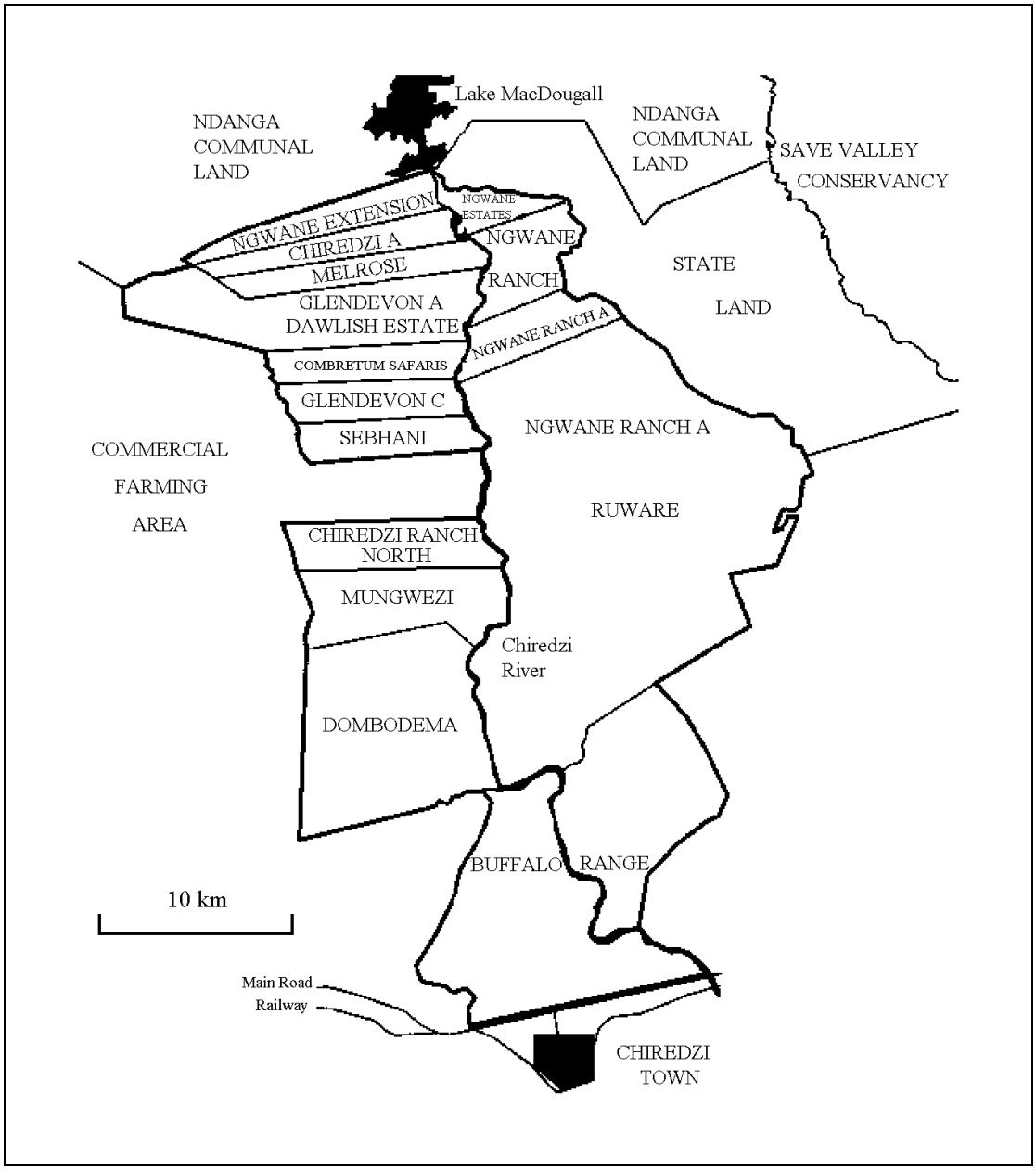

Figure F.1. A Map of the Chiredzi River Conservancy.

The Conservancy's goal is to
"develop a system of land use based on the management of natural resources which is ecologically sound, economically viable, financially profitable, satisfying to its members and politically and socially acceptable within the policies and laws of Zimbabwe."(§4)

In its membership policy the constitution recognises "the primary right of members to manage their own resources" and commits the Conservancy only to invoke controls "when these are mutually agreed by the members as being necessary and desirable" (4.2.1). Members are expected to derive their income form the Conservancy "primarily from the sustainable use of wildlife and its habitats" through consumptive

(game cropping and safari hunting) and non-consumptive (photographic tourism) (4.2.2).

The ecological management policies are designed to prevent the "degradation of natural resources" and enhance "the productivity and biological diversity of the Conservancy". This includes the reintroduction of wildlife species to the Conservancy and to assist in meeting national objectives by protecting and breeding species populations which are "lower in numbers than desired"(4.1.6). The black rhino population of the Conservancy falls into this category.

Some species will be managed by the Conservancy Committee for the Conservancy as a whole (**Conservancy Species**), with the remaining species to be managed at the level of individual landholders' properties by the landholders themselves (**Ordinary Species**). The Conservancy Species are characterised by being financially valuable and/or requiring Conservancy level management because of their ranging. The Conservancy will only restock Conservancy Species and the Conservancy will control management of those species. The restocking will be financed by members proportionate to their acreage. In January 1997 the Conservancy Species were: Cape buffalo, sable, elephant, black and white rhino, cheetah, giraffe, Lichtenstein's hartebeest. roan, lion, wild dog and crocodile.

Other game (Ordinary Species) is purchased by individuals and remains the property of the purchaser even if it moves off their land. There is still debate within the Conservancy about the ownership of progeny. From among the Ordinary Species the Conservancy has currently scheduled hippopotamus and leopard as Restricted Species, which means that they too are managed at the Conservancy level.

The area was given over to cattle in 1936 and it had been heavily grazed until the late 1980's when there was growing concern about overgrazing, and erosion and siltation in the lowveld drainage systems. The Chiredzi Conservancy declared, in 1993, their intention to 'repair most of the habitat deterioration which has occurred and increase the biodiversity of the conservancies'.[2] The drought had brought significant destocking and by 1994 there was evidence of the overgrazed areas healing, with good grass cover, litter and mulch, and an explosion of smaller mammal populations (in the absence of larger predators). On Mungwezi Ranch there have been soil conservation and water harvesting schemes undertaken by Tore Ballance. Internal fences have been removed from a large proportion of the land and, in January 1997, only about 1000 cattle remain in the total area.

There is considerable variation in the size of the ranches which constitute the Conservancy. There have been significant changes of ownership since the formation of the Conservancy as landowners have been faced with the costs of the fence and the exigencies of being without income from the land as they move out of cattle and in to wildlife. The ranch owners have been investing in the fence and in stocking the Conservancy with wildlife and have not been securing an income from their property. The Conservancy has to be seen as a long-term investment, no one is expecting to make a return on their investment in the short-term. Oscro Ranch to the west of the

2 Ballance 1993.

Chiredzi River may have to be fenced out of the Conservancy, but in January 1997 there was still the possibility of this ranch rejoining the Conservancy and signing the constitution.

F.1.1 Physical features

The uniform granulitic geology of Chiredzi River Conservancy gives rise to a mainly flat topography with scattered kopjes. The altitudinal range is from about 400 m in the south to 550 m in the north against the Zaka Hills, with the kopjes being less than 100m above the surrounding land. Soils are mainly siallitic and fersiallitic, medium textured and shallow to moderately deep. They are inherently fertile but are prone to the accumulation of sodium bases and clay particles along drainage lines, leading to hardpans. Dolerite dykes give rise to red soils with high moisture retention. There are pockets of sandy alluvium along the Chiredzi River and its tributaries.

The Conservancy is dissected by the Chiredzi River and its tributaries, which follow a semi-trellised drainage pattern in accordance with fault-lines in the underlying rocks. The seasonal flow of the river is now regulated by Manjirenji Dam and the river maintains pools throughout the year. Pipe reticulation systems enable the widespread distribution of water from a number of small dams and weirs.

F.1.2 Climate

Temperatures are similar to those of Save Valley, as is rainfall, with a mean of 450 mm per annum, and a high coefficient of variability. In 1991/92, certain areas only received 30 mm. The rainfall declines from the northern upland area towards the south. South-easterly ‘guti’ weather is a significant feature of the winter season.

F.1.3 Vegetation

With the north-south altitude variation reflected in a trend of decreasing rainfall towards the south, the vegetation shows variation from *Brachystegia-Julbernadia* woodlands and associated grasslands in the north (typical middleveld communities), to mopane and other typical lowveld communities in the south.

The mopane communities, the most widespread vegetation type, are similar to those described for Save Valley and occupy the same topographic units, except that the absence of sedimentary rocks in Chiredzi River Conservancy precludes the development of the xeric sub-types which are associated with these rocks in Save Valley. On the more mafic granulites, intermingled with the mopane communities, are large areas of *Acacia-Combretum* open woodland/savanna/bushveld as described for Save Valley.

The vegetation on the numerous small kopjes, river gorges and other broken terrain is similar to that described for Save Valley, but there is a predominance of *Androstachys johnsonii* on some south-facing slopes. *Brachystegia glaucescens* occurs in its typical “mountain acacia” form on kopjes in the north, and also as a low-altitude ecotype in

small groves on dry, sandy interfluves. Patches of *Terminalia-Combretum* sandveld vegetation occur in similar topographic sites (see Save Valley description).

Chiredzi River Conservancy does not have the extensive alluvial plain communities that occur in Save Valley, but does have well-developed riverine thickets and forests, particularly along the Chiredzi River, with various evergreen trees. The following are a few of the characteristic species of this highly diverse community: *Kigelia africana, Spirostachys africana, Lonchocarpus capassa, Combretum imberbe, Trichilia emetica, Diospyros mespiliformis, Strychnos potatorum, Garcinia livingstonei, Syzygium guineense, Ficus* spp. *Acacia schweinfurthii* and *Lantana camara* form impenetrable thickets along many river sections. *Acacia tortilis* woodlands occur on some of the larger alluvial terraces.

There is extensive bush encroachment of overgrazed areas, particularly by *Dichrostachys cinerea, Acacia tortilis, A. gerrardii, A. nilotica* and *Colophospermum mopane*, the latter forming sapling thickets on disturbed contact soils. Past overgrazing is also reflected in a reduced grass cover in which wiry perennials and unproductive annuals (e.g. *Aristida* sp., *Pogonarthria squarrosa, Tragus berteronianus*) have often replaced productive annual species.

F.1.4 Fauna

As with Save Valley, wildlife populations have been considerably reduced since the last century due to colonial sport hunting, eradication of buffalo, elephant and predators to enable cattle ranching, competitive exclusion of sensitive grazers (e.g. Lichtenstein's hartebeest and roan antelope) by cattle, and general degradation of the habitat (e.g. reedbuck). Roan antelope were last seen in 1953. Lichtenstein's hartebeest followed them into local extinction shortly thereafter, but a few have recently been re-introduced to comprise a captive breeding group at Buffalo Range. In 1988 eight black rhino, 4 male and 4 female sub-adults, were accepted from the Zambezi Valley and by January 1997 the population had increased to thirteen. One calf was born prematurely and died.

The chief strategy employed by the Conservancy members to combat the 1991/92 drought was to capture and boma-feed as many as possible of the vulnerable species. The captive feeding effort was impressive resulting in 110 sable, 350 zebra, 70 waterbuck, 140 wildebeest and 60 eland being saved. There was also a substantial veld feeding programme. Despite these efforts, there was still significant mortality of wildlife. The hippo population was reduced from 180 individuals to 36. However, in the past three years it has expanded to around 80-90, with 20 calves having been born in the first year after the drought.

F.1.5 Restocking

The Conservancy acquired approximately 70 buffalo, which are held in a paddock on Ruware Ranch pending erection of the necessary perimeter fencing and final agreement on release from the Department of Veterinary services.. With a successful breeding programme in place over the past couple of years, the total is 120-150 in January 1997. The Chiredzi River Conservancy would like to bring in up to 1,000

more buffalo, but are not optimistic that this can be achieved given current translocation restrictions and the very high prices being asked (Z$10,000-15,000 per animal, as opposed to Z$2,500 a couple of years ago).

Species	Restocking	Stock at Jan 1997
Buffalo	70	135
Cheetah	2	2
Elephant	27	27
Giraffe	100	100
Hippo	0	80-90
Nyala	0	9
Rhino	8	13
Sable	40	60
Wildebeest	40	100
Zebra	45	200

Table F.2 Game on Chiredzi River Conservancy, January 1997

F.1.6 Cattle

Buffalo Range Ranch data was analysed by Brian Child for the period 1962 to 1985 and he showed that over-grazing almost halved the productivity of the cattle herd. Profits from cattle fell from a high of Z$200,000 in 1975 to Z$60,000 in 1986. When allowance was made for the environmental costs of range degradation, profits from cattle were between Z$4.9 and Z$6.21/ha, compared with Z$8.00/ha for wildlife. For the lowveld region, Child calculated that the wildlife option was 4 times more profitable than cattle. Child's analysis showed that wildlife did not degrade the land as readily as cattle, and that the added value which could be derived from hunting, made it more profitable.[3]

Despite considerable experience in wildlife utilisation, Buffalo Range is still running cattle alongside the wildlife. Mungwezi Ranch also intends to continue with cattle alongside game. Whilst intensive cattle ranching was unsustainable in such an unpredictable environment, the maintenance of a reduced herd is viewed as a means of earning revenue whilst wildlife utilisation is developing, and as an economic buffer to compete with the threat of drought.

There are still ±1000 cattle on the Conservancy. At present there is a shortage in the market and prices are high, due to the current availability of good grass. Once the external fence is completed the cattle will be removed and the buffalo will be released. It is hoped that this will occur at the end of 1997.

F.1.7 Fencing

The total cost of the double external game fencing for the Conservancy has increased to around Z$35,000/km, including materials, electrification and labour. With a total perimeter of around 200 km, this equates to approximately Z$5 million. As of January 1997, the external game fence is two thirds completed. The fence is expected to be completed by the end of 1997. In the south of the Chiredzi River Conservancy each

3 Dean 1990, pp.22-24; Child, B., 1988.

landowner has fenced their own external boundary. In the north the small ranches joined together and shared the cost of external fencing according to their area. In addition there is an internal double electric fence surrounding the 2000 acre buffalo paddock. Everyone contributed to the buffalo paddock fencing according to their ranch acreage.

F.1.8 Tourism Development

Tourism development within the Chiredzi River Conservancy is entirely a matter for the individual property owners**.** Currently, there are no exclusive rights of access over any land in Chiredzi River Conservancy regarding tourism. Anyone establishing a tourism enterprise may conduct photographic safaris over any area of Chiredzi River Conservancy, with permission from the owner. It is envisaged that a system with rights of access over individual properties will develop and that other members of Chiredzi River Conservancy will have to pay to bring visitors on to other member's properties. It is hoped that this will encourage members to improve their property in order to attract wildlife onto their land.

Tore Ballance has a lodge on his Mungwezi Wilderness Reserve set amidst riverine trees on the banks of the Mungwezi River. The lodge is equipped for up to eight people accommodated on a self-catering basis. There are also plans to add an additional self-contained lodge on the site. Tore Ballance uses the lodge for five or six groups a year on Mungwezi Safaris, from where upmarket photo safaris are led into Gonarezhou, Chiredzi River and Bubiana Conservancies and Sentinel Ranch on the Limpopo. Biza Safaris, a horseback safari operation run by Guy Edmonds, began operating in Chiredzi River Conservancy in 1993, but in July 1995 moved to Barberton Lodge in Bubiana Conservancy.

N&B Holdings and Ranchking Enterprises are each planning to build 10 bed safari camps with stables and to operate horse safaris jointly within the Conservancy. These two ranches are also considering establishing dormitory accommodation in order to market programmes to International Schools offering both wildlife and a taste of Africa. These will include visits into the Communal Lands. Ruware ranch plans to incorporate non-consumptive tourism with existing consumptive initiatives.

Mungwezi, Ruware and Buffalo Range all have some degree of consumptive tourism in place. Game ranching has been established on Buffalo Range since 1961, and in 1969 safari hunting began. A safari camp was built in 1973, and in 1983 the game area was increased. In the past, hunting on Ruware Ranch has been leased to Buffalo Range. However, from 1997 Ruware will operate its own hunting safaris. Construction of a camp has been completed. Eventually it is hoped that photographic safaris will operate from this camp. Mungwezi will be offering hunting in 1997 in order to raise finance for the development of the fence on its perimeter.

A hunt including buffalo, leopard and a variety of plains game (kudu, impala & bushbuck) costs around Z$100,000 for the minimum period of 14 days. If buffalo are included, the daily rate can rise from US$350 to US$700. Individual properties set their own quotas. Because of their size, Buffalo Range and Ruware can essentially operate as independent entities.

It is unlikely that all landowners will conduct hunting safaris. For example Mungwezi Ranch aims to attract exclusively photographic clients. There are constraints on the establishment of tourism enterprises including the costs of employing professional guides, constructing and staffing quality lodges, and securing sufficient quantities of game in order to offer a high quality photo-safari experience. On Buffalo Range, non-hunting zones have been declared but there is anxiety about the viability of non-consumptive tourism. The fence has been paid for by hunting and by resources invested into the Conservancy by the owners. The Conservancy is far from being a viable economic entity. For the Conservancy to return to a natural system requires capital investment. All the members have outside interests which help to finance the necessary investments. In some cases, land is being sold to finance developments such as the perimeter fence.

At present the quotas for hunting on Chiredzi River Conservancy are small, so the hunting season is comparatively short (15 days estimated for Mungwezi). Non-consumptive tourism will thus be a vital component of a viable tourism enterprise on the land. However, with game numbers low, particularly in the north, a top of the range international photographic enterprise will not develop in the short term. With recent rises in National Park entrance fees there may be a good mid-range market for local tourism to private lands such as the Chiredzi River Conservancy (Ballance, *pers. comm.*).

Ranch	Tourism Development
Ngwane Extension Chiredzi A Melrose Glen Devon A & Dawlish Estate Combretum Safaris Glendevon C Sebenani Ngwane Estates	Captive breeding Ten bedded camp with stables for horse safaris.
Ngwane Ranch Ngwane Ranch A Chiredzi Ranch North	Ten bedded camp with stables for horse safaris.
Mungwezi	Makwekwete Lodge, sleeps 8 and is self-catering except when used by the owner for walking safari groups. There are plans for an additional unit on the same site.
Dombodema	
Buffalo Range	Have built a hunting safari camp which will also be used for photo safaris.
Ruware	Have camp functioning for photo and hunting safaris.

Table F.3. Tourism development in the Chiredzi River Conservancy

F.2 RELATIONSHIPS WITH SURROUNDING COMMUNITIES

Chiredzi River Conservancy is surrounded by communal and resettlement areas along 33% of its boundary. To the north-west is Ndanga CL, to the north is Matsai CL, and

to the north-east, between Chiredzi River Conservancy and SVC, the Nyangombe Resettlement Area. There have been constraints to the development of neighbour initiatives with the Chiredzi River Conservancy, not least the political problems surrounding conservancies in general. Additionally the development of the Chiredzi River Conservancy is still in its infancy, and although there are ideas for local involvement, it will take time for the Conservancy to be in a position to support them.

The vision of the Chiredzi River Conservancy is that wildlife as an industry will become viable and that local communities will benefit from it. At present wildlife on the Chiredzi River Conservancy is not viable, so the downstream benefits, other than employment, have yet to be realised.

Cattle ranching is not labour intensive. Around 8-10 people would be employed for a 40,000 acre ranch. For a tourist lodge, at least 1 employee per bed is needed. Ruware ranch employed 42 permanent staff when the land was used for cattle. 70 people are currently being employed for construction of the game fence. When the game ranching is fully developed, up to 60 permanent staff are anticipated.

