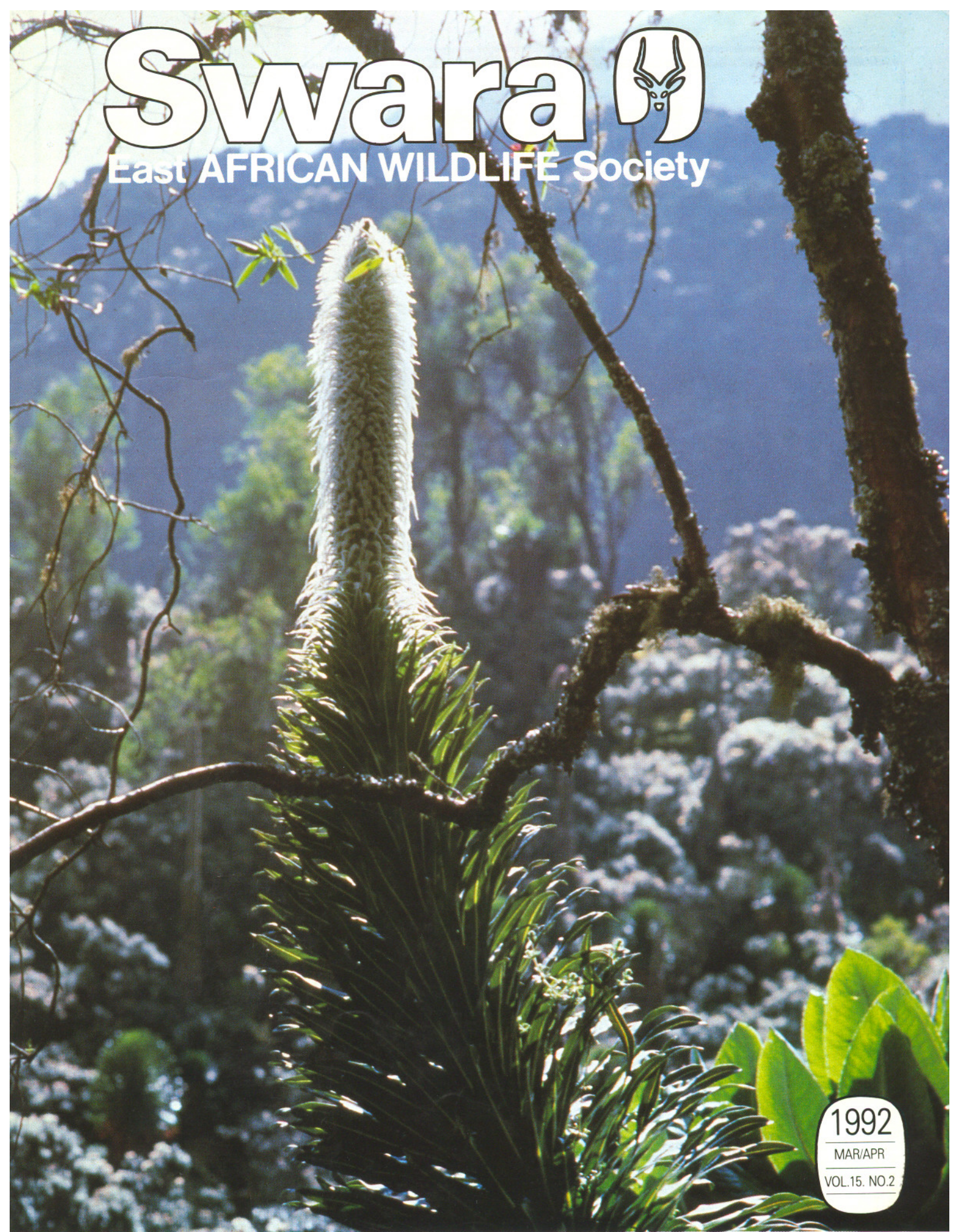


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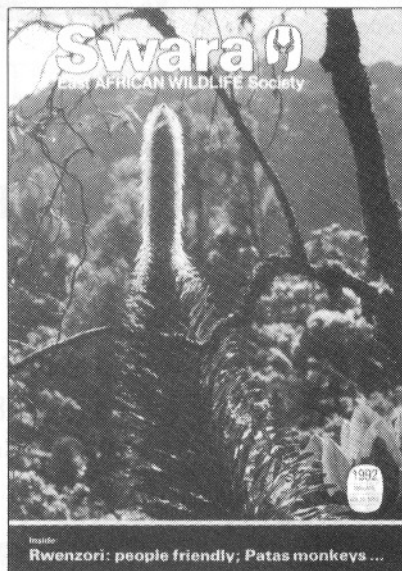
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Cover photo:
'Ostrich plume' *Lobelia wollastonii*
at 13,300 ft.

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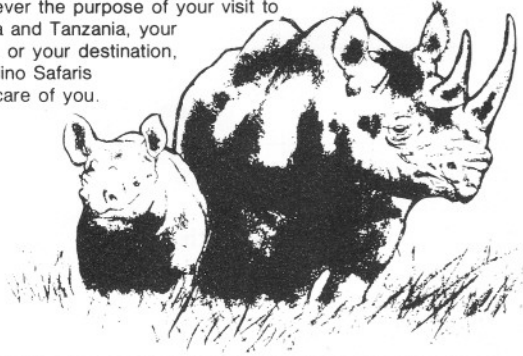


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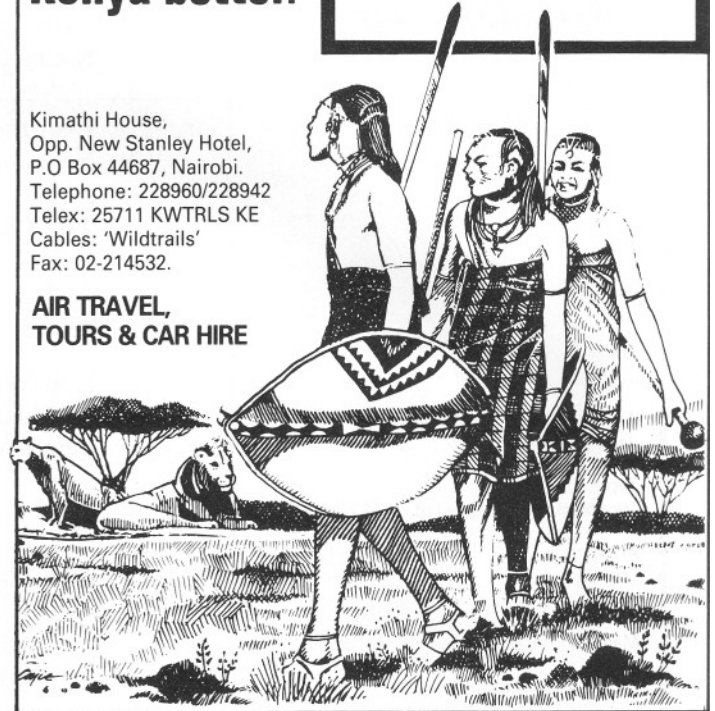
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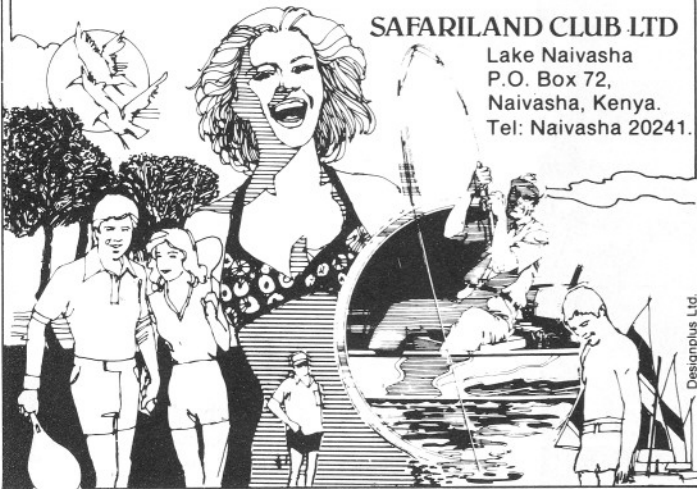
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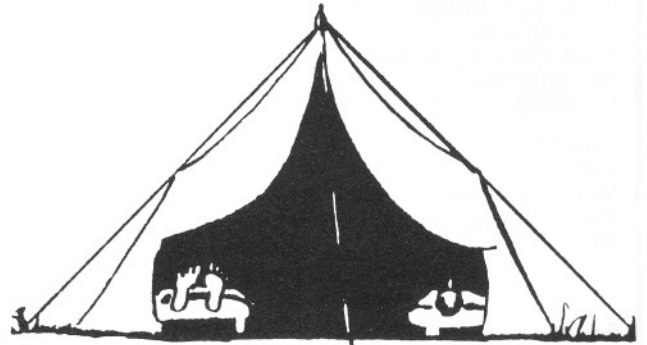
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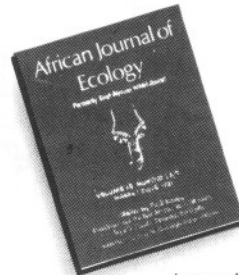


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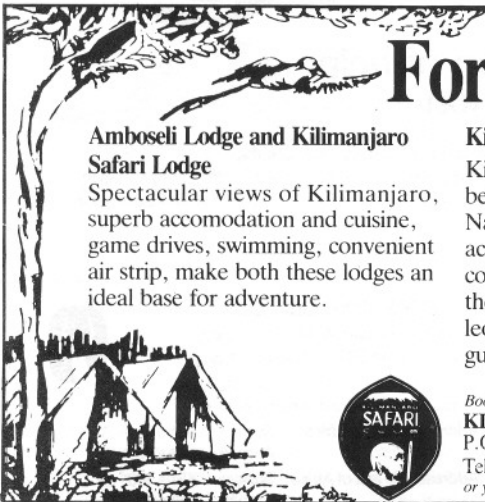
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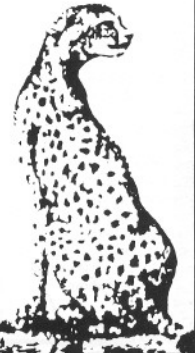
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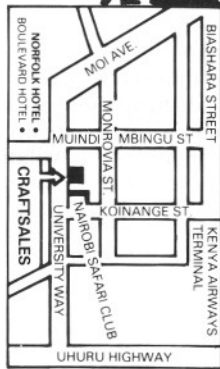
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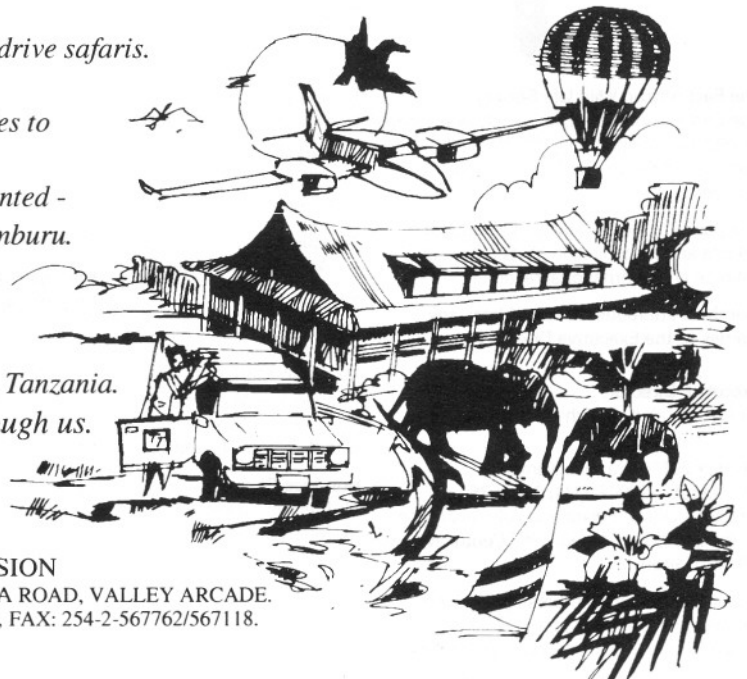
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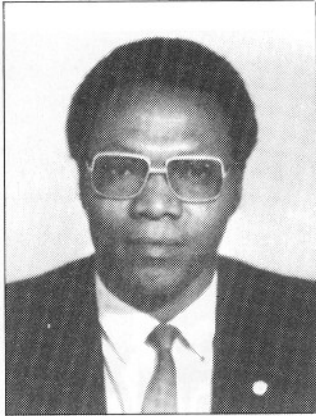
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By Professor Steven G. Njuguna
Associate Director
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Conservation of Biodiversity

Biodiversity has been, until recently, a term used by a few ecologists and systematists and seemingly of little interest to others. Today, it has been catapulted to the forefront of the global environmental agenda and is no longer a term that once used to quantify and define ecosystems. As a global issue it has much to do with politics and economics as with ecology and systematics.

Biodiversity encompasses all species of plants, animals, and micro-organisms and the ecosystems and ecological processes of which they are part. It is an umbrella term for the degree of nature's variety including both the number and frequency of ecosystems, species or genes in a given assemblage. It is the end result of four billion years of evolution.

The components of biodiversity are the genetic diversity (biochemical units of hereditary information), the species diversity (total number of species in a given area) and the ecosystems diversity (consisting of communities of plants and animals and the non-living elements of the environment such as soil, water, minerals, air including their functional relationships and ecological processes). Biodiversity not only includes the big and beautiful animals and plants but also the small and insignificant organisms and their habitats. Biodiversity is thus the natural wealth of the world.

This biodiversity which safeguards our health, food supply and industry is being increasingly destroyed. Human activities are accelerating the depletion and extinction of species and changing the conditions for evolution and this is a matter of considerable concern. Man has accelerated the extinction of species to 1,000 times the natural rate of extinction. Scientists estimate that the world is losing a species a day and this could increase to a species every hour by the year 2000. While we are still uncertain about how many species now exist scientists calculate that if the present trends continue, up to 25 per cent of the world's species could become extinct by the middle of the next century.

Eastern Africa is considered a significant centre of global biodiversity in terms of the number of species of plants and animals and the variety of ecosystems it contains. This is however, under serious threat for exactly the same reasons as elsewhere in the world: the conflict between supply and demand in terms of there being a limited supply of the natural resources and an increasing demand on them to meet the needs of a rapidly growing human population. In most places, a greater demand is placed upon species



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The East African Wild Life Society

The East African Wild Life Society was formed in 1961 by amalgamating the Wild Life Societies of Kenya and Tanzania (both founded in 1956).

The policy of the Society is to safeguard wildlife and its habitat, in all its forms, as a national and international resource.

Members are requested to address any queries to the Executive Director.

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and ecosystems than they are able to meet by themselves at natural rates of increase.

The reduction of biodiversity is caused by such activities as habitat alteration through large-scale clearing and burning of forests, overharvesting of plants and animals, indiscriminate use of chemicals especially pesticides, draining and filling of wetlands, destructive fishing practices, air and water pollution, introduction of alien organisms and the conversion of wildlands to agricultural and urban areas. A great number of species are in danger of disappearing just as science is learning how to use them for the benefit of mankind.

In Kenya, for example, some 7,000 plant species are known with at least 300 endemics. Approximately 1000 plant species are of conservation concern. The rhinoceros and the elephant are threatened with extinction. About 15 of the 1046 known bird species are also threatened. Of the less known amphibians, 22 species are of conservation concern. Fourteen of these amphibians are endemics. Each of the great lakes of the Eastern Africa's Rift Valley contains more species than any other lake in the world with very high levels of endemism. These lakes are now threatened by eutrophication, overexploitation and introduced alien species. The most threatened ecosystems are freshwaters, wetlands, coral reefs and tropical forests.

Man relies on biodiversity for many life-sustaining processes that are taken for granted – oxygen supply, soil formation, nutrient cycling, flood prevention, climate regulation and waste and waste cleansing: Even closer home is our dependent on biodiversity to provide food, medicine, fibre, energy and many other industrial products. Can we, therefore, afford the vast losses of biodiversity? The loss is both wrong and dangerous. Wrong because all species have a right to exist. Dangerous because the world's ecosystems are humanity's life support systems and we do not know which components are key elements to maintaining their essential functions.

The case for the conservation of biodiversity on scientific, economic and cultural grounds is now established and it is imperative that every effort should be made to conserve as large amount of biodiversity as possible. Traditional activities are too fragmented and limited to bring about the fundamental changes necessary to bring the loss of biodiversity to a halt. The best way to slow the loss of biodiversity is through a diverse, coordinated participatory programme that attacks the problem at its roots, builds support from wide ranging institutions and individuals, draws on the best modern science and establishes biodiversity conservation in its rightful place – as a basic prerequisite of development policy. The future depends on biodiversity and as we head towards the 21st century we must face and meet the biodiversity challenge for the sake of our children and theirs.

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Natural History of the 'Patas Monkey'

by Barbara Kirkevold and Barbara Sleeper

A FEMALE patas monkey moves almost invisible through tall grass, its fawn-coloured coat camouflaged against the dry, East African vegetation. An infant briefly rides its mother's back jockey-style. Two females huddle nearby, grooming. With very little movement or noise in the grass, it is difficult to see the animals clearly. But suddenly, a solitary female emerges, walking slowly, eyes intensely scanning the ground. In an instant, the dextrous primate makes a quick grab, captures a grasshopper, and proceeds to eat the high-protein morsel.

This scene is not unlike those reported by the late K.R.L. Hall of Bristol University, who conducted the first major study of patas monkeys in the 1960s. His study site was Uganda's Murchison Falls National Park, and there he discovered not only that patas monkeys live in all-female groups accompanied by a solo male, but also that patas are difficult to locate, 'being exceedingly shy and silent.'

These elusive monkeys live in primate societies where females direct daily activity, defend territories, prefer the company of other females, and dominate males. Males live on the periphery of these societies – seemingly only important for the production of young.

The terrestrial patas (*Erythrocebus patas*) makes its home in savannah and savannah woodland habitats from Senegal and Cameroon to Ethiopia, Kenya and northern Tanzania. According to mammalogist Jonathan Kingdon of the University of Oxford, the patas is the only African mammal species that is restricted in range to northern savannah habitats. For reasons unknown, it is not found in equivalent habitats in southern Africa.

Patas are grouped with the aboreal African guenons such as vervet, Syke's, red-tailed, Diana's, and DeBrazza's monkeys – 27 species in all. Many of these monkeys are marked with brightly coloured fur and skin surrounding their faces. Kingdon speculates that these striking colour patterns enhance facial displays in dimly lit forests.

Because of their skeletal adaptations to terrestrial life, though, patas monkeys have been a controversial generic status apart from these other tree-dwelling guenons. They have a slender build with long legs, long feet, and long hands and fingers – ideal adaptations for fast sprints over the grasslands that lie between the patches of acacia woods where they often feed and rest.

'They are, in fact, forest monkeys', says primatologist Thelma Rowell of the University of California at Berkeley, 'that live in spaced-out little forests. They feed mostly on forest products, running from tree patch to tree patch.'

They differ from other savannah dwellers such as olive and yellow baboons and vervets, which, unlike patas, frequent riverine habitats. From woodland and thorn scrub to true desert environments, patas habitats are marked by seasonality; rainfall alternates with long, dry spells when food or water may be scarce.

The coat colour of females and young blends into the dried grass that often surrounds them. But the larger, more conspicuous males are reddish with white underparts, extremities, and rump – and a blue scrotum. During disputes over dominance, the vervet male is known for its aggressive 'red, white, and blue' display in which one male boldly approaches another, stands bipedally, and displays its red penis and blue scrotum against its white belly. The male patas has modified this display. Bouncing through a tree, vigorously shaking branches, he will drop to the ground and run off on all fours, tail held high, effectively displaying his blue not-so-private parts.

Patas belong to the Old World monkeys found throughout Africa and Asia. All members feature downward-facing nostrils set close together, dextrous thumbs, tails that lack the ability to grasp objects, and sitting pads called *ischial callosities* that act as a cushion when the monkeys rest on branches or on the ground. And all are active by day.

Like other guenons, and like baboons, patas also possess cheek pouches. These specialized sacs open into the mouth opposite the molar teeth and allow the monkeys to rapidly stuff and store food in them for consumption at a later time. Patas females go one step further, utilizing these pouches in sexual displays to solicit males.

Though little-known compared to their noisy neighbours – the highly visible and well-studied vervets and baboons – patas monkeys have proved unique in many ways. For starters, they are the fastest primates in the world, having been clocked at speeds up to 55 kilometres per hour. While this still isn't fast enough to outpace the swift-footed cheetah, the patas can give the spotted cat a good run. These high-speed primates must also dodge hyenas, lions, leopards, wild dogs, and black-

backed jackals.

Patas monkeys show the most extreme sexual dimorphism of any primate, with some adult males twice as large as adult females. And patas males beat out all other primates in the tooth arena, sporting the longest canines proportional to body size – canines that are twice as long as those of adult patas females. But these last two facts are puzzling since patas males do not use these physical benefits to aggressively defend females and young against predators, as baboon males do, nor are they that aggressive toward each other. In fact, in patas society, females rule the males.

While most terrestrial primates live in groups of multiple males and multiple females, free-ranging patas monkeys live in groups comprised of related females and young, and a *single* adult male that stays in residence year-round. The total group numbers 20 to 35 individuals.

Janice Chism, also of the University of California at Berkeley, and Thelma Rowell conducted a comprehensive study of wild patas monkeys from 1979 to 1981 in Kenya. They found the harem male was highly expendable – his association with the females lasting from a few days to an average of nine months before he was replaced. Excess males roam either alone or with other males in bachelor groups, whose large home ranges appear to overlap those of several female groups.

A similar group configuration can be found in desert and gelada baboons, but the adult male in each of these species defends the females from other males and breeds exclusively with them. Not so for the patas harem male. Patas females become sexually receptive all at the same time, in July and August when food is abundant. This being more than one harem male can handle, bachelor males briefly invade the group to compete for copulations. At all other times, the only reigning harem male associates with the fair sex.

In fact, even sexual activity is initiated by the patas females – not males. According to Hall's observations, a receptive female approaches an adult male, runs past

Clockwise from top: An adult female inspects and grooms her year-old infant;

One adult female grooms another adult female;

An infant, nearly a year old, suckles from its mother;

Two infants wrestle and play on some fallen branches.



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... monkeys

and ahead of him in a low 'crouch run,' then crouches in front of him, looking back over her shoulder and blowing into her cheek pouches, causing them to inflate and deflate. This seductive 'wheeze-blowing' is often accompanied by drooling. Such an alluring female usually carries her tail curled up at the end while soliciting – the first visible sign that she is receptive.

At all other times, adult females are ambivalent toward the harem male, his presence tolerated, in part, by his help in keeping other males away. According to Chism, females frequently join together in coalitions against males, controlling not only the males' proximity to the group, but also their behaviour toward the females and young. Among a captive group studied at Seattle's Woodland Park Zoo, whenever the male was aggressive toward young monkeys, females would gang up and chase the male around the enclosure.

Patas females remain in their birth groups and do not emigrate, forming long-lasting bonds with daughters but not sons. As a result, adult females are likely to be related or very familiar with one another. Females develop close social ties by networking with mother, female siblings, other relatives, and female peers for their entire life span. These good-ol'girl affiliations may aid in food location and defense, predator detection, and defense of young against other monkeys or predators.

This female solidarity appears to begin at birth, when patas mothers tolerate other females taking their dependent infants from as few as 12 hours to 11 days after birth. As other adults and immature females caretake infants, a basis is formed for extending social relations beyond the mother in early infancy.

Juvenile females nearing adulthood spend their time quietly grooming other females, or caring for infants. Contrast this behaviour with that of young males, who seem to exhibit only one social behaviour – play. They are far more raucous than young females. High-speed chases and exuberant wrestling matches are their forté – skills needed to later acquire harems and form relationships with other young males with whom they can emigrate to bachelor bands.

Kent and James Loy of the University of Rhode Island, who studied patas monkeys in captivity, found that sex differences in behaviour began to emerge from 5 to 10 months of age, with young females receiving more care than young males from unrelated adult females. 'This amounts to older female infants being more completely integrated into the natal group than males,' say the Loyes.

For the most part, harem males are peripheralized from group activities, spending long periods of time scanning their surroundings from the top of a termite mound or the crown of a tree. While their larger body size makes them more visible to terrestrial predators, it is now thought that harem males are probably looking out for challenger males as much as for predators.

Patas social dynamics begin to make

sense if you consider the monkey's habitat. Under conditions of resource poverty and patchy floral cover, several large adult males would be more conspicuous to predators and tax seasonally limited resources needed by the females. Since patas males take twice as long to mature as females do, reducing the number of older juvenile and adult males within a group minimizes food competition among adult females and young.

Females determine the daily foraging movements of the group. Food resources found in the typical patas habitat are widely dispersed – fruit, leaves and gum of acacia trees, insects, and some small vertebrate species. As a result, the monkeys often forage far apart, giving periodic 'moo calls' to stay in contact. Moving steadily, they monitor each other and their surroundings by constantly rising up on their hind legs.

Territorial defense of home range is crucial in impoverished arid regions. 'Mortality of adult females and infants is highest during the dry season,' says Chism. Not surprisingly, patas females are known to defend their ranges from other female groups.

'In Kenya the monkeys are barely hanging on in pastoral areas and on large-scale ranches to the north.

As areas get settled, because the monkeys are very good thieves, they get hunted out'.

'Patas females are unique because they have several features that permit early and rapid reproduction,' adds Chism. While males reach sexual maturity at about five years of age, females do so at two and one-half years – an earlier age than is typical of any other Old World monkey. 'In response to an unpredictable, seasonal environment,' notes Chism, 'patas females are reproducing about as fast as possible.'

In addition, patas infants show rapid behavioural development. In Kenya Chism watched two orphaned infants aged seven to nine months survive the deaths of their mothers during a harsh dry season without adoption. Most monkey infants would normally perish under such conditions.

And finally, even patas sleeping habits are unusual. Needless to say, females choose the resting and sleeping trees. During the heat of the day, patas doze in clusters in a few trees. But at night, each monkey (except dependent infants) sleep solo in a separate tree; the group spreads out over a large area. Unlike the savannah baboons that return each night to a few communal sleeping trees, patas groups never use the same sleeping trees on consecutive nights – presumably a strategy to reduce the chance of nocturnal leopard attacks.

Pioneer patas research was conducted by [name] who died suddenly in 1965 after contracting the deadly herpes-B virus from a lab primate,

believed the patas limb structure, colouration, diet, social organization, reproductive cycles, and predator defense mechanisms were all adaptations to exploit drier and less wooded habitats than those of the vervet monkeys and savannah baboons. In fact, he first proposed the idea that arid terrestrial selection pressure – limited food, scarce water resources, and predation – may have enhanced the patas one-male social system.


While patas monkeys appear to use some human activity to their advantage – feeding on prickly pear cactus introduced as cattle fodder, exploiting water tanks placed for livestock raiding crops, and using fences to navigate through woods – overall, no one seems to really know what is happening with this species. Male patas are shot at for pillaging crops; the monkeys are occasionally killed by domestic dogs; and they are captured for medical research – as primate models for latent viral infections, hormonal studies, hearing-loss studies, and for Reye's syndrome.

In 1986, an action plan was drawn up by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature's (IUCN's) Species Survival Commission. According to John Carr, research consultant at Conservation International Washington, DC., 'Patas monkeys are not very high on this list.' In fact, the IUCN Red Data Book of 1988 lists patas monkeys as 'not threatened.'

But primatologist Rowell sounds a more cautious note, recognizing that much is yet to be learned about these primates. 'To say that patas monkeys are not threatened is rash,' says Rowell, 'It is a reflection of ignorance rather than fact. In Kenya the monkeys are barely hanging on in pastoral areas and on large-scale ranches to the north. As areas get settled, because the monkeys are very good thieves, they get hunted out.'

Chism reports, 'The range of patas has been much reduced in the last twenty years, probably as a result of deforestation and agriculture.' According to Kingdon, their range used to extend as far south as Serengeti National Park in northern Tanzania, but in the last two decades, groups have been seen only as far south as Amboseli National Park in Kenya.

'Our observations in Ghana,' adds Chism, 'suggest that patas are skilful crop raiders, and though less visible and aggressive than baboons, their presence may not be tolerated by farmers. We expect that wherever woodland is removed and replaced with agriculture, patas populations will be lost.'

But all patas experts would seem to agree on one thing: patas study is still in its early stages, and much is left to discover about these matriarchal primates. 

Barbara Kirkevold has studied patas monkeys, DeBrazza's guenons and several macaque species in captivity, as well as free-roaming Panamanian tamarins. She is currently working on a 10-year study of captive lowland gorillas, and a Ph.D at the University of Washington. Barbara Sleeper, also a graduate student in animal behaviour at the University of Washington, has studied gelada baboons in captivity; long-tailed macaques in Malaysia and titi monkeys in Peru and Brazil. She is currently studying patterns in primate and human infant care.



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Interview with RICHARD LEAKEY

*Conclusion of our exclusive interview with Dr Richard Leakey,
Director of the Kenya Wildlife Service.*

The discussion of game hunting in Kenya has been hotly debated for years. Among the many argument factors, opponents fear that game hunting could affect game viewing tourism as well as wipe out prime breeding males which would contribute to the weakening of a species. Proponents claim that hunting could generate revenue as well as encourage sustainable game management. What is your position on game hunting?

At the moment, we are operating under a ban on all game hunting and trophy hunting. In the last year, however, we have started to encourage land owners to look at wildlife as a resource, and now thinning out herds of plains game on farm land, where it competes with cattle and other livestock, is permitted. We are seeing an increased amount of game meat on the market and the export of zebra skins outside the country.

Now over the course of the next few years, we may get back to a situation of limited hunting of common species if it would, in no way, endanger the species in terms of survival.

If Kenya is to attract one million tourists annually, care needs to be taken in minimizing the environmental impacts. Both Amboseli and the Maasai Mara are currently showing signs of serious wear and tear from too much off-road driving as well as over-grazing. What is KWS doing to prevent habitat destruction?

There has been a massive influx of domestic stock, because there has been no water points outside the park, but we have spent the last six months piping water and rehabilitating water schemes so that the pastoralists can water their stocks without having to come into the parks.

There has also been very substantial degradation of habitat from off-road driving of tour buses because roads inside the park have experienced so much deterioration that the bus operators could not find a road to stay on.

We have surfaced 28 kilometres of road in the central part of the park and we have introduced disciplinary measures that have resulted in the complete cessation of off-road driving. We have already experienced some recovery at Amboseli and I feel very optimistic.

Why does Tsavo National Park, Kenya's



biggest game reserve, have only a handful of tourist lodges when it could easily absorb thousands of additional tourists a year with very little impact?

Of the 52 wildlife areas in Kenya, only six or seven of these currently accommodate 95 percent of the tourists. If we can put in roads, if we can put in security, if we can provide accommodation, the million tourists that we are projecting, even two million tourists, can be accommodated and we can reduce the over-crowding of the parks.

Tsavo and the Aberdares are areas where we can certainly put more tourists, and we would like to see over the next two years a lot of investment in new lodges. We are currently taking studies in parks to see what can be built with little impact, and we will have a well-planned campaign to increase tourist capacity over the next five years.

The Narok County Council, representatives from the Masai group ranches in the Mara, currently control the land rights in that area. Explain the pros and cons concerning the private ownership in Kenya's most popular gamepark. What type of control does the KWS have over the game in that area?

Under the current systems in Kenya, the county councils own their own game reserves, so the Maasai Mara Game Reserve is the asset of the Narok County Council. They have chosen to manage it themselves.

The management is audited by us on behalf of the government only in so far as the protection of wildlife is concerned. If

there were poaching in the Mara, there we could ask certain questions and insist on actions that would need to be taken in terms of safeguarding wildlife. But at this time the general administration and management of the reserve and the tourist amenities in that reserve remain the responsibility of the Narok County Council and they can or cannot take advice as it suits them.

Is there currently any legislation that would prevent the Narok County Council from selling off bits and pieces of the area?

At the moment the Masai Mara Game Reserve is protected, the areas around it are group ranches and are currently being sub-divided. Private individuals are now beginning to own private property around the Mara and there are no planning and zoning regulations that would prevent development that would be counter-productive to conservation.

Ruma and Kilimambogo are small and often over-looked game reserves in Kenya. Are there plans for the further development of these areas?

At Ruma we've just re-opened the airfield. We are spending money to put in a new water supply. We'll re-establish the fence in the next twelve months. And we hope to see visitor utilization of that park during 1992.

Kilimambogo, we've just completed a boundary review last week, and we have just acquired a piece of land that now rationalizes the park boundaries. We will fence the park, and once it is fenced, we will develop the area for tourism.

During the September 1988 East African Wildlife Conference at Kilaguni, Kenya's populations of the red colobus monkey and the De Brazza were identified as endangered. At that time it was recommended that their habitats be closely monitored. What is the current status on these species?

Well the red colobus, or Tana River colobus, is confined to a very small system of forest on the lower reaches of the Tana. The species number is down to the several hundreds, and there is concern. The only possible remedy would be to improve protection of their habitat and a lot of effort is

... Leakey

being taken now to raise money to establish a small reserve. Since that area has a high development potential, we will have to do something for the community if land is to be taken for the reserve. We'd like to see the money spent on irrigation schemes, schools so the people don't fear that they have lost a great deal of their land.

The situation with the De Brazza monkeys is confined to a few areas in the Cherangani. I think it probably survives in the Salwa Swamp area.

The De Brazza is actually fairly well known in Uganda and I don't think it is a threatened species. Its range is being restricted but it is in a different category from the colobus monkey.

Are Kenya's roan antelope and hunting dog populations recovering?

Kenya's roan antelope populations are low and we are not quite sure why they are low. It's partly poaching but there may be other factors as well.

When the Ruma area is properly fenced, we'll review that situation. Since roan are common in other parts of Africa they can certainly be introduced into a park like Ruma, those sorts of species can be introduced. I'm not concerned in the long term about being able to rebuild that population. The cape hunting dog is certainly scarce, but I believe that there are probably more than we know. For example they are seen quite often on the east side of Lake Turkana, in Tsavo and at Lake Elementaita and Lake Nakuru. They are probably found more often in bush and forested parks than people realize, but nonetheless they are a concern and their decreasing numbers are the result of disease from livestock.

What is the latest update on Kenya's black rhino?

The case in the mid-1980's was that the government wildlife authority, meant to look after the rhinos in the parks, was so badly corroded by corruption, that we were losing rhinos in the national parks at a high rate. At the time, we decided to put rhinos on private land where there was a better capacity to protect them all. That is why there are quite a few rhinos on private land sanctuaries in Kenya.

With the formation of KWS, and with the application of stronger management and larger sources of funding, our parks today are as safe as the private sanctuaries. And we are no longer moving rhinos from state land onto private land. We are now concentrating on breeding rhinos on our own state land and we are now taking genetic studies and doing genetic profiles on all the rhinos.

Kenya has made a quantum leap at being able to manage its rhino herds.

During the last several years, Kenya's coral reefs have been threatened by over-fishing and shell collecting.

What measures has KWS taken to restrict fishing, curb shell collecting, and monitor pollution control?

Well, we started at the South Coast at Kisiti and Piguti and we have a good warden down there with good boats and he is training his men to become qualified divers. The control of the Kisiti and Piguti National Park and Marine Reserve is adequate and we are just now beginning to see an improvement in the reef and we have certainly seen a rapid halt to the destruction that we once had.

As we move up the coast, we are looking at Mombasa range as well as Watumu and Malindi. We are expecting to spend, with the assistance of the Dutch government, a great deal of money over the next few years to upgrade our capacity to protect, monitor, and interpret marine parks. I feel that the potential of recovery is very high, even from over-fishing and shell-collecting.

It is unfortunate that some of these hotels have gone in along the peripheries of these marine parks without adequate effluent control. It will require negotiation with some other branches of government to improve on that situation.

Does the practice of dynamite fishing still continue?

That is pretty well stopped in this country.

Are coastal mangrove roots being damaged with continued oyster harvesting?

I think this problem is a bit exaggerated. I was just visiting Rita Creek a few days ago and oyster collecting to provide oysters for the hotels is certainly going on, but I didn't see any cause for alarm. It is, however, a trend that needs to be watched.

We are investigating alternatives such as harvesting oysters grown on strings to simulate mangrove roots

What would you like to see the EAWLS do to further the efforts of KWS?

We appreciate the publication of *SWARA*, it is a very good voice for the region. I am very glad that it has survived as an East African rather than a national voice. We would hope that the Society, through *SWARA*, would continue to educate its members on real issues of conservation.

We have enjoyed a lot of support from the Society over the past few years and we'd also like to see that continue, although not only through supporting KWS, but providing education in schools and conservation projects.

The Society is unique and has survived through the post-independence period. My hope is that it will continue to be independent and to tackle issues, including constructive criticism when it is appropriate to do so. I think that the Society played a very major role in persuading the Kenyan government to change its policies on wildlife management a few years ago.

I hope that the Society will not flinch from its responsibilities in the future. ♣



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GOLF Kenya!

KENYA

Mfangano Island

by Imre Loeffler

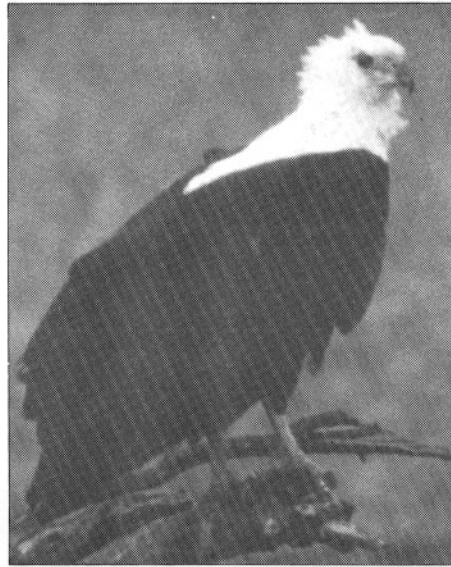
The Mfangano Archipelago - a group of five islands: Mfangano itself and four little satellites - is in Lake Victoria, west to Rusinga Island and near the Ugandan border. There are mountains on Mfangano, ranging from 5530 feet to 1400 feet above lake level.

Perhaps 20000 people live on these islands, most of them on Mfangano itself, although there is a very large fishing village on Ringeti. Takawiri, to the east, in the Kisingire Channel is quite populous. Risi is largely uninhabitable and Nzenji is a sanctuary: a sacred island of the Luo where no one was allowed to live since ancient times and where no tree must be cut, no firewood collected, no fruits gathered as that would anger the ancestor's spirits and they would withdraw rain...

The inhabitants are mostly Luo with a sizable proportion of Basuba. Agriculture and fishing are the mainstays of the economic base, although, because of the increasing overpopulation there is a net emigration from the island and probably the island's gross produce is considerably supplemented by cash earned elsewhere.

It is most surprising that men with their shambas, cattle and goats have not destroyed the island altogether. After all, Mfangano itself is only about 15 kilometres long and 8 kilometres wide and because of the many bays probably it is not more than 100 square kilometres. Why has it not been denuded, eroded, destroyed? It appears that men and nature live in a reasonably sustainable alliance there: some of the ridges and some valleys are not arable because they are too steep or too rocky or the soil is too poor. But there are no roads, no cars, no tractors and perhaps even no power saws. Still, it is not only the lack of mechanisation which benefited the island, grazing rights seem to be observed too, and there is a remarkable order. Most importantly, there is a wise chief on Mfangano who simply does not allow random tree cutting and who is conscious of the perils of erosion.

The fishermen do use newer technology. The boats of the Sese Island type (built from timber cut in Uganda, one presumes, illegally, and mostly smuggled) are very efficient, many of them have motors. The nets are made out of modern materials and some of them of prohibited small mesh size. In the daytime the fishermen fish for Nile perch and for tilapia, in the night for 'omena'. This they do by using hurricane lamps to attract the fish. Whether due to overfishing, to the introduction of the Nile perch into Lake Victoria or to pollution and



Fish eagle.

Charles Ziegler

euthrophication of Winam Gulf (all the agricultural chemicals from the fertile escarpments are washed into this gulf) - the fish is said to be fewer and fewer and quite large numbers float about dead.

The mosaic of varied small habitats: lakeshore, either rocky or sandy with or without reedbeds, shambas, forests, cliffs, thickets, caves, rivers, marshes - provide opportunities for a great multitude of birds.

I know of no other spot in Kenya where one could see as many fish eagles and as many hammerkops as one sees at Mfangano. There may well be 40 to 50 pairs of fish eagles around the island and some of the unfortunate outcasts have to roost on tiny trees as all the goods trees are occupied - some even sit high up in the cliffs and wait their turn. Hammerkops are everywhere and they would probably be far more numerous were it not for the habit of those relentless monitor lizards to rob the hammerkop nests.

The isolated rocks and some of the less lucky fig trees are covered by cormorants, and again I know of no location in Kenya where one can see such numbers of cormorant groups, both the white necked and the long tailed species.

The most conspicuous birds on the lakeshore of Mfangano itself may be these species, together with innumerable pied kingfishers: on Risi little egrets, several kind of herons and water dikkops abound.

In the numerous massive fig trees around the shore of the main island (I suppose most, if not all *F. Sycomorus*, Mukuyu) there are niches for many interesting birds: the eastern plantain-eater and the double toothed barbet being particularly noisy and conspicuous.

Where the vegetation reaches out to or above the water are the crowded housing estates and the more isolated mansions of the many species of weaver. The kites dominate the airspace over the island and

taking advantage of the updrafts along the ridges, they are engaged in a never ending airshow. On the morning when we walked along the range of hills there hovered among the aerobatic kites, a pair of snake eagles (the Beadouini race of *C. Gallicus*) and they looked like helicopters among all the displaying fixed wing squadrons of kites.

There must have been large wild mammals on Mfangano at one time - we were told about the last hyena - but now the vervet monkey is the largest mammal. Nocturnal mammals, such as genets, mongooses various rodents and many kinds of bats, including very large fruit bats can also be found on Mfangano. The most interesting mammal of Mfangano is however the spotted necked otter, a graceful, playful animal, alas in great danger, not only because of the peril of the fishing nets but because of the peril of ending up in Luo cooking pots. If only those wise spirits of the ancestors or that wise Luo chief or the government did something to protect the otter ...

Hippos have become rare in the archipelago, their unfortunate habit of raiding shambas forced the people to build stout fences on the waterfront. But even in the fast Mfangano never had a large hippo population. Neither are the shores suitable for the crocodile. However there are many very large monitor lizards constantly commuting between water and land, basking on rocks, climbing trees, exploring caves or just rushing about the undergrowth.

Mfangano awaits the naturalist who wishes to indulge in geology, botany, ornithology in complete security, among friendly people. There are many discoveries to make, particularly if the naturalist's interests include butterflies, insects, crustaceans and reptiles. It is possible to fly into Mfangano or travel by boat from Kisumu. When on Mfangano, one either treats oneself to the comforts of the beautiful fishing camp - or one has to rough it ... Inland there are many paths, some very steep and rocky, some mysteriously dark in thick forest, others again across hidden river valleys, habitat of the green headed sunbird and the black throated wattle. Further on, among the acacia groves the black headed gonolek calls and the white throated beeater goes about its elegant feeding performance. In the flats cisticolas zipp and flap.

One should circumnavigate Nzenji, the ancient sanctuary by virtue of Luo law. The protected Island offers a beautiful serenity. On Nzenji the otter is not threatened and the birds come down into the lower branches of the Mukuyu to look at the visitor. The fish eagle allow to be inspected at close range whilst they throw their heads and stretch their necks uttering the anthem of Mfangano and perhaps if one would be just patient enough a dove might come carrying an olive twig in its beak.

Uganda's new Rwenzori National Park

by Guy Yeoman

Guy Yeoman welcomes Africa's newest - and perhaps most beautiful - National Park, but warns that its success will depend on the full involvement of the mountain people.

THE RWENZORI mountains are noted for their self-effacement, which concealed them from European eyes until the year 1888. Soon after first sighting them, H.M. Stanley wrote, 'shrouded by perpetual mist, brooding under the eternal storm clouds, surrounded by darkness and mystery, there has been hidden to this day a giant among mountains, the melting snows of whose tops has been for some fifty centuries most vital to the peoples of Egypt.'

Thus I was lucky, in 1943, to catch a glimpse of the snowy peaks on my first visit to the region, but it was not until 1959, before most of us had become aware of Africa's environmental crisis, that I was able to penetrate their fastness. When I returned 25 years later, in 1984, the threat to the range was foremost in my mind. In writing of that expedition, and further expeditions in 1987, 1988 and 1989, in *Swara* and elsewhere (*Swara* Vol.8 No. 3 1985); I made a plea for protection in the form of a national park and World Heritage Site. As a result of this, in 1990 I was invited by the European Community (EEC) Conservation of Natural Resources Project for Uganda, to undertake an investigation into the reactions of the mountain peoples to the concept of a new national park for Rwenzori, and to outline an establishment plan. This plan was accepted by the Government of Uganda, and so it was with feelings of satisfaction, albeit muted with caution, that I learned of their gazettelement in May 1991 as the Rwenzori Mountains National Park - Africa's newest national park. One's first reaction must be to congratulate the President and Government of Uganda, the Ugandan National Parks Organisation, the Forest Department and the local people, for taking this enlightened step at a time when their country has so many competing priorities.

Difficult Choices

Having said that, I must explain that the final structure of the Park has been arrived at only after reconciling differing views. In mentioning these differences and the problems they pose for the Park's new managers, I hope I will be at the same time saying something useful about the general question of the creation of new parks and the survival of existing ones in the twenty-first century.

Owing to its tilt-block nature and the fact that the international boundary follows

the high crest of the range, about one fifth of the mountainous area of Rwenzori lies in Zaire, the remaining four-fifths being in Uganda. The smaller Zairean sector, however, has had the protection of national park status since the northward extension of the *Parc National d'Albert* (now *P.N. des Virunga*) in 1929, and in more recent times this has been reinforced by World Heritage Site status. The beneficial effect of this protection is clear when one is on the ground on the Zairean side of the range, as I explained in the 1989 publications referred to above.

Ugandan Rwenzori, on the other hand, had no statutory protection until 1941, when all the terrain above 7000 feet (say 2,200 metres) was made a central government Forest Reserve. This protection proved adequate until the deterioration of field services in the 1970's led to the *de facto* virtual disappearance of guardianship. Nonetheless while there has been a progressive process of denudation, burning, over-cultivation and erosion throughout the foothills below the Forest Reserve boundary, the local Bakonzo and Baamba people have largely respected that boundary from the point of view of residence and cultivation. Their traditional use of the forest and bamboo zones for extracting building materials, fibres and firewood has however continued, on a roughly sustainable basis, while the whole range has been increasingly subjected to small game trapping by traditional methods (mainly hyrax, duiker and blue monkey) on what is almost certainly a non-sustainable basis.

In 1986, under the auspices of WWF-International and the New York Zoological Society, Dr Peter Howard made a study of the ecological status of the range from the point of view of the surviving fauna. While Dr Howard found plentiful evidence of the continued existence of the blue monkey (*Cercopithecus mitis stuhlmanii*), the hyrax (*Dendrohyrax arboreus ruwenzorii*) and the Red Forest (Blackfronted) duiker (*Cephalophus nigrifrons*) (the first two are endemic subspecies) and some evidence of the Rwenzori colobus (*C. angolensis ruwenzorii* - also endemic), he concluded that they were all under serious trapping pressure. Other large mammals, once common in the range, were sparse to the point of absence (e.g. elephant, buffalo, bushbuck, leopard, giant forest hog, chimpanzee). As a consequence, he made a

proposal for a National Park. This was based on a high altitude core zone of total protection, and a lower altitude (essentially forest and bamboo) zone in which sustainable traditional extractive activity would continue.

The Mountain People's Fears

In the meantime, the EEC Conservation of Natural Resources Project had embarked on the rehabilitation of Uganda's four existing savannah parks. Following their decision to extend their remit to include possible new parks, as mentioned earlier I was invited to investigate on the ground the reactions of the local people to the prospect of a change from Forest Reserve to National Park. This was at the same time necessary in order to meet a constitutional requirement under the Ugandan National Parks Act. I was therefore assisted by two senior officials from the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife and the Ministry of Environmental Protection respectively. Our study took the form of a series of widely advertised *barazas* throughout the foothill zone. These meetings were well attended and I believe our assurance to the people of their freedom of expression resulted in our being entirely successful in drawing out their genuine feelings.

My initial approach had been that the interests of fullest protection for the range would best be served by a blanket change of the whole Forest Reserve to become the new National Park. However, the opinions repeatedly expressed to us were in a number of ways contrary to my preconceptions: the more significant of these are summarised as follows:

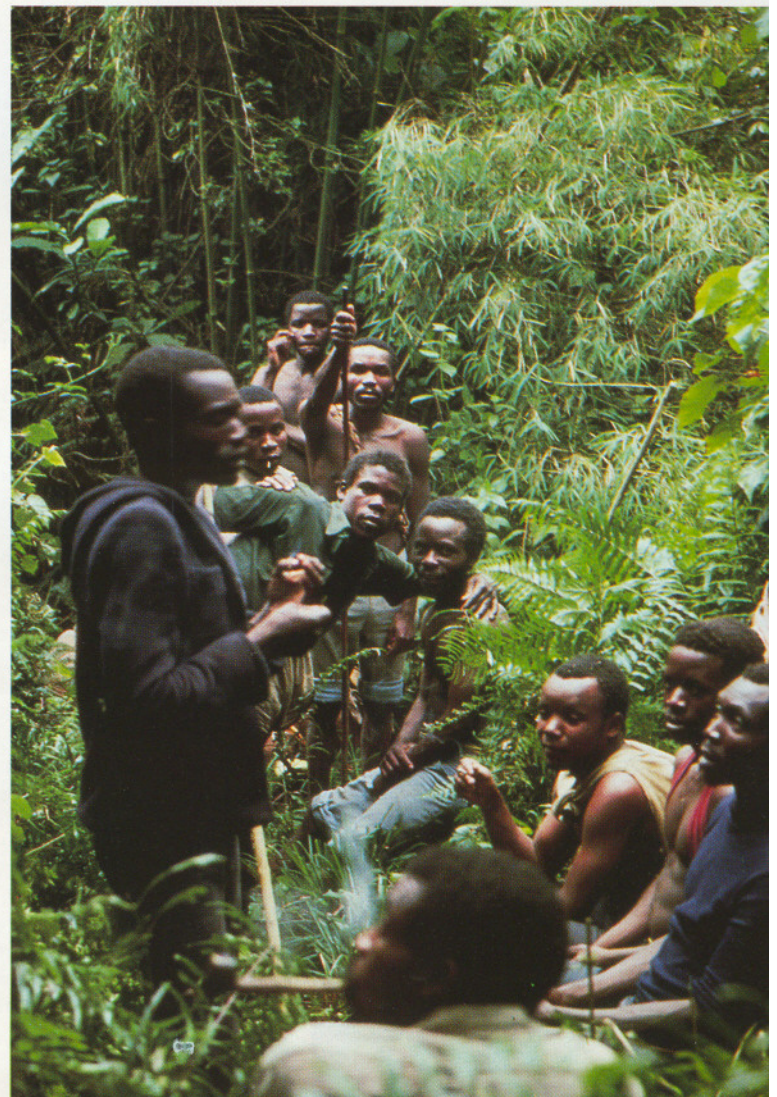
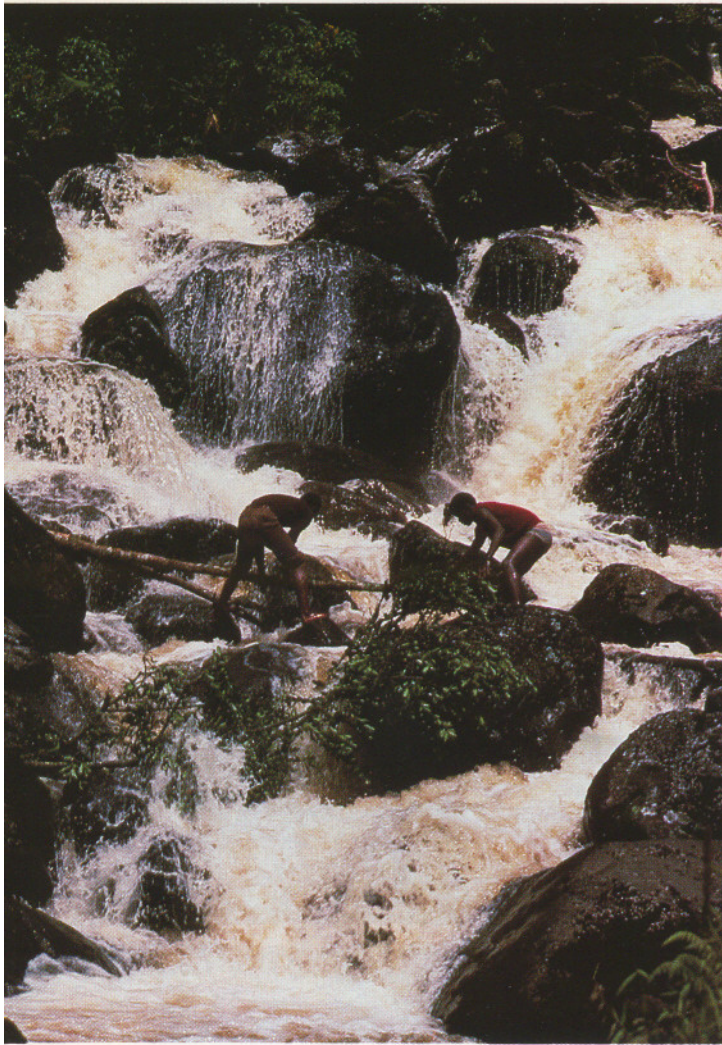
(1) Fears that the existing boundary would be moved down-hill, with accompanying evictions; fears of loss of traditional rights to harvest domestic commodities and use footpaths across the range; (2) Fear of an unknown new National Park staff possibly adopting a more confrontational attitude than the live and let live relationship of the past that they

Opposite from top clockwise: Disa stairsii ground orchids amongst Alchemilla argyrophilla at 11,000 ft.

Mt Luigi di Savoia: Point Sella, 15,179 ft. A party of Bakonzo porters resting in dense bamboo and mimulopsis at about 9,500 ft. Mimulopsis elliotii: the mimulopsis belt. Crossing the Mubuku torrent at 8,400 ft.



The Rwenzori mountains belong to the Bakonzo and Baamba peoples by right of timeless occupation, and they have handed them down largely unblemished to the present world generation.



Rwenzori



were accustomed to; (3) The term 'National Park' was associated in peoples' minds with large wild animals for viewing by tourists. Since such animals scarcely exist now in Rwenzori, it must be the Government's intention to re-introduce them, to the jeopardy of the dwellers of the forest edge. (4) There was a strong feeling, deriving from the widely recognised increase of the human population, that their expanding needs for agricultural land were being ignored and that they would be squeezed between the existing Queen Elizabeth National Park and the Kibale Forest Reserve on the one hand, and the proposed new park on the other; (5) There was a widely held view that the existing National Parks had so far brought no benefit to the local people - so what benefit could they expect from the new proposal.

At the same time, a strong sense of their deep feelings for their mountains emerged; a pride that they were so highly regarded by the outside world; a prescience that their conservation was necessary for the long term welfare of their children ('We know that it is the trees that bring the rain.');

a real warmth of welcome for the visitors who come to climb the mountains; and a practical appreciation of the economic benefits brought by the guiding and portage business.

It should be mentioned that the Konzo and Baamba (and the related Banande of the Zairean sector) have never fitted comfortably into the colonially created countries of Zaire or Uganda, between which the ethnic group was irrationally divided in the year 1910. As with the Swiss or Andorrans in Europe, they are inward looking, with an independent redoubt attitude, which has sometimes extended to an irremediable support by smuggling. Such factors are obviously potentially detrimental to the smooth introduction of a National Park.

Conflicting Pressures

An important aspect of our deliberations was the position of the Forest Department, which claimed that under their wardenship the reserved part of the range had remained virtually intact. To the department, the creation of a park would mean

the loss of an estate of nearly 1000 square kilometres, the actual forested area of which however, even including the bamboo zone, is only about 500 square kilometres. Regrettably it can be said that in the past Forest Departments in eastern Africa, which are geared primarily to protecting water catchments, supplying industry's needs for soft woods, and government's needs for export and revenue, have proved unreliable protectors of the natural forests. One has only to look at the vast deforestation and coniferisation of Mts Kenya, Kilimanjaro, Nyandarua, Mau and Elgon to appreciate this.

However, in the context of the present rehabilitation of Uganda, considerable World Bank funding has been made available in a major effort to conserve the country's remaining natural forests (Tabor & others, 1990). A Natural Forest Management and Conservation Unit has been set up which proposed that Rwenzori should remain under Forest Department control, but with a special status (new to Uganda) of 'Forest Park', and that this should itself undertake the business of facilitating mountain tourism. An advantage of this would be that, to the local people, there would be no change in the perceived status of their forest, and so potential hostility would be defused from the start.

My reservations on this proposal stemmed from what one has seen over the last half century on the other great massifs of east Africa, as mentioned above, where national parks have been confined to the upper moorlands, leaving the broad-leaved montane forest belts ostensibly under the protection of forest departments, but in fact subject to political expediency. The consequence has been coniferisation, tea estates and wheat schemes, as well as uncontrolled clearing and settlement. However, in the case of Rwenzori it may be argued that the rugged terrain, relatively poor soils and lack of commercial grade hardwoods make it less likely that this type of degradation would occur. Nonetheless, one must continually bear in mind that what we can imagine at the present time may be totally vitiated if the expected doubling of the human population of the region occurs in the next 20 years, when the demand for land and fuel, regardless of quality or inac-



Above left: an immature ground rosette of *Lobelia bequaertii* at 11,300 ft.

Above: *Lake Kachope* in the heath-moss/hypericum belt at 13,000 ft.

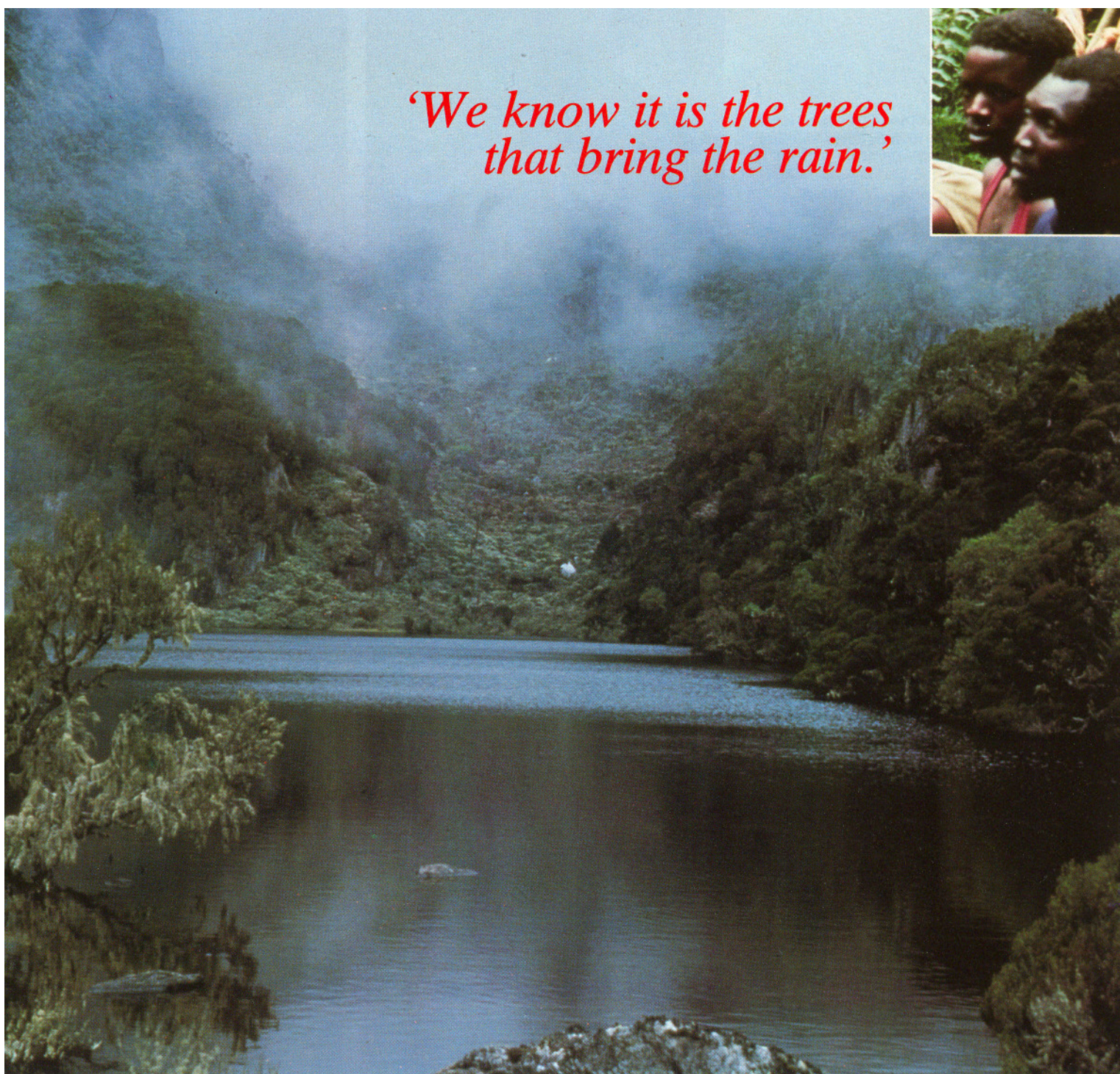
Right: *Canarina eminii*, a hanging epiphyte of the riverine forest at 8,400 ft.

Centre right: mist enshrouded giant heath-moss forest at 11,500 ft.

Extreme right: *Symphonia globulifera* flowers from the 100 ft high canopy of the Rwenzori forest at 8000 ft.

cessibility, may over-ride all other considerations. It just is not possible to visualise what sort of pressures governments will find themselves under in the next century. Thus non-governmental national parks and better still, internationally supported World Heritage Sites or Biosphere Reserves, may be the last line of defence. However, whatever the final designation of Rwenzori, my view is that if the park is not

*'We know it is the trees
that bring the rain.'*



whole-heartedly accepted by the local people as *their* park, its long term viability must be open to question.

A 'People Sensitive' Park

With these cogent and conflicting considerations in mind, a compromise was necessary and this brought us back to Dr Howard's earlier proposal for a core zone - roughly above the bamboo zone, say from about 10,000 feet upwards, and a surrounding buffer zone, extending down to the 7000 feet contour, the latter to remain under the control of the Forest Department with a special status allowing for traditional sustainable extraction and access for visitors. As reference to the map will show such an arrangement would leave the whole northern spur and the extreme southern tip of the range under Forest Department control and free the new park authority of a vast estate which is of little interest to non-specialist visitors. At the same time, a broad corridor was proposed on the eastern flank of the range, to include the normal access route up the Mubuku Valley, which would provide a 12 kilometre wide transect of all the ecological zones within the Park boundaries, down to the 7000 feet contour. This would divide the Forest Reserve into northern and southern sectors, but would leave most of the socially sensitive forest boundary unchanged in the eyes of the local people and thereby relieve the Park authority of a potential source of conflict.

A further recommendation was that the denuded foothills below the Park and Forest Reserve boundaries, which are such an obvious feature of the range when viewed from the plains, should become subject to special rehabilitation on agro-forestry conservatory lines, thereby comprising an outerbuffer zone. This outer zone is already the subject of a WWF-International study (WWF Project Proposal, 1989).

This deliberately *people sensitive* compromise plan was initially accepted by the Government of Uganda. The Government was however, subsequently persuaded, under what might be termed conventional environmentalist pressure, to modify it to the extent of including all the pre-existing forest reserve, down to the 7000 feet contour, within the new Park: that is, a return to my original plan that I had rejected!

A Heritage Domain

Everything will now depend on the tact and skill with which the Uganda National Parks authorities and field staff handle this new concept. First and foremost they must win the willing and informed consent of the *people*. In my book (*Africa's Mountains of the Moon, 1989*) I made the point that, whatever the official designation of any new protection, it should in effect comprise a dynamic Konzo Heritage Domain, which the local people should think of as their own. I suggest that this concept should be built into the Park's constitution by making an arrangement for permanent representation of the mountain people on the Board of Management and further, by establish-



Top left: a mature flowering *Lobelia bequaertii* in the Kuruguta valley swamp at 11,500 ft.

Top right: *Mimulopsis elliotii*: the intractable *mimulopsis* belt (about 9000–10,000 ft) is one of the main obstacles to penetrating Rwenzori, but the flowers are pleasing.

Centre: Mount Stanley viewed from Mt Baker. The twin peaks (right of centre) are Margherita (right, 16,723 ft) and Alexandra (left, 16,703 ft). Nearer, left of centre, is multi-peaked Mt Savoia with the Savoia glacier. Photo: Caroline Massey.

Above left: the everlasting *Helichrysum stuhlmannii* in snow on Mt Speke at 14,800 ft.

Above right: ice rime fantasy: the summit ridge cornices of Mt Margherita on Mt Stanley: ice column heights 10–100 ft. Photo: Huw Kingston.

Rwenzori

ing a special Konzo Rwenzori Committee (perhaps comprised of delegates from the local National Resistance Committees) that should have a standing relationship with, and hold regular combined meetings with, the National Park authority. This should ensure that people problems are recognised and dealt with earlier rather than later.

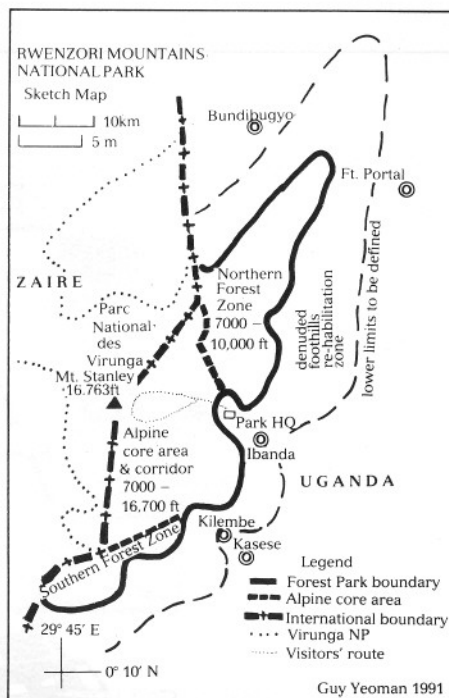
Indeed, if one takes a realistic look at all the National Parks of eastern Africa against the background of the exponentially expanding human population, it seems to me that they can only avoid conflict and eventual demise if they are progressively changed into something different, in which it is the interests of the local people, rather than those of extraneous organisations, scientists and tourists, that are moulded to perpetuate the idea of conservation. As I have mentioned earlier, the actual name is important because of the preconceived image it evokes. For such people-integrated and people-orientated conservation areas, while I have suggested 'Heritage Domain' - prefixed by the name of the people concerned - this is obviously open to other suggestions.

The Rwenzori mountains belong to the Bakonzo and Baamba peoples by right of timeless occupation, and they have handed them down largely unblemished to the present world generation. They must be supported in this proprietorial attitude, and they must receive tangible benefits from the new Park. While in the long term this benefit will take the form of conserved forest products, rain and water (with its important added values in terms of pure household supply, irrigation, hydro-electric power and the lake fisheries), in the shorter term it must include an increase of income from tourism, wider employment opportunities, a ploughing back of revenue into social services, and a fair share of extraneous aid funding.

Keep the Wilderness Inviolat

In the early years of establishment, the Park will, to a considerable extent, be dependant on external funding, presumably by such organisations as the World Bank, the EEC, USAID and WWF. It is to be hoped that they will understand the vital importance of involving the local people and ensuring their whole-hearted commitment. Furthermore, it must constantly be borne in mind that the prime attraction of Rwenzori is its remote and inviolate beauty. The creation of an infra-structure for visitors, such as a park headquarters, foot hill hotels, mountain huts, pathways and so on, must be done with the utmost sensitive aesthetic understanding. The well-intentioned introduction of artifacts such as sign posts, made-up paths, bridges, fixed ropes, summit crosses - things which inevitably become the mountain junk of succeeding decades - must be firmly eschewed. The wrecks of redundant huts must be totally removed and old sites left in an immaculate condition. The handling of litter disposal, sanitation and camp fuel supplies will be testing priorities for the

Rwenzori is different from the savannah-type parks of eastern Africa, and the motivation of visitors is likely to be different.



new management.

As for the new Park staff, it is most desirable that these should be recruited from the local mountain people. Few outsiders will live and work contentedly in Rwenzori's testing climate. The ideal candidates should be sought amongst existing recognised mountain guides and trappers. These are the only people who are familiar with the central wilderness area and its special *modus vivendi* of travel and survival. Such staff should be trained to be unobtrusive in their activities, and they should in no way present themselves as para-military, nor should they carry arms. Their *raison d'être* will not include acting as policemen or border guards, for there is no need of such. They will need to show particular sensibility in the matter of traditional trapping. Any attempt at immediate total prohibition could be disastrously counter-productive. A carefully managed consensus slow phasing out should be aimed at.

Their main purpose will be to facilitate visitors' plans; ensure high standards of hut maintenance, hygiene and environmental protection; monitor whatever system is laid down for providing camp fuel; possibly in due course to provide resident wardenship for some huts; assess and notify fire risk after dry periods; and to provide an effec-

tive emergency search and rescue system. In all this, close co-operation with Rwenzori Mountaineering Service - the Ibanda based traditional guides' and porters' guild, upon whom visitors are dependant for realising their plans - will be essential.

A Different Experience

Putting management considerations aside, I would like to say something about the Park itself: why people should come and what they will find. Rwenzori is different from the savannah-type parks of eastern Africa, and the motivation of visitors is likely to be different. Here are no easily visible large animals - not even mountain gorillas, for perhaps surprisingly, there is no history of these primates ever having existed in the range. The attractions are the remarkable spectacle of snow and ice covered mountains in the centre of equatorial Africa, and the knowledge that, as forecast by the ancient Greeks, they provide the highest and most permanent sources of the River Nile: the strange daily climatic regime and consequential giant flora; (Olov Hedberg [1964], the Swedish scientist to whom we are indebted for the exposition of this phenomenon, uses the expression *Africa's botanical big game*); the opportunity to walk and climb in a beautiful wilderness with African companions; and the sense of mystery and wonder that those who visit the range seldom fail to experience. These subtle qualities set Rwenzori in a class apart even from its only serious rivals, Mounts Kenya and Kilimanjaro.

One notable way in which Rwenzori differs from most other national parks is that there is not a single mile of motorable track in the whole range. Thus visitors must be dependant on their legs, while confidently trusting their safety to their remarkable Konzo companions. Once one has taken the mental resolution, this can be a marvelously releasing experience. Indeed the rewards of Rwenzori are primarily psychological, aesthetic and personal in terms of challenge and response. To the ordinary visitor most of the great savannah parks of Africa can be disposed of in a day or two in a vehicle without personal effort. To this extent, the experience is superficial. Rwenzori demands and deserves longer and deeper involvement, and visitors are strongly recommended to prepare themselves carefully. They will be tested by rain, mist, mud, wet feet, intractable vegetation and the effects of high altitude. Although two new and more comfortable huts have recently been built and more are proposed, most of the existing huts are small and primitive, while once off the normal route one must depend on tents or the rock shelters that are such a feature of the mountains. A proper journey into the heart of Rwenzori is not cheap, and there is no reason why it should be: but even the most timorous first footsteps will prove rewarding.

Rwenzori

The fauna and avifauna of Rwenzori, while of great interest, are discreet and scarcely visible to the non-expert. To the ordinary visitor it will be the dramatic landscape and the flora that will appeal. The outstanding features of the latter are the fantastic giant heath-moss forest; the exquisite lake district environments; the high altitude helichrysums and hypericums; and the striking examples of afro-alpine gigantism – the giant groundsels and lobelias – that here far exceed in stature and extent those found on the other African mountains. The amazing stands of *Lobelia wollastonii* must represent something like the ultimate in plant architecture and beauty. Hedberg sums up these vegetation zones as “some of the most fantastic biocoenoses of this planet”. But beyond these obvious and photogenic features, for the discerning visitor there is a wonderful range of smaller species, including a fascinating world of bryophytes, lichens, ferns, alchemillas, lycopodia and orchids, which form the unique sponge that makes Rwenzori such a perfectly functioning elevated wetland reservoir of the Nile.

The intense ultra-violet insolation of high altitude equatoria, combined with unrestricted availability of water but a challenging diurnal temperature range oscillating year round either side of freezing point – “where every day is summer and every night is winter” in Hedberg’s words – account for a prolific genetic plasticity and high incidence of endemic species which must be of interest to plant physiologists and geneticists. Indeed these mountains – a vast wet inselberg in the centre of a largely non-mountainous dry continent – offer many so-far unexploited opportunities for study. With this in mind I have suggested the possibility of a small high altitude field study facility – perhaps a joint field station of Makerere and a western university, which could be combined with a visitors’ lodge and perhaps be sited at the eastern end of Lake Bujuku.

The Jewel in the Crown

Finally, to the mountaineer and alpinist, the six great separate massifs that rise above the snowline, ranging from 15,000 feet to over 16,000 feet – Mounts Stanley, Speke, Baker, Emin, Gessi, Luigi di Savoia, as well as the splendid Portal ridge, offer rock, snow and ice for every level of experience and ability, and almost limitless opportunities for new routes. There is a wide choice of difficulty between the easy and the extreme such as is scarcely found on Mt Kenya or Kilimanjaro: this includes the fantasy world of massive ice rime architecture on Mount Margherita (16,763 feet or 5,109 metres) and her sister peak, Alexandra. Intending climbers should however note that poor visibility – especially on the descent – significantly raises the otherwise conventional grading of routes and adds to the time (in terms of days, as well as hours), that must be allowed to give a chance of successful summit expeditions.

Winston Churchill is often misquoted as saying that Uganda was the pearl of Africa. In fact, in the context, he did not use the word *Africa*. All he said, in his book *My African Journey* (1908) was that, compared with the down-stream desertified environment of the Nile valley (what we now call the Sudan) Uganda appeared as a pearl. I make no such limitation in the case of Africa’s Mountains of the Moon: unequivocally I claim them as the jewel in the crown of the whole continent. 9

Guy Yeoman was born in England in 1920 and came to Kenya in 1942 as an army officer. In 1949 he graduated from London University and then served for 12 years as a veterinarian in then Tanganyika. He is a Fellow of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons, holds the Diploma in Tropical Veterinary Medicine of Edinburgh University, has an Interpretation in Kiswahili, and is a Fellow of the Royal Geographical Society. His special interests are high altitude ecology and mountaineering. He has made many expeditions to high Africa, and seeks to call world attention to the ever advancing destruction of these unique ecosystems.

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Count Samuel Teleki's Second Voyage to East Africa in 1895

by Pascal James Imperato and Geza Teleki

COUNT Samuel Teleki von Szeke, a count of the Holy Roman Empire, is best remembered for his famous East African voyage in 1887-1888, which resulted in the mapping of Lake Rudolf (now Lake Turkana). Teleki and his travelling companion, Lieutenant Ludwig Von Hohnel, were the first Europeans to see the lake and to visit vast areas of what is now northern Kenya. Their expedition to the lake was one of the last great voyages of geographic 'discovery' by Europeans in this part of Africa. Although Teleki documented his travels with a daily diary and in letters which he wrote to both Crown Prince Rudolf, the expedition's patron, and Alfred Oswald, the consul of Austria-Hungary in Zanzibar, he never authored a published account. The expedition, however, was described in detail by Von Hohnel whose book about the voyage, *Discovery of Lakes Rudolf and Stephanie* (1894), became a classic of nineteenth century African travel.

During the 1887-1888 expedition, Teleki attempted the ascent of both Mount Kilimanjaro and Mount Kenya. On June 20, 1887, some four months into the voyage, he ascended Kilimanjaro to an altitude of 17,387 feet, some 2,000 feet short of Kibo peak. There, he was forced back because of the progressive development of symptoms of high altitude illness, including difficulty in breathing, weakness, rapid heart rate, bleeding from the lips, and sleep disturbances.

Von Hohnel's dyspnea was so great that Teleki had to leave him behind at a lower elevation. Nonetheless, Teleki's accomplishment was significant since he had reached the highest point on Kilimanjaro of any known climber up to that time. He later attempted an ascent of Mount Kenya in October, 1887, and reached an altitude of 15,355 feet, but was unable to scale the top of the mountain's 17,058-foot peak because of the snow and cold temperatures. The Teleki Valley, at 13,000 feet on the mountain's slopes, commemorates this historic climb.

Teleki was an unlikely candidate to become a nineteenth century explorer. He was born at Saromberke in Transylvania

(then Hungary, now Romania), on November 1, 1845, into a noble family that traces its roots to the early fifteenth century. He studied at Gottingen and Berlin universities and later entered the armed forces, eventually rising to the rank of Lieutenant Colonel in the Hussars. Through one of his brothers-in-law, he met Crown Prince Rudolf, with whom he became close friends. Because the Crown Prince was sympathetic to greater Hungarian autonomy within the empire, his relationship with Teleki was not only social, but also political. The Crown Prince even went so far as to sign a document at Teleki's country-house at Saromberke in 1883, promising that he would work towards an independent Hungary. This was not only rash, but also potentially treasonous to his father, the Emperor Francis Joseph.

Teleki was a pragmatic *bon-vivant* who enjoyed hunting and mountain climbing. Yet, there was a serious side to him expressed by his being a member of the Hungarian Parliament, and his active management of his large estates. Weighing some 238 pounds at the outset of his first African trip in 1887, but only 157 at its conclusion, he was viewed by many as the unlikely author of great feats of geographic discovery. In fact, most predicted that his voyage would be a colossal failure. Crown Prince Rudolf, however, was not among the critics, for he knew Teleki to be a determined and intelligent man, possessed of unusual stamina, and capable of putting up with enormous hardships. Teleki was also empowered with a strong sense of practicality, and possessed excellent judgement, traits which would serve him well in the African interior.

Crown Prince Rudolf, who was the patron of both the Austrian and Hungarian geographical societies, took a keen interest in exploration. He had read Joseph Thomson's book, *Through Masai Land* (1885) and was struck by his report of a large lake to the north of Lake Baringo, as yet unvisited by Europeans. This Lake Samburu, as Thomson called it, had been previously mentioned and described by other travellers and visitors. However, Thomson's account was the most confirmatory for Crown Prince Rudolf that this lake really

existed. He decided to induce someone to undertake an expedition in order to 'discover' this Lake Samburu, and to climb both Mount Kilimanjaro and Mount Kenya, two peaks which as yet had not been scaled to their summits by Europeans. Crown Prince Rudolf also saw an opportunity for Austria-Hungary to distinguish itself in the field of African exploration, and to perhaps lay claim to a slice of the African interior. While the first objective was achieved, the latter was eventually thwarted by the rapid chain of political events that sped up partition following Teleki's journey, and the Crown Prince's own suicide on January 30, 1889. Teleki came to mind at once, not because he had any particular interest in geographic discovery, but because he was already planning a hunting trip to Africa. Trips of the latter type had already become an established part of European aristocratic culture.

The fact that Crown Prince Rudolf had serious intentions regarding the purposes of this voyage is underscored by his choice of Teleki's travelling companion, Ludwig Von Hohnel. Teleki, who had planned to take along an old hunting companion, was not particularly pleased by the choice of a young navigator of the Emperor's yacht, *Greif*. Yet, he finally agreed under pressure from the Crown Prince and his wife, the Archduchess Stephanie, who had gotten to know Von Hohnel during their stay at Lacroma on the Dalmatian coast. Von Hohnel was skilled in taking geographic measurements and in mapmaking, indispensable assets on a voyage of the type the Crown Prince wanted. Teleki also knew how to take measurements, and to use aneroids and other instruments. However, these responsibilities were better placed, as the Crown Prince saw it, in the hands of a professional. The two men got on well most of the time despite their very different personalities and the trying conditions under which they had to travel and work. At times, the meticulous and fastidious Von Hohnel irritated the more easy-going Teleki, who expressed his exasperation in his 1887-1888 diary: 'But one thing is sure; never again will I take a European with me.'

... voyage

Hohnel is a diligent and useful man, but conceited and always wants to teach me a lesson, and his attitude is quite stubborn like that of a loud-mouthed infantry officer who is not impressed by his superior. I'm afraid I'll have to dismiss him too.' (May 21, 1887). Of course, Teleki did not dismiss Von Hohnel, and both men went on to become the best of friends.

To the consternation of many, the twenty-month Teleki expedition was a resounding success. Teleki and Von Hohnel not only charted Lakes Rudolf and Stephanie, but also mapped vast areas of the East African interior never before seen by Europeans, scaled the two major mountains in the region to the highest points yet achieved, and brought back a wealth of natural history and ethnographic materials. On their return to Vienna in 1889, however, they were not greeted as heroes, even though they had given Austria-Hungary an honored place in the annals of African exploration. As Von Hohnel later described in his book, *Over Land and Sea in Earlier Times and More Recent Days 1859-1909* (1926), jealousy was one reason. Another was that Teleki had fallen from favor at the Imperial Court in Vienna. There, the former close friends of the Crown Prince were scapegoated as being responsible in some way for his suicide, as Von Hohnel noted in 1926: '... he had been a devoted friend to the Prince ... he had to suffer for his friendship in high circles and this also was a reason not to speak of his travels and achievements.'

In the English-speaking world, the geographic discoveries of an Austro-Hungarian were not greeted with great enthusiasm in an environment charged with the emotions of nineteenth century colonial competition. These obscured a fair and objective evaluation of the merits of Teleki's voyage and muted praise for his very significant accomplishments.

While it has been assumed by many that Teleki never returned to Africa, he did in fact revisit East Africa in 1895, six years after the completion of his first trip. This voyage is not widely known, primarily because Teleki never published an account of it. However, he did keep a detailed diary from which it is possible to reconstruct the principal elements of this trip.

Although Teleki had seen many spectacular geographic formations during his 1887-1888 voyage, it was Mount Kilimanjaro which impressed him most. He often spoke about the mountain to his family with a longing which indicated that his first view of it had been a deep spiritual experience. His vivid impressions of the mountain and his response to it may have been shaped in part by the fact that it was the first major topographic formation he encountered on his way into the interior. Also, he saw the mountain early on in the trip, when all was going smoothly and before real hardships began. However, these caveats aside, Teleki had a very special feeling for the



Count Samuel Teleki on first journey.

mountain, and often spoke of his desire to return to see it again before he died.

When he finally set out on his second voyage to East Africa in the Spring of 1895, it was with the principal purpose of visiting Mount Kilimanjaro. By this time, he was suffering from gout, and his general health had deteriorated from what it had been several years earlier when he walked to and from Lake Rudolf. While seeing the mountain again was his major objective, he also had hopes of scaling the summit, even though Hans Meyer had been the first European to do so six years before in 1889 and had written an account of his feat, *Across East African Glaciers* (1891).

Teleki left Zanzibar for Mombasa on March 6, 1895, where he had been the guest of General Lloyd Mathews, who was the Prime Minister. Mathews treated him with the 'greatest benevolence and friendship,' and in Mombasa, Ralph Spencer Paget, representing the Imperial British East Africa Company (IBEAC), extended every courtesy to him, even lending him a compass. He set out in a boat on March 10, for Rabai, carrying two missionary women who he agreed to take to the mission station there. Rabai had a special significance for Teleki for it was a mission station established some forty years before by two German missionaries, J. Lewis Krapf and

Johann Rebmann, in the service of the Church Missionary Society. Rebmann was the first European to see Mount Kilimanjaro on May 11, 1847, and on December 3, 1849, Krapf saw Mount Kenya. Rabai was also the spot on the coast where Teleki emerged in 1888 from his voyage to Lake Rudolf. He remained at Rabai for three days before setting out on foot for Samburu, some twenty-five miles to the west. Since his passage six years before, the IBEAC had built a road through the area, and he was disappointed by what he found: 'That whole hike is not interesting any more. A broad road has been cleared and the old wilderness is all gone. Every day caravans pass through to Ukambani.'

At Matye, Teleki met Dr. William J. Anson, the District Medical Officer in Uganda, who was accompanying Mbogo, the former leader of the Moslem party in Uganda. Mbogo, an uncle to Mwangi, the Kabaka of Buganda, had been defeated by Lugard in 1891 at Bugangadzi. Although Mbogo was a lesser figure in the internecine wars in Uganda between Moslems, Catholics and Protestants, he was dangerous enough to have been sent into exile. Now, with a British protectorate proclaimed over Uganda, which was once administered by the IBEAC, Mbogo and his thirty wives were allowed to return.

The following day, the Teleki and Ansorge caravans camped together at Samburu, and then along with Mbogo set out for Taru, fifteen miles to the west. While Ansorge rode a donkey, Teleki walked. It was during this walk that his feet began to swell for the first time. Two days later, after Ansorge had left, his feet were no better: 'I arrived after two hours' hiking here with the intention of proceeding on the 17th, but my feet were already so badly swollen up, I could not wear my boots. . . . I do not know how I will be able to make it with these feet . . . I had swollen feet and sore feet, but never to such a degree that I could not get into my boots.'

Because his feet were swollen, Teleki rode a donkey to Maungu, forty-five miles to the west, and continued to travel this way to Taveta which he reached on March 25th. There, he met the Reverend Alexander Steggall, a Bulgarian in the service of the Church Missionary Society, who had established a permanent mission at Taveta.

Teleki left Taveta on March 29th and headed for Useni and Rombo, where he hunted game, including rhinoceros. Reaching the base of the mountain, he met his old friend, Miriali, the Chagga chief who had given him so much assistance on his first trip. The rainy season had begun in earnest, and made both travel and hunting extremely difficult. Along with a flare-up of gout and probable early signs of congestive heart failure, the rains made the scaling of Kilimanjaro impractical. Teleki, ever a pragmatic man, was quick to realize this, and abandoned all plans for climbing the mountain. A genial, yet outspoken and candid person, he was not often given to expressions of sentimentality. However, on his last day at the base of the mountain, he recorded in his diary an entry which reveals not only his feelings about Kilimanjaro, but also his search for the happiness he once experienced while in its shadow several

years before. 'I could not resist taking another look at Kilimanjaro before I lay my head down to rest forever. To see once more Kilimanjaro in all his glory and the country around in which I had been so serenely happy before.

'I don't know if I will ever return again, and I took leave from the snow-covered ancient one like from an old friend I would never see again in my life! And If I were sentimental, I would have cried!

'And yet, I was the one to open up the trail to the summit, and with Hohnel's maps and my instructions, Meyer finally reached the peak. I had been the first human being to violate the virgin snow of Kibo, sleeping below the white summit, and my feet had been the first to soil his veil of eternal snow! 'Today he seems more beautiful than ever before, cloaked in freshly fallen snow up to the saddle.'

These are extremely powerful words, written as they were by a man who had a reputation for being a pragmatist. He clearly felt he had a special relationship with the mountain, given that he had been the first to reach the snow line and the one who had made it possible for Meyer to scale the peak. Yet, it was not merely the grandeur of Kilimanjaro and Teleki's intimate association with the mountain that drew him back. Pleasant memories of idyllic days around the mountain on the 1887-1888 voyage were also a powerful lure. In a way, he was seeking to recapture the feelings of a time past, feelings which may have become more glowing as the hardships of the first trip subsequently unfolded. His longings for the time and place represented by Kilimanjaro intensified with time. His greatest desire, and one which he freely shared with his family, was to return to Mount Kilimanjaro where he had enjoyed a rare serenity and happiness. By contrast, he never expressed a desire to visit again the lake he had "discovered," and which his-

torically represents his life's greatest accomplishment.

Teleki died in Budapest on March 10, 1916 at the age of 71, and was buried in his family vault at Saromberke (now known as Dumbravioara). Most of his African artifacts and hunting trophies disappeared during World War II when Soviet troops entered his country estate. A few surviving trophies are currently on exhibit at the Gongenszentimrei Forestry School which now occupies his former estate. Small ethnographic collections of African artifacts also survive at the national museums of Vienna and Budapest. Teleki's diaries of his 1887-1888 and 1895 African voyages were smuggled out by his family members after World War II, and are now in the collections of the University of Chicago Library. In 1961, two family members, Charles and Eva Teleki, translated these diaries, originally written in a combination of Hungarian, German and Swahili, into English.

While Teleki's second African voyage did not result in any great feats of geographic 'discovery,' it did partially fulfill the sentimental longings of a man otherwise well known for his candor and pragmatism. His diary of this voyage provides insights not only into a poorly understood aspect of his character, but also into his views of an Africa that was rapidly changing as the colonial era got underway. ¶

Special thanks are extended to Vera Teleki and the late Charles Teleki for permission to quote from their English language translation of Count Samuel Teleki's diary, A personal Diary of Explorations in East Africa in 1895. Thanks are also extended to the Austrian State Archives, Vienna, for access to the Teleki Papers, 1877-1888, and to Mr John Winthrop Aldrich for permission to use the William Astor Chanler Documents.



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'WHALETAIL'

East African Wildlife

Art Exhibition / Auction, Nov. '91.

Compiled by Fiona Alexander

IN THE aftermath of 'Whaletail' followed by the festive season, the Organisers are still endeavouring to tidy everything up and more importantly, to get a proper picture of our 'bottom line'. This will not, however, be achieved before we meet the print deadline for this issue of SWARA, as many overseas artists have not had the time to respond to our post-Exhibition letters. Our initial calculations may therefore be subject to some variation.

What we can do in this issue is to convey our boundless thanks to everyone whose contribution helped towards the success of the Event. And a success it was. Many enthusiastic compliments have been received by the Committee, and there is little doubt that the actual physical presentation of the Exhibition was a 'tour de force', probably unrivalled by any similar event held in Kenya.

The most significant input came of course from the artists – 264 of them from 21 countries all over the world: Austria, Canada, Colombia, Cyprus, Eire, France, Germany, Hong Kong, Kenya, Malaysia, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, South Africa, Sweden, Switzerland, Tanzania, Uganda, the UK, the USA and Zimbabwe.

The richness and variety of the artworks themselves enhanced by the glorious flower

and plant arrangements, the huge well-lit space of the Prestige hanger, the banners and parachute adornments, all added up to a unique and superb spectacle. The ambience was further enhanced by the warmth and hospitality of the temporary cafeteria, the spontaneity and helpfulness of the volunteers who manned the show, and the charm and generosity of our Royal Patron, and the Honorary Auctioneer.

Many friends of the Society gave unstintingly of their time and effort to work behind the scenes in the lead-up to the mounting of the Exhibition. Several individuals and organisations donated cash towards our expenses, or goods and services which enabled the Event to go forward. These are listed separately, and we thank them all.

Approximately 2,500 visitors attended the Exhibition during the six days it was on display, and among these were several large parties of school children.

A panel of four Judges (the fifth failed to materialise!) appraised the various works of art, and made their ruling, and the results may be seen in the accompanying schedule.

Although the outcome of the Auction was rather disappointing as a result of the devastating world depression, we did manage to sell just over 50 per cent of the

artworks. Apart from a couple of generous mail bids, overseas buying participation was virtually zero. The Society is therefore indebted to the Kenyan public for their support, and most particularly to that small band of 78 individuals or organisations who actually spent money at the Auction!

Sales of remaining artworks continue. When these have been completed, and following the necessary disbursements to artists, we shall probably have accumulated about 5 million Kenya Shillings in the conservation fund. While we had hoped for a larger sum, we must accept this as a satisfactory result given the prevailing economic climate, and of course we will certainly be able to fund some significant wildlife project with the money.

We are still endeavouring to solicit donations to cover the running expenses of the Event, in order that the monies raised by the Auction may be left intact in the 'Whaletail' conservation fund, and any contributions will be warmly appreciated.

Several of the unsold works are now to be found displayed for sale in various local galleries, and our Society shop in the Hilton. There still remains a varying and impressive selection of paintings and sculpture in store, and these are available for sale through the Organisers for their Reserve Prices.

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- Wilson, Alison
- Worldwide Fund for Nature

Artwork from opposite above: Norman COKER – 'Cape Mountain Zebra';

Top left: Roy CHAFFIN – 'In sight';

Top right: John GOVVET – 'Crowned Cranes';

Centre: Kamau WANGO – 'Waterbuck at Lake Nakuru';

Bottom left: Davina DOBIE – 'Where the maize fields blow ...'

Bottom right: Martin HAYWARD - HARRIS 'Call of the wild'.

AWARDS IN THE 'WHALETAIL' WILDLIFE EXHIBITION,

November 1991

Judges: Robin Anderson, Mary Collis,
Moyra Earnshaw, Nehemiah arap Rotich

		Lot. No
OVERALL		
WINNER	Anselm CROZE	Stained Glass 87
SECOND		
OVERALL	Timothy BROOKE	Oil Painting 36
THIRD		
OVERALL	Andrew McNAUGHTON	Sculpture 259

GOLD AWARDS

• Robert BATEMAN	(a) Professional	21
• Tom CLARKE	(b) Amateur	60
• Jeannette DEBONNE	(c) Oil Painting	97
• David L PRATT	(d) Watercolour	302
• Eduardo GONZALEZ	(e) Photograph	132-137
• Graham HIGH	(f) Sculpture	186
• Chew CHOON	(g) Drawings, sketches, lithographs, etc	59
• Davina DOBIE	(h) Acrylics	99
• Anselm CROZE	(i) Any other medium (Stained glass)	87

SILVER AWARDS

• Timothy BROOKE	(a) Professional	36
• Andrea MARTIN	(b) Amateur	248
• Sane WADU	(c) Oil Painting	386
• Joan Ashley ROTHERMEL	(d) Watercolour	328
• Alan BINKS	(e) Photograph	26A
• Andrew McNAUGHTON	(f) Sculpture	259
• Favell BEVAN	(g) Drawings, sketches, lithographs, etc	26
• Jony WAITE	(h) Acrylics	387
• James WILLIAMSON-BELL	(i) Any other medium (serigraph)	412

BRONZE AWARDS

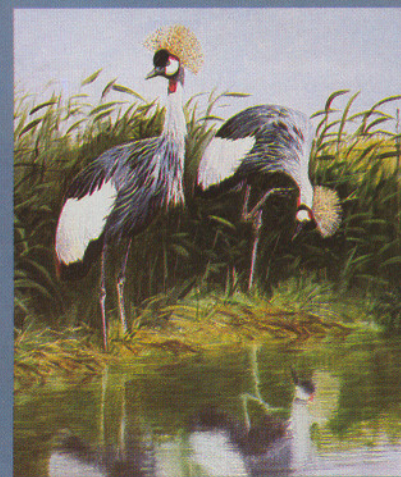
• David L PRATT	(a) Professional	302
• Mbai wa NJENGA	(b) Amateur	278
• Barbara KARN	(c) Oil Painting	214
• David BYGOTT	(d) Watercolour	41
• Peter SQUELCH	(e) Photograph	365
• Jonathan KINGDON	(f) Sculpture	217
• Philip OKWARO	(g) Drawings, sketches, lithographs, etc	286
Bryan HANLON	(h) Acrylics	160
Gill SHAW	(i) Any other medium (Embroidery)	347

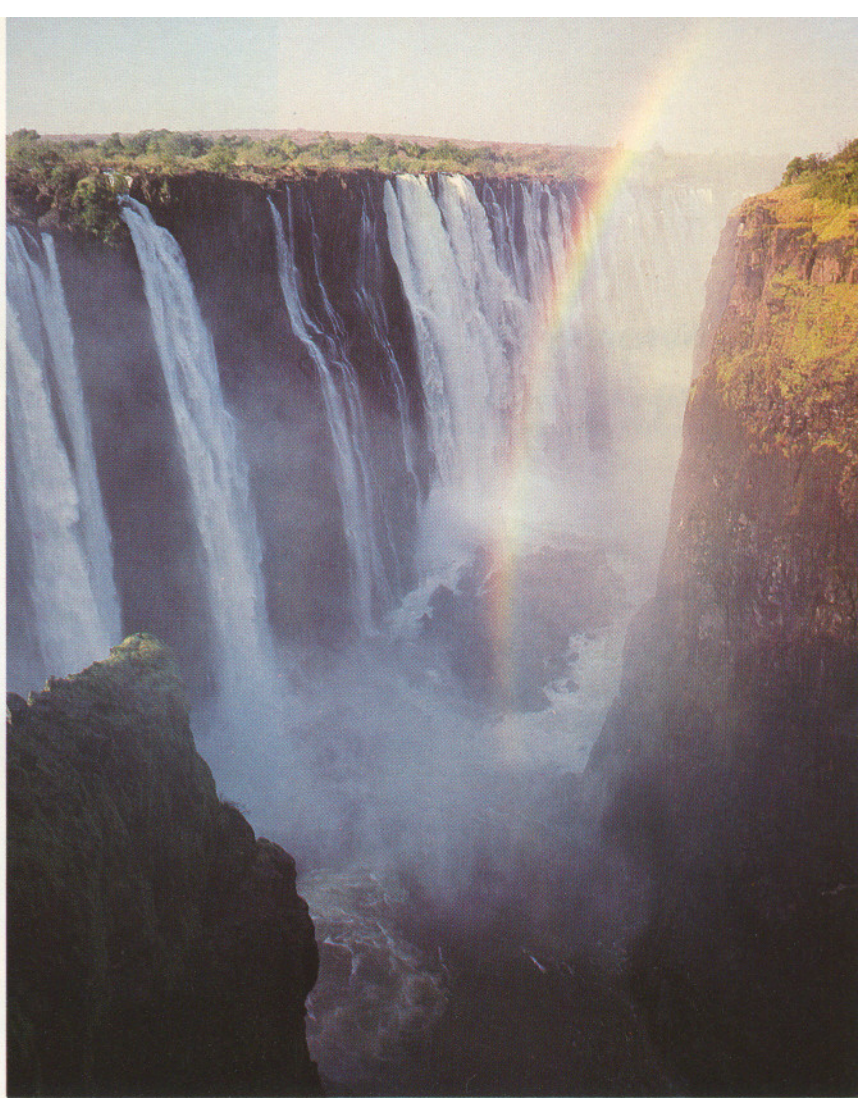
UNJURIED AWARDS

PATRON'S AWARD	David A FINNEY	114
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COMMITTEE AWARDS FOR THEME INTERPRETATION

• Rosalind GRANT	Lot No. 148
• A J McCOY	Lot No. 254
• Judith Smith WILSON	Lot No. 420
• Ian H HENDERSON	Lot No. 179
• Jeni SLATER	Lot No. 359





ZIMBABWE

Unassuming Eden of the South

by Graham Mercer

MY wife and I first went to Zimbabwe more than three years ago and our immediate impressions were of a relatively efficient, clean and orderly country. Those impressions were enhanced by a punctual and welcoming internal flight to Victoria Falls, and from the air my attention was also drawn to another pleasing feature of Zimbabwe; that it is still, outside the urban areas, sparsely populated. There is a lot of emptiness in Zimbabwe.

Emptiness of people, that is; it has wildlife in abundance, as we were soon to find out. In the meantime we were to see for ourselves its major tourist attraction, Zimbabwe's answer to such spectacles as Ngorongoro, Kilimanjaro or the Serengeti-Mara migration, and its insurance policy against its lack of palm-fringed coral sands, where tourists, tired and dusty from safari, can flop or frolic by a postcard blue sea.

I was dreading it. I imagined an African Niagara, choked with tourists and cheap souvenirs, and desecrated by hideous hotels. I was mistaken (though the worst I fear, is beginning to happen). However well travelled or informed, nothing prepares you for 'The Smoke-that-Thunders'. One moment you are passing through the thatched gatehouse of Victoria Falls National Park (admission ingenuously free until quite recently), the next you are standing with your back to Livingstone's statue, moved to speechlessness by the roaring, rainbowed splendour of the scene before you.

That initial astonishment is scarcely allowed to subside, for as you eventually withdraw from the nearest of the falls (a sloping and stupendous flume of water known as The Devil's Cataract) and follow the path through the rain forest which flourishes along the gorge, you are confronted not only with a series of awe-inspiring views of the other sections of the falls, but with the realisation that surprises every visitor. For almost everything in this most delightful National Park is also '... so Natural!'

So natural, in fact, that many of the visitors who wander between the Natal mahoganies and African ebonies, the wild dates and olives, the figs, (et alia) and waterberries, and all the other trees and shrubs and flowers in this enchanted forest, are mesmerised by the tranquillity of it all, a peacefulness endorsed, rather than spoiled, by the constant thunder of the falls.

It comes, then, as some surprise to round a bend in the evening gloom and find, not an ice-cream cart or a kiosk selling

Zambezi National Park would be worth a visit even without the animals; the pleasurable views of the broad Zambezi river make it completely worth it.

sweets and soft drinks, but a bushbuck, stepping daintily among the saplings and shrubs and buttressed roots, to nibble at the grass or leaves within a few metres of the chasm's edge. Or to hear the familiar cacophony of squabbling baboons, or catch a glimpse of a waterbuck, stealing like its own detached and graceful shadow through the glades.

Buffalo are still occasionally seen in the vicinity of the falls, and hippo venture through the forest by night to graze. Leopard are said to be common in the gorges and a lioness was reported close to the gatehouse during my first visit three years ago. In fact the tiny park (23 square kilometres) contains an unexpected variety of mammal species. When the water is low, elephants have also been sighted feeding on the island vegetation just above the lip of the falls.

Elephants are no longer found in the Victoria Falls National Park itself, though they do come close, now and again, to the adjacent little township. They are also present in some numbers in the Zambezi National Park which is, quite literally, just down the road. Considerably bigger (573 sq km) than its more spectacular neighbour, the Zambezi holds an impressive array of

game, including large herds of that most handsome of antelopes, the sable, as well as roan, kudu, re-introduced rhino (black and white), lion, leopard, giraffe and zebra. Because of the undulating nature of the country, with its thick 'Kalahari' woodland and scrub and its tall-grassed marshland, game-viewing is not always easy, but, in my opinion, all the more satisfying for that.

Zambezi National Park would be worth a visit even without the animals; the pleasurable views of the broad Zambezi river make it completely worth it. The 'Zambezi Drive' follows the riverine woodland, where, among shady acacias, and figs, imaginatively chosen and secluded little sites have been designated as picnic or fishing areas. To see impala, kudu or elephants in these same woodlands or hippo and basking crocodiles out on the sandbars and rocky inlets in midstream, makes any picnic or idle afternoon's fishing a little bit special.

There is something special, too, in the birdwatching possibilities of the Zambezi and Victoria Falls area, for the sight of trumpeter hornbills flying across the spray-clouded gorge, or giant kingfishers arrowing low between the islands of the great river, is also memorable. (The trumpeters are apparently partial to the purple fresh-water crabs which live, of all places, in a small pool on the edge of the gorge, opposite Livingstone Island). There is, as one might expect, a host of other birds, from white-fronted bee-eaters long the banks of the Zambezi to white-browed robin chats in the understory of the rain forest.

For those of us who are less single-minded in our appreciation of life's pleasures there are worse things to do on a sunny late-afternoon than to sit under a Rhodesian Teak or MuShibi Camp, tree by the entrance to the Victoria Falls Rest watching the world go by and listening to the lovely fluting call of an African golden oriole, or being distracted by the shy, restless movements of a sulphur-breasted bush shrike (known in the south as the Orange-breasted) with its beautiful soft harmony of colours.

Mammals can also be seen in the town. At the height of the tourist season I have watched banded mongooses crossing the main road to raid the dustbins in the post office yard (and seen them, in the car park by Victoria Falls, intrigued by the sloughed skin of a snake, nosing and squatting over it

Clockwise from opposite top right: Rainbow Falls (Victoria Falls) from Danger Point; Zebra;

Southern yellow-billed hornbill;

Sunset over Lake Kariba;

Female Kudu - Hwange NP;

White Rhino; Elephants.

... Zimbabwe

as if to purge themselves of its associations). Other small mammals which may be seen in or around the township include warthogs and vervet monkeys, and I have found the spoor of kudu inside the Rest Camp grounds.

The main roads in Zimbabwe are well maintained, and driving becomes an unaccustomed pleasure. The road from Victoria Falls to Hwange, in the dry season, is reminiscent of the broad driveway of an English estate, perfectly surfaced, almost empty of traffic, and passing, for most of its length, through a seemingly endless and glorious avenue of trees, creating a resplendent illusion of the northern autumn.

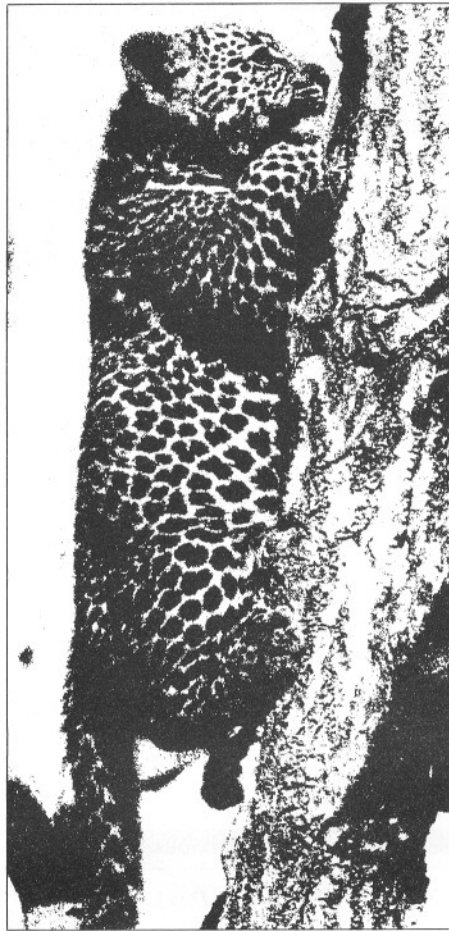
A narrow but good tarmac road actually runs west from Main Camp through the park itself, for a distance of some 75 kilometres. In any case, for those who love their discomforts and yearn for the spine-jarring currugations, lung-clogging dust-clouds or axle-deep mud (and I'm no longer one of them) there are enough kilometres of secondary dirt track to satisfy their masochism, with some to spare.

Hwange is a big park by any standards (14,651 square kilometres) and it is wild. Outside of Chobe, in Botswana, it probably contains the greatest concentration of elephants in Africa, and though you don't always see them, because of the vast teak, mopane and terminalia woodlands, evidence of their numbers and distribution is everywhere. There were times on our latest trip when we drove steadily for more than five hours through country littered with elephant droppings, inside and outside the park.

Zimbabwe has been criticised for its reluctance to conform to other countries' ideas regarding the sale of ivory, and its policy of controlling elephant populations by culling and hunting will always arouse strong feelings among conservationists. It is a complex as well as contentious issue, but to see the evidence of such enormous numbers of elephant (Hwange alone is said to hold 20,000) and the destruction they bring about is to begin, at least, to see the problem in a new perspective.

Population counts, of course, can be inaccurate, and must be particularly prone to error when carried out in or over the dense woodlands of Hwange. Other factors, such as natural migrations in and out of the park, or artificial increases in numbers because of animals seeking refuge from neighbouring wartorn countries can also lead to misinterpretation of overall trends. One thing is undeniable; there were an awful lot of elephants in and outside Hwange in July (1991), and they had been doing an awful lot of eating.

There are a lot of other animals in Hwange, too, including sixteen species of antelope and about four hundred species of birds. Among the antelope the Sable, Greater Kudu and the Steenbok are much more common than in their East African habitats, so much so in the case of the kudu that you begin to take them for granted,



Jonathan Scott

Zimbabwe has been criticised for its reluctance to conform to other countries' ideas regarding the sale of ivory, and its policy of controlling elephant populations by culling and hunting will always arouse strong feelings among conservationists.

and when you take kudu for granted you know you've got a five star safari on your hands. Other differences that the visitor from East Africa will notice involve the wildebeest, which is the southern race of the Blue but noticeably dissimilar in form and colour from its conspecific Tanzanian equivalent, and the zebra, which is the Chapman's race of Burchell's with a tinge of yellowish-buff to the ground colour of its coat and to its shadow stripes.

There are said to be two thousand sable in Hwange and an increasing number of introduced rhino, black and white, and (though we searched for them in vain in the far north-western corner of the park, close to the Botswana border) tsambe and germsbok. Lion are present in some numbers, especially in the Robin's Camp area, but the easy viewing of the Serengeti and the Mara is denied to the game enthusiasts of Hwange.

It takes a while to adjust to the different landscapes and the game viewing techniques they impose, for unlike the East African plains, visibility in Hwange is usually restricted. Nor is there a significant river to follow, as in Tanzania's Selous and Ruaha or Kenya's Samburu. Hwange is a dry region, its scattered natural pans (water-holding depressions) augmented by scores of man-made ones, fed by bore-holes, and shrewd and patient Hwange connoisseurs will spend hours waiting by their favourite water holes or dams. Those of a more restless temperament, like myself, resort to pan-hopping, a technique which adds considerably to the already expensive car-hire bill but which sometimes pays dividends, as when we found two hundred elephants drinking by one pan, two honey badgers nosing around the water's edge at the next, three male kudu at the third and, several pans further out, a single cheetah - a rare sighting in Zimbabwe.

Of Hwange's bird species, a good many can be seen without moving too far from the comforts of your cottage at Main Camp. A leisurely half-hour stroll among the camel thorn and Rhodesian teak should provide a competent birder with at least thirty species, including the red-billed francolin, the southern yellow-billed hornbills, and Bradfield's pied babbler, groundscraper, kurrichane thrushes, magpie and crimson-breasted shrikes. A few of these, of course, will be thrilling additions to the lists of the first-time visitor, not excepting the southern yellow-billed hornbills, which are now classified as a separate species from the eastern. Hwange are also gratifyingly common. The brilliant crimson-breasted shrike, with its glossy black head and upperparts, is strikingly easy on the eye but not so easy to photograph, flying away at your approach or, just as you focus on the highlight in its eye, flitting ever-upwards into the thickening foliage of an acacia.

The second largest of Hwange's camps, Sinamatella is a hundred kilometres or so from the main entrance and situated in very different terrain, along the ridge of a granite outcrop. Sinamatella overlooks a small river system and the rocky, mopane-wooded country beyond, and in its cleanliness and efficiently maintained comfort is even better than Main Group. Among other animals in this area, kudu are especially common, and you might, among the tumblers of granite, see the occasional klipspringer.

There are two smaller camps, Robin's and Nantwich, close to each other in more remote, open country, less than twenty kilometres from the Botswana border. Several independent lodges exist in Hwange also, all within a relatively short distance of the main entrance, but like the camps these can be heavily booked during school holidays. Booking ahead (sometimes for many months) is becoming increasingly necessary in Zimbabwe, and the would-be traveller must be aware of this. I will enlarge upon the problem in the second of these articles, which will concentrate on two very different areas, the Matobo and Matusadonna National Parks. ♣

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Errata

In my article published in the Jan/Feb 92 *SWARA* 'The 'Whaletail' Elephants - A Gallery of Giants' there was a major error, and I hasten to put this right.

I was encouraged to edit Daphne Sheldrick's widely-circulated manifesto 'The Elephant Equation' for inclusion in

the issue. Unfortunately, being so tied up with 'Whaletail', I was unable to undertake this task until just before the print deadline, by which time Daphne herself was out of the country, and therefore unavailable for consultation.

On page 18 of the relevant *SWARA* issue, the third paragraph contains a sentence which includes the statement: '... in the sixties as the result of severe drought, about 20,000 elephants died in natural conditions of starvation.'

Daphne has pointed out that this is a totally erroneous statement. I misinterpreted certain statistics and phraseology in her original paper.

The fact of the matter is that 9,000 mainly female elephants perished in 1970 due to malnutrition and drought-related factors. A further 11,000 elephant had died, probably as the result of poacher activity, in the 'fifties and 'sixties.

As the author of the *SWARA* article, I apologise without reserve for the error.

Fiona Alexander



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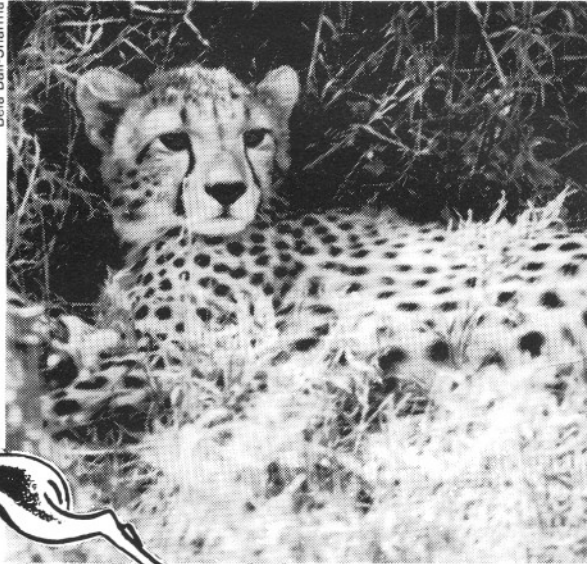
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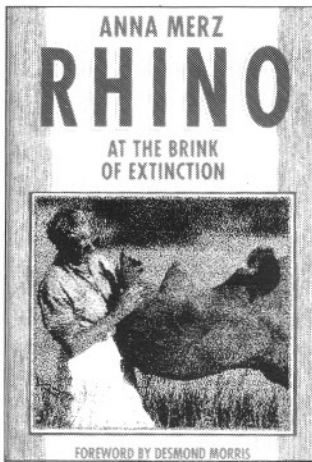
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Rhino at the brink of extinction
by Anna Merz

Harper Collins, London 1991, Ksh 450
ISBN 0-00-219920-3

She is indeed 'the best friend they ever had.'

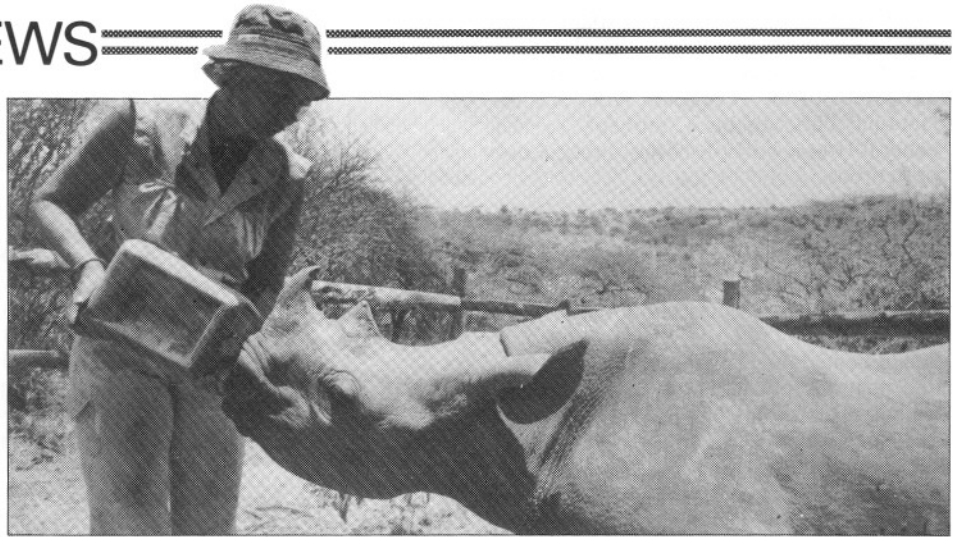
When Anna Merz first announced her intention to write a book about 'her' rhinos, I was a little nervous. Could a monologue devoted entirely to the discussion of one animal species not be perhaps a little boring devoid of interest to the general reading public; the kind of book that once skimmed through is consigned to the rear shelves of the library together with a plethora of other such volumes, classed 'dry as dust'?

These doubts were gloriously disproved, and Anna's rhino story joins Cynthia Moss's on elephants, Jane Goodall's on chimps and Shirley Strum's on baboons as altogether readable, amusing, and interesting from beginning to end. Although she boasts no scientific degree, Anna's intense involvement with her chosen animal has yielded hitherto undocumented data, thus earning her a place alongside more technically qualified conservationists.

In his Foreword, eminent animal behaviourist and author Desmond Morris states "Rhinos need all the friends they can get, and she is the best one they ever had".

Ann's involvement with rhinos has not been all that long - she founded the Ngare Sergoi Sanctuary only eight years ago. Determined to get things right from the beginning, she went off to India, Nepal and South Africa to see how they did things there, and how other rhinos behaved.

Having tackled the problems relating to land, Wildlife Department permission, housebuilding, staff, fencing, roads, and management, the intrepid Anna launched herself into the exercise of catching her rhinos. Her tales of these adventures



among the wild mountainous terrain north of Lewa Downs are as stirring as any dering-do, with helicopter chases, long hauls through dense prickly bush following spoor, pursuits in and out of hot ravines, crashed aeroplanes,

Eventually the first breeding core of the Ngare Sergoi rhino population was secured.

In ensuing chapters, Anna creates pen-portraits of specific animals, and these cameos clearly illustrate the differing characteristics and behaviour of individuals. From later chapters dealing with their feeding, mating, breeding and social behaviour the Black Rhino emerges as an animal of considerable sagacity and varying temperament, giving the lie to the generally-held opinion that they are inevitably aggressive and stupid.

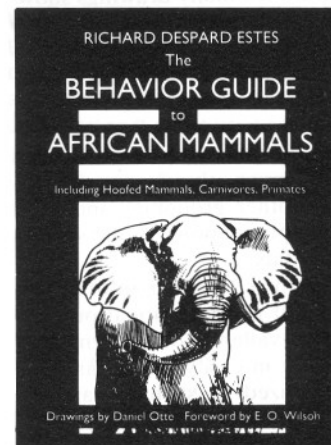
One of the most touching episodes in Anna's interactions with the Ngare Sergoi rhinos is the story of Samia, the infant animal which she hand-raised from two days old. To-day the huge creature moves freely among the other rhinos of the sanctuary and lives a normal wild life while simultaneously maintaining the bonds of trust and friendship with her human mentor. To witness Anna and Samia strolling through the bush side by side is a remarkable experience! From her extremely close relationship with Samia, Anna learned about the 'breathing' language of rhinos, and has documented for the first time an analysis of these communication patterns.

Anna continues to live inside the sanctuary, and pursue her daily hikes with a tracker to count and record the behaviour of the rhinos. She is as tough as they come, down-to-earth and pleasantly eccentric, but also disarmingly caring and emotional when it comes to rhinos. She is indeed 'the best friend they ever had.'

The book is copiously illustrated with both colour and black-white photographs of high quality. It is a good, easy read and is as much the story of an unusual, dedicated and determined woman as it is a study of the Ngare Sergoi rhinos.

By Fiona Alexandar

All royalties from the sale of the book go to the Ngare Sergoi Rhino Sanctuary.



The behaviour guide to African mammals

Richard D. Estes. Illustrated by Daniel Otte

University of California Press
Price US \$75.00

I find this an admirable work, very useful to anyone interested in how mammals live, be he an intelligent tourist, a resident of Africa...

This is a new type of guidebook, one that has never before been attempted. As the author explains in the Preface, he tried to produce a book equally useful for the layman and the professional biologist, which many said could not be done in a satisfactory way.

Although the title describes it as a behaviour guide, it does in fact more than the title promises. Especially in the Introductions to the various sections anatomical, physiological, evolutionary and ecological aspects are discussed.

A 'Guide to the Guide' explains with great thoroughness how the book is organized and why species are included or not. Maps of the vegetation types and the National Parks of the Continent create a general framework for the information presented.

The Introductions to the orders, families and tribes summarize traits of the species within those groups under the headings: Distribution, Ecology, Social organization, Activity, Postures and locomotion, Foraging or Predatory behaviour and Social behaviour. This latter is subdivided into various subheadings such as Communication, Territorial behaviour, Agonistic and Sexual behaviour, Play and Antipredator activities. Species descriptions repeat most of these same headings with minor variations.

The information provided is exhaustive and the illustrations, many drawings showing besides behaviour patterns also interesting anatomical features – as well as the Distribution Maps for each species discussed, enhance the value of the book.

Tables add more wideranging information showing the distribution of various behaviour patterns or other features within the families or other groupings and even within different populations of one species in different habitats.

The book brings together information hitherto scattered in professional publications, mostly unavailable to the layman. It is presented here in easily understandable form and organized in such a way that relationships, contrasts and diversity are all explained. The gathering together of all this knowledge in a well organized guidebook is of benefit not only to the general public, but to the professional biologist as well.

My criticism regards form rather than substance. Impala is added to the Chapter dealing with the tribe Alcelaphini, although its tribe is Aepycerotini. The trouble with this is that the Chapter headings in the Table of Contents as well as in the text mention hartebeest, topi, blesbok and wildebeest only. If one is looking for impala, one would not look for it among these. It is only mentioned in the Table of Contents in the enumeration of the various species within that Chapter, in small print, following wildebeest.

I had trouble finding it when I was looking for impala and since it is such an ubiquitous and conspicuous animal, I feel others looking for its description might also have trouble locating it.

Although most drawings, many from photographs, are excellent, there are a few I found not quite satisfactory. On page 351 a drawing depicts a leopard strangling an antelope. To me it gives the impression of a lioness, as the face is too long, leopards have shorter muzzles. The tail though is that of a leopard, not a lion.

Again on page 381 the drawing of a cheetah dragging a kill is not very cheetahlike as it is a bit too heavy and compact. The hindlegs seem too short and thick for it to be immediately and without doubt recognized as a cheetah's. Especially as there is no indication of a coat pattern in either of these pictures, the outline



Battle between a herd stallion and an interloper.

must do the work of making identification unmistakable.

In the Glossary I was not happy with the definition of 'Endemic'. According to my lights and the Oxford Dictionary, 'endemic' means not just 'native plant or animal as opposed to exotic species' but those occurring mainly or exclusively in a specific region.

But my reservations are of a very minor nature and all in all I find this an admirable work, very useful to anyone interested in how mammals live, be he an intelligent tourist, a resident of Africa eager to find out more about the creatures we share the Continent with, or as a reference book for the professional biologist.

I would suggest that all Kenya libraries add it to their stock. It would also make a very welcome and I am sure, much used addition to the reference book collections of Park Lodges and Camps.

By Judith Rudnai

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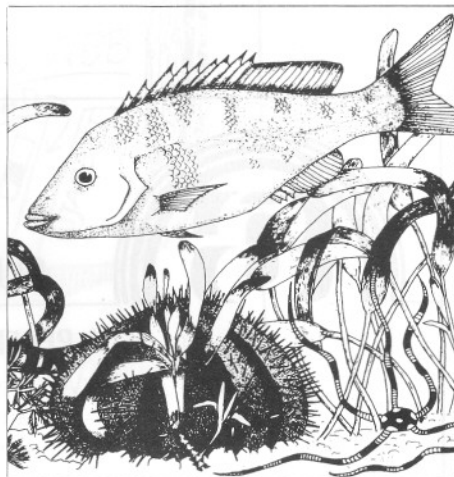
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The last word on marine conservation

A number of developments and publications have arisen in the marine conservation field during the last few years which I find troublesome. I take exception to these developments as they are not based on good ecological reasoning, they are not current on primary scientific research, and create unnecessary conflicts which slow the pace of understanding and development of marine science and conservation in East Africa. These developments largely deal with research and knowledge aimed at marine conservation and management and frequently include the issues of fishing, shell collecting, tourism impacts, and marine pollution. I have worked on primary research topics dealing with all the above issues since 1978 and completed my PhD dissertation on fishing impacts in Kenyan coral reefs. This research was based on four years of field research in southern Kenya between 1985 and 1988. Since I have worked on these issues for some time and have reviewed most of the primary and secondary ('gray') literature on East Africa's coast I feel qualified to address these issues in order to keep *Swara* readers current on our understanding of East African marine research and conservation. In what follows I will address the issue of overfishing and shell collection for which I have extensive first hand research experience.

The most current debate over the intensity and extent of fishing on Kenyan reefs has been perpetuated by Melita Samoilys who received funding from WWF and EAWLS to complete a survey of coral reef fish. Her work was completed with the assistance of a motor boat and SCUBA diving equipment off the outer reef edges in maximum water depths of 6 to 15 metres during the northeast monsoon. Based on her observations and data she has argued that no overfishing has occurred in Diani Beach, and that there is no relationship between sea urchin abundance and their fish predators. These lie in contrast to statements I have made in previous publications stemming from research undertaken in Kenyan reef lagoons. First, it is very curious that WWF and EAWLS supported a research project that looked at fishing impacts in deep water off the reef edge as those who work on coastal reefs know that the majority in intense fishing is undertaken in reef lagoons of southern Kenya which are nearer to shore and more protected than deeper and more distant (from shore) reef edges. Fishing on reef edges is usually restricted to line fishing from boats. Since most fishermen in southern Kenya lack seaworthy boats fishing intensity is restricted in extent and intensity. There is some aquarium fishing in deeper reef edges particularly in patch reefs off Shimoni. Consequently, *a priori* we would suspect to see

little impacts of fishing in Melita's study sites with perhaps the exception of fish which take bait from lines such as rock cods. This is in fact the major conclusion of Melita's study although she also emphasizes the impacts of sedimentation in northern Kenya and dynamite fishing along the Kenya-Tanzania order. Nonetheless, as I have argued numerous times including a publication in *Swara* (Vol. 11 No.1 Pages 8-9) it is quite possible to have very intense fishing in reef lagoons nearshore and little



or no fishing in deeper reef edge waters. I have used this argument to suggest that fisheries development should include boats and engines to get fishermen offshore in reef lagoons. Fish studies of my own (i.e. *Hydrobiologia* Vol. 66, Pages 269-276 and *Oecologia* Vol. 83, Pages 362-370) have shown that there are fewer and smaller fish in fished Kenyan reef lagoons than Marine Parks. It is curious that I wrote the above *Swara* article in order that we could avoid arguments about whether or not overfishing was occurring but could instead focus on where overfishing might occur and to develop plans to alleviate this problem. Despite this article we find ourselves once again in an unfruitful debate largely due to the ignorance of grantees, researchers and editors. It is my hope that we can move forward on these issues and begin developing the necessary management plans that are so dearly needed rather than reverting into further polarization on the issue.

It is perhaps ironic that Melita was only able to complete her study during the calm northeast monsoon and prematurely ended her study during the southeast monsoon when seas became too rough to complete field work. Within reef lagoons one can work year round due to calmer conditions near shore behind the reef. This is the second reason why fishermen stay in reef lagoons most of the time and for the intense fishing in reef lagoons. Rather than contradicting my previous claims Melita's findings have substantiated my claims about the impacts of fishing on Kenyan reefs and

where overfishing is likely to occur.

The relationship between sea urchins and their predators has been studied intensely and has been reported in numerous peer-reviewed publications (*Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology* Vol. 126, Pages 77-94 and Vol. 147, Pages 121-146; *Oecologia* Vol. 83, Pages 362-370). The work has shown that triggerfish are the dominant sea urchin predators and sea urchin abundance is highest when triggerfish predators are low. We have also measured relative predation rates on sea urchins in a number of studies and have found a strong relationship between predation rates and triggerfish abundance. Because of the importance of these results to fisheries management we have repeated the experiments numerous times and results have consistently supported the above conclusions. We have also found that on many reef edges that sea urchin abundance decreases with water depth and predation on sea urchins increases with depth. All of our work was undertaken in water depths less than four metres at low tide. Deeper areas off reef edges appear to have a greater abundance of sea urchin predators which may be avoiding the rough conditions (i.e. breaking waves) in shallow reef edges. Consequently, one would expect low sea urchin abundance and abundant predators in deep reef edges. Where sea urchins are uncommon their predators switch their diets to other prey and little or no relationship between sea urchins and predators will be found; which is consistent with Melita's research findings. Once again there is no conflict between Melita and our research findings. Unfortunately, Melita seems largely ignorant of the many recent scientific publications we have produced on this subject and she might be less inclined to create conflict if she was aware of current East African marine literature and had evaluated the scientific basis for my statements in *Swara*. All of the above scientific articles have been sent to the EAWLS and should be part of their library.

The EAWLS supported a three year research project of mine that focused on the impacts of shell collecting on the shell fauna and the health of coral reefs. I concluded from my data comparing parks and unprotected reefs that only a few species of gastropods (i.e. living shells) were being effected by shell collection (two species of wing shell *Strombidae*) and perhaps the egg cowry (*Ovula ovum*), that reef predators such as triggerfish were having a greater impact on shell populations than collectors, and that most predatory shells such as Triton and Bullmouth Helmet shell, although feeding on sea urchins and Crown-of-Thorns starfish, do not control their populations. In general, I believe that due to the low abundance and feeding rates of most gastropods their removal or further lowered abundance will not have a large impact on the coral reef's ecological health (i.e. productivity and species richness).

Despite presenting these findings in public (EAWLS Kilaguni Lodge meeting), to local reporters, an article *Swara*, and 2 scientific publications (*Marine Ecology Progress Series* Vol. 53, Pages 11–20 and *Coral Reefs* Vol. 9, Pages 63–74) this message has not been heard. Instead there seems to be an accelerated rate of shell collection regulations and controls associated with the EAWLS (i.e. window shield stickers) and a ban on shell collection in Kilifi district (Nation Newspaper 4/1/91). I have also frequently been misquoted on this issue. In fact, I was surprised after explaining the above conclusions to a news reporter to read articles in both the *Standard* and *Nation* papers with titles such as 'Diani beach in danger: too many shells collected'. This type of misinterpretation has been difficult for me to understand but perhaps Mwamba Shete of the EAWLS has given me the best reason. He said that 'once you have told fishermen to stop collecting shells it is difficult to tell them later that it is fine to collect them'. I can appreciate this problem but my suggestion would be to let the issue die a quiet death rather than accelerate regulations. This episode is a very good reason for doing research before one initiates management plans. It also shows the difficulty of stopping management once peoples' minds have been made up about what they believe to be important conservation issues.

It is my belief that rather than stopping the shell trade we should restrict our management to the three species which appear overcollected. I suggest that an aquaculture project to raise these wing shells to a juvenile age, where predation is less likely to control their populations once they are released into reefs, would be a start. The shells of these species used as ornaments can fetch as much as Ksh. 2000 and the meat is edible and delicious (most Kenyans have yet to appreciate this food resource). Rather than restricting shell collection I would like to see it expanded to deep-water areas where rare species found in deep water can frequently fetch more than Ksh. 30,000 per specimen from rare shell dealers in the United States and Europe. Further research should be undertaken on ways to fish these deep water shells. Finally, for the wing and egg cowries I suggest that the Fisheries Department establish some minimum size limit on these species. Shell collectors and dealers in possession of undersized shells should pay a reasonable fine to a fisheries research and management fund. Shell collecting, in my opinion, is perhaps one of the least destructive ways that poor fishermen can earn an income from the reef and should be encouraged. I feel badly when I hear of shell collectors being fined or arrested when so many other fishermen using destructive fishing methods go unregulated and unpunished.

To date many of the conservation and management plans for the coast have been based on little or no scientific data. Because of the lack of data and the need for management we have prematurely accepted some of the predictions and plans generated by office-bound conservationists. These views of the coast are now sadly embedded within

the minds of both conservationists and marine researchers to the extent that we may have a difficult time extracting ourselves from this group hypnosis. This hypnotic state may have been acceptable five years ago when so little data was available but at present our knowledge of the East African marine environment has increased greatly and will continue to grow over the next few years through research being supported by Wildlife Conservation International; World Wildlife Fund; The Pew Charitable Trust; Food, Conservation and Health Foundation; the Rockefeller Foundation and Kenya Wildlife Services. It is my hope that we as conservationists will awake from this slumber and demand high

quality research aimed at answering management concerns and then develop management which takes into account the various needs of resource users. Once our research base has been established we can develop education and management programmes based on good information rather than speculations of arm-chair conservationists. It is also time for conservationists to educate themselves in order that we no longer perpetuate our ignorance and fruitless arguments.

Tim McClanahan, PhD
Research Fellow, Wildlife Conservation International and Kenya Wildlife Services.



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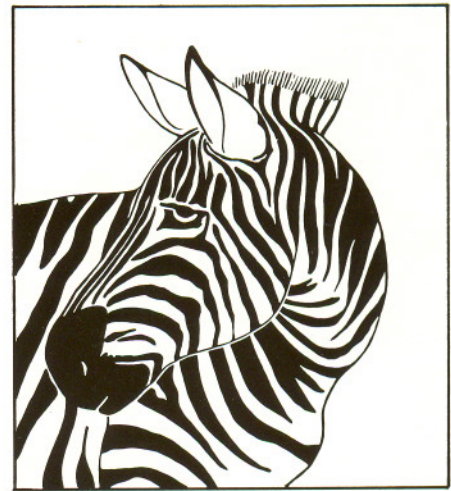
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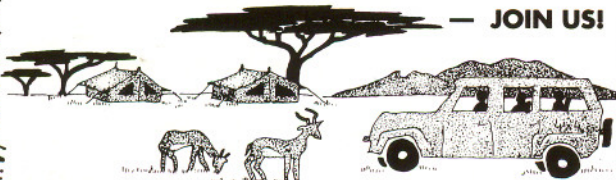


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