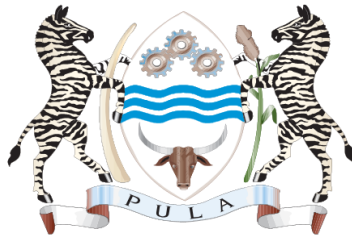




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Republic of Botswana



ENVIRONMENTAL AND SOCIAL MANAGEMENT FRAMEWORK (ESMF)

Managing the human-wildlife interface to sustain the flow of agro-ecosystem services and prevent illegal wildlife trafficking in the Kgalagadi and Ghanzi Drylands (PIMS# 5590)

GEF Project ID:	9154		
Country/Region:	Botswana		
Project Title:	Managing the human-wildlife interface to sustain the flow of agro-ecosystem services and prevent illegal wildlife trafficking in the Kgalagadi and Ghanzi Drylands		
GEF Agency:	UNDP	UNDP PIMS ID:	5590
Type of Trust Fund:	GEF Trust Fund	GEF 7 Focal Area (s):	Biodiversity (Child project: Global Wildlife Programme)
GEF-7 GWP Component (s):	1. Improved environment, natural resources, climate change governance, energy access, and disaster risk management		
	2. Anti-poaching, prevention of human-wildlife conflict, livelihoods enhancement, and capacity building of local institutions		
	3. solutions developed at national and sub-national levels for sustainable management of natural resources, ecosystem services		
	4. legal and regulatory frameworks, policies, and institutions enabled to ensure the conservation, sustainable use, access and benefit sharing of natural resources, biodiversity and ecosystems, in line with international conventions and national legislation, monitoring & evaluation		
Anticipated Financing PPG:		Project Grant:	USD 5,996,789.00
Co-financing:	Government: USD 21,000,000.00 UNDP: USD1,000,000 Birdlife Botswana \$500,000	Total Project Cost:	USD 28,496,789.00
UNDP Social and Environmental Screening Category: Low-moderate risk	UNDP Gender Marker: 2	LPAC Date: TBD	Atlas Project ID No 00103617
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Expected Project Start Date:	1 May 2017	Expected Project End Date:	30 November 2024
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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ABS	Access and Benefit Sharing (Nagoya Protocol)
AAF	Affirmative Action Framework
BDF	Botswana Defense Force
BPS	Botswana Police Service
CBNRM	Community Based Natural Resource Management
CBO	Community-Based Organisation
CKGR	Central Kalahari Game Reserve
DLUPU	District Land Use Planning Unit
DWNP	Department of Wildlife and National Parks
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
ESIA	Environmental and Social Impact Assessment
ESMF	Environmental and Social Management Framework
ESMP	Environmental and Social Management Plan (UNDP)
ESF	Environmental and Social Framework (ESF)
FPIC	Free, Prior, and Informed Consent
FSL	Full Supply Level
GDC	Ghanzi District Council
GIS	Geographic Information System
GOB	Government of Botswana
GPS	Global Positioning System
GRM	Grievance Redress Mechanism
HWC	Human-wildlife conflict
IUCN	International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources
IWT	Illegal Wildlife Trade
KDC	Kgalagadi District Council
KGDEP	Kgalagadi and Ghanzi Drylands Ecosystems Project
KTP	Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park (Botswana, South Africa)
LCP	Local Communities Plan
LDP 1	Livestock Development Project 1 (World Bank)
LDP 2	Livestock Development Project 2 (World Bank)
LEA	Local Enterprise Authority
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MENT	Ministry of Environment, Wildlife, Natural Resources, Conservation, and Tourism
NGO	Non-government organization
NGPD	National Policy on Gender and Development
NSP	National Settlement Policy
NSP	National Spatial Plan
PAC	Problem Animal Control
PMU	Project Management Unit
RAC	Remote Area Community
RADP	Remote Area Development Programme

SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SEP	Stakeholder Engagement Plan
SEMP	Strategic Environmental Management Plan
SES	Social and Environmental Standards (UNDP)
SESP	Social and Environmental Screening Procedure (UNDP)
SGL	Special Game License
SSAHULC	Sub-Saharan African Historically Underserved Communities (World Bank)
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
USD	United State Dollar
VADP	Village Area Development Programme
VDC	Village Development Committee (community)
WKCC	Western Kgalagadi Conservation Corridor
WMA	Wildlife Management Area

Executive Summary

This is the Environmental and Social Management Framework (ESMF) for the GEF-UNDP Project titled Managing the human-wildlife interface to sustain the flow of agro-ecosystem services and prevent illegal wildlife trafficking in the Kgalagadi and Ghanzi Drylands Ecosystem (KGDEP). The KGDEP consists of 4 components: Component 1. Coordinating capacity for combating wildlife crime (including trafficking, poaching, and poisoning) and enforcement of wildlife policies and practices at district, national, and international levels; Component 2. Incentives and systems for wildlife protection by communities and increasing financial returns from natural resource exploitation and reducing human-wildlife-conflicts (HWC); Component 3. Integrated land use planning (ILUP) in the conservation areas and sustainable land use management (SLM) in communal lands, securing wildlife migratory corridors, and increasing productivity or rangelands respectively, reducing competition between land uses and increasing ecosystem integrity of the Kalahari ecosystem. Component 4. Gender mainstreaming, traditional ecological and scientific knowledge management, monitoring and evaluation (M&E), and ensuring the dissemination of project lessons. The project is being conducted in two districts of western Botswana: Ghanzi and Kgalagadi, covering approximately 224,850 km².