A variable total of about 175 people are currently employed on Chiredzi River Conservancy. This would have to be doubled once photographic tourism was fully developed. For the external fence, two guards per 10 km will be permanently employed.

With the recent drought, there was a large die-off of wildlife and cattle were removed. Now, cattle are present again in small numbers and the wildlife is increasing. The vision of the Conservancy is to manage the land to increase diversity rather than biomass, so it will necessarily take longer for the biomass to be sufficient to support cropping. By 1998 it is hoped that culling will be possible, with meat available to the local market.

The property is entirely fenced off from the surrounding land. Not only may this limit game movements, but it creates a physical barrier between the Conservancy and surrounding areas, both communal and commercial, exacerbating any feelings of exclusion within the communities bordering the Conservancy. There is some prospect of a bridge or corridor being established between Save Valley Conservancy and Chiredzi River Conservancy in an undeveloped area of Nyangombe Resettlement Area. The area could be run by the Chiredzi River Conservancy or SVC or independently, and would provide benefit to the community through safari hunting and tourism. The community would effectively become a member of the Conservancy with its own operations. The plan has been discussed with both the District Governor and the local AGRITEX Planning branch, and both are reported to be optimistic about it.[4]

Buffalo Range is already pioneering a joint venture with the District Council under the auspices of the CAMPFIRE programme. Buffalo Range has a hunting concession in

4 Stockil pers. comm.

the Omay Communal land and include their game section in the venture, paying the Council revenues for animals shot on the ranch.[5]

There is a vision to build an environmental school within the Conservancy. This would be used to teach local people about Chiredzi River Conservancy, highlighting the mutual benefits of the scheme and fostering local support.

F.2.1 The Political Context

There is still considerable uncertainty about the future of conservancies in Zimbabwe and the members of Chiredzi River Conservancy are proceeding cautiously. Although the members are convinced that the wildlife option is the only ecologically and economically sustainable option, they are aware that this land use option does not have solid political support. The Manjirinji Dam and the Chiredzi River are an additional source of anxiety, as readily available water may make designation for resettlement an attractive political option. The uncertain situation which results from the debates about land resettlement and about wildlife as a land use option, makes it more difficult to develop the confidence necessary for encouraging significant capital investment in wildlife. Non-consumptive returns from wildlife are relatively long term prospects, and the development of the Chiredzi River Conservancy will be a net drain on the resources of its members for some years.

5 de la Harpe 1994, p.40.

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G. SAVE VALLEY CONSERVANCY

A brief introduction is given which covers the physical features, climate, vegetation and the fauna of the Save Valley Conservancy. The reasons for the formation of the Conservancy and it's constitution follow, along with an outline of the SVC Project drafted in July 1994. Details on economics, land use (including conversion to wildlife production) and development (including tourism) in the Conservancy are given. Thereafter, the relationship with surrounding communities is discussed as is the politics surrounding the Conservancy. This section concludes with a case study of tourism development and it's effect on local communities at Senuko Ranch.

G.1 INTRODUCTION

The Save Valley Conservancy has its southern boundary approximately 65 km north-east of Chiredzi town. The northern boundary is marked by the Masvingo to Birchenough Bridge road, and by the Devure River. The Save River constitutes the entire eastern boundary of the Conservancy. In the west it is bounded by the Devure Resettlement Scheme and Matsai Communal Land. The Mkwasine Sugar Estate lies immediately to the south. The total area of the Conservancy, which consists of 23 individual properties, is 3,450 km^2 (see Table G.1 and Figure G.2). The members of the Conservancy range from small family-owned businesses to large companies such as Zimbabwe Sun Ltd.

G.1.1 Physical Features

This Conservancy has a gently undulating topography with scattered kopjes, formed by the granites, gneisses and paragneisses of the Basement Complex. There is some dissection by seasonal streams and by a few sizeable rivers (notably the Turgwe). The altitude of the plain varies from around 500m in the south to around 600m in the north-west extremity. Hills and ranges rise up to 250m above the flat land but are generally little more than 100m high. A major geomorphological feature is the extensive alluvium of the mid-Save area, where deposits of the Save River have combined with those of the Turgwe, Msaize, Gunundwe and other tributaries to form a plain 10-15 km wide, extending about 60 km along the west bank of the Save River. This plain contains numerous seasonal pans, and some rivers such as the Gunundwe discharge diffusely via these pans and small drainage channels instead of connecting directly with the Save River.

There are two systems of sedimentary rocks within the Conservancy, Umkondo and Karoo, upon which the soils are similar to those on the older Basement Complex rocks, namely shallow, medium-grained siallitic loamy sands of high fertility. The extensive mid-Save alluvial deposits have given rise to deep siallitic soils, some of which have a particularly high phosphorus content.

The Conservancy is highly dependent upon pump stations on the Save and Mkwasine rivers to deliver water to large reservoirs which supply game/livestock watering points.

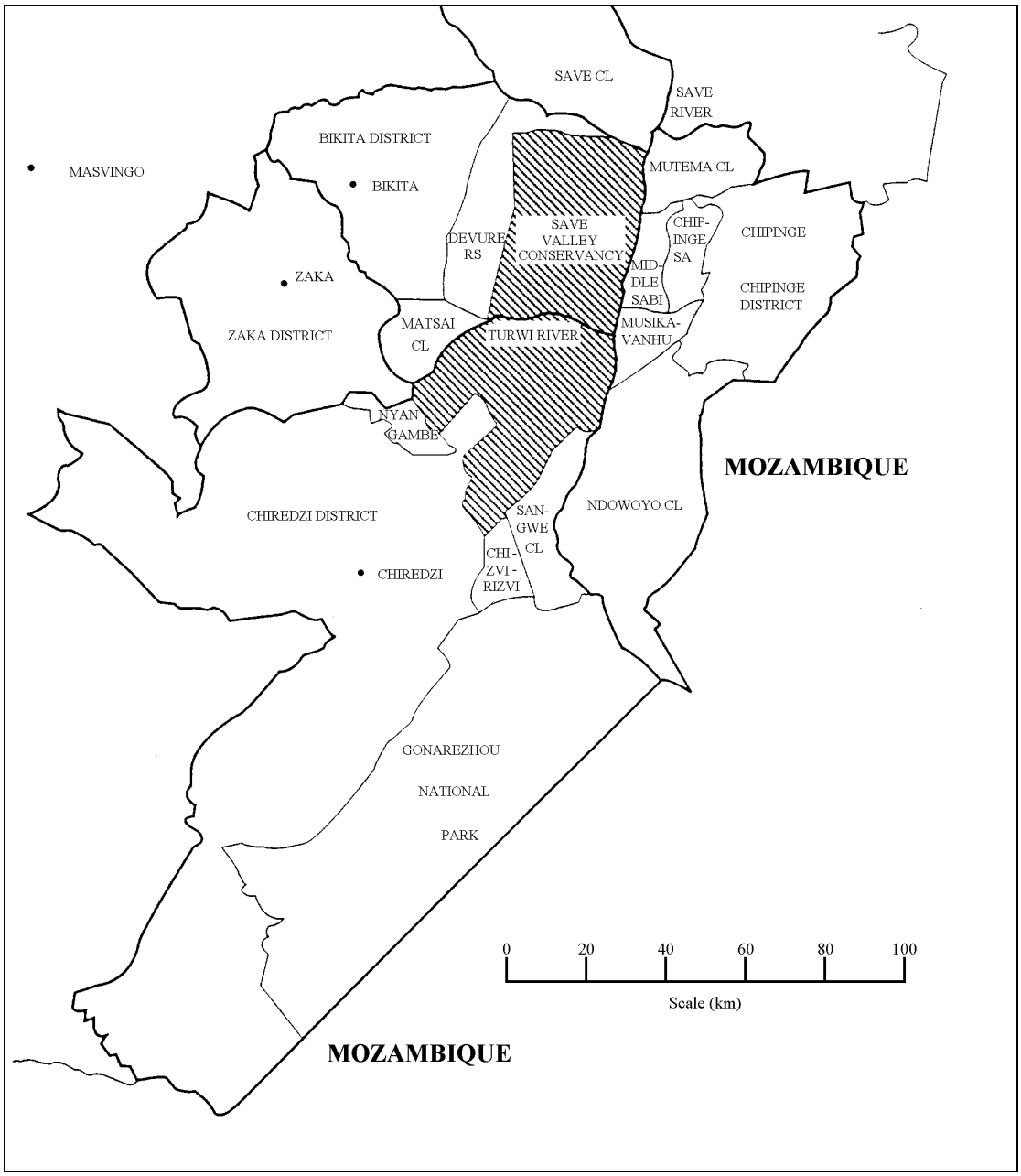

Figure G.1. A Map of the Save Valley Conservancy and Surrounding Areas.

Figure G.2. A Map of Save Valley Conservancy.

Ranch	Owners	Area (ha)
Matendere	Pioneer Capital Partners/ARDA†	13,123
Gunundwe	B J Gous	11,374
Mapari	H J Vorster	23,153
Chishakwe	Rovambira(Pvt) Ltd,	9,977
Msaize	Powerlock (Pvt) Ltd	16,340
Chapungu	Zimbabwe Sun Ltd	12,976
Umkondo Mine	Leased to Pabst Holdings (Pvt) Ltd	6,627
Savuli	Savuli Property Investments (Pvt) Ltd	5,529
Mokore	Mokore Ranch (Pvt) Ltd	7,451
Bedford Block	Dunmow (Pvt) Ltd	12,215
Humani	Humani Estates (Pvt) Ltd.	41,158
Angus	Sabi Star Enterprises (Pvt) Ltd	15,792
Mukazi River	Mukazi River Ranch (Pvt) Ltd	11,457
Mukwazi	Wenhope (Pvt) Ltd	12,549
Senuko	Senuko Ranching (Pvt) Ltd & Save Lodges (Pvt) Ltd	24,120
Masapas	Bateleurs Peak Farm Holdings (Pvt) Ltd.	15,437
Levanga	Kingsbrook (Pvt) Ltd	13,040
Mkwasine	Mkwasine Ranching Co. (Pvt) Ltd	12,547
Impala	Fair Range Estates (Pvt) Ltd	8,097
Potential	Agricultural and Rural Development Authority	12,146
Chanurwe	Pabst Holdings (Pvt) Ltd.	44,348
Mkwasine Estate	Mkwasine (Pvt) Ltd	3,502
Hammond	Mid West Ranching Ltd, Nyerzi Safaris	12,109
Total		345,067

Table G.1 Membership of Save Valley Conservancy
(de la Harpe 1994, p.260; and updated February 1997)

G.1.2 Vegetation

Mopane open woodland/bushveld/thicket/scrub is dominated on alkaline clays by *Colophospermum mopane*, which is also found on a variety of other soil types. The community has a low species diversity, comprised largely of hardy annuals such as *Tragus berteronianus, Aristida congesta* and *Enneapogon cenchroides*. The dominant grass is *urochloa mossambicensis*, which provides good quality grazing. *Panicum maximum* is increasing its presence. *C.mopane* is also found with xeric species such as *Kirkia acuminata, Terminalia prunioides, Commiphora mollis* and *Combretums* on dry ridges and steep slopes comprised of Umkondo sediments.

Acacia-Combretum open woodland/savanna/bushveld is a more open vegetation type found on soils overlying some paragneisses and gneisses. The distinctive species are *Acacia nigrescens, A.tortilis, Combretum apiculatum, C. imberbe, Scleocarya birrea* and *Albizia harveyi*. With palatable browse species such as *Grewia* sp., *Dalbergia melanoxylon*, *Ormocarpum trichocarpum* and *Dichrostachys cinerea* in an

† Agriculture and Rural Development Authority.

understorey of variable density, this community is favoured by browsing animals. Termite mounds support clumps of trees with particularly high browse value. The grass cover has suffered from overgrazing and bush encroachment but in many localities it remains dense (if rainfall is adequate) with a high proportion of *Urochloa mosambicensis*, thus constituting good grazing. This community intermingles with the mopane woodland and it is difficult to demarcate boundaries between them, since there is generally a gradual increase in the proportion of *C.mopane* and a corresponding gradual decrease in other woody species.
Acacia tortilis often comprises a tall woodland community on the heavier, deeper alluvium soils along the Save River, Turgwe River and other large tributaries. Distinctive elements within this community include *Lonchocarpus capassa, A. nigrescens, Combretum imberbe* and *Euphorbia ingens*. Understorey species, often forming clumps of thicket, include *Zizyphys mucronata*, *Albizia anthelmitica*, *Capparis* sp., *Dalbergia arbutifolia* and *Combretum microphyllum*. The understorey density is variable, hence the community has a parkland appearance in some areas (important for grazing animals, owing to good growth of grasses such as *Urochloa mosambicensis, Panicum maximum, Digitaria* sp. And *Dactyloctenium* sp.), and is an impenetrable thicket in other areas. This community consequently provides a range of animal habitats. On sites of past cultivation, *A.tortilis* regrows as a dense, single-species thicket.

Elsewhere on the alluvial plains several other communities can be recognised but they are considerably intermingled. Dominant species include *Acacia zanthophloea, Salvadora persica* and *Hyphaene natalensis*. *Kigelia africana, Trichilia emetica, Combretum imberbe, Xanthocercis zambesica* and *Lonchocarpus capassa* are common in these woodlands and increase in density, along with numerous other trees, shrubs and lianas, to form dense riparian forest along the consolidated banks of the Save River and its largest tributaries. These are the most diverse plant communities within the Conservancy and provide unique habitats for bushbuck, nyala, other secretive animals and many birds.

Narrow bands of distinctive vegetation extend along the seasonal rivulets throughout the Conservancy. Tree species include *Spirostachys africana, Diospyros mespiliformis, Combretum imberbe* and *Lonchocarpus capassa*.

Brachystegia glaucescens is a conspicuous element of the granite/granulite kopje communities, together with rocksplitter figs (*Ficus abutilifolia* and *F.tettensis*). *Kirkia acuminata, Afzelia quanzensis, Entandrophragma cautadum* and *Combretum apiculatum* are also common trees. *B. glaucescens* also occurs as well developed groves on interfluves in the undulating granulitic terrain where there are pockets of sandy soil, and also in areas of Umkondo and Karoo sediments.

A mixed sandveld open woodland/savanna can occur in place of *B. glaucescens* groves on some interfluves with relatively deep, pale, sandy soils. Characteristic trees are *Terminalia sericea, Combretum apiculatum, Sclerocarya birrea, Strychnos* sp., *Pteleopsis myrtifolia*, *Flacourtia indica* and sometimes *Julbernadia globiflora* and *Pseudolachnostylis maprouneifolia*. Grass cover is variable but is likely to cater for the requirements of selective grazers such as sable when rainfall is average or above.

G.1.3 Fauna

Prior to the development of the area for cattle ranching, the Save Valley was one of Zimbabwe's major wildlife refuges and was renowned for particularly large herds of ungulates, including animals which are now rare. However, in the early 1970's a programme of eradication of buffalo and elephant was implemented, and all but a few of the latter were destroyed. Predators (lion, cheetah and hyena) were also eradicated in order to reduce stock losses, but a healthy leopard population survived. In addition to these deliberate eradications, sensitive grazers such as sable were unable to compete successfully with cattle and disappeared or became scarce. The mammal fauna of the Conservancy was thus reduced to a very depauperate state. The present, more optimistic state has been achieved through a programme of actively restocking the wildlife together with the concurrent removal of cattle.

Before the formation of the Conservancy in 1991 small numbers of giraffe, waterbuck, nyala and tsessebe were introduced to Humani Ranch and elephant culling programmes in Gonarezhou produced small numbers of elephant calves which joined a herd on Humani Ranch bringing it to ±60. The drought in Gonarezhou and consequent translocation brought the population of elephant to ±600 at the end of 1993. The translocation in 1993 of complete family groups, including full-grown animals, was a land-mark exercise. This was the first time that full grown elephant had been translocated in significant numbers anywhere in the world.

A small group of white rhino became established on one of the ranches of the Conservancy during the mid-1970s. The DNPWLM introduced black rhino in 1986, 1987 and 1988 from the Zambezi valley (a total of 20). Further black rhino were introduced in mid-1993, bringing the total to 35.

Waterbuck, sable, giraffe, zebra, wildebeest and buffalo were restocked in 1993, the latter being of particular significance as they represent a pivotal stage in the transition of the Conservancy from cattle ranching to full-scale wildlife ranching. To satisfy veterinary requirements for the holding of foot-and-mouth infected buffalo under free-range conditions, a double fence was required around the periphery of the Conservancy, comprising an external electrified game fence and an inner sturdy, but lower, fence that was also electrified. There had to be a 7.5m cleared area between the two and regular patrolling. The buffalo were finally released in January 1996. Many of the larger ungulates are present in healthy numbers, and notable rarer species include grysbok and nyala. Warthog and bushpig were severely affected by the 1991/92 drought (estimated 90% mortality), as were zebra and hippo.

In terms of predators, besides a healthy leopard population, cheetah and hyena have returned, and most importantly a pack of wild dogs has established itself on Conservancy land. In February 1997 plans were being made to donate dogs for re-introduction in Matusadona.

Species	Estimated Population Size		Restocking	
	1992	1996	Actual	Planned
Buffalo	38	350	300	3750
Cheetah	12	50		
Crocodile		200		
Eland	1500	2200	50	500
Elephant	50	700	600	250
Giraffe	30	300	200	1000
Hartebeest				100
Hippo	15-20	30	2	10
Impala	40,000	60,000		
Klipspringer	300	4-500		
Kudu	12,000	15,000		
Leopard	200	250		
Lion		4		
Nyala	120	200		500
Ostrich	3			500
Rhino, black		54		
Rhino, white	4	6	1	75
Roan				100
Sable	20	150	133	500
Tsessebe	25	100	85	
Waterbuck	200	300	60	400
Wild Dog	40	80-100		
Wildebeest	100	200	100	1500
Zebra	1500	2000	100	1200

Table G.2 Mammal Population Estimates and Restocking Jan 1997

Some 1600 animals have been brought into the Save Valley Conservancy at a cost of ±Z$7,000,000 since 1991[1].

G.2 The Formation of a Conservancy

In August 1995, Claude Martin, Director General of the World Wide Fund for Nature endorsed the Save Valley Conservancy as an "excellent example" of an initiative to reverse the trend towards extinction which faces the world's wildlife. He pointed to the Save Valley Conservancy's significance in involving the creation of the world's largest privately owned nature reserve and embodying the principles of contemporary conservation strategy:

- "The implementation of the sustainable use of wildlife as a preferred land use option

1 Clive Stockil pers. comm.

- The integration of an impoverished rural community in the conservation process through their participation in a wildlife based economy

- The rehabilitation of degraded range lands

- The reintroduction of those species of indigenous large mammals which were previously depleted or extirpated."[2]

Prior to colonisation, the area was sparsely populated by cattle herders and hunter/gatherers and there was very limited cultivation. Until the 1920's there was very little impact by man on the valley. Poor rainfall in the area meant that both cattle and crop production were poor. The area was renowned for particularly large herds of ungulates, including Liechtenstein's hartebeest and roan antelope (animals which although now rare were so common before W.W.II that they were shot for ration meat).

The Devuli and Humani ranches were created in the 1920's and the Senuko and Levanga Ranches in the 1970's. The introduction of cattle displaced wildlife and set in train the environmental degradation of the valley with a reduction in biodiversity and a significant loss of topsoil.

The Department of Veterinary Services would not give permission for cattle to be run on the land until foot-and-mouth disease risks had been reduced through the construction of cattle fencing and the removal of buffalo. Buffalo and elephant[3] were eradicated as were lions, cheetah and hyena, although a healthy leopard population survived.

Wildlife was eradicated as it was seen as a danger to livestock and a hindrance to the maximisation of returns. The infrastructure for cattle management was created in the form of roads, water supplies and fences. Wildlife was fenced out of its traditional water sources, and its natural ranging checked. Hunting was practised throughout the period as a means of removing the wildlife from competition with cattle. Selective grazers like sable were unable to contend with competition from coarse grazing cattle and their numbers shrank.

For the ranchers hunting became an important source of income to supplement revenue from cattle when suppressed by poor rainfall and disease. By the late 1980's three factors were creating the conditions necessary for the formation of the Save Valley Conservancy:

- cattle production was less and less viable, the vegetation could no longer sustain viable stocking rates, beef profits declined

- the incidence of drought was increasing and the 1991/2 drought forced destocking

2 Letter from Dr. Claude Martin to Save Valley Conservancy 28 August 1995, published in The Save Valley Conservancy Trust (SVC, 1996) p. 44.

3 Five elephant survived in the thickets at the junction of the Save and Turgwe rivers.

- the wildlife industry was of increasing importance to Zimbabwe and at a workshop in November 1992 it was agreed that the "development of high quality tourism operations should become the major objective of all members."[4] This would require the reintroduction of the "big five".

By the early 1990's the ranches were ceasing to be profitable, and many ranches were selling assets. It was envisaged that the rhino would become a valuable asset on loan to the Conservancy from DNPWLM as part of a financially viable wildlife enterprise, with rhino, plains game and cattle. At this stage it was assumed that the Save Valley Conservancy would develop multi-species production, including the sustainable ranching of cattle.

The 1991/2 drought resulted in almost complete destocking of cattle and wild animals had to be fed with stunted sugarcane and highveld hay. The Save Valley is in the 'red zone' and meat produced there cannot be exported to the European Union. Cattle production was only profitable in years of good rain and the lowveld was being degraded by over-grazing.

The initiative was taken in June 1991 to form the Conservancy in order to form a sufficiently large area to facilitate black rhino breeding and conservation. There had been extensive discussions since 1989 between landowners in the area and Raoul du Toit of DNPWLM about the potential for developing a rhino Conservancy. The productivity of the land was declining and soils were being eroded, but the changes in the vegetation favoured black rhino which were first reintroduced to Save in 1986/7 [5]. The formation of the Conservancy was a joint endeavour of DNPWLM, WWF and the Beit Trust. A total of 20 black rhino were translocated to the Conservancy in 1986, 1987 and 1988.. The landowners took responsibility for the costs of managing and protecting the black rhino and this was a major impetus for the formation of the Conservancy. From its formation, the importance of making a return from tourism was recognised as a means of meeting the costs of managing and protecting the rhino. No rhino have been lost since the formation of the Conservancy. Further black rhino were introduced in mid-1993 bringing the total to 35. By 1996 this had increased to 54 by natural recruitment.

In November 1992 the Save Conservancy held a planning workshop at Nyanga to discuss amongst the members the future of the Conservancy. The Mission Statement of the Save Valley Conservancy was agreed in November 1992[6]. It was to

"Create a land-use model based on economically and ecologically sustainable utilisation[7] of wildlife. The land-use model will lead to maximum wealth creation for stakeholders[8] through the establishment and management of internationally renowned tourism[9] operations. These operations will lead to a healthy and viable environment in

4 Save Valley Conservancy Project Outline July 1994 p. 8.
5 Stockil pers. comm.
6 Save Valley Conservancy Strategic Planning Workshop Summary, 16-17 November 1992.
7 Original footnote: "Consumptive or non-consumptive".
8 Original footnote "Primarily consisting of the landowners and investors in the Conservancy, and the local communities".
9 Original footnote "Definition of tourism includes hunting".

the Conservancy and will contribute to the conservation of endangered species, especially the black rhinoceros. In undertaking these operations, the Conservancy intends to take maximum advantage of the synergy potential of group effort, while at the same time ensuring that the identity of individual properties is maintained."

The watershed decision to move out of cattle and bring in buffalo was made at this workshop. It was agreed that if the Conservancy was to be successful as a high quality consumptive and non-consumptive tourism venture, buffalo were essential. It was at this same workshop that the Mission Statement was agreed. The members also identified a number of weaknesses in their position:

- the habitat was degraded, with low game populations and a lack of diversity.

- all the owners were white, surrounded by "potentially hostile Communal Lands", and there were problems in maintaining "law enforcement effort".

- there was a lack of consensus among the members of the Conservancy and a lack of finance to fund the restocking and the establishment of tourism facilities that were necessary for the change-over from cattle to wildlife.

- lack of a business development plan, shortage of tourism management expertise, no established marketing links and being a new destination with a lack of existing tourism facilities and infrastructure.

- The members recognised, however, that there were opportunities:

- to establish and foster relationships with local communities.

- to attract international funding.

- to benefit from high land values and participation in a rapidly expanding international industry and one with comparative advantage in Zimbabwe.

- to attract tourism expertise from outside to benefit from the advantages of close proximity to the established South African market and Buffalo Range airport and the intention to create a southern tourism circuit.

The major threats were perceived as population pressures, the alienation of local communities, government interference or lack of support, recession, drought or foreign perceptions of political instability in Zimbabwe.

The workshop recognised that there were a number of critical success factors, amongst which were:

- access to funding for bridging the period from cattle to wildlife production, restocking and the development of tourism facilities.

- restocking with a sufficient range and quantity of wildlife.

- development of appropriate management skills and marketing networks.

- "development of a suitable level of awareness of the Conservancy, and its aims, amongst the local communities. This will in all likelihood be achieved through the creation of mechanisms which lead to the local communities benefiting from the existence of the Conservancy"; and securing the commitment of local and central government to the Conservancy.

There was no agreement at the November 1992 workshop about the role of the Conservancy in regard to tourism operations which could range from operating all tourism facilities as a joint venture to providing an environment within which individual landowners could pursue their own consumptive and non-consumptive tourism businesses.

The Price Waterhouse report on "The Lowveld Conservancies: New Opportunities for Productive and Sustainable Land-Use" in 1994 concluded that wildlife was particularly suitable as a land use option in agricultural regions IV and V:

- the financial returns were significantly higher than cattle ranching.

- the direct and indirect employment opportunities were significantly increased.

- foreign currency generation increased.

- an economic multiplier effect would be created.

- environmental degradation would be reversed

In 1994 the members reached agreement that the development of multi-use wildlife production systems based on high quality tourism should become the major objective of all Conservancy members. The Conservancy members considered that the Save Valley Conservancy was attractive to the existing hunting and tourism industry because private land offered new opportunities for the development of the consumptive and non-consumptive tourism industry. [10] This was seen as necessary because:

- there was a lack of access to suitable concessions for hunting, there were few new concession areas available and auction prices for hunts had been rising.

- Mana Pools, Matusadona and Hwange National Parks are considered to be overcrowded and there have been complaints about the quality of the visitor experience and concern that environmental damage is resulting from over-development and over-use.

10 Save Valley Conservancy Project Outline 12 July 1994 pp. 15-16.

- Periods of tenure granted to concessionaires had been shortened to periods which now precluded appropriate investment by concessionaires.

- There was little flexibility in the forms of use allowed on state lands. Game viewing was restricted to daylight hours and there was no opportunity to construct game watering and game viewing facilities, nor to permit the baiting of game.

- The Save Valley Conservancy was seen as having a number of advantages:

- the area was large enough, equivalent to a medium or large national park, to support a large number of consumptive and non-consumptive tourism operations.

- wildlife populations could be built-up to optimal levels in a relatively short space of time (if funds and animals were available).

- the dramatic nature of the changes being introduced in pursuit of conservation could be used to market the area.

- concessionaires could be offered suitable periods of tenure and have flexibility in terms of infrastructure development and the nature of their operations.

The Save Valley Conservancy was seen as having considerable ecotourism and conservation appeal. Far from being an isolated game ranch, Save Valley was a large area of veld being returned to wildlife. The importance of its location and the potential for its connection with Gonarezhou National Park and the proposed Trans-frontier Conservation Area linking Mozambique, Zimbabwe and South Africa make it a significant wildlife area. The Save Valley Conservancy was seen as having a number of "landmark conservation activities":

- a refuge for one of the largest remaining breeding populations of black rhino in Zimbabwe.

- the reintroduction of complete family groups of elephant.

- the potential for the involvement of local communities in conservation activities.

- the environmental conservation measures associated with the transformation from cattle ranching to wildlife utilisation.

The Conservancy took the decision[11] to target high quality eco-tourism and to ensure that all developments were of a sufficiently high standard "to sustain and enhance the Conservancy's reputation as a nature reserve of international status".[12] They committed themselves to the principle of low tourist densities, managing visitor pressure with full regard to the ecological sustainability of the Conservancy and to the

11 For comments on this decision see Chapter 7.
12 Save Valley Wildlife Conservancy Private Placement Document for Save Wildlife Services Ltd. p.12. 25 September 1995, but never issued.

principle that tourism developments should "not unreasonably impact on the sovereignty of neighbouring properties as a result of trespassing by tourists .... or excessive levels of transit traffic...". They also undertook to ensure that "the physical nature and architectural style of tourism developments should be sympathetic to the overall objects of the Conservancy" and its image "as a leading example of the use of natural environment and wildlife as a preferred land use option."[13]

G.2.1 The Constitution

The Save Valley Conservancy was incorporated as a non-profit voluntary organisation "to develop and maintain opportunities for the conservation and sustainable utilisation of natural resources in the Conservancy area and its environs". This was to be achieved through sound ecological management in order to prevent the degradation of the natural resources indicated by a decline in biological productivity and diversity and "the exploitation of the natural resources by any user, at the expense of other users".

The reintroduction of species within a game fenced Conservancy was intended for two reasons:

- "promotion of schemes, of mutual benefit to the Conservancy's members for deriving economic returns from wildlife , through either consumptive means (e.g. game cropping and safari hunting) or non-consumptive means (e.g. tourism)." § 3.1.4

- "assist where possible in the attainment of national objectives for wildlife conservation, notably the protection and breeding of endangered species, in the hope that these species shall become components of a sustainable land-use system." § 3.2

It was recognised in the constitution that the conservation of endangered species within the Conservancy would not only be dependent upon economic incentives. The Conservancy members were reported to have also committed themselves to research into ecological and economic aspects of natural resource management.

84% of the boundary of SVC is Communal Land consisting of 18 wards spread over 5 districts. In total 120,000 people live in close proximity to the Conservancy boundary. It was therefore intended that a proportional input would be made to each district. Initially, it was proposed that one project would be implemented in each district, although there would be variation in the size and duration of projects.

The objects of the Conservancy included the:
"development of a programme to enhance communication with neighbouring communities and to stimulate the economic and social advancement of such communities through durable linkages with the Conservancy's wildlife industry."[14]

13 Minutes of Conservancy Committee 15 August 1995.
14 § 3.1.5

The Constitution committed the members to "full liaison" with local authorities and government agencies and NGO's.[15]

It was envisaged that small projects could include a women's co-operative to make uniforms for SVC staff. Machines, materials and patterns could be supplied by the Conservancy. Larger projects could include an irrigation scheme which would be an ongoing initiative. It was expected that some of the smaller projects could be operational by the end of 1995.

The challenge for members would be to find a mechanism through which local people could become stakeholders in the Conservancy or gain financially from it. The long term viability of the Conservancy would depend upon it's winning acceptance for its land use strategy from the local communities. Amongst the critical success factors identified by the Conservancy at its strategic planning workshop in November 1992, was securing the commitment of local and central government to the concept of the Conservancy and:

'The development of a suitable level of awareness of the Conservancy, and its aims, amongst the local communities. This will in all likelihood be achieved through the creation of mechanisms which lead to the local communities benefiting from the existence of the Conservancy'.

The Save Valley Conservancy evolved a number of strategies to achieve this central objective. These are covered in the following section.

Save Valley Conservancy Project Outline July 1994

In order to make the Save Valley Conservancy and its members economically sustainable, it was essential to restock the Conservancy with wildlife, enabling members to conduct "high quality tourism and hunting operations". The Save Valley Conservancy needed between Z$60m and Z$80m (US$7-10m) of game to bring game populations to a level which would attract tourists. Levies would be paid by the safari and lodge operators for their consumptive or non-consumptive use of the game.

The members of the Conservancy would create and capitalise Save Valley Wildlife Services Ltd, incorporated in August 1995. This company would be responsible for purchasing the wildlife and restocking the Conservancy, and subsequently for the ongoing management, monitoring, protection and use of the wildlife. It was intended to source additional capital from donors and investors so that Save Valley Wildlife Services Ltd could acquire the necessary wildlife to enable Conservancy members to develop consumptive and non-consumptive businesses and to ensure the viability of the Conservancy. The cost of acquiring the wildlife in order to restock to 85% of the carrying capacity was estimated at Z$50m in 1994, Z$69m by September 1995. Purchases were envisaged from DNPWLM, other private landowners in Zimbabwe and from Botswana, South Africa and Malawi. Significant costs would be incurred in purchase, capture and translocation.

15 § 3.1.7

It was envisaged that the Save Valley Wildlife Services Ltd would levy hunting and tourism operations for the use of the wildlife and from these revenues pay for the management, monitoring and protection of the wildlife.[16] Tourism operations would pay a levy based on bed-nights or a percentage of turnover. Hunting operations would pay a percentage of hunting revenues, and as a consumptive use this cost would be very significantly higher than for non-consumptive use. Each property would be expected to produce a minimum levy per land unit to ensure that the company broke even. Landowners falling below the minimum would be required to make up the difference. The minimum levy was seen as essential to:

- ensure the full utilisation of wildlife to fund and justify restocking.

- ensure that the more progressive and successful landowners did not have to subsidise and support less successful members.

- landowners are afforded an option of making no use of the wildlife on their land, but incur a charge for so doing.

The capital structure of the company was envisaged to be:

- ordinary shares issued in direct proportion to the landholding to the landowners, the original investors in the Conservancy.

- preference shares for commercial investors (likely to be attracted by the nature of the investment rather than its commercial performance).

- preference shares acquired by donors which might then be ceded to the Trust.

Save Valley Conservation and Development Trust would be established and donors to Save Valley Wildlife Services Ltd would cede their preference shares to the Trust. It was envisaged that Save Valley Wildlife Services Ltd would be owned 36% by the landowners and 64% by the Trust. The Trust would own the additional wildlife purchased with donor funding on behalf of the Conservancy's neighbours. Their ownership of the wildlife would ensure them an income stream. Given an investment from donor sources of Z$65m, the Trust could expect an income of Z$5 million per annum.[17] The long term value of this income was to be protected by linking it to the US$.

Through the Save Valley Conservation and Development Trust it was intended to

"integrate the Conservancy into the surrounding region and communities, and ensure that these peoples became involved in the economic activities conducted in the Conservancy, and benefit there from."[18]

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16 ibid p. 3

17 This point was emphasized by Simon Metcalfe in his Fist Draft Project Identification Plan: "Enhancing the Capacity of Neighbouring Committees to Benefit from the Proposed Save Valley Conservancy Trust" Zimbabwe Trust, April 1996.

18 ibid p. 2

It was envisaged that this would "lead to enhanced levels of economic activity in the areas surrounding the Conservancy, and lead to improved quality of life for the communities concerned."[19] The creation of the Conservancy was presented as providing
"a unique opportunity for those communities to reduce their dependence on subsistence agriculture and through the sustainable utilisation of wildlife to establish other means of income generation."[20]

The Save Valley Conservation and Development Trust would identify, initiate and assist in the implementation of projects to achieve economically sustainable rural development and to assist with the "conservation and rehabilitation of the environment in the Save Valley as a whole."[21] The members of the Save Valley Conservancy claim to be aware of the need to involve local communities in the "use and benefit of the area and its wildlife" and considered that "significant potential exists to improve the lives of local residents".[22] They recognised that the Conservancy was not the appropriate body to stimulate the involvement of the local communities, lacking the focus, skills and resources to ensure the success of the project. The Save Valley Conservation and Development Trust was created to fulfil this role.

"A relationship of interdependence between the people of the Communal Lands and the Conservancy members is to be established so that the economic benefits created within the Conservancy will flow through the perimeter fence into the lives of the surrounding communities. The interdependence created will direct what is arguably the most significant conservation project on the African continent today."[23]

The Trust sought to achieve "proprietorship of the surrounding communities in joint participation with the landowners in the largest privately owned wildlife reserve in the world ...." and to create "direct and indirect employment and entrepreneurial opportunities for the surrounding communities, through the pooling of resources and skills and new linkages between the area's commercial and subsistence economies."[24] These were grand objectives indeed and the target income to the Trust over five years was Z$65m. This money would be used to purchase wildlife, ownership of the wildlife would be transferred to Save Valley Wildlife Services Ltd in return for "B" shares in the company.

According to the earlier report the Trust would have three objectives:[25]

- rural development.
- environmental conservation and rehabilitation.
- wildlife conservation.

19 ibid p. 2
20The Save Valley Conservancy Trust 1996 p. 2.
21 ibid pp. 3-4
22 ibid p. 18
23 The Save Valley Conservancy Trust 1996 p 2.
24ibid p. 4
25 Save Valley Conservancy Project Outline 12 July 1994 p.18.

It was envisaged that the Trust would be funded by direct capital grants to the Trust by donors wishing to support the establishment of the Trust and its activities. The Trust could also be funded by donors investing in Save Valley Wildlife Services Ltd and then vesting ownership of the shares to the Trust then the Trust would receive a regular income stream to support its activities in the Communal Lands.

The Trust would be the main interface between the Conservancy and the surrounding communities. Three forms of rural development potential were identified:

- increased economic activity in and around the Conservancy.
- creation of direct and indirect employment opportunities in and around the Conservancy in tourism and hunting operations.
- involving the surrounding communities in economic activities taking place within the Conservancy.

Income from the Save Valley Conservancy would come in two forms:

	Landowners	Trust on behalf of local communities
Tourism[26]	Profits	Levy 2% rising to 5% in year 5.
Game Ranching[27]	50% of profit	50% of profit

In the 1996 Trust document it was proposed that the levy in year one would be 2% yielding income to the Trust of Z$376,400 and rising to 5% (on a far higher cumulative expenditure on wildlife) grossing Z$3,250,000 to the Trust.[28]

The Save Valley Conservancy Trust was founded on 9th August 1996 to sponsor and promote the involvement of the rural communities surrounding the Conservancy in its "economic and conservation activities". The Trust's objective is to foster a "relationship of interdependence between the people of the Communal Lands and the Conservancy members" so that "the economic benefits created within the Conservancy will flow through the perimeter fence into the lives of the surrounding communities". This interdependence would "direct what is arguably the most significant conservation project on the African continent today".[29]

The fence was necessary to exclude cattle and ensure the separation of the Conservancy and its buffalo from the surrounding lands. It was also necessary to ensure that elephant and lion in the Conservancy did not pose a threat to local communities. However, the way in which the fence had been erected (without discussion and negotiation with local communities) perhaps emphasised the division and gap between the Conservancy and its neighbours.

26 Consumptive and non-consumptive.
27 cropping and live sale of designated animals.
28 Save Valley Conservancy Trust 1996 p. 6.
29 The Save Valley Conservancy Trust p.2.

The Trust's objectives are sustainable local economic development , education and research:

1. "To foster co-operation and communication between the Save Valley Conservancy and its neighbouring communities through beneficial and durable economic relations.

2. To promote an awareness amongst the local communities at both adult and juvenile levels of the principles of sustainable conservation through the development and implementation of appropriate environmental education programmes.

3. To encourage and support social and scientific research projects that are directed towards advancing the principle of the sustainable use of wildlife and natural resources as a preferred land use option."[30]

The Trust's main strategy for local economic development is through[31] the "development of community projects which are closely associated with the wildlife industry within the Conservancy. These community projects would "provide tangible and sustainable benefits in the form of household earnings, food and other basic needs, infrastructural projects, or social services." The projects would seek to "develop the managerial capacity and entrepreneurial spirit" of local communities at household, village and ward levels and create, wherever possible, formal institutional frameworks for the initiatives. The projects would offer incentives and technical assistance to switch to sustainable production systems which are ecologically, economically, technically, institutionally and politically viable.[32]

The plan was that Trustees would be nominated by the Conservancy to represent the communal people, the Conservancy, the international community (including donors) and Provincial and District Administration and Government[33].

G.2.1.1 Projects

The projects identified in the Trust document were:

- Furniture Manufacture
- Curio Manufacture
- Uniform Manufacture
- Food, vegetable and fruit production
- Ostrich Farming
- Provision of Transport

30 ibid p. 11
31 but not exclusively through.
32 ibid p. 11
33 For a discussion on this approach to nominating Trustees see Chapter 7.

- Provision of draught power
- Wood fuel and meat distribution
- Cultural Tourism
- Tourism and game ranching activities through incorporation of Communal Lands into the Conservancy
- Community based wildlife projects

The Cunliffe Report[34] was commissioned in recognition of the need to broaden the concept of the Conservancy so that in addition to benefiting the landowners it also contributed to the enhancement of the standard of living of the people on the adjacent Communal Land. This would be achieved through a Trust designed "to foster mutually beneficial and durable economic relations between the Conservancy and its neighbouring peoples."[35]

The Cunliffe Report dealt with existing initiatives and sought to identify potential schemes arguing that the "active development of a programme of community projects, with the objective of reducing the current levels of poverty and environmental degradation" in areas adjacent to the Save Valley Conservancy,

> "should be viewed as being an essential component of the Conservancy's proposed wildlife and tourism development, rather than merely as an attractive and trendy addition."[36]

Cunliffe recognised that this would be a slow process requiring a full-time project officer employed by the Conservancy and the development and strengthening of appropriate institutions in the area.[37] He reported that the Conservancy members had realised that there was a "clear need for them to directly address the conditions of poverty and degradation in the neighbouring areas" and that the long term success of the Conservancy would "be closely tied to the quality of life experienced by their neighbours in the adjacent Communal Lands and resettlement schemes."[38] However, Cunliffe also reported that a number of farmers were relatively unaware of who exactly their neighbours are, of their problems and of the structures of their communities. There were common complaints from "neighbouring peoples" that the Conservancy ranchers only visited when there was a problem of poaching or of fire.[39] However there are existing initiatives, but on a relatively small scale.

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34 R.N. Cunliffe, Save Valley Conservancy Community-Based Projects: Overview and Presentation of Project Concepts (October 1994), prepared for the Beit Trust, WWF and DNPWLM on behalf of the Save Valley Conservancy.
35 ibid p. iii
36 ibid p. v.
37 ibid p. vi
38 ibid p. 2
39 ibid p. 23

G.2.1.2 Existing initiatives included:

Restocking of cattle populations.

This has been assisted by the making available of breeding stock in exchange for steers or oxen and by the provision of advice on animal husbandry.[40]

Provision of tractors for draught power.

Impala Ranch has assisted Villages 1&2 in Chizvirizvi by providing a tractor for ploughing at the same rate as that charged by the District Development Fund. Part of this fee is used to pay the wages of the drivers and fuel costs (but not any other operating expenses) the remainder is put aside to purchase a new tillage unit for Chizvirizvi.[41]

Harvesting of ilala palms for the manufacture of curios.

Ilala palms are widely used for the making of wine, furniture and crafts. Chipinge District has a well established curio industry with a reputation for quality work. The alluvial deposits along the Save River have traditionally been major sources of ilala palms, but the east bank has been seriously depleted through over-harvesting. Local craftsmen are having difficulty finding sufficient raw material for their trade.

Humani Ranch has abundant stands of ilala and has allowed people from the villages of Musikavanhu Communal Lands to harvest palms under controlled conditions. In return for the right to harvest free (but limited) bundles of ilala palms, cutters are required to clear all vegetation from the electric fences running along the banks of the Save River.

Grass, firewood and hut poles are also harvested, on a very small scale, from the Conservancy on an informal basis. There is potential for the development of larger and more formal initiatives.

Provision of game meat.

Beef is prohibitively expensive for many families. The price of venison originating in the Conservancy varies markedly from one property to another. Some ranchers provide a limited amount of venison free for particular celebrations, such as school prize giving days. Others "indirectly make meat available though poor-safeguarding of their resources, thus opening the way for excessive illegal offtakes".[42] There is a ready market for cheap poached venison in the neighbouring areas.

G.2.1.3 New Schemes

- Incorporating areas of communal and resettlement land into the Conservancy.

40 Cunliffe Report p. 24. No quantitative data on the extent of this support is given.

41 Cunliffe p. 25. Cunliffe points out that this support is encouraging more extensive cultivation and contributing to further erosion.

42 Cunliffe Report p. 26.

The relatively low population densities in the Devure and Nyangambe resettlement land make these suitable areas for incorporation into the Conservancy.

The Nyangambe Resettlement Scheme, resettled in the early 1980's, shares a 14 km boundary with Mukwazi Ranch to the Northeast and connects with the Chiredzi River Conservancy to the Southwest. However, the presence of illegal settlers complicates the allocation of any extensive areas to wildlife. Within Devure Resettlement Scheme there are a number of extensive blocks of land which could be allocated to wildlife development. Some of these have pronounced granite hills and outcrops. However, considerable capital would be required for fencing and restocking the area with wildlife and for its subsequent management. Unfortunately, Bikita RDC has no experience of CAMPFIRE schemes.

If a small portion of the Save River East Bank was fenced into and incorporated within the Conservancy the east bank of the river could be stabilised and game attracted into the area. This could perhaps form the basis of a hunting and tourism enterprise producing revenue whilst regenerating habitat and reducing erosion. The river is presently an important source of water and provides grazing, firewood and fertile small vegetable plots. Cunliffe concludes that the scheme would fail until the benefits could be clearly shown to outweigh the losses which would be occasioned by the loss of access to the river.[43]

Umkondo Ranch is a 6,627 ha block of state land in the centre of the Conservancy just north of the Turgwe River. It is not suitable for dryland cropping. The future of this block of land was uncertain in 1994. It could be leased to a single commercial farmer or used for resettlement. The land could be used as a community wildlife project, managed as part of the Conservancy. Proceeds would go to a defined "producer community" in Bikita RDC. Unfortunately this land is 10 km from the nearest adjacent ward and it is difficult to identify a producer community. (In the event the land was leased to a commercial rancher who has since joined the Conservancy.)

The Conservancy had proposed that Umkondo should be allocated to the DNPWLM as a research base and as a base for the protection of the remaining rhinos in the lowveld. As the land is designated as commercial farming land, the decision rests with the Ministry of Lands, Agriculture and Water Development.

Potential Ranch (12,146 ha) on the southern boundary of the Conservancy along the Mkwasine River is owned by the Agricultural Development Authority. It is currently leased to a commercial safari operator. Although the area has considerable potential for irrigation it could be used to support a

43 Cunliffe Report p. 42.

producer community in Chiredzi RDC. Cunliffe argues that as for Umkondo the rainfall is inadequate to support resettlement.[44]

There are 70 squatter families resident on Mukazi River and Mukwazi Ranches close to Matsai Communal Land. There is a plan to sub-divide Mukazi River ranch and sell the western, 5,200 ha which abuts Matsai CL. 800 ha would be set aside for a village to accommodate the 70 squatter families and the remaining area would be developed as a community wildlife area. The scheme requires funding so that the Save Valley Conservancy can purchase the land.[45]

Shares in Wildlife within the Conservancy

The Conservancy is eager to identify some mechanism whereby it is possible to enable neighbouring communities to participate directly in the economic activities of the Conservancy. They recognise that this would be one of the most "powerful ways of securing the support and co-operation" of local people. This could be achieved by allocating a proportion (Cunliffe mentions 10%) of animals introduced to the Conservancy by DNPWLM. Revenues (with deductions for poached animals) from the utilisation of this wildlife could be utilised for community projects.[46]

Complementary Tourism Enterprises: Rupise Hot Springs

The springs are situated to the south of Middle Sabi on the main tar road form Chiredzi to Tanganda only 10 km from the Conservancy boundary. There was once a small resort there but this was destroyed during the war of independence and has not been rebuilt. It would be possible to offer game drives in the Conservancy as part of the Rupise package. If it were developed as a community project by Musikavanhu residents they would benefit through employment and a share of the revenues. "The Conservancy could play a significant role in catalysing the development".[47] Chipinge RDC is committed to the development of Rupise Hot Springs as part of the Sabi-Limpopo Development Trust's vision of the southern tourist route from South Africa, through Beitbridge, through the Communal Lands along the Limpopo River to Gonarezhou and beyond to the Conservancies, Great Zimbabwe and the Eastern Highlands.[48]

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44 ibid p.30.

45 An agreement was reached with the Provincial Governor, the Bikita District Council and the squatters to enable the purchase of the squatted land and create a village area (800 ha) to be incorporated within the Matsai Communal Land. The remaining land (4,400 ha) would be set aside as a wildlife area managed for the benefit of the local community by a Trust. The cost of the land would be between US$200,000 and US$250,000, and a further US$30,000 would be required for restocking. The expected net annual earnings from the land once stocking levels have built up over the next 3-5 years is US$23,000. The local community would be defined by the ward boundary and would include 500 families. The dividend to be paid out would be between US$45-50 per annum. Average annual household incomes in resource-poor farming areas of Zimbabwe are US$70 and on nearby Sangwe Communal Land as low as US$45 for 60% of those surveyed in 1992. If this scheme secures donor funding, household incomes would show a considerable rise and there would be significant conservation gain. (du Toit 1993).

46 Cunliffe Report p. 31.

47 ibid p. 32.

48 Funding is anticipated from the GEF of the World Bank.

Complementary Tourism Enterprises: Cultural Tourism

The 1993 Price Waterhouse Report had suggested that in the short term tourism would provide 50% of revenues within the Conservancy. The tourists attracted by wildlife in the Conservancy would also be interested in experiencing the local cultures and this would produce a number of opportunities for local communities to develop projects to market to tourists visiting the Conservancy. Cunliffe suggested "... the construction of a village in which visitors could see a microcosm of traditional life"

- preparing food
- brewing beer
- making weapons for hunting
- constructing huts
- experiencing traditional cuisine
- sleeping in a hut
- seeing displays of music and dancing.

Cunliffe argued that the development of cultural tourism ventures in the Communal Land areas close to the Conservancy could be a significant benefit to both the local people and the Conservancy. Local communities would benefit from employment, revenues from the projects, the selling of artefacts through the traditional villages.[49] The Conservancy would benefit from the additional tourist attractions which would extend the stay of visitors and provide activities to vary and relieve the pressure of game viewing.

Development of small businesses selling to the Conservancies. Examples include:

- the manufacturing of uniforms and overalls for employees of the Conservancy. This would enable some of the local sewing co-operatives to expand or develop new ones. The Conservancy could assist by providing finance for the purchase of materials or by providing sewing machines.
- building materials, bricks, window and door frames; and furnishings such as mats and tables.

- supplies of vegetables, fruit, eggs and meat which could be sourced locally.

- the rearing of ostriches from 3 months to adulthood. Small Communal Land producers would buy young ostriches from commercial farmers, rear them to adulthood and resell them to the commercial farmers for marketing. This is akin to a cattle weaner production system. It would enable Communal Land farmers to enter ostrich production without making a large investment in incubation equipment and without taking the risk of breeding chicks whilst having access to established marketing networks and technical advice.

49 ibid p. 33

- the local marketing of game meat in the surrounding areas at a "reasonably affordable price" sourced from the Conservancy would have a major impact on food and protein supplies in the Communal Lands. The 1993 Price Waterhouse report did not envisage venison sales as a major source of income to the Conservancy members. Their detailed figures for Senuko suggested that venison sales would account for about 5% of the income of Senuko. Whilst the Conservancy members would want to control the offtake of animals, small business opportunities exist in the distribution and sale of game meat in the Communal Lands.
- the sale of curios to Conservancy visitors. The Conservancy could enable people from the neighbouring Communal Lands to sell curios and craft products to tourists visiting the Conservancy and encourage the visitors to make purchases.

- significant numbers of people have traditionally passed through the Conservancy area travelling, usually on foot, to Chipinge, Bikita and Zaka Districts. The Conservancy members have increased security because of the risk of poaching and fire and the increased risk to pedestrians due to the presence of elephant, buffalo and rhino. It would be mutually beneficial if a local entrepreneur were to operate a motorised transport system across the Conservancy. The Conservancy could capitalise, and initially subsidise, the service. Cunliffe reported, however, a limited demand for the service as local people did not currently perceive any risk in crossing the Conservancy.[50]

- Establishment of an educational centre within the Conservancy.
  This project is different from the others presented in the Cunliffe Report in that it would be expensive to set up and run, and it would not generate revenue. The value of the educational centre as an interpretation and visitor centre for tourists is not, however, discussed in the Cunliffe Report.

- Environmental education and conservation awareness are important objectives of the Save Valley Conservancy and this could be provided through the provision of courses and talks. The courses and talks would explain the role of the Conservancy and its implications for its neighbours. Cunliffe recognised that this "could serve as an extremely powerful extension tool for increasing the understanding between the Conservancy members and their neighbouring communities."[51]

- Provision of technical and other support to communities planning the management and use of their natural resources at village level. The Conservancy could begin to work with a limited number of villages to enable them to take responsibility rather than looking to government.

Cunliffe concluded that the creation of community projects around the Conservancy was essential, and that the projects should be seen as "core component" of the

50 ibid pp 38-9.
51 ibid p.34

initiative.[52] He acknowledged that a number of development projects had been initiated but concluded that, on their own, they would "not be substantial enough to form the backbone of the envisaged Conservancy programme."[53] Cunliffe pointed out that the development of the community projects was a long term process moving towards empowerment and that the Conservancy should work with existing institutions. The creation of employment opportunities in the Conservancy should be a priority. Recruitment to jobs in the Conservancy should be exclusively from adjacent wards and target its efforts in "tightly and rigorously defined "communities.[54] He recommended that a full-time liaison officer be appointed and Mr B. Shumba, an Assistant District Administrator, was recruited.

G.2.1.4 Employment

The Conservancy estimated that 350 employees were employed on cattle ranches before the drought and that with the creation of tourist facilities the number of employees would increase to 1,250 (assuming the construction of lodges with 500 beds). The combined effect of larger numbers of jobs and higher wages in the tourism industry led the Conservancy to estimate the increase in wages paid into the local communities to be in excess of Z$6 million per annum.[55] There would also be considerable indirect employment opportunities.

G.2.1.5 Local Economic Impact

The Conservancy quoted the experience of similar enterprises in South Africa where 80% of the overhead is spent in the immediate area and committed the Conservancy to "encourage and support the formation of businesses in surrounding areas" to provide its inputs. Cultural and ethnic tourism would flourish; brick making, furniture and curio manufacture, market gardening and transport services would be encouraged. Seed capital would be available from the revenue accruing to the Trust.

G.2.1.6 Direct participation by the local community in the Conservancy

The Trust document also anticipates the involvement of local communities in the Conservancy through the movement of the fence to incorporate Ward 26 of Devure Resettlement Scheme and a portion of the Nyangambe Resettlement Scheme.[56] Other benefits would include meat at affordable prices and a wood fuel supply.

G.3 ECONOMICS, LAND USE AND DEVELOPMENT

The Price Waterhouse Report concluded that a wildlife operation had the potential to earn Z$61.31 gross per ha whilst cattle production was unlikely to earn more than Z$17-Z$35 depending on stocking ratios, the higher return leading to range degradation (see Table G.3). At best cattle, would gross only 58% of what was possible under wildlife production. When net incomes were compared, the cattle operation earned only 40% of what was possible from wildlife.

52 ibid p. 43
53 ibid p. 43
54 ibid p. 44
55 ibid p.6
56 ibid p.6

	Cattle Production		Wildlife Production
	Stockil[57]	Agritex[58]	
Total income generated per ha	Z$ 17.78	Z$ 35.56	Z$ 61.31
Net profit per ha	Z$3.06	Z$ 13.00	Z$ 37.71
Local economy expenditures[59]	Z$2.68	Z$5.35	Z$ 10.45
Return on capital employed[60]	1%	3%	11%
Numbers employed Conservancy total	277	542	453

Table G.3 Comparison of beef production and proposed wildlife production system on Senuko Ranch, extrapolated to the Conservancy [61]

It was clear from the table that the wildlife operation is expected to expend considerably more in the local economy and to create more jobs. These figures drawn from the Price Waterhouse Lowland Conservancies Report demonstrate why the landowners in the Save Valley opted for wildlife production. It is still too early to determine what the consequences of the change will be for the Conservancy as a whole. It was expected that there would be 100+ beds by the end of 1995 [62]. However, progress has not been as rapid as was expected. It has taken longer than anticipated to secure the internal agreements to proceed and to win acceptance for the land use changes. At the end of 1997 the Conservancy reached 100 beds.

The employment effects are, however, already apparent.

Ranch	Area (ha)	Total Labour Employed	Local
Angus	15,792	12	11
Chapungu	12,976	19	19
Chishakwe	9,977	32	32
Gunundwe	11,374	19	17
Levanga	13,040	14	14
Mapari	23,153	38	26
Matendere	13,123	43	39
Msaize	16,340	2	2
Mukwazi	12,549	33	24
Savuli	5,529	20	20
Senuko	24,120	64	64
Total	157,973	296	268

Table G.4 Employment on ranches in February 1997[63]

The data presented in Table G.4 covers 11 of the 23 properties and 46% of the area of the Conservancy. The February 1997 employment level is 296 which extrapolates to 643 for the Conservancy as a whole if we assume that the sample is representative and that employment is related to area. This figure clearly exceeds the Price Waterhouse forecast (see Table G.4) .The employees are predominantly (90.5%) from the areas adjoining the Conservancy ranches.

57 1 LSU per 20 ha, based on Stockil's stocking levels.
58 Based on 1 LSU per 10 ha, Agritex's stocking ratios.
59 The amount spent by the enterprise in the local economy, mainly wages.
60 Based on recent land values at sale. Z$246/ha used for both cattle production and wildlife.
61 De la Harpe, D A , The Lowland Conservancies: New Opportunities for Productive and Sustainable Land-Use Price Waterhouse, Harare 1994 :74-77.
62 Clive Stockil, pers. comm.
63 Data collected by the Conservator (Graham Connear), it was not possible to collect a full data set.

It was not possible to establish reliable data on the numbers employed on ranches before the drought except in three cases. These figures indicate a 253% increase in employment to February 1997 on the numbers employed before the drought. On these three ranches there was a total of 4,000 cattle in early 1991 (one job to every 75 cattle). The forecasts provided by the ranch owners suggest that this level of employment will be maintained. Chishakwe has no accommodation open yet. It's increase in staffing has been for wildlife management. Senuko has 16 beds in February 1997 and 4 staff per bed in an up market lodge. Mapari has a range of middle range accommodation, 40 beds and a ratio of one employee per bed. These figures include game scouts and fence guards. The average is one game scout for every 2,000 ha. Chishakwe and Senuko have 5 and 12 game scouts respectively, very close to the Conservancy figure. Mapari experiences more poaching and has one game scout to every 1500 ha. The number of fence scouts employed is directly proportional to the exterior fence component of each ranch.

Ranch	**Area (ha)**	**Total Labour Employed**			
		1991	**Nov 1995**	**Feb 1997**	**2000**
Mapari	23,153	15	40	38	20
Chishakwe	9,977	20	35	32	50
Senuko	24,120	18	68	64	60
Total	**57,250**	**53**	**143**	**134**	**130**

Table G.5 Employment Trends on Selected Ranches

G.3.1 Conversion to Wildlife Production

It was recognised that the viability of wildlife land-use would require the presence of substantial populations of the 'big five' and involve the reintroduction of elephant, lion and buffalo. The reintroduction of lion was incompatible with continued cattle ranching and the Department of Veterinary Services was highly unlikely to grant permission for buffalo to run alongside cattle because of foot and mouth. The ranchers undertook to dispose of cattle as quickly as possible in order to allow stocking with buffalo and lion. Destocking was achieved either by selling the cattle or by moving the cattle to grazing elsewhere. The buffalo, which significantly enhance the viability of ranch-based hunting operations,[64] were held in a paddock on Senuko Ranch[65] pending the completion of a double fence around the Conservancy. They were released in January 1996 and this was the point at which all cattle were finally removed from the Conservancy.

64 Child 1988.

65 Senuko was de-stocked in 1991, when Clive Stockil ceased traditional ranching. Stocking levels were reduced from 1988.

G.3.2 Tourism Development

When the Price Waterhouse Report was written in 1994[66] there was very little non-consumptive tourism on the Conservancy. Senuko Ranch, owned by Clive Stockil, already had one eight-bed safari camp, on a hill-top, which was being used for safari hunting and non-consumptive tourism. The management strategy was to offer game viewing and some consumptive hunting (including bow hunting), to cull impala and (perhaps) sell some live game. It was forecast that there would be 100+ beds by the end of 1995 and perhaps 400 beds in 30-40 camps by the year 2000, none visible from any other.

In 1994 there were only three members of the Conservancy with any tourism background or experience; Senuko, Humani and Mokore. All except Senuko have almost exclusive experience of hunting rather than photographic tourism. The other members of the Conservancy were nervous about investing in tourism development and were unsure how to proceed. A workshop had been held to discuss the development possibilities. Participants in the workshop identified three options:

I. Individual development, with the landowner being investor, builder and marketer for his product.
II. Joint development, whereby two or three neighbours combined their resources and built a single lodge with a professional manager. Profits would be shared between the landowners.
III. Development by an external operator, according to one of two scenarios:
    A. Landowner develops the infrastructure whilst the operator markets and manages the product.
    B. Operator develops the infrastructure as well as marketing and managing, and holds a 5-10 year minimum lease on the property.

Most members were expected to incorporate some consumptive use into their operations as a short-term cash flow remedy. If non-consumptive tourism was seen to be viable it would be developed in the medium or long term. Some properties were expected to operate exclusively non-consumptive ventures. These would be seen as economic yardsticks for other members to follow, if they were profitable.

Marketing was planned at two levels. Firstly, marketing the concept of the Conservancy itself, funded by the Conservancy and intended to sell the Save Valley Conservancy as a whole. Secondly, the individual lodges themselves would need to market their own operations within the Conservancy.

The uncertainties surrounding the future of the Conservancy[67] substantially delayed the development of tourism infrastructure. However, by January 1997 significant development was underway and there were 100 beds on the Conservancy, although only 16 of them are presently in up-market lodges.

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66 De la Harpe, D A , The Lowland Conservancies: New Opportunities for Productive and Sustainable Land-Use Price Waterhouse, Harare 1994.
67 Covered in "The Political Context" section of Chapter 7.

Ranch	Beds	Tourism Development
Matendere	-	Markets a small hunting quota, has a small camp used by the Principals of the company. Have plans for a luxury tourist lodge.
Gunundwe	-	Consumptive tourism only
Mapari	40 6	Mapari Stop-in (8 family rooms)off the A9 nr Birchenough Bridge, caravan and tent pitches. Sabi River Safari Camp accommodates 6 in three canvas chalets under thatch, self-catering. Two bush camps used for consumptive and non-consumptive. By 2000 expects to be 20% consumptive and 80% non-consumptive.
Chishakwe	-	Plans to develop a safari camp and tourist lodge. Expects by 2000 to be 75% non-consumptive,
Msaize	-	No known plans
Chapungu	-	Zimsun Lodge Development planned for 1997
Umkondo Mine	-	No plans for tourist development, unused hunting quota.
Savuli	8	Quality of life investment, has a 4 bedroom self-catering camp used, primarily by syndicate members, at weekends. Hunting rights marketed, expects by 2000 to be 50% consumptive and 50% non-consumptive.
Mokore	12	6 bedroom lodge overlooking Turgwe River Non-consumptive and consumptive tourism.
Bedford Block & Humani	12	Hunting and self-catering non-consumptive tourism. Has 300 ha irrigation fenced out of the Conservancy. They have other fishing and hunting interests.
Angus	-	Trophy quota "sold-on". Shareholding currently precludes development.†
Mukazi River	-	Building a dual use lodge for consumptive and non-consumptive tourism.
Mukwazi	-	Plans for a ten bed lodge, opening 01/04/97.
Senuko	16	Redeveloped Senuko Lodge in a joint venture with Zimsun, 8 twin bedded rooms, opened late 1996. Plans for a 10 bed fly camp on Levanga and a traditional "village" in Gudo Ward, entrance fees and sales of bows & arrows.
Masapas	-	Feasibility study for a Lodge. No hunting in 1996.
Levanga	-	10 bedded fly camp due to open June 1997, en suite rondavels.
Mkwasine	-	Looking for a management contract .
Impala	6	6 bed camp, resident owners. 50% occupancy.
Potential	-	Hunting quota sold to an outsider, seeking non-consumptive management agreement.
Chanurwe	-	Plans to develop 2 or 3 non-consumptive lodges.
Mkwasine Estate	-	Seeking management agreement.
Hammond		Developing non-consumptive with small quota off-take.

Table G.6 Tourism Development Save Valley Conservancy January 1997 [68]

† There are 150 shareholders, with one shareholder owning 49%.

It is expected that large external operators will become involved with tourism development in Save Valley Conservancy. Zimbabwe Sun Ltd have already invested, both in a joint venture with Clive Stockil on Senuko, and in owning their own property. It is their intention to embark on joint ventures with other members of the Conservancy, and plan a total of 200 beds on a number of properties.

Other major operators such as the Rainbow Group and the Conservation Corporation are expected to follow suit and invest in tourism in Save Valley Conservancy. The landowners will be involved principally with range management and not with tourism. This is an appealing scenario in that it capitalises on the experience of the landowners whilst solving their capital and marketing problems and their lack of expertise in tourism development. A substantial investment by external operators such as these will increase the rate of development and establish viable wildlife ventures in a shorter space of time.

G.4 RELATIONSHIPS WITH SURROUNDING COMMUNITIES

84% of the boundary of the Save Valley Conservancy is shared with communal and resettlement areas and most of these lands are in regions IV and V with a population of ± 1 million. Immediately abutting the Save Valley Conservancy are 119,000[69] people living in 16 wards as part of 5 districts: Chiredzi, Bikita and Zaka within Masvingo Province and Chipinge and Buhera of Manicaland Province. The population is expected to grow by 23,000 to reach 142,000 by 2000.

There are three forms of local organisation: the traditional leaders, the newly established village and ward development committees (Vidcos and Wadcos)[70] and a range of local voluntary membership associations. These include farmers' organisations, co-operatives, church groups, sewing clubs and burial societies. Of these, only the co-operatives have any legal form or status. The only effective existing NGO in the area is Redd Barna which began work in 1989 and has undertaken a wide variety of development projects including: boreholes, school class rooms, teacher accommodation, blair toilets, supporting foster parents and developing school libraries. The relative weakness of village and ward organisation in the area was identified by Cunliffe as "a significant constraint to the rapid formulation and implementation" of projects.[71] The landowners within the Conservancy are currently dealing mostly with

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68 Information provided by Clive Stockil

69 1994 figure.

70 Created in 1984, it was envisaged that each village would comprise 100 households and ±1,000 individuals. Each Ward would be comprised of six villages. The Wards adjacent to the Conservancy vary in size between 2,300 and 13,350 people (Cunliffe, p. 17). The Wards are sub-units of the Rural District Councils (in 1993 Rural and District Councils were merged.) There has been some conflict with the traditional leadership which has been excluded from the new structures, the new Vidcos and Wadcos operate in parallel with the traditional structures. The traditional leaders have more authority on the ground while the Vidcos and Wadcos are better connected to the RDC's and have better access to resources for development (the Ministry of Local Government, Rural and Urban Development (MLGRUD), and Ministry of Lands. Agriculture and Water Development(MLWAD)). Since 1993 some chiefs were invited to sit alongside elected councilors, this has begun the process of integrating the two systems.

71 Cunliffe Report p. 22.

the traditional leaders[72]. They report that they believe these leaders have more influence at the village level, are well-established and that there was more continuity with this approach than in dealing with elected representatives with political allegiances.[73]

The 11 Communal Land areas and 5 resettlement schemes cover a total area of 282,000 ha equivalent to 80% of the Conservancy. These areas are unsuitable for dry-land cropping as the low and erratic rainfall leads to low crop yields. Continuous cultivation is common and grazing land has been used for crops. With soil of low inherent fertility this is particularly serious. There is a high degree of retention of crops for domestic consumption and reliance on imported foodstuffs and aid. Cattle rearing should be extensive. However, the high population pressure results in high land pressure. There is insufficient land to meet existing cropland and grazing needs and this will be exacerbated in the future by population growth. Despite population growth, however, there are labour shortages due to the active labour force seeking paid employment elsewhere. This has resulted in a shortage of labour to work effectively in the fields.

Only very small areas of land are irrigated[74] and livestock production is intensive because of crowding and overstocking. Livestock populations are high. Overstocking leads to overgrazing and the cattle exist on submaintenance diets. As a consequence, the livestock is not very productive and offtakes are low. In drought years livestock mortality is high.

These areas are characterised by deforestation, soil erosion[75] and environmental degradation. The people are frequently dependent on food aid. With poverty, low levels of economic activity and given the poor quality land that they have available to them, non-farm activities are potentially an important source of income. However, with only very small sums of money circulating in these areas it is very difficult for the business centres and growth points to develop.

18,000 people are currently employed on the sugar estates to the south west of the Conservancy at Triangle, Hippo Valley and Mkwasine, but drought has led to retrenchment in these numbers.

One of the challenges confronting the Save Valley Conservancy is economic and political sustainability. The Conservancy recognises that it has to ensure that the "benefits of the economy created by the Conservancy must be shared by the impoverished communities that inhabit the area surrounding it." The ultimate sustainability of the Conservancy depends upon it being seen as the preferred land use option.[76] It was recognised as essential to ensure that the benefits created by the Save Valley Conservancy "flow beyond the electric fence and extend to the communities

72 For discussion on this stance see Chapter 7.
73 ibid p. 23.
74 Only 0.02% of Masvingo Province is irrigated. Save Valley Conservancy Trust p. 12
75 Calculated at 90 tonnes/ha/annum in the Save River catchment area. The siltation of rivers and dams is pronounced and dams are short lived. The Save Valley Conservancy Trust p. 15.
76 Save Valley Wildlife Conservancy brochure 1995.

living in bordering areas". The Conservancy's brochure asserts that the "Conservancy's wildlife industry has greater potential to meaningfully diminish the poverty of the people in the neighbouring Communal Lands than any alternative land use".[77]

In 1994 the Save Valley Conservancy formulated a strategy which would enable the Conservancy to be restocked with the wildlife essential to its viability and generate funds to support the economic regeneration of the communities living around the Conservancy. This strategy would be achieved through the formation of a company 'Save Valley Wildlife Services Ltd' and a trust 'Save Valley Conservation and Development Trust'. In order to involve local communities in the use and benefit of the Conservancy and its wildlife the Conservancy decided to form the Save Valley Conservation and Development Trust, to 'improve the lives of local residents' and to stimulate regional economic development.[78]

The Trust would identify and stimulate opportunities for community involvement in the Conservancy, and seek donor assistance for projects in the Save Valley. The Trust would also aim to stimulate rural development, environmental conservation and rehabilitation and wildlife conservation by fostering 'significant linkages between the Save Valley Conservancy and its neighbouring communities through beneficial and durable relations'.

It was envisaged that the work of the Trust would be funded largely by donors. Funds would come either as direct capital grants to the Trust or through the purchasing of shares in the Conservancy which would then be ceded to the Trust on behalf of the local community. The capital would be used to purchase game, the ownership of which would be vested in the local communities and the dividends would be returned to them through the Trust providing long-term funding for development projects. The local community would thus benefit from the Conservancy through dividends paid into the Trust. At this time there were no details as to what these projects would be.

G.4.1 The Political Context

The Conservancy, surrounded as it was by an electrified veterinary fence which fenced in the wildlife and fenced out local people, was aware that it needed to develop local and national support for its objectives if it was to be sustainable. There were a number of specific issues:

- a group of commercial farmers had put a continuous fence between themselves and the Communal Land farmers, creating an island with low population densities and a rich habitat surrounded by densely populated and overgrazed areas struggling to support a population of approximately 130,000. Land reform is a major issue in Zimbabwe and the physical barrier increased local concern.

77 ibid
78 Project Outline Save Valley Conservancy, Save Valley Conservation and Development Trust and Save Wildlife Services Ltd. July 1994, p.18 .

- the Conservancy was, and remains, exclusively white owned, although the Government owns sections of the Conservancy (Umkondo and Potential[79]). The government has pressed for indigenisation and could designate land for resettlement.

- the new Rural District Councils have planning and economic development responsibilities and as representatives of the Conservancy's neighbours expected to be involved in the formation of the Conservancy.

In October 1995 the Minister of Environment and Tourism spoke at a staff seminar[80] on private conservancies and game ranches and the conditions for their establishment and growth. The Ministry of Environment and Tourism had a new Minister, Deputy Minister[81] and Permanent Secretary[82]. The Cabinet has approved in principle the establishment of a self-financing statutory Parks and Wildlife Conservation Fund[83]. The details remained to be determined but the Minister reported that there was no intention of changing the Parks and Wildlife Act. The DNPWLM was effectively being commercialised, but the DNPWLM would remain a Government Department.

More businessmen would be brought into the management of the Department at Board level. Fees in the Parks and Wildlife Estate would have to rise "drastically" in order that the DNPWLM could become "self-supporting." The Minister also urged serious consideration of the creation of a private company wholly owned by the Government to run most of the camps, chalets and lodges owned by DNPWLM and to return profits to the Fund. The National Parks would not be privatised and the DNPWLM would not become a parastatal. The Minister insisted that

> "Government will not allow the privatisation of wildlife resources through the back door, that is, through unplanned and uncontrolled private conservancies. We are fully aware of such Machiavellian plots to privatise wildlife resources from Kenya to South Africa"

The State, he asserted, would remain in charge of wildlife. The Government's objective was to "ensure protection and sustainability" through careful planning and control of ecotourism. Private conservancies, "private farms carrying out game ranching", had been established with support from DNPWLM. Some owners had seen this as an opportunity for back door privatisation and some prime land in regions I, II and III was being used. This had to be controlled in order to maintain agricultural production.

The Minister posed the question thus:

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79 In total 18,773 hectares, 5.4% of the Conservancy. Potential is owned by the Agriculture and Rural Development Authority. Umkondo has been let to German interests (Pabst Holding (Pvt) Ltd.
80 Mushandike Training Centre, Masvingo 3-6 October 1995.
81 Cde Edward Chindori-Chininga.
82 Cde July Moyo.
83 Under the Audit and Exchequer Act Chap 168 §30.

> ".. how do we implement the proposed new policy of preservation through sustainable utilisation of our wildlife heritage jointly with the private sector/conservancies and the communal areas through CAMPFIRE?"

The Minister argued that Conservancies should be restricted to ecological regions IV & V, where on region V land there is empirical evidence that tourism can outperform cattle ranching by a factor of between 5 and 10. The amalgamation of ranches "in approved parts" of regions IV & V into areas sufficiently large to accommodate "the number of animals necessary to sustain tourism operations" could be approved, but Conservancies should operate on a licence basis. The licence would be

> "given on condition that in its design, there is a formal and meaningful relationship between the particular Conservancy and the surrounding rural communities. The flow of benefits should therefore be an essential ingredient of the design of such conservancies. The surrounding rural communities should be turned into strong stakeholders in the process."

The Minister pointed out that the "erection of electric fencing enclosing large tracts of land can be emotive" and that it could "create tensions between the rural communities and the Conservancy members." It was essential that the benefits of the Conservancy extend beyond the perimeter fence. He mentioned specifically community based cultural tourism, game meat, small scale agricultural and industrial projects and pointed to the employment opportunities which they present.

The creation of conservancies would also create a market for the sale of surplus wildlife from the National Parks so long as this did not deplete the species or weaken their genetic viability. The conservancies would establish a market enabling the DNPWLM to maximise the financial return from their surplus. However he reminded his audience that "all animals in Zimbabwe are owned by the State" and reasserted that it would remain so. Animals on private land could be sustainably utilised by the owner, but this was "through a system of approvals and licences." The challenge was to develop a practical mechanism to achieve this.

The conservancies existed as a preferred land use option using wildlife to earn revenue from tourism. But this commercialisation of wildlife had to take place with social responsibility. The Ministry was not

> "opposed in principle to the establishment of private wildlife farming or private conservancies ... but only to the neo-colonialist and racist thinking demonstrated by some of the white farmers. We are therefore determined to thwart any such evil schemes in wildlife management."

G.4.2 The Conservancies and the RDCs

The Save Valley Conservancy held a workshop in March 1996 with representatives of the five adjacent RDCs to discuss the way forward. [84] It was agreed that the

84 Save Valley Conservancy Workshop, Tambuti Lodge, 27-29 March 1996. Representatives of Bikita, Buhera, Zaka, Chipinge and Chiredzi were present along with a Senior Information Officer from the Ministry of Information and the Chiredzi MP. The Save Valley Conservancy was represented by its Chairman (Clive Stockil) and the Liaison Officer (B Shumba). The Save Valley Conservancy Trust, Zimbabwe Trust, Zimbabwe Sun Ltd and the Campfire Association were also represented.

Conservancy Trust proposal and constitution should be sent formally to the five RDCs, as the beneficiaries of the Trust, for their consideration. The RDC representatives at the meeting were not clear about the processes of nomination and selection of trustees. They argued that the Trustees should "represent a broad and balanced outlook representing ethnic diversity, various specialities and also some wise and influential elders." They also claimed that traditional leaders should not be overlooked as possible Trustees.

The Conservancy had to recognise that the RDCs have overall authority over the state owned Communal Lands. The RDCs would play a key role in decisions about conservation, resource tenure and management; and project planning and implementation. The meeting nominated the Chairmen of Chiredzi and Bikita RDCs and the CEO from Zaka as Trustees. They also felt that an MP should be amongst the Trustees but the MP should be nominated from amongst the national pool.

It was pointed out that the Conservancy needed to more actively identify with the districts in which it is located, and that the councillors from the Conservancy needed to actively "win-over" the other councillors in Bikita and Chiredzi.

> "Considerable distrust could have been avoided if through the entire RDC amalgamation exercise the Conservancy wards had been more open and not planned in isolation. The Conservancy comprises over 20% of the entire Bikita District which has a large and poor population. Too much exclusivity breeds suspicion. Although the Trust proposal is very attractive the receiver of a gift has as important a role as the giver, especially if interdependence is to be reciprocal and not another word for dependence."

There was a need for more clarity about the relationships between the districts and local communities and the Conservancy. The "lack of black participation in the Conservancy" was noted as "a handicap" to the process. Bikita RDC with an interest in Umkondo had not been consulted or informed about this lease allocation.

The RDCs expressed their disappointment at the limited "positive impact on local development" from the Gonarezhou National Park and Chipinge Safari Area. The state protected areas offered little opportunity for local people. In this context the Save Valley Conservancy proposals potentially looked very attractive.[85]

Councils were expected to produce ward and district annual plans by the end of May. The Conservancy occupies two wards and it was agreed that Bikita[86] and Chiredzi[87] would submit the Conservancy proposal as the preferred land use for those two wards. In this way the Conservancy land use and beneficiary ward plans would be regarded as active plans within the provincial plan. The RDC's would be recognised as facilitating the plan, acting as the co-ordinating "linkage between communities,

85 Simon Metcalfe, First Draft Project Identification Plan: "Enhancing the Capacity of Neighbouring Committees to Benefit from the Proposed Save Valley Conservancy Trust" Zimbabwe Trust, April 1996. p. 15.
86 Councilor Henning.
87 Councilor Whittal.

Conservancy and Trust." Simon Metcalfe of Zimbabwe Trust would be asked to prepare an implementation plan by the end of May to enhance the capacity of neighbouring communities to benefit from the proposed Save Valley Conservancy Trust.

Social, economic and environmental criteria should be used to prioritise projects "at all levels from household to Trust." It was agreed that proposals should evolve up from the community, through wards to the district and finally to the Trust. The village/ward would be regarded as the custodian of the common resource base. "Natural resource proprietorship" was seen "within both a statutory and customary authority structure", the village, ward and district natural resources committees would deal with these issues. A RDC Projects Committee would forward proposed community project plans to the Trust and be accountable for the expenditure of Trust funds. The Trust also needed to address the issue of making a contribution of a 10-15% overhead to the RDCs.

The working groups felt that the opportunity presented by the Conservancy should be grasped. However the vision had to prove itself as a "Noah's Ark not the feared and unwanted Trojan Horse. It must lead to sustainable development with greatly improved equity, not wealth for the few and a symbolic hand-out to the many."

Simon Metcalfe in his implementation plan[88] addressed and clarified the institutional roles and linkages and the "inputs necessary to ensure that the community had the capacity to take advantage of proposed Trust investment".[89] He restated the Conservancy's proposals and elaborated the role of the Trust.

The Trust would manage the relationships between Conservancy members and the local communities and manage the Trust revenues "for maximum beneficial effect" to local communities.[90] Metcalfe pointed out that although the Save Valley Conservancy Trust does not require the communal management of wildlife it does require similar arrangements for the management of revenues. Chipinge and Chiredzi Rural Districts had CAMPFIRE experience but Bikita, Zaka and Buhera did not.[91]

Metcalfe pointed to the need for the local communities and the Conservancy to be more explicit about what they are offering and requesting from each other. The Trust offers a mechanism for interdependence at an institutional level and three others:

Political

> There exists a microcosm of the national land issue with "a few large landowners from a relatively wealthy ethnic minority living next to many poor Communal Landholders from the national ethnic majority." [92] It remains

88 Simon Metcalfe, Fist Draft Project Identification Plan: "Enhancing the Capacity of Neighbouring Committees to Benefit from the Proposed Save Valley Conservancy Trust" Zimbabwe Trust, April 1996.
89 ibid p. 4
90 ibid p. 11
91 p. 13
92 ibid p.13

unclear if and when the recommendations of the Land Tenure Commission might be implemented.

Economic

There has been little contact between commercial ranchers and communal farmers. Wildlife utilisation presents opportunities for a joint approach, with the commercial ranchers being prepared to share the economic benefits in order to ensure a stable political environment for their investment.[93]

Social

The erection of the wildlife fence, necessary to separate buffalo from Communal Land cattle, "symbolises a separation between commercial and communal, black and white ethnic groups, and between livestock and wildlife as a land use."[94] There is very little social interaction or interdependence between these two groups.

There are alternative options for the use of the Save Valley Conservancy. In Matabeleland South ranches adjacent to communal areas were designated for communal grazing. This enables some households to have more cattle and improved livelihoods, allows the growing population to spread in the short term, and helps to avoid drought crises provided that there is not overstocking. However, the commercial ranchers have been unable to make a profit. The land degradation problem will also be extended and cattle will give a poorer return than wildlife. The use of the land for cattle will "benefit an elite group of `cattle barons' more than anyone else", wildlife offering better opportunities for benefiting the whole community.[95]

The option of designating the land for Communal Land for wildlife would involve 16 wards and five districts representing 119,000 people. Metcalfe concludes that due to the complexity of the decision making and the lack of capital, management and marketing, this would not succeed.[96]

Metcalfe pointed out that the wildlife on the Conservancy land "originated as a common property to the state" and asked whether the Conservancy members would pay a 5% levy to the Trust on their existing wildlife: "Are the communities only entitled to participation because of the donor input or also because [they] shared the same environment as the wildlife over the centuries?"

He concludes that the alternatives are "more deficient and unsatisfactory" than the proposal from Save Valley Conservancy which will develop a new industry in the lowveld for "the benefit of everyone in the area".

93 ibid p. 14.
94 ibid p. 14.
95 ibid pp. 14-15,
96 ibid p 15

> "Although, the basis of community participation in benefits may materially relate to donor investment in the Trust, morally they also have a claim to share the `ownership' of the wildlife, which the SVC has now fenced in."[97]

Metcalfe detailed procedures which involved individuals and groups, villages, wards and RDCs in the decision making process and to establish routine interaction between communities, Rural District Councils, the Trust and the Conservancy. To develop these relationships and procedures he proposed a five year project to establish the institutional framework to enable communities to take full advantage of SVC Trust supported initiatives and to establish community-based natural resource management institutions.[98]

This project would ensure that the neighbouring communities and districts were well informed about the Conservancy, the Trust and their relationship to it. This would "help to stabilise the political environment within which the land use intended is set." It would also enhance efficiency and bring environmental, institutional, economic and political stability "preparing the communities and districts to play their full part in the development of the Trust and the Conservancy..... enhancing the possibility of all beneficiaries having equal access to the benefit flow."[99]

Metcalfe considers why the Conservancies have been regarded with suspicion:[100]

- it is a radical change of land use
- it establishes new property arrangements between a group of white landowners behind a common fence
- it makes use of a public asset
- it has tended to alienate local rural communities by exclusion
- it has alienated government by not addressing the issue of equitable access to resources

Metcalfe concluded that the Government of Zimbabwe was prepared to accept the Conservancy approach in semi-arid areas provided that there is equity and participation for the neighbouring communities and that the Save Valley Conservancy proposals address this.

In May, Simon Metcalfe had meetings in all the wards neighbouring the Save Valley Conservancy to discuss with them their views of the Conservancy[101]. None of the RDCs dismissed the SVC proposal out of hand. The RDCs believed that the Trust should work with the RDCs and that the role the Trust played must be transparent. They felt that the SVC had not previously made sufficient effort to keep the RDCs informed and to involve them. The RDCs has effectively been presented with a

97 ibid p. 15
98 ibid p. 20
99 ibid p.24-25
100 ibid p.25
101 Report on Response of Local Authorities and Neighbouring Communities to the Proposal by Save valley Conservancy to Establish a Community Development Trust, (Save Valley Conservancy and Zimbabwe Trust, May 1996.

"blueprint" which they had had no hand in shaping. They asserted their right to be "informed, consulted, and to negotiate on the key aspects." They asserted that interdependency is not a patron and client relationship. [102] The RDCs are the statutory land authorities responsible for decisions affecting the large communities living on the land adjacent to the Conservancy. There was still concern about whether or not the proposed 5% return on wildlife was "fair, equitable or even generous".[103] The construction of the fence without consultation and negotiation had caused considerable resentment on some boundaries. 6 neighbouring communities had lost access to key riverine forage resources and 72 families had been fenced in. There were now serious restrictions on access across and into the Conservancy, and loss of access to some resources such as ilala palms, thatching grass, beehive sites, building poles, firewood and medicinal herbs[104]. Some communities, particularly Nyangambe and Devure Resettlement Areas, saw opportunities to invest land into the Conservancy.[105] Although the wildlife tourism land use was alien to the local communities, they did not voice strong objection except in Matsai (where land is an issue) and on the Save River boundary where there has been a loss of access to riverine resources. Several communities raised the issue of relationships between individual farmers and their workers.[106]

Following his extensive series of meetings, Simon Metcalfe identified a number of "project constraints" which threatened the success of the Save Valley Conservancy Trust.[107]

- The RDCs had been left to react to a proposal and consequently the neighbouring districts had been left "feeling outside of the process".[108]

- The nature of the interdependence between the Conservancy and the communities needed to develop. Metcalfe reported that a "common perception was that the SVC was offering assistance provided the communities respect the boundary and do not poach."

- The national land issue was part of the local political environment with a "few large landowners from a relatively wealthy ethnic minority living next to many poor Communal Landholders from the national ethnic majority."

- The SVC presents the opportunity to establish a new wildlife-based economy to the benefit of themselves, their neighbours, the lowveld and Zimbabwe. This can only be achieved through investment within a stable political environment. To this end the Conservancy plans to ensure that economic benefits are shared with the local communities.

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102 Ibid p 4
103 ibid p. 3
104 ibid pp. 5-6
105 ibid p. 6
106 ibid p. 6
107 ibid p. 16.
108 As Clive Stockil pointed out in his meeting with Simon Metcalfe (Annex 1 p. 9) the Conservancy had only signed its internal agreement in January 1996.

- The fence, essential for veterinary reasons, between the Conservancy's buffalo and the communal farmers' cattle has created a physical barrier. "There is minimal social interdependence between the Conservancy members and the local communities" and the fence "symbolises a separation between commercial and communal, black and white ethnic groups, and between livestock and wildlife as a land use". In Matsai Communal Land the fence was described as a "hard edge" between the parties who were now discussing the nature of a future interdependency."[109] It is clear from the detailed reports of the local meetings that the nature of the relationships between individual farmers and their immediate neighbours is variable and that the successful development of equitable interdependence is essential to the long term sustainability of the Conservancy.

- The institutional relationships are complex including Vidcos, Wadcos and RDCs. The impact of the recommendations of the Land Tenure Commission [110]remains unclear.

- Metcalfe concluded:

".. there is a natural suspicion on behalf of local communities and local authorities that the "gifthorse" being offered might be an expedient gesture. It will need to be proven over time that in fact what is proposed is a new approach to the future to forge greater development within a context of vastly improved equity. The actual costs the local community are paying is denial of access to the Conservancy land. The costs the SVC members are paying is the sharing of economic benefits. Thus the interdependency proposed has to evolve and be renewed in word and deed on a regular basis."

In September 1996, a workshop was held to establish interdependence and "forge an `agreement in principle'" between the RDCs, Save Valley Conservancy and Save Valley Conservancy Trust.[111] The opening address was made by Alastair Wright as Chairman of the Trust. They recognised that the Trust could only be established by consensus and accepted that they had not liaised adequately with he RDCs during the period of consensus building within the Conservancy. The Trust had been formed to involve the local communities as beneficiaries.

Ecologically, the Conservancy members were convinced that wildlife and tourism were the most beneficial land use options for the immediate communities and the Lowveld region. Economically, the Conservancy members were prepared to invest in tourism infrastructure and marketing if the communities would invest in wildlife with donor support. Wright recognised that the communities must have a "`sense of ownership and equity stake." This equity stake could be achieved through the Trust

109 ibid Annex 1 p. 11

110 The LTC is proposing that communities should be given greater powers through village assemblies to exert common property management over the conservation of their natural resources.

111 Simon Metcalfe, Establishing Interdependence between Rural District Councils, Save Valley Conservancy, and Save Valley Conservancy Trust, Report on the Workshop held 2-3 September at Tambuti Lodge Hotel.

which with donor funding would hold the equity on behalf of the communities exercised through the RDC representatives.

The challenge was to "create a sufficiently robust agreement both sides of the SVC fence" between the Conservancy and the RDCs "to co-ordinate the key stakeholders (communal and commercial farmers) in perpetuity."

The proposal was for an extension of the Campfire programme and the Trustees would represent the beneficiaries, bring technical and fund-raising expertise, and ensure that benefits were delivered over a long term programme.

There were a series of workshops which reported to the plenary session. The main points made and agreed were:

- the SVC proposal was generally acceptable
- the RDCs should has a two thirds representation on the Trustees
- the SVC proposal should be incorporated into the RDC and Provincial strategic plans
- the RDCs should have the option to review existing trustees
- the RDCs should identify the beneficiaries and not the Trust

There were a number of issues which needed to be addressed amongst which were:

- the fence lines needed to be re-visited and mutually agreed and ratified by the RDCs.
- communities able to set aside land for wildlife needed to be helped to do so.
- consideration should be given to providing ranch workers with land outside the fence.
- local recruitment should be encouraged at all levels and a training needs plan should be developed and implemented.
- a strategy to develop cultural tourism and supplies of goods and services to the Conservancy needed to be implemented.
- there were issues of safe and agreed transit, access for traditional rites and ceremonies; recreation and learning; and for traditional harvesting of firewood, grass, herbs and honey which needed to be addressed. The Chiefs were part of the RDCs for planning, development and land issues and they are responsible for rites, culture and traditions.

The September Workshop introduced the Harare based Trustees:

Dr Langford Chitsike, rural development
Dr Alois Hungwe, originating from Zaka and a soil scientist
Dr Ruvimbo Chimedza Agricultural Faculty of UZ and Chair of ARDA
Professor Marshal Murphree, CASS, UZ

These appointments were approved.

There remained disagreement about the representation of RDCs on the Trust. There was opposition to the proposal that Chiredzi and Bikita should have three trustees each and Buhera, Chipinge and Zaka one each. It was subsequently agreed that each council would have one representative with an alternate.

Clive Stockil, as chairman, speaking on behalf of the Save Valley Conservancy members, recognised from Metcalfe's report that there was an urgent need to improve relationships with their neighbours and with the RDCs at ranch and Conservancy level. The workshop produced guidelines for the development of working relationships between ward councillors and ranchers to develop a joint plan of action and a committee to co-ordinate activity and resolve conflicts. The Save Valley Councillors should undertake the co-ordination with the Chiredzi and Bikita RDCs.

A 10 member Joint RDC Committee of the 5 RDCs would be created to establish overall policy and to process and prioritise Trust projects. The Trust would be largely responsible for fund-raising and administering grants. Grant allocation would be the responsibility of the Joint RDCs Committee, and grant management would be the responsibility of individual RDCs. The removal of grant allocations from the Trust's remit would depoliticise the Trust. It was agreed to establish the Joint RDC Committee by the end of September.

A Working Committee of the Save Valley Conservancy and the Joint Committee of RDCs would be established by the end of October 1996. Its membership would be the Chairman of Save Valley Conservancy, the two ward councillors for the Conservancy and one representative from each RDC. This Working Committee would be responsible for the executive management of the programme and would draw up the strategic and annual plans. There were therefore three levels of communication:

Ward - landowner	elected ward committee often with the councillor *ex officio*.
Joint Committee[112] Chairman	Representatives of the five RDCs and the Conservancy and the two Conservancy Ward Councillors.[113]
Trust external	Five RDC representatives (and their alternates), and the Trustees. Final composition still to be decided.

In December 1996 two major milestones were passed:

Local Political Acceptance

The outcomes of the September Workshop were ratified by all five Rural District Councils at full council meetings. They agreed to the three tier structure and to the arrangements for representation, including the six existing trustees: Dr Langford Chitsike, Dr Alois Hungwe, Dr Ruvimbo Chimedza, Professor Marshal Murphree, Clive Stockil (Chairman of Save Valley Conservancy), and Alastair Wright, of Delta Corporation.

Self-reliance for Wildlife Restocking

At its December meeting the Save Valley Conservancy recognised that it faced considerable difficulty over restocking. It would not be easy to find external donors for wildlife restocking, although the Conservancy would continue to look for funding.

112 The first meeting was to have taken place just before Christmas at Mapari Resort, unfortunately Bikita and Zaka could not be present and the important first meeting was adjourned until late February.
113 Ward Councillor on Chiredzi RDC: Mrs J. Whittall and Bikita RDC, Mr D. Henning.

The members, recognising that both cattle ranching and wildlife land use would require restocking, agreed to raise a levy of Z$10 per acre[114] for a restocking fund (this restocking levy to be agreed yearly).

In early 1997 the Conservancy was hopeful that it would be able to secure some loan funding from the USA at favourable rates of interest.[115] This loan would enable the Conservancy to fund the purchase of US$5,061,000 worth of wildlife between 1997 and 2005.[116]

G.5 Case Study: Senuko

Senuko Ranch was first settled as a cattle ranch in 1973. With intensive livestock production, a number of ecological changes were witnessed. Firstly, a change in the ungulate community took place. The specialist grazers were out-competed by the cattle, which are bulk grazers. Roan, followed by Lichtenstein's hartebeest, disappeared from the area, and sable were reduced to very low numbers. Then the grass community changed. The grazing and trampling pressure resulted in a decrease in palatable perennials such as *Panicum* spp. in favour of annuals and unpalatable species such as *Tragus* and *Tribulus* spp. At the same time, grass cover decreased and bare patches of trampled earth became more common. In addition, predators were eradicated, and lion, cheetah and hyena all went locally extinct. [117] With the removal of cattle, the grass community is returning along the spectrum of succession towards palatable perennials again.

Water management is particularly important in the lowveld, since it is the only tool for manipulating grazing pressures. With sweet grasses and mineralised soils, salt licks are ineffective at confining ranging patterns. Hence a water rotation system is implemented to control wildlife distribution and grazing pressure.

On Senuko, cattle watering systems are being maintained. These are gravity feed systems with buried concrete tanks. There are also numerous natural pans on the land, in what used to be summer grazing areas for wildlife. Some of these are being rehabilitated, and are better for larger animals since they hold more water than the concrete tanks.

The original Senuko Lodge was demolished and a new one built as a joint venture involving Zimbabwe Sun Ltd. The new Lodge was built using predominantly local materials including "drought casualty" timber. The Lodge includes a variety of weathered hardwoods and 200 year old iron wood all sourced from the Conservancy. The thatching grass and teak furniture was brought from Bulawayo.

In addition to the 8 room/16 bed lodge, permanent staff accommodation and workshops have been built on Senuko. Electricity has been brought from the public supply, the airstrip and roads have been upgraded and a butchery and cold room have been developed. The investment amounts to some Z$3,500,000. Of this, some

114 c860,000 acres
115 Some US$1m repayable at 2.5% over 9 years with one year's grace.
116 Cash Flow Projections for Save Valley Wildlife Services Ltd.
117 Stockil, pers. comm.

Z$750,000 (± 20%) was spent on local labour, with 40 local workers being employed for a total of 730 man[118] months. The decision to use only local labour was a matter of principle. A number of workers developed their existing skills and a number gained new skills, moving from unskilled to semi-skilled status during the building of Senuko. It is anticipated that the team will build further lodges and undertake other construction work in the lowveld. The figures were not finalised as this report was written and they are based on estimates by Clive Stockil who oversaw the work and undertook all purchasing.

Most of the materials were purchased locally, including the cement and hardware which came from Chiredzi. Z$250,000 was spent on the teak furniture made from dead wood from Matabeleland that was sourced from Bulawayo. The machinery necessary for the manufacture of furniture and the skills required are now available in the area, and it is expected that the furniture for Lodges on Levanga and Chapungu will be made by Save Lodges (Pvt) Ltd. In the adjacent Communal Lands, Z$15,000 was spent on embroidery done in Bikita, and Z$4,000 was spent on basket ware from Buhera.

The Lodge has only very recently opened and there are no meaningful occupancy figures available. However, the employees are now in place. From the employee records held by Clive Stockil it is evident that each employee has an average of 10 dependants, all of whom benefit from the employment created on Senuko.

Locality	No.
Bikita RDC	12
Buhera RDC	1
Chipinge RDC	3
Chiredzi RDC	39
Masvingo	4
Zaka RDC	4
Total	63

Table G.7 Origins of Senuko Employees

There are two Professional Guides at Senuko, one of whom is local (from Zaka). The Office Clerk (a Shangaan) is currently being trained to take his learner's licence. The number of women employed is very small at 5.9%. There is a wide range of salaries, the average being Z$554 per month. In addition, there is a fence cleaning gang of 10 which is female and is employed for two months a year at Z$359 per month.

Senuko has worked with the community at Gudo to establish a traditional village to which Senuko will take it's guests. Money has been loaned (Z$4,000) at favourable interest rates to an elected committee from the village so that it can pay 6 local people to build the traditional village. It is expected to generate sufficient revenue to repay the loan and pay a household dividend. Local people will be paid for their work in the village and there will be opportunities to make and sell traditional crafts and foods there.

118 The labour force was all male.

Occupation	No	Male	Female	Wage/month	Monthly Total
Game Scout	12	12	0	401	4812
Driver	03	03	0	446/742	1634
Office Clerk	01	01	0	1450	1450
Workshop	01	01	0	490	490
Chef	02	02	0	1200/950	2150
Asst Cook	02	02	0	850	1700
Waiter	02	01	1	850	1700
Barman	01	01	0	850	850
Bedroom Asst	03	01	2	703	2109
Grounds staff	02	02	0	359	718
Water Reticulation	01	01	0	401	401
Gang Supervisor	01	01	0	893	893
Builder	03	03	0	744	2232
Carpenter	02	02	0	670/1040	1710
General Hand	15	15	0	359	5385
Total	51	48	3		28,234

Table G.8 Permanent Local Staff at Senuko, February 1997

Senuko will offer game viewing from safari vehicles and because of the large number of game scouts constantly on patrol, they are able to ensure that tourists see a wide variety of game. Senuko will also offer walking safaris, day and night viewing from hides, portable blinds and specialist botany and bird tours. Senuko will include cultural experiences, visits to the Communal Lands and to the Gudo “show” village, along with opportunities to explore the subsistence value of the bush.

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H. ROADSIDE HANDICRAFTS AND PASSING TOURIST TRAFFIC : the Contribution Of Tourism To The Informal Sector Of The Local Economy

Based on work by M.Chitakira[1], under the supervision of Dr L. Zanamwe, both of the Dept of Geography, University of Zimbabwe

H.1 INTRODUCTION

Over the past 15 years a considerable number of handicraft stalls and markets have developed along the Masvingo-Beitbridge road, south of Masvingo and north of Ngundu Halt, on the edge of the south-east Lowveld (Figure 1.1). This is, among other things, in response to the increasing amount of tourist traffic travelling between Masvingo and Beitbridge on the South-African border. These small-scale business enterprises bear all the hallmarks of informal sector activities: small-scale operation; labour-intensive, using adapted technology; skills acquired outside the formal education system; reliance on indigenous resources; ease of entry into the sector; unregulated competitive markets (Norcliffe, 1983). Like most craft markets (Havnevick, 1986), those along the Masvingo-Beitbridge road are not registered by government agencies, probably avoiding taxation.

Crafts have been produced in traditional societies in Zimbabwe, including the Shona, Ndebele, Tonga and Shangaan peoples, for generations. "The traditional crafts of Zimbabwe reveal a remarkable continuity in the material culture and ontological beliefs of the people and are therefore of significant ethnographic interest. Although Zimbabwean crafts were only believed to be merely personal and functional, it is becoming increasingly apparent that many have a strong symbolic and ritual significance" (Chitakira, 1996;2). Nowadays, the majority of the craft production in Zimbabwe is for tourist purchases, and there are marked opportunities for revenue generation for rural communities close to tourist centres.

Large numbers of local people appear to be involved in the production and marketing of traditional crafts between Masvingo and Ngundu. The industry also appears to be expanding locally. The associated social, economic and environmental impacts of the handicraft industry are indirectly attributable to tourism in the area, and hence an important focus of inquiry.

During August 1995, these informal ribbon developments were briefly visited and a preliminary survey methodology developed. This was presented in discussion to Dr L. Zanamwe of the University of Zimbabwe, and a refined methodology developed. The study of roadside handicraft development was carried out by M. Chitakira under the supervision of Dr Zanamwe in 1996. This section is an abridged and adapted version of the report of that study (Chitakira, 1996).

1 Chitakira, M Rural non-agricultural enterprises: the case of handicrafts along the Masvingo-Beitbridge Road. Unpublished dissertation, Dept of Geography, University of Zimbabwe.

The study area stretches for 55 km north from Ngundu Halt, to Bhati Business centre. The majority is within Chivi District, with a small minority (5 km) in Masvingo District. The area is within Natural Region IV, an area of low annual rainfall (450-600 mm), and seasonal drought (Moyo et al., 1993). It has low agricultural potential and is best suited to semi-intensive livestock rearing. The main economic activity for local people in the area is subsistence crop cultivation and livestock rearing.

The following methods were used in the study:

- Initial survey of the craft centres along the stretch of road under study
- Field observations of rate and extent of wood cutting, and of production methods for wood and stone carving, ceramics and crocheting.
- Semi-structured interviews of officials from Nyaningwe RDC, the Ministry of National Affairs Employment Creation and Co-operatives (Nyaningwe), and the Natural Resources Board (Masvingo), to explore the influence of local authorities on the development of craft enterprises.
- Stall-holder discussions
- Questionnaires of stall-holders (115) and tourists (65), and a survey of markets (18). Tourist questionnaires self administered, distributed by stall-holders at each market. 160 copies were distributed, the response rate was 40.6%.

Stall-holder surveys were carried out at nine centres. These included the two single-stall centres and seven others chosen at random from three size classes; small, medium and large. Some of the stall-holders were selected at random, whilst some were selected so as to represent a cross-section of individual and co-operative stalls.

H.1.1 Characteristics Of Craft Centres, And Socio-Economic Background Of Stall-holders

There are 18 craft centres between Ngundu Halt and Bhati business centre. According to the Nyaningwe RDC, the majority are not officially registered. The centres differ greatly in size, from one stall to many hundreds spread over hundreds of metres of road frontage.

They can also be classified by organisational structure. Four of the centres are co-operatives, eight are a collection of individually run stalls, four are a combination of co-operatives and individuals, and two are single-stall centres (Table H.1).

The single-stall centres are somewhat anomalous, representing both a starting nucleus for a new centre and the last remnants of a declining one (Chitakira 1996:12-13). The co-operatives operate in one of two production modes; individual or collective production. All of these centres co-operatively market their products.

Name of Market	Distance from Ngundu (km)	Structure	Number of stalls	Number of Male Stall-holders	Number of Female Stall-holders
Chivi South	0	Co-op	12	11	1
Gwenzi	6	Individual	1	1	0
Eagle	15	Co-op	10	10	0
Zivuku	20	Individual	4	4	0
Bedzakusema	22	Individual	9	5	4
Maringire	25	Individual	20	16	4
Mhandambiri	31	Individual	50	20	30
Garare	35	Individual	45	20	25
Madzore	36	Individual	1	0	1
Sese-Batanai	38	Individual	500	255	245
Jaka	42	Individual	200	125	75
Gwitima	44	Co-op	88	23	65
Vungwaru	46	Mixed	2	0	2
Mafenga	48	Mixed	50	8	32
Makani	49	Individual	84	16	68
Chivi Turn-off	50	Co-op	54	20	34
Mukomberanwa	53	Mixed	20	14	6
Tokwe	55	Mixed	1144	44	1100
TOTAL			2285	593	1692

Table H.1. Location, Size and composition of Handicraft Market Centres (Chitakira, 1996:15)

H.1.2 Socio-economic background

Of 2285 stall-holders, 1692 (74%) are female (Table H.2). Other studies and census reports also suggest a predominance of females employed in the informal sector in Zimbabwe (Helmsing, 1991; Government of Zimbabwe, 1994; Mbiba, 1996).

With distance north from Ngundu, the distance between market centres decreases, number of stalls increases and the proportion of women stall-holders increases. This may be related to the difference in agricultural potential between the north and south of the study area. Fertile clay soils and higher rainfall in the south, associated with the Nyuni range of hills, results in better agricultural potential and a greater number of women engaged in cultivation and sale of agricultural products.

Although the majority of stall-holders are female, the stall-holder survey carried out during this study was biased towards males (75 vs. 40). The majority of males interviewed were below 30, whilst over half of the females were aged over 30 (Table H.2). Over half of males surveyed were single, whilst the majority of females were married (Table H.3). The predominance of younger, single males in the sample could be explained by the following factors:

- 85.9% of female stall-holders are part of co-operatives, and are not all present at the same time. They are also known to employ male caretakers (e.g. Tokwe co-operative)

- The timing of the survey, in the harvesting season. Women in subsistence societies in sub-Saharan Africa are known to undertake more of the agricultural work, whilst males may be assigned to other duties such as small holding (Mountjoy & Hilling, 1988; Barrett & Brown, 1995).

- Young single males are likely to be school leavers not yet absorbed into the formal sector, or junior family members who can easily be recruited as caretaker stall-holders.

The latter point is supported by the responses to a question about the reason for involvement in the craft market. 48% of respondents indicated the lack of a job as the reason for their involvement in crafts, of which 85% were male. The second highest response to this question was crop failure of low agricultural yields (25% of the sample).

Age Group	15-19	20-29	30-39	>40	Total
Males	3	47	16	9	75
Females	1	18	19	2	40
Total	4	65	35	11	115
% Total	3.5	56.5	10.4	9,6	100

Table H.2. Age and sex of respondents (Chitakira, 1996:18).

Marital Status	Married	Single	Divorced/Widowed	Total
Males	35	38	2	75
Females	26	4	10	40
Total	61	42	12	115
% Total	53.1	36.5	10.4	100

Table H.3. Marital status of respondents (Chitakira, 1996:20).

	Reason for Involvement			
Sex	No Job	Drought	Talent/Training	Other
Male	47	12	8	8
Female	8	17	4	11
Total	55	29	12	19

Table H.4. Respondents reasons for involvement in handicrafts (adapted from Chitakira, 1996:19)

H.1.3 Factors behind the development of craft centres

The development of craft centres in the study area has accelerated since 1985 (Table H.5). Environmental, political and economic factors can all be cited as reasons for the development of informal craft enterprises.

Period	>1980	1980-84	1985-90	1991-96
Number of Centres Established	2	2	5	9
percentage of total	11.1	11.1	27.8	50.0

Table H.5. Year of establishment of the 18 craft centres (Chitakira, 1996:23).

Since the majority of the study area falls within the drought-prone Natural Region IV which has a low agricultural potential, the population 'are forced to develop non-agricultural produce to be exchanged with food imports from other areas' (Helmsing, 1990;3). Since the droughts of 1991-92 and 1994-95, a number of rural non-agricultural enterprises have appeared in the area, including gold-panning, itinerant trading and handicrafts.

The political changes associated with Independence in 1980 may have contributed to the development of the handicraft industry. In an effort to improve the economic conditions of the rural populace, the Government of Zimbabwe encouraged the formation of co-operatives and started income-generating projects. The concurrent rise in tourism that came with political stability stimulated the development of the formal tourism sector (Heath, 1990, 1992). This in turn may have led to the new co-operative developments focusing on tourism-related craft enterprises, of which roadside markets are a major part. This is one of the easiest ways in which local people can engage in the industry.

Economic changes since Independence may also have contributed to the rise in the informal sector. The disappointing performance of the economy, and the adoption of the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme in 1991, have resulted in job losses and the failure of school leavers to secure employment in the formal sector (Kanyenze, 1996; Mbiba, 1996). This situation forces many into the informal sector. Others have engaged in non-formal activities to supplement formal sector incomes.

H.2 PRODUCTION AND MARKETING

H.2.1 Raw materials and sourcing

Five types of material are used in the crafts; wood, stone, bark fibre, clay, and cotton thread. The distribution of craft types among the craft centres varies with distance from Ngundu, and this may be related to the sourcing of raw materials.

Wood is largely obtained from hillsides and river valleys in close proximity to the craft centres. The most common species used are mukwa, mahogany and ironwood Of these, mahogany is the most popular, dominating 87% of stalls which display wooden crafts.

Some wood is obtained from further afield, especially where local areas have become devoid of suitable species (e.g. between Maringire and Chivi turn-off). Some comes from eastern Chivi District, and Nyajena District across the Tokwe River. A small amount is sourced through organised trade networks from as far afield as Manicaland Province.

As with wood, only particular types of stone are used for carving. Soft rocks such as soapstone predominate. These are confined to specific areas, such as the Chifoka Hills. Some stone is mined locally and transported to the stalls by scotch cart. However, the long distances involved even to local sources make this impractical for most stall-holders. Often the stone is purchased from Mashava and Zvishavane, with arrangements made with long-distance lorry drivers to transport the material. In addition, some stone is purchased partially carved from carvers based at these towns.

The distribution of denser vegetation in the south of the study area, and the closer proximity to rock sources (Mashava, Chifoka) of the northern centres, may partially explain the differences in distribution of wood and stone products between the northern and southern craft centres (Table H.6).

Distance from Ngundu (km)	WOOD		STONE	
	N^{o} of items	**%**	**N^{o} of items**	**%**
North				
55	251	45	310	55
49	114	4	2525	96
48	7	8	85	92
15	101	86	16	14
09	9	100	0	0
Ngundu South	58	62	36	38

Table H.6. The prevalence of wood in the south and stone in the north among the surveyed stalls (Chitakira, 1996:28).

Most of the clay used in ceramics is obtained from Sese. Basketry goods are obtained from outside the region, particularly from Birchenough Bridge, Chiredzi, Mwenezi and Beitbridge. Cotton thread is bought in shops in Masvingo and Nyaningwe Growth Point. Trade patterns have set up in response to the need of stall-holders for specific raw materials not available locally.

H.2.2 Production

The production of wood, stone and lace goods occurs at the craft centres, with communal sharing of tools. Ceramic production, with its associated needs of water and fuel for firing, is carried out at the homes and villages of the artisans. All crafts are handmade using simple tools such as axes, hacksaws, chisels, mallets, sandpaper, crochet hooks and knitting needles. There is no mechanisation.

There is a division of labour between the sexes, with females specialising in pottery, knitting and crocheting, and males specialising in carving. Only 10% of respondents had undertaken any formal training. Individuals lacking the necessary skills for production of particular crafts purchase those made by others, and most stall-holders

display a mixture of goods produced by themselves and purchased from others. More wood carvings are made by the stall-holder, whilst more stone carvings are purchased from elsewhere. This is a reflection of the availability of raw materials (see above).

The most common crafts were stone and wood carvings, mainly depicting traditional designs, wildlife, and African figures and faces. Most are small and portable, so as to appeal to visitors. Basketry items, due to the lack of local raw materials and the poor durability of basketry in the sun, are rare in the craft centres surveyed.

H.2.3 Marketing and sales

The supply of craft items is very large, whilst the demand is comparatively small. This may reflect the fact that a large amount and variety of crafts need to be displayed to entice passing travellers to stop and buy. Certainly the production of very large pieces is more for the 'shop window', to attract customers to stop, than because there is a demand for such pieces. The development of large markets with many stalls offering a variety of goods reflects the need to attract customers with the lure of variety and volume.

The craft industry in the study area is clearly aimed towards the external rather than the internal market. Foreign tourists make up the majority of customers, and hence sales fluctuate with the tourist seasons. Highest sales are during public holidays and during winter months (July-August), when the level of tourist visitation to Zimbabwe is high.

Among the foreign customers, South Africans form the majority (Table H.7). This is unsurprising given the location of the study site on a major road route from South Africa.

Country of Origin	Number of Respondents	Percentage of total
South Africa	43	66.1
Africa (other)	4	6.2
America	9	13.8
Europe	2	3.1
Oceania	2	3.1
Asia	5	7.7
Total	65	100

Table H.7. Breakdown of tourist respondents by nationality (Chitakira, 1996:41).

H.3 SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS

H.3.1 Socio-economic impact

The monthly income from crafts to individual stall-holders ranged from Z$40 - 3200, a wide variation, with the average being Z$638. For co-operatives, the average monthly income per member was Z$102 (Z$4 - 250). Given an average family size of 6.4, and a total number of stall-holders of 2285, up to 14,624 people are receiving some direct benefit from handicraft sales (Table H.8).

Description of stall	Income Z$	Income per stall-holder (to nearest Z$)
12 co-operative	3000	250
2 individuals	1200	600
10 co-operative	1600	160
1	3200	3200
1	300	300
1	640	640
1	200	200
1	320	320
1	380	380
1	240	240
1	1200	1200
1	100	100
1	40	40
2 co-operative	280	140
40 co-operative	1200	30
84 co-operative	2400	29
1	600	600
1	600	600
1	800	800
1	60	60
1	400	400
1100 co-operative	4800	4
1	1000	1000
1	160	160
1	320	320
1	1600	1600
Total (1269 stall-holders)	26640	13373

Table H.8. Average monthly income per stall and per head (Chitakira, 1996:52).

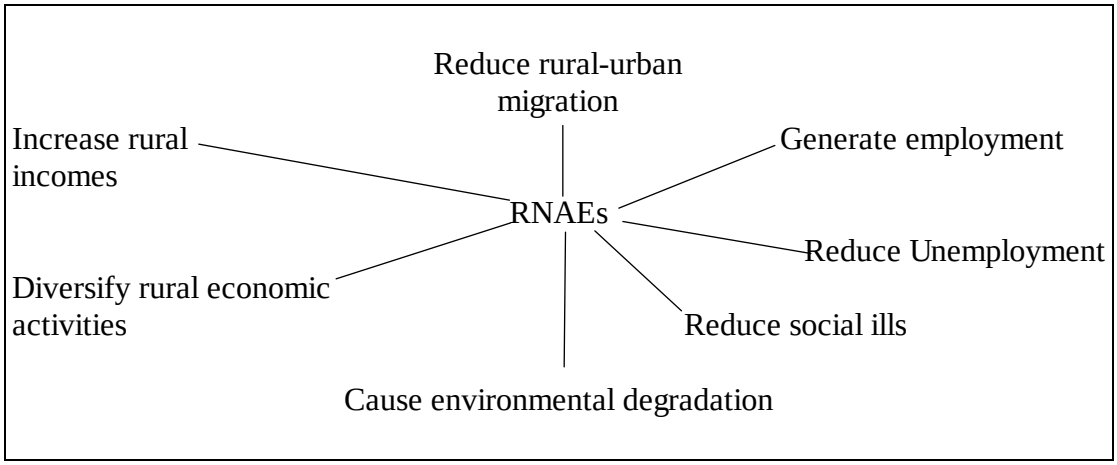
Mean monthly income per head in co-operatives = Z$102
Mean monthly income per individual = Z$638

It would appear that the trade in wooden products is the most lucrative, with wooden carvings being the most popular amongst customers, and more expensive per item than other goods. Pottery is the cheapest product on sale.

79.1% of stall-holders appreciate that the craft market has made a difference to them economically. When asked whether their revenue from handicraft sales was sufficient for basic needs such as clothing and food, 70.8% said yes. A further 8.3% said that their revenue was enough for luxury needs as well. 12.5% said that their income was not sufficient to meet basic needs, whilst 8.3% were unsure.

A number of associated impacts may be witnessed as a result of the development of handicraft markets, including the diversification and stimulation of the rural economy, an increase in welfare, and a decrease in the trend of rural-urban

migration. There is also a belief among some local officials and stall-holders that involvement in the industry reduces social problems such as theft, alcoholism and depression amongst unemployed school leavers.



RNAE: Rural Non-Agricultural Enterprise

Figure H.1. Effects of craft enterprises (Chitakira, 1996:62).

H.3.2 Environmental impacts

The major environmental impact of the handicraft industry is the consumption of wood for carving. According to respondents to the stall-holder survey, an average of 6.8 trees is consumed per month by each co-operative, whilst 1.8 trees/month are consumed by each individual stall-holder (Table H.9). Although these volumes are somewhat arbitrary, the result does indicate a significant level of consumption of selected hardwood tree species. These species (mukwa, mahogany and ironwood) are becoming locally rare. A previous study surveyed a 10 km radius around Gwitima craft market, and found a complete lack of mahogany trees; only cut stumps were found (SNV, 1995).

This finding has serious implications for the sustainability of the wood-based craft industry. Besides the loss of trees, erosion and siltation of reservoirs both locally and downstream of the area are major environmental consequences. The Natural Resources board and the Forestry Commission have made efforts to warn the crafts people of the impact of their activities on the environment. Legal measures are also taken against anyone caught cutting fresh wood. However, in an area of rural poverty where people have no alternative source of income, it is difficult to enforce such legislation.

Size of stall (number of members)	Number of trees consumed/month
12	10
2	1.5
10	12
1	4
1	1.5
1	1
1	2
1	2
1	2.5
1	1
1	4
2	1
40	4
84	2
1	0.5
1	4
1	0.5
1	1
1	1
1100	12
1	1
1	0.5
1	4
1	2
Total (1267 stall-holders)	74
Mean number trees/co-operative = 6.8	Mean number trees/individual = 1.8

Table H.9. Amount of wood consumed per month (Chitakira, 1996:59).

H.4 PROBLEMS, NEEDS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A number of problems face the handicraft industry within the study area. The most important amongst these are:

- Lack of shade - work-sheds are needed under which crafts people can work protected from the weather, tourists like to see the skills being practised and to purchase from the crafts-person. Most crafts would also benefit from being displayed under shade so that they do not deteriorate. However, this may affect the visual impact of a craft centre which is necessary to attract passing potential customers.

- Lack of warehouses - theft from craft centres is common, and warehouses for the safe storage of goods at night are entirely lacking from all the centres in the study area.

- Lack of display shelves and security fences - basketry and wooden crafts at risk from termites should be displayed above ground for their protection. All crafts displayed in open markets are vulnerable to damage from animals, such as goats, which wander into the markets.

- Water and sanitation problems - some of the craft centres have no access to toilets or drinking water.

- Shortage of tools - particularly among males.

- Transport facilities - stall-holders face difficulties in transporting raw materials and processed items, and in raising the cost of transport.

- Supply problems - with an increase in supply, competition is forcing prices down.

- Environmental impacts - extraction of wood, and to some extent stone, is a major cause for concern.

- Lack of capital - most people do not have the necessary capital to invest in the infrastructure needed to improve the viability of craft production. Access to credit is virtually impossible.

A number of recommendations are made for improving the viability and sustainability of the craft industry. Efforts to achieve such goals should seek to; improve the organisational aspects of the industry; increase access to training and skills; provide capital and basic infrastructure; reduce environmental impact; ensure that there are favourable policies, and; improve market sustainability.

- Improving organisational structure

Individuals should be encouraged to form co-operatives of an optimum size. A number of joint benefits than become available, as does the increased likelihood of attracting donors and government assistance. Some form of regulation of entrance into the industry should be developed. It would also be favourable to regulate the location of craft centres and the establishment of new sites.

- Training and skills

The informal sector in general faces the problem of access to training and skills (Mbiba, 1996). This study has noted that the level of formal training among crafts people is very low (10%). In particular, financial and business management skills are lacking. The Mwenezi Development Training Centre is prepared to train crafts people (SNV, 1995), although the distance to the centre is too great for most people. A mobile training unit would solve this problem.

- Capital and infrastructure

A lack of capital is not a new phenomenon in rural areas wishing to invest in commercial development. In this case, local government plans to contribute to infrastructural development have also been hampered by a lack of funds. However, other donor sources are available, and some have expressed interest in providing assistance to co-operatives and unions (Chitakira, 1996:65). The Rural Development Organisation, based in Masvingo, is currently assisting Tokwe co-operative in the procurement of raw materials and locating external markets.

- Resources and the environment

The use of hardwoods in carving is ecologically unsustainable at present and it needs to be controlled. Rural communities should be encouraged to participate in forest resources management, and in tree planting schemes. It is also advisable to limit the number of people working with wood, and divert some to stone and other materials.

- Policy

Government policy is needed to encourage small-scale industrial activities such as the handicraft industry.

- Market sustainability

Efforts should be made to expand the demand side of the market. Training in market research, understanding consumer tastes and product promotion may increase sales. Crafts people could be assisted to participate in trade fairs so that they can advertise their products. Export organisations should also be tapped.

Lowveld Tourist Survey

In addition to the study by Chitakira of handicrafts along the Masvingo to Beitbridge road, questions about local handicrafts were included in the tourist questionnaire survey.

167 tourists were surveyed during 1996, the questionnaires being self-administered. Tourists were asked about purchases on the way to Gonarezhou, Mahenye or the Conservancy and about their expectations about their purchasing of handicrafts on departure. Each vehicle was provided with one questionnaire, so the results collected cover small (often family) groups travelling together. One third of respondents had purchased handicrafts on their way into the lowveld, compared with 53% who expected to purchase as they departed. One quarter of respondents had purchased on their way into the lowveld and also expected to purchase as they left.

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	32	30.8
No	72	69.2
Total Sample	104	100

Table H.10. Whether respondent had purchased souvenirs/handicrafts on the roadside.

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	55	52.9
No	49	47.1
Total Sample	104	100

Table H.11. Whether respondent expected to purchase any souvenirs/handicrafts from the roadside on departure from the lowveld.

Purchased/Expected to Purchase	Frequency	Percent
Only on the way in	8	7.5
Only on the way out	31	29.0
Both	24	22.4
Neither	44	41.1
Total Sample	107	100

Table H.12 Whether respondent had purchased or expected to purchase any souvenirs/handicrafts from the roadside.

It is not surprising that more tourists expect to purchase souvenirs as they leave the area, particularly since 52% of the sample were staying in tents.

The tourists were also asked what they had spent and expected to spend on roadside crafts and souvenirs. There is considerable variation in actual and expected spend. However, these figures are indicative of the range of spending which can be expected for each carload of tourists entering the lowveld.

	Had spent	Expected to spend	Combined
Mean	381	321	467
Median	250	200	300
Minimum	15	30	15
Maximum	3000	1,500	3300

Table H.13. Expenditure and anticipated expenditure in Z$ on roadside crafts and souvenirs.

Masks, jewellery and textiles were amongst the items which tourists reported that they had been unable to find, but would have liked to purchase.

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Appendix A : REPORT OF PROJECT FEEDBACK MEETINGS, ZIMBABWE, 25 JANUARY - 8 FEBRUARY 1997

During the final visit to Zimbabwe, a number of meetings and discussions were carried out with key local informants and officials. Two project members from DICE (Dr Harold Goodwin & Matt Walpole), accompanied by the host country collaborator (Mrs Robin Heath, Department of Geography, University of Zimbabwe) and the local researcher (Mr Tovadini Kemusi a UZ graduate), travelled to the south-east Lowveld of Zimbabwe during late January and early February 1997 to facilitate these meetings. The purpose of the visit was two-fold;

- To report the results of the project to the individuals and institutions which had assisted or facilitated the research, and to which the findings were considered relevant.

- To receive feedback and up-to-date information from these individuals and institutions with which to improve the final report of the project at the writing-up stage.

Data from the visitor questionnaire administered at Gonarezhou NP, and data from the local people surveys conducted in Chiredzi and Chipinge Districts were presented at these meetings, and feedback incorporated into the final report. In addition, the relevant case study reports were reviewed, and corrected or updated where necessary.

Meetings were held with the following people;

Chiredzi River Conservancy
- Chris Robinson (Chairman)
- Tore Ballance (Mungwezi Ranch)
- Digby Nesbitt (Glen Devon A & Dawlish Estate)

Malilangwe Conservation Trust
- Jeremy Anderson (Director)
- Gavin Young (Manager)
- Meg Barry (Accountant)
- Jephias Mundondo (Community Liaison Officer)
- Colin Wenham (Wildlife Manager)

Save Valley Conservancy
- Clive Stockil (Chairman)
- Graham Connear (Conservator)
- Mr Shumba (Community Liaison Officer)
- Tom Taylor (Save Valley Conservancy)
- Alastair Wright, (Delta Corporation & Save Valley Conservancy)

Chipinge Rural District Council
- Charles Inggs (Chief Executive Officer)
- Fred Mlambo (Natural Resources Officer)

Chiredzi Rural District Council
- Mr Sitoli (Chairman, Chiredzi RDC)
- Mr Tavaruva (District Administrator)
- Mr Mateko (Assistant District Administrator)
- Councillor Mupapa (Chief, Matibi 2)

Gonarezhou National Park
- Takawira Madawo (Warden, Chipinda Pools)
- Charles Chibge (Assistant Warden, Chipinda Pools)
- Clifford Tafangenyasha (Ecologist, Chipinda Pools)
- Evious Mpofu (Tourism Officer)

Zimbabwe Sun Hotels (Developments in Mahenye Ward)
- Paul Perez (Manager, Chilo Lodge)
- John Smith (Managing Director Zimbabwe Sun Ltd)
- Alan Thomas (Head of Safari Division)

Guy Hilton-Barber (Barberton Lodge, Bubiana Conservancy)
Dr Graham Child (WISDOM Foundation)
John Hansell & Sally Chakawata, ODA
Derek de la Harpe (Price Waterhouse)
Simon Metcalfe (Zimtrust)
Rose R Mukogo, (Director of Research, Zimbabwe Tourism Authority)
Dr Chris Mutambirwa, Dept of Geography UZ
Elias Nyakunu (CEO ZATSO)
George Pangeti (Geckoconsult)
Mr Rukuni (Farm 42, Gonakudzingwa small scale commercial farming area)

The meetings with the staff of Gonarezhou National Park, the Rural District Councils of Chiredzi and Chipinge, and the seminar with tour operators in Harare, are presented in detail below.

Meetings with Staff of Gonarezhou National Park, Chipinda Pools, 30 January & 2 February 1997

The results of the questionnaire administered to visitors to Gonarezhou NP were presented to the Warden and senior staff at the Chipinda Pools headquarters. The following is a summary of the major points raised in discussion.

Visitors not seeing enough wildlife

After the drought, little wildlife remained in the park, and DNPWLM has not been in a position to provide funds for restocking. The funding that will be available from the GEF as part of the structural adjustment of parks will help to sponsor re-introductions of game.

Buffalo, which number less than 10% of the pre-drought population, should have been reintroduced soon after the drought. There is also the suggestion of re-introducing black rhino, the viewing of which was a stated reason for some visitors coming to Gonarezhou NP. Cheetah are present but rarely seen, and elephant tend to remain in quiet areas where there is water throughout the year.

The park has visitor comments books at both administration centres for the recording of animal sightings, so as to keep informed of the quality of visitor experience in the park.

Other Visitor Activities (night-viewing, game walks, hides, research and tracking)

There are a number of camps within the park, and it is hoped that there will eventually be guides for driving and walking trips. It will be possible to book overnight stays at the three platforms recently built by Raleigh International. The location of these platforms at waterholes will provide excellent opportunities for night and early morning viewing. Visitors will then be able to rest at nearby camps during the day whilst day visitors use the platforms.

Hides, a popular choice with many visitors, are much less conspicuous to wildlife. At a pan with a platform, the animals are used to seeing people and vehicles, and less natural activity may take place as a consequence. With inconspicuous hides, it may be possible to get closer to wildlife in a wilder setting, in which more intimate behaviour may be witnessed. Since hides are cheap and easy to construct, it is likely that the park will offer more viewing from hides in the future.

A number of visitors expressed an interest in wildlife tracking and assisting with research in the park. One possibility would be to provide a wildlife report form to visitors, adapted from that provided with the visitor questionnaire administered by this project. Having visitors tracking wildlife in the park would also contribute to anti-poaching activities.

National Park Price Rises

The major problem area is the changes in fee structures for safari operators. Whereas before the changes a single annual license fee covered multiple entry to the park, the new system effectively imposes three charges on an operator; the annual license, a daily entrance fee for the vehicle and an entrance fee for the driver.

The system also discriminates against new operators and operators who only visit occasionally. Although there is a concession for first and second year operators, it is unlikely to be enough to enable indigenous operators to enter the industry unless they have a great deal of capital support.

The other major increase is in the overnight charges. The increase in daily entrance fees will hit the local tourists most.

Developments around the park

Mahenye is viewed as a very good operation. Not only a proper joint venture between the developer and the local community, but also the largest revenue earner for the park.

The park management is very keen on the idea of constructing a lodge on the banks of the Runde River on the border of Matibi 2 near Chipinda Pools, on the periphery of the park (see main text). The Warden sees this as a good way to benefit the community, through job creation and training, the provision of an associated school and the sale of fuel and supplies.

Meeting with Representatives of Chipinge Rural District Council, Chipinge town, 31 January 1997

A meeting was held in the office of the Chief Executive Officer of Chipinge RDC, in Chipinge town. The research project was introduced by Dr Harold Goodwin, and the data presented by Mr Kemusi. A wide ranging discussion ensued.

Tourism in Chipinge District

Apart from Mahenye ward, Chipinge District experiences little by way of tourism. A few backpackers pass through the town of Chipinge en route from Chimanimani. However, there is considerable potential. The communities adjacent to SVC have cultural attractions to offer tourists. Chipinge District is also well known for its traditional dancing, which could be developed. The style of dancing performed for tourists at Victoria Falls comes from Chipinge. Natural attractions include hot springs and a sandstone arch near Chisumbanje. There is also a large bird diversity in the district. With bushveld in the south and west, and mountains to the north and east, there is a wealth of landscape diversity. However, the major obstacle to tourism development is the lack of capital and the lack of tourists passing through the district.

The role of Gonarezhou and wildlife tourism

There will be little benefit to the district, outside of Mahenye, from tourism based on Gonarezhou, since the major access to the park is not through Chipinge District. Most tourists travel via Masvingo to the west, and not the eastern route through Chipinge. One way of attracting visitors east would be to develop package tours which combine mountain hiking or bird watching with a village tour in the district, and a wildlife viewing trip to the park.

Chipinge Safari Area is a wilderness area within the district which could be better marketed for tourism. It is very rugged country with good hiking opportunities and wildlife. There is a campsite and a staff headquarters, but no capital for development.

Cultural tourism

Cultural tourism is definitely undersold in Zimbabwe. The idea of cultural villages for tourists, with accommodation, is appealing, but more so to foreign tourists than South African or domestic. The South Africans are interested in farming, such as the coffee plantations in the district, but at present visits are only by arrangement. There is a need for a development plan to act on the discussions and enthusiasm for tourism development.

Low capital products are recognised as the best way to proceed, especially if they can be developed alongside traditional livelihoods without replacing them. Traditional dancing is one practice, taught regularly in schools, which could be utilised in this way.

Does tourism benefit communities?

In Mahenye ward, the telephone lines, electricity and piped water are all a direct result of the CAMPFIRE tourism development. The classrooms, clinic and mills are also direct benefits of this system. Nome of these benefits came from government or aid agencies, and nor would any of them have been provided without tourism.

Meeting with Representatives of Chiredzi Rural District Council, Chiredzi Town, 3 February 1997

This meeting was planned to be held in the council chamber in Chiredzi with the full council in attendance. In the event it was held in the office of the District Administrator with a group of key council and DA representatives (see above). Mr Shumba (community liaison officer for Save Valley Conservancy) introduced the research and the research team, and Dr Harold Goodwin presented the results of the local people surveys which had been carried out in Chiredzi District.

The delegates showed interest in the results and requested a draft of the final report of this part of the research be sent to the RDC and the DA's office for closer scrutiny prior to publication. A number of points were raised after the presentation of results.

Tourism based on local culture

The chairman of the RDC felt that there was a conflict between capitalising on local culture through tourism, and the erosion of culture by tourism. If culture is exploited, how can the ordinary villager benefit from it? It was recognised that culture is part of a community, not the property of an individual. The community should control the development of cultural tourism whilst respecting the right of privacy of the individual. One means of capitalising on the market for cultural tourism whilst minimising its impacts would be the development of a 'tourist village' with associated attractions in isolation from the 'real' village, which could provide local style accommodation and attractions. However, the key is to remain as close to the real thing as possible, with reference to the artificiality of the local performances at Victoria Falls.

The need for capital to develop tourism

There was a fear that the large capital investment needed to establish cultural tourism, not least in terms of infrastructural development, would rule out local involvement and benefits. It was felt that large investors from Harare were likely to be the major beneficiaries. Reference was made to the situation in Indonesia where external investors have been purchasing land for development in Labuan Bajo at the expense of local involvement. However, this particular problem is unlikely in Zimbabwe given the current regulations over land ownership.

In response to these fears, it was suggested that the best forms of local development would be those needing the least capital investment. Whilst people think first of hotels, lodges and vehicles when they think of tourism development, the provision of other, less expensive services, are just as important, and more applicable to a culture-based tourism experience. The infrastructural development and marketing could be carried out by a large investor, in partnership with the local community, as has happened with the Mahenye development.

Meeting with Zimbabwean Tour Operators, University of Zimbabwe, Harare, 7 February 1997

A seminar on tourism, conservation and sustainable development was held on Friday 3 February in the Department of Geography, University of Zimbabwe, Harare.

There were a number of contributions and questions from participants and discussion of the survey data presented. There was particular interest in the UK tour operator marketing data.

Representatives from CAMPFIRE commented on the usefulness of the data on tourist motivation and the clear evidence which it demonstrates of the interest of tourists in local culture. This presents opportunities to develop non-consumptive tourism revenue earning schemes within CAMPFIRE.

The specific comments have been used in the Zimbabwe and Comparative Reports.

The following individuals were present:

Dr H. Goodwin	DICE, UK
Mr M.J. Walpole	DICE, UK
Mrs R.A. Heath	Dept. Geography, University of Zimbabwe
Mr I.N. Zondo	Matupula Hunters; P.O.Box 767, Bulawayo
Mr M. Guizlo	Michigan State University
Mrs P. Huchu	CAMPFIRE Association
Mr D. Blackburn	KEEP, P.O.Box 19, Gwayi
Mr M.A. Vickery	Binga CAMPFIRE Association
Dr G. Child	WISDOM Institute
Mr I. Piercy	Zambezi Hunters
Ms S. Chakawhata	ODA, Box 1030, Harare
Mr R. Diggle	Muzarab Rural District Council
Mr V. Nyakaza	Zimbabwe Farmers' Union
Ms V. Mandishona	Zimbabwe Farmers' Union
Mr E.P. Nyakunu	ZATSO, Bag 7240, Harare

Appendix B : LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CASS	Centre of Applied Social Studies
CRCA	Chiredzi River Conservancy Area
DA	District Administrator
DDF	District Development Fund
DICE	Durrell Institute of Conservation & Ecology
DNPWLM	Department of National Parks & Wildlife Management
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEF	Global Environment Facility
ICA	Intensive Conservation Area
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IPZ	Intensely Protected Zone
LSU	Livestock Unit
MLGRUD	Ministry of Local Government & Rural & Urban Development
MLWAD	Ministry of Land, Water & Agricultural Development
MP	Member of Parliament
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NTO	National Tourist Office
ODA	Overseas Development Administration
PAC	Problem Animal Control
PWLE	Parks & Wildlife Estates
RDC	Rural District Councils
RNAE	Rural Non-Agricultural Enterprise
SADC	Southern Africa Development Community
SVC	Save Valley Conservancy
UDI	Unilateral Declaration of Independence
UKC	University of Kent at Canterbury
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
UZ	University of Zimbabwe
WCMC	World Conservation Monitoring Centre
WWF	World Wide Fund for Nature

Appendix C : Exchange Rates

End of Period (December) US$ exchange rate as published by IMF

Year	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Z$/US$	2.6	5.1	5.5	6.9	8.4	9.5

Real effective rate indices (1990 = 100), based on relative wholesale prices.
IMF financial statistics, January 1997.

Year	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996 (first quarter)
Z$/US$	100	98	95.4	98.6	96.7	90.4	94.9