The application of the UNDP Social and Environmental Screening Procedure (SESP) identified 17 potential social and environmental risks associated with this Project. Seven of these risks are ranked as Substantial and ten are rated as Moderate. The overall rating of the project from a UNDP and Government of Botswana standpoint is Substantial. This report lays out mitigation measures for coping with the risks that have been identified.

1 Chapter 1. Introduction

The United Nations Development Programme – government of Botswana project titled ‘Managing the human-wildlife interface to sustain the flow of agro-ecosystem services and prevent illegal wildlife trafficking in the Kgalagadi and Ghanzi Drylands’ is a USD 28,496,789 project aimed at promoting wildlife conservation, reducing land and range degradation, reducing competition between the wildlife and livestock sectors, reducing human-wildlife conflict (HWC), reducing illegal wildlife exploitation, illegal wildlife trade (IWT), improving coordination and capacity of the Department of Wildlife and National Parks, and enhancing the livelihoods and well-being of some 30 remote area communities.

Accordingly, a consultant was engaged to undertake an Environmental and Social Impact Assessment (ESIA) and to develop an Environmental and Social Management Framework (ESMF) and Environmental and Social Management Plan (ESMP), including a Grievance Redress Mechanism and incorporating any other activity-specific management plans such as a Livelihoods Action Plan and Indigenous People’s Plan. This is being carried out in Kgalagadi and Ghanzi Drylands region of Botswana, an area of some 220,500 km². This heterogeneous area is made up of two districts, Ghanzi and Kgalagadi which used to be the Western State Lands of Botswana. These two districts make up about 38% of Botswana’s total land area of 581,720 km². The region is complex, comprising two large, protected areas, the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park (KTP) (37,991 km²) and the Central Kalahari Game Reserve (CKGR) (52,730 km²), between which are 7 Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs), commercial ranching areas, communal land, and approximately 30 remote area communities (RACs). There are land use and conservation conflicts between people who live in the area, some of whom are former hunter-gatherers, subsistence-oriented livestock producers, and commercial ranchers.

From the standpoint of local communities in the area, the community trusts that were established under the Botswana’s government’s community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) policy have faced constraints since the implementation of the country-wide hunting ban in 2014 (Republic of Botswana 2014) and the more recent coronavirus pandemic, which has seriously affected tourism and travel since March of 2020. Some of the objectives of the KGDEP project are to reduce poverty (SDG 1), improve food security (SDG 2), improve economic growth and promote decent work (SDG 8), protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, halt or reverse land degradation and biodiversity loss (SDG 15), and promote peaceful and inclusive development (SDG 16).

In order to achieve these goals, the project aims to increase benefits to community trusts and village members, expand employment and incomes, and to diversify livelihoods. Data from the Department of Wildlife and National Parks reveal that there have been arrests made over the past decade for contravening Botswana’s wildlife conservation laws. Concerns of the Ministry of Environment, Wildlife, Natural Resources, Conservation, and Tourism (MENT) include illegal wildlife exploitation, human-wildlife conflict, illegal wildlife trade (IWT), and the reductions in the number of key species in the area. There are particular concerns about wildlife species that are considered critically endangered including black rhinoceros (*Dicsceros bicornis*), endangered (e.g.

wild dog, *Lycaon pictus*), and vulnerable (e.g. cheetah, *Acinonyx jubatus*, brown hyena, *Hyaena brunnea*, and Temminick's pangolin, *Manis temmincki*).

2 Chapter 2. Biophysical and Socioeconomic Environment

The Kgalagadi-Ghanzi drylands supports a wide range of wildlife species, including large herbivores that move from the southwest to the northeast and back again, depending on seasonal and longer-term rainfall patterns.

A common characterization of the Kalahari Desert region of Southern Africa is that it is a 'thirstland,' implying that water availability is a serious problem for human, wildlife, livestock, plant, and insect populations. This is particularly true of the south western Kalahari, which generally lacks surface water except after rains. In the past, prior to the introduction of deep wells and boreholes that tapped sub-surface (ground) water, people had to rely on water found in natural springs, water in holes in trees or exploit wild plants such as melons and roots to provide moisture. Surface water was essentially a short-term treat after rains. San, Nama, and Bakgalagadi populations in the south western Kalahari were also known to use a labor-intensive water-collection strategy: sip-wells (*tsàho* or *//tanata* in !Xóǀ, *!kaen* in G/ui, *mamuno* in Sekgalagadi). The distribution of remote area settlements in Kgalagadi District largely reflects the location of pans where water can be found and where in the past sip-wells were used, a practice that is no longer as commonly as it once was.

From a physiographic standpoint, the south western Kalahari region is largely flat and is characterized in some areas by east-west trending sand dunes and rolling vegetation-covered savanna countryside that is dotted with pans. The pans are shallow depressions formed by wind erosion that tend to have flat, impenetrable basins in which clays, silts, and salts accumulate. The pans are utilized by wildlife seeking salts and other nutritious materials and water in the rainy season. The Ghanzi Ridge, stretching from the Botswana-Namibia border west to the Tsau Hills, is characterized by quartzite and limestone outcrops and a relatively high water table.

The western Kalahari is a relatively dry region, with rainfall being relatively erratic in space and time. Rainfall in the area varies between 150 and 400 mm per annum, with an average of 300 mm but varying both seasonally and on a daily basis. The wet season (ʼ||nāhu in !Xóǀ) lasts from roughly November to April. The highest annual temperatures are reached in early spring (late August-October) between 33° and 43° degrees C. (92°-110° degrees F.). Water loss via evaporation is highest during this time of year. The period of greatest stress for most species in the south western Kalahari is the late dry season, generally in September-October.

2.1 Vegetation

The vegetation of the south western Kalahari region is characterized as southern Kalahari bush savanna and Central Kalahari bush savanna. The main tree species are *Acacia* (*Vachellia*) *erioloba*, *Acacia giraffae*, and *Acacia mellifera*, and *Boscia albitrunca* along with some *Terminalia sericea*. Shrubs include various *Grewia* species (e.g. *Grewia flava*, *Grewia retinervis*), *Dichrostachys ceneria*, *Ziziphus mucronata*, and *Bauhinia macrantha*. The greatest density of trees and shrubs is on the sand ridges and on the fringes of pans. Some of the grasses include *Eragrostis*

lehmeanniana, *Aristida uniplumis*, *Schmidtia bulbosa*, *Panicum kalahariense*, and *Aristida meridionalis* (Skarpe.1986a, b; Thomas and Shaw 1991)

2.2 Fauna

There is a plethora of wildlife in the south western Kalahari. Antelope species in the area generally are ones that can cope with dry conditions and they migrate from one area to the next. These antelopes include hartebeest (*Alcelaphus buselaphus*), springbok (*Antidorcus marsupialis*), eland (*Taurotragus oryx*), and wildebeest (*Connochaetes taurinus*). Giraffes (*Giraffa camelopardis*) are found in the dryland areas as well. The wildlife in the south western Kalahari includes the full range of predators such as lions (*Panthera leo*), spotted hyena (*Crocuta crocuta*), brown hyena (*Hyaena brunnea*), cheetah (*Acionyx jubatus*), and leopard (*Panthera pardus*). Some pan areas have ground squirrels (*Xenus inauris*) and meerkats (*Suricata suricatta*) as well as small cats (e.g. the black-footed cat, *Felix nigripes*) and mice. There has been an increase in the numbers of elephants (*Loxodonta africana*) visiting the area, especially in the past several years. Elephants are considered vulnerable by the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN).

2.3 Avifauna

The southwestern Kalahari is known for its diverse avifauna (birds), some of which ‘follow the rains’ (e.g. Kalahari larks, Alaudidae) (Maclean 1970). Some of the birds of the southwestern Kalahari are considered vulnerable according to the IUCN, including several species of vultures, (e.g. African white-backed vulture, *Gyps africanus*, the Cape vulture, *Gyps coprotheres*, and the lappet-faced vulture, *Torgos tracheliotis*). Also vulnerable are the black harrier (*Circus maurus*), the pallid harrier (*Circus macrourus*), and the lesser kestrel (*Falco naumanni*), and several species of cranes.

2.4 Hydrogeology and Geomorphology

The hydrogeology of the Ghanzi and Kgalagadi Districts varies over space. There are places, such as on the Ghanzi Ridge, where minerals such as copper and silver are found. In the central and southern Kalahari there are kimberlite pipes indicating the presence of diamonds (e.g. Ghaghoo, Tsabong, and Kolonkwaneng) (see Table 6). There are fossil river valleys in Ghanzi, including Groot Laagte, Hanahai, Okwa, and in the Central Kalahari the Okwa Valley, Deception Valley, and the Letlhakeng Valley which stretches north from Kweneng District. The southern boundaries of Botswana are marked by the Nossob and Molopo Rivers, both of which are transboundary rivers. The kinds of water systems that exist in the Kgalagadi-Ghanzi Drylands include the following:

- Sipwells
- Springs
- Wells
- Boreholes
- Rivers
- Portable Rain Harvesters (PRH) (Central Kalahari)

In addition to valuable minerals, there is a variety of plants which have both subsistence and commercial value (see Table 7). Some of these plants include Devils Claw (*Harpagophytum procumbens*) and Kalahari truffles (*Terfezia pfeilii*). Livestock graze not only on grasses but they also browse. Small stock (sheep and goats) browse on shrubs. Wild ungulates may specialize on grasses (e.g. zebra) and there are ones (e.g. kudu) that both graze and browse). Some of the challenges in the southwestern Kalahari are the removal of grass cover by livestock and wild animals and removal of shrubs and trees by humans, leading to environmental degradation and desertification, which in turn leads to mobilization of sand dunes and dust emission (Lancaster 1987, 1988; Thomas, Knight, and Wiggs 2005; Thomas and Leaton 2005; Okin, Herrick, and Gillette 2006; Okin et al 2009; D' D'Odorico et al 2007; Dougill et al 2016). A model of this process is shown below:

Figure 1. Human-Natural Systems involved in processes leading to increased dune mobilization and Dust Emission

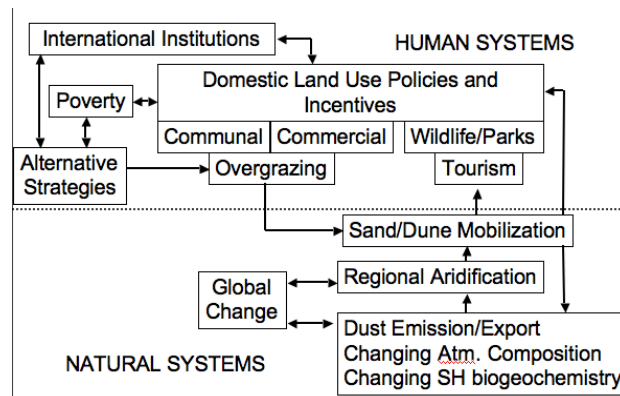


Figure 1. Human-Natural Systems involved in processes leading to increased dune mobilization and Dust Emission

The western Kalahari is also an ideal location to investigate the interactions between human societies and the natural environment, due to the varieties of land use existing within the gradient, including i) Parks and nature reserves; ii) Private holdings, and iii) Communal Lands with grazing gradients associated with the proximity to boreholes. This land-use variability exists within a single nation, thus simplifying the study of the human-environment interactions in the area. Approximately three-quarters of Botswana is made up of the semi-arid Kalahari Desert (Thomas and Shaw 1991), meaning that the government of Botswana is also highly invested in management of this region.

2.5 Land Use Issues in the Kgalagadi-Ghanzi Drylands

Local people in the Kgalagadi-Ghanzi drylands are convinced that climate change is affecting their well-being. Interviews done in the Central Kalahari in 2019, and followed up with work by field personnel in 2020 indicate that nearly every individual who was contacted said that they felt that several processes were at work:

- Rainfall amounts are declining
- Water tables are dropping
- The faunal composition is changing, with an increase in the numbers of elephants, which are causing problems with water facilities and fields
- People have to go further than in the past to collect wild plants for food
- Air temperatures are higher than they used to be
- There is more dust in the air than was the case in the past, causing breathing difficulties for some individuals
- In some western, southwestern, and Central Kalahari communities, people have to travel farther in order to obtain water
- There is a loss in tree cover, which leads to higher ground-based temperature and shifts in microclimates
- Government policies on fire management, many people feel, are resulting in larger areas being affected by bush fires; climate change is exacerbating fire frequency and impacts
- No benefits are being shared by the trust set up by the Botswana government to represent the Central Kalahari communities
- Hunting has not been allowed in the Central Kalahari since 2004, in spite of the legal victory in the Central Kalahari legal case (High Court of Botswana 2006)
- Anti-poaching patrols have increased in the western Kalahari, which concerns people moving from one community to another,

There are 17 remote area settlements, sometimes titled remote area communities, in Kgalagadi District (see Table 1). With the exception of the time of the hunting ban in Botswana (2014-2019), trophy hunting took place in the south western Kalahari. Community trusts which had leases with trophy hunting companies were able to get jobs, meat, and other goods from the private companies. A few community trusts such as Nqwaa Khobe Yeya Trust, comprising Ukhwi, Ncaang, and Ngwatle in Kgalagadi District, had ‘own use’ arrangements so that they could hunt a specified number of animals on their own, but subsistence hunting was suspended with the hunting ban in 2014 and it has yet to resume in the area. The Special Game Licenses (SGLs) that were provided to Remote Area Dwellers that were created in 1979 under the Unified Hunting Regulations by the Department of Wildlife and National Parks (Republic of Botswana 1979) were suspended in western Botswana in 2002 and in the Central Kalahari Game Reserve in 2004. The government has not incorporated Special Game Licenses into its contemporary licensing system in Botswana.

The Ghanzi District has a variety of land uses, a large percentage of which are devoted to freehold farms or commercial ranches (see Table 2). The Central Kalahari Game Reserve makes up some 45% of the district. Specific efforts will have to be made when it comes to work in the Central Kalahari, and coordination will have to be done with the Central Kalahari Residents Committee prior to any survey work being carried out. Ghanzi District Remote Area Dweller settlements are listed in Table 3. It should be noted that there is a variety of languages spoken in the Ghanzi District, something that must be taken into consideration in identifying personnel to conduct survey work in these places. There are community trusts in Ghanzi and Kgalagadi Districts (see Table 4), many of which were functioning reasonably well until the imposition of the hunting ban

in January 2014. Survey work has been carried out extensively in the Central Kalahari Game Reserve by both researchers and government development personnel (see Table 5).

The population of the Ghanzi Drylands region is diverse; it consists of Batswana, Bakgalagadi, Herero, Mbanderu, Kalanga, Nama, San, Balala and Europeans. The Bakgalagadi, who have been in the region for some 2,000 years, include Bakgwatlheng, Babolangwe, Bangologa, Baphaleng and Bashaga (Kuper 1970). Herero and Mbanderu are found in Ghanzi, Kang, Nojane, and Tsabong, among other villages in Ghanzi and Kgalagadi Districts. Nama are found in Bokspits and scattered in Kgalagadi District. Some Nama had escaped into what is now the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park during the German-Nama-Herero wars of 1904-1907 and later were moved out of the park. Some of the Kharakhoen Nama fled to Lokgwabe in Kgalagadi District after the battle of Swartfontein in South West Africa on 15 January 1905. There have been changes in the demographic composition of some parts of the Ghanzi-Kgalagadi drylands; for example, farm laborers in the Ghanzi Farms now include Zimbabweans and some Namibians (field data from FPIC survey, Bradley 2022). The total number of remote area communities that are gazetted under Botswana's Remote Area Community (RAC) program is 30.

2.6 Tourism and Cultural Heritage

Tourism represents an important source of income and livelihoods for people in the western and south western Kalahari. Much of the tourism in the area is wildlife-based or nature tourism (see Moswete 2009; Moswete, Thapa, and Child 2012; Moswete and Thapa 2015, 2018; Saarinen et al 2012, 2020; World Bank 2020). There is also some cultural heritage tourism that includes archaeological sites, for example at Mamuno, close to the Botswana-Namibia border on the A2-B6 highway. The site has petroglyphs (rock engravings) that were reported on by Litherland, Litherland, and Sekwale 1975; Walker 1998a; and Thebe 2011). Mabuasehube Pan, now part of the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park, has Early, Middle, and Late Stone Age archaeological remains (Robbins and Murphy 1998; Walker 1998b). A Late stone age site was found at Buitsavango in the Ghanzi Farms (Walker 2009) and as well as at places along the Okwa Valley (A.C. Campbell, C.K. Cooke, Alinah Segobye, George Silberbauer, Nick Walker, Arthur Albertson, personal communications). Archaeological sites were also discovered in the northern Ghanzi District in the area affected by the Khoemacau Copper-Silver Mining holdings (Nick Walker, personal communication, 2011). Interviews of tourists who visited Botswana in 2019-2020 indicated that most of them came to see wildlife, with approximately 15% also visiting communities in order to see how people were living. Data on tourism numbers from Botswana along with Namibia and Zimbabwe for comparative purposes are shown in Table 9.

Some of the places in Ghanzi District that had historical significance include the remains of the house of Hendrik Van Zyl, the first Afrikaner settler in Ghanzi and a major elephant hunter in the Ghanzi region, are on private property. His home is on the land of Clive Eaton who has a safari hunting business. Some of the pans in Kgalagadi District such as Ukhwi contain the remains of hunting blinds that were used in the 20th century. Ghanzi Township has the Kalahari Arms, Gantiscraft, and the remains of the old jail. Twenty two kilometers north of Ghanzi is Dqae Qare San Lodge, a pleasant 7,500 hectare former Ghanzi freehold farm that is now a tourist lodge, campsite, and wildlife area that is owned by Naro San from D'Kar. D'Kar is a largely Naro San

village that has the Kuru Family of Organizations (KFO), a community center, a clinic, a pre-school, an arts program, and a small museum. Useful information on the important places in the Ghanzi and Kgalagadi Districts can be found in the *African Adventurer's Guide to Botswana* (Main 2010).

2.7 Transboundary Issues

Transboundary issues are important in the Kgalagadi-Ghanzi Drylands area, as in other areas in southern Africa (Zips and Zips-Mairitsch 2019). There are two transboundary rivers that include Botswana and South Africa: the Nossob and the Molopo. Both of these rivers make up part of the large number of transboundary rivers that exist in the Southern African Development Community (see Table 8). An area where southern Africa is a world leader is in the institutional structures involved in international river basin management. There are a number of international institutions in the region that deal with transboundary river basin management. One type of water institution is a permanent river basin commission. The Orange-Senqu River Commission (ORASECOM) is one example of a transboundary water institution. Member countries of ORASECOM include Botswana, Namibia, Lesotho, and South Africa. Botswana also gets water from the Lesotho Highlands Water Project Phase 2 Polihali Dam, expected to reach full supply level (FSL) in 2023. The reservoir will be 50.53 km² in area and will supply water to South Africa, Botswana, and Namibia.

Other transboundary projects which will include both Botswana and Namibia is the Trans-Kalahari Railway, expected to cross the Central Kalahari from Morupule fields near Palapye and cut across Ghanzi District and go on to Walvis Bay on the Namibian coast. Copper-silver matte will be transported by road from the Khoemacau mine on the Toteng River in Ngamiland and the Khoemacau (now Motheo) copper-silver mine in northern Ghanzi and southern Ngamiland, once it comes on stream, down through Ghanzi District on the A3 highway, turning east on the A2, cutting across to Mamuno on the Botswana-Namibia border, and going on the B6 toward Windhoek and on to Walvis Bay. Environmental impact assessments have been done for most of the copper-silver mines and diamond mines and related infrastructure. It is not certain whether this is the case for all of the mines in Ghanzi and Kgalagadi but it is likely that EIAs and SIAs have been completed for the vast majority of them.

3 Chapter 3. KGDEP Project Goals and Objectives

The KGDEP project aims to enhance planning capacity at the local level through training and information dissemination, coordination with community trusts, non-government organizations, district councils, village development committees, and government ministries. Some of the work will be done with the Ministry of Environment, Natural Resources, Conservation and Tourism (MENT)'s Department of Wildlife and National Parks, and will focus on capacity building, training, improvements in awareness of government policies including those related to Remote Area Development, the Affirmative Action Framework (AAF) Policy of 2014, and the 2015 Land Policy.

The KGDEP will engage in integrated land use and landscape-level planning. It is aimed at reducing poaching, animal and bird poisonings, and the illegal trade of wildlife products. Reduction of human-wildlife conflict will be facilitated through various measures (e.g. the use of livestock guard dogs, expansion of livestock facilities such as kraals). Community-level training will include new means of natural resource-based production, and the enhancement of benefits to local communities that engage in sustainable land and range management practices. Particular emphasis will be placed on programmes that are gender sensitive and aimed at meeting the objectives of the National Policy on Gender and Development of the government of Botswana.

A Social and Environmental Impact Assessment (ESIA) will be carried out during the course of this work. UNDP's Social and Environmental Standards (SES) are key in promoting environmental and economic and social sustainability and help to avoid adverse impacts to people and the environment. The Social and Environmental Safeguards overarching principles of human rights, gender equality and environmental sustainability are key. Project efforts are aimed at ensuring effective stakeholder engagement, and efforts will seek to strengthen UNDP and GOB partner capacities for managing social and environmental risks.

In line with accordance with UNDP's Social and Environmental Safeguards, an ESIA will be developed and carried out by an independent expert along with a field worker. The ESIA will seek to identify and assess social and environmental impacts of the project and the project's area of influence; evaluate alternatives; and consider appropriate avoidance, mitigation, management, and monitoring measures. The ESIA will address all relevant issues related to the SES Principles and Standards, with particular focus on Principle 1 (Human Rights), Standard 3 (Community Health, Safety and Working Conditions), Standard 5 (Displacement) and Standard 6 (Indigenous Peoples). The Environmental and Social Impact Assessment Report will be used to inform the development of the Environmental and Social Management Plan and this ESMF.

Once the ESIA is complete, an Environmental and Social Management Plan (ESMP) will provide a set of (a) avoidance, (b) mitigation, (c) monitoring and (d) institutional measures, including a project-level Grievance Redress Mechanism. Special emphasis will be placed on stakeholder engagement at all levels. The methodological approach will include Free, Prior, and Informed Consent (FPIC), training for stakeholders and members of the project team, discussions of social safeguards, and identifying project risks based on the interview and field data collection and

analysis. A stakeholder mapping exercise will be carried out prior to in-depth planning. A questionnaire and group discussion guidelines will be developed principally by the international consultant in conjunction with the national consultant.

The ESMF provides a set of actions needed to implement the various measures that are suggested to achieve the desired social and environmental sustainability outcomes. These measures, once they are identified fully, will then be adopted and integrated into the various project activities.

Table 1. Summary of all management procedures

Step	Responsibility	Timing
Environmental and Social Management Framework (ESMF)	UNDP CO	PPG – done To be updated upon project inception
Indigenous Peoples Planning Framework (IPPF)	UNDP CO	PPG – done To be updated upon project inception
Stakeholder Engagement Plan (SEP)	UNDP CO	PPG – done
Gender Action Plan (GAP)	UNDP CO	PPG – done
Environmental and Social Management Plan (ESMP) - Livelihood Action Plan (LAP) - Indigenous Peoples Plan (IPP) - Biodiversity Action Plan (BAP) - Cultural Heritage Management plan	UNDP CO	PPG – preliminary version completed; will be revised during the course of project implementation

The ESMF and ESMP will provide a set of actions needed to implement the various measures that are suggested to achieve the desired social and environmental sustainability outcomes. These measures, once they are identified, will then be adopted and integrated into the various project activities. In addition, the ESMP will include:

- a. A Local Communities Plan (LCP)
- b. A project-level grievance redress mechanism
- c. A comprehensive and gender-responsive Stakeholder Engagement Plan.

During the ESMF work, a set of risks were identified in the KGDEP Project. These are as follows.

Table 2. Risks identified in the KGDEP Project

	Risk	Ranking
1	There is a risk that the project may not implement Stakeholder engagement in a matter that fully engages all stakeholders, particularly marginalized groups, in decisions that affect their land, culture, and rights (Component 2).	Substantial
2	Indigenous peoples including vulnerable groups might not engage in, support, or benefit from project activities (Component 2).	Substantial
3	Anti-poaching patrols could pose safety risks to local communities if they are not properly trained, managed or overseen (Component 1).	Substantial
4	Anti-poaching patrols could face safety risks during encounters with poachers (Component 1).	Substantial
5	Local communities may resist anti-poaching efforts because of a past history of perceived abuse (Component 1).	Substantial
6	Incorporation of local community members into anti-poaching units or who are encouraged to take part in providing information to the Department of Wildlife and National Parks or the Botswana police or the military (the Botswana Defense Force) could lead to those individuals being ostracized from the community. There is also the chance that the anti-poaching and information-seeking actions may lead to tensions and potential conflicts within communities (Component 1).	Substantial
7	Increased enforcement and new approaches to HWC could change current access to Protected areas, buffer zones and resources, potentially leading to economic displacement and/or changes to property rights (Component 1).	Substantial
8	Local governments and community associations might not have the support to implement and/or coordinate project activities successfully.	Moderate
9	Poorly informed or executed project activities could damage critical habitats and change landscape suitability for threatened or endangered species.	Moderate
10	Project activities and approaches might not fully incorporate or reflect views of women and girls, and thus necessitate the need to ensure equitable opportunities for their involvement and benefit.	Moderate
11	Project activities involving livestock, human wildlife conflict mitigation (HWC), and corridor formation could result in some people being relocated away from their original territories	Moderate
12	Project activities, if they are delayed, could result in national and district-level land use shifting away from wildlife and human use to commercial ranch and cattle post establishment which would have impacts on the communities and individuals utilizing the project area	Moderate

13	Project activities could lead to differential access by various segments of communities to benefits, with some individuals, including minorities, the elderly, women and girls, and people with disabilities being potentially excluded.	Moderate
14	There is a risk that cultural and biological heritage knowledge could be documented and not shared with the people who have that knowledge, and that the intellectual and biological property rights of the people who reside in western Botswana might therefore be compromised.	Moderate
15	There is a risk that the project may distribute the benefits and profits from livelihood activities in an unequal, unfair, or inappropriate manner (Component 3)	Moderate
16	Project activities may be impacted by climate change, political changes, and the coronavirus pandemic, causing delays in consultation, Free, Prior and Informed Consent (FPIC), and feedback from communities as well as implementation of livelihood and other projects which local communities have been told that they will benefit from.	Moderate
17	There is a risk that the Grievance Redress Mechanism will not be in place in the project in time to ensure that grievances from stakeholders are captured and dealt with appropriately	Moderate

All of these risks will be mitigated by a set of strategies developed during the course of the project implementation.

4 Chapter 4. Methodology and Work Plan

The methods employed in this project will include the following: interviews with groups and individuals, including community-based organizations, non-government organization personnel, and district and central government officials. When possible, participant observation methods will be employed. Both qualitative and quantitative methods of analysis will be utilized. The consultancy will include reviews of government and UNDP policy documents, archival research, and the keeping of detailed records. Detailed data will be collected on individual, household, and community land use and natural resource management strategies and traditional as well as scientific knowledge. The work will be carried out in local languages by the national field worker if the consultant’s visit to Botswana is curtailed by coronavirus restrictions.

The consultancy work will take place over a two year period from the date of the appointment (28 August 2020). The Inception report was provided at the end of the first month of the project. The Environmental and Social Impact Assessment Report was provided at the end of the second month project. The Stakeholder Engagement Plan was completed in 2021 The Social and Environmental Standards Screening Procedure (SESP will be done in light of the ESIA and ESMP in the second and third months of the project. The Closure Report will be delivered at the end of the project in December.

Decisions will have to be made about a sampling strategy with respect to the various communities in the Ghanzi-Kgalagadi drylands region. Given the number of communities, which is quite large, it may be necessary to choose ones that are representative of the various livelihood strategies that exist in the region (hunting and gathering, small-scale communal livestock production, commercial farming, and a mixture of the various strategies). A Gaps identification will need to be carried out with respect both to the Environmental and Social Management Plan and the Human-Wildlife Conflict strategy. In addition, training will have to be done of personnel and of community members.

Table 3. Timetable

Activity	Time period by week										
	Sept Wk3	Sept Wk4	Oct Wk1	Oct Wk2	Oct Wk3	Oct Wk4	Nov Wk1	Nov Wk2	Nov Wk3	Nov Wk4	Dec Wk1
ESIA preparation											
ESIA comments and finalisation											
Consultations preparation											
Consultations and reporting											
FPIC Training											
ESMP preparation											

SESP revision											
ESMP/SESP comments and finalization											
Other training as requested											

5 CHAPTER 5: MITIGATION MEASURES

5.1 Introduction

The application of the UNDP Social and Environmental Screening Procedure (SESP) identified 17 potential social and environmental risks associated with this Project. The project activities that will trigger each of these risks are in all four of the components of the KGDEP. Mitigation measures are laid out for the various risks that have been identified.

5.2 Application of the Social and Environmental Screening Procedure (SESP)

The application of the UNDP Social and Environmental Screening Procedure (SESP) identified 17 potential social and environmental risks associated with this Project. Seven of these risks are ranked as Substantial and 10 are rated as Moderate. The project activities that will trigger each of these risks are in all four of the components of the KGDEP.

Substantial risks identified within the Project are:

- There is a risk that the project may not implement Stakeholder engagement in a manner that fully engages all stakeholders, particularly marginalized groups, in decisions that affect their land, culture, and rights (Component 2).
- Indigenous peoples including vulnerable groups might not engage in, support, or benefit from project activities (Component 2).
- Anti-poaching patrols could pose safety risks to local communities if they are not properly trained, managed or overseen (Component 1).
- Anti-poaching patrols could face safety risks during encounters with poachers (Component 1).
- Local communities may resist anti-poaching efforts because of a past history of perceived abuse (Component 1).
- Incorporation of local community members into anti-poaching units or who are encouraged to take part in providing information to the Department of Wildlife and National Parks or the Botswana police or the military (the Botswana Defense Force) could lead to those individuals being ostracized from the community. There is also the chance that the anti-poaching and information-seeking actions may lead to tensions and potential conflicts within communities (Component 1).

- Increased enforcement and new approaches to HWC could change current access to Protected areas, buffer zones and resources, potentially leading to economic displacement and/or changes to property rights (Component 1).

Moderate risks identified within the Project are:

- Local governments and community associations might not have the support to implement and/or coordinate project activities successfully.
- Poorly informed or executed project activities could damage critical habitats and change landscape suitability for threatened or endangered species.
- Project activities and approaches might not fully incorporate or reflect views of women and girls, and thus necessitate the need to ensure equitable opportunities for their involvement and benefit.
- Project activities involving livestock, human wildlife conflict mitigation (HWC), and corridor formation could result in some people being relocated away from their original territories
- Project activities, if they are delayed, could result in national and district-level land use shifting away from wildlife and human use to commercial ranch and cattle post establishment which would have impacts on the communities and individuals utilizing the project area
- Project activities could lead to differential access by various segments of communities to benefits, with some individuals, including minorities, the elderly, women and girls, and people with disabilities being potentially excluded.
- There is a risk that cultural and biological heritage knowledge could be documented and not shared with the people who have that knowledge, and that the intellectual and biological property rights of the people who reside in western Botswana might therefore be compromised.
- There is a risk that the project may distribute the benefits and profits from livelihood activities in an unequal, unfair, or inappropriate manner (Component 3)
- Project activities may be impacted by climate change, political changes, and the coronavirus pandemic, causing delays in consultation, Free, Prior and Informed Consent (FPIC), and feedback from communities as well as implementation of livelihood and other projects which local communities have been told that they will benefit from.

- There is a risk that the Grievance Redress Mechanism will not be in place in the project in time to ensure that grievances from stakeholders are captured and dealt with appropriately

The various risks and their ranking are presented in the table below

Table 4. Potential social and environmental impacts and mitigation measures for the proposed project

Social and Environmental Risk	Ranking	Mitigation measures	Responsible party	Cost (USD)
1. There is a risk that the project may not implement Stakeholder engagement in a matter that fully engages all stakeholders, particularly marginalized groups, in decisions that affect their land, culture, and rights (Component 2).	Substantial	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure stakeholder identification and analysis. • Prepare a comprehensive stakeholder engagement plan (SEP) • Ensure Information disclosure. • Meaningful and periodic consultation and whenever an issue comes up 	DWNP	2,000,000
2. Indigenous peoples including vulnerable groups might not engage in, support, or benefit from project activities (Component 2).	Substantial	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Development of the Indigenous peoples plan (IPP). • Conduct periodic monitoring of the IPP with the affected communities 	Social Safeguards Specialist	50,000
3. Anti-poaching patrols could pose safety risks to local communities if they are not properly trained, managed, or overseen (Component 1).	Substantial	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop a security risk assessment and management plan • Provide adequate tactical training to the anti-poaching patrol units on how to handle the weapon • Provide tactical training on how to engage local community member and conduct threat assessment. • Conduct periodic awareness to the local community on how to 	DWNP and PMU	25,000

Social and Environmental Risk	Ranking	Mitigation measures	Responsible party	Cost (USD)
		<p>engage with the anti-poaching patrol units to de-escalate dangerous encounter or situation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 		
4. Anti-poaching patrols could face safety risks during encounters with poachers (Component 1).	Substantial	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop a risk assessment and management plan. • Provide tactical training on assessment and neutralizing threat potential threat posed by the poachers. • Conduct frequent announcement on the media on the dangers of poaching and post warnings to deter people from poaching. 	DWNP and PMU	10,000
5. Local communities may resist anti-poaching efforts because of a past history of perceived abuse (Component 1).	Substantial	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Engage the local community in the recruitment process of the anti-poaching exercise • Conduct frequent engagement/meeting, updating and sharing of information on the progress and achievements and benefits of the anti-poaching. 	DWNP and PMU	5,000
6. Incorporation of local community members into anti-poaching units or who are encouraged to take part in providing information to the	Substantial	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct awareness workshops to share with the local community the importance them being involved in the anti-poaching campaign directly or indirectly. 	DWNP and PMU	50,000

Social and Environmental Risk	Ranking	Mitigation measures	Responsible party	Cost (USD)
<p>Department of Wildlife and National Parks or the Botswana police or the military (the Botswana Defense Force) could lead to those individuals being ostracized from the community. There is also the chance that the anti-poaching and information-seeking actions may lead to tensions and potential conflicts within communities (Component 1).</p>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creating a confidential system for local community members to share security concerns or information against poaching without disclosing the identity of the source. 		
<p>7. Increased enforcement and new approaches to HWC could change current access to Protected areas, buffer zones and resources, potentially leading to economic displacement and/or changes to property rights (Component 1).</p>	Substantial	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure fair and just approaches to anti-poaching and ensuring of non-displacement and protection of property rights 	DWNP and PMU	25,000
<p>8. Local governments and community associations might not have the support to implement and/or coordinate project activities successfully.</p>	Moderate	<p>Provide assistance to local governments and community associations, including community trusts</p>	DWNP and PMU and NGOs	20,000

Social and Environmental Risk	Ranking	Mitigation measures	Responsible party	Cost (USD)
9. Poorly informed or executed project activities could damage critical habitats and change landscape suitability for threatened or endangered species.	Moderate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conducting biodiversity survey before commencement of the project • Conduct a comprehensive baseline survey of the project area. • Development of the Biodiversity Conservation Plan • Engage a competent and qualified project manager. • Engage a qualified and competent social and environmental safeguards officer to monitor and implement the ESMP 	DWNP and NGOs	10,000
10. Project activities and approaches might not fully incorporate or reflect views of women and girls, and thus necessitate the need to ensure equitable opportunities for their involvement and benefit.	Moderate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure women and girls views are reflected in the Stakeholder and Gender Analysis plans and that their needs and complaints are heard 	PMU and DWNP	15,000
11. Project activities involving livestock, human wildlife conflict mitigation (HWC), and corridor formation could result in some people being relocated away from	Moderate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review of status of communities and individuals in the project area 	PMU and DWNP	10,000

Social and Environmental Risk	Ranking	Mitigation measures	Responsible party	Cost (USD)
their original territories				
12. Project activities, if they are delayed, could result in national and district-level land use shifting away from wildlife and human use to commercial ranch and cattle post establishment which would have impacts on the communities and individuals utilizing the project area	Moderate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assessment of project activities and their impacts 	PMU and DWNP	10,000
13. Project activities could lead to differential access by various segments of communities to benefits, with some individuals, including minorities, the elderly, women and girls, and people with disabilities being potentially excluded.	Moderate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review of benefit distribution at community level 	PMU and DWNP	10,000
14. There is a risk that cultural and biological heritage knowledge could be documented and not shared with the people who have that knowledge, and that the intellectual and biological	Moderate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review of Traditional knowledge (TK) and assessment of community TK issues 	PMU and DWNP	5,000

Social and Environmental Risk	Ranking	Mitigation measures	Responsible party	Cost (USD)
property rights of the people who reside in western Botswana might therefore be compromised.				
15. There is a risk that the project may distribute the benefits and profits from livelihood activities in an unequal, unfair, or inappropriate manner (Component 3)	Moderate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review of livelihood activity reports and GRM findings 	PMU and DWNP	5,000
16. Project activities may be impacted by climate change, political changes, and the coronavirus pandemic, causing delays in consultation, Free, Prior and Informed Consent (FPIC), and feedback from communities as well as implementation of livelihood and other projects which local communities have been told that they will benefit from.	Moderate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assessment of stakeholder reports and FPIC follow up 	PMU and DWNP	5,000
17. There is a risk that the Grievance Redress Mechanism will not be in place in the project in time to ensure that	Moderate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review of GRM status and effectiveness 	PMU and DWNP	5,000

Social and Environmental Risk	Ranking	Mitigation measures	Responsible party	Cost (USD)
grievances from stakeholders are captured and dealt with appropriately				

6 CHAPTER 6. GRIEVANCE REDRESS MECHANISM

6.1 Introduction

As described in the Project Document and in the UNDP Social and Environmental Assessment documents, the Project will establish a project-level Grievance Redress Mechanism (GRM) during the first year of implementation. The GRM is a way to provide an effective avenue for expressing concerns and achieving remedies for complaints by communities, to promote a mutually constructive relationship and to enhance the achievement of project development objectives. A community grievance is an issue, concern, problem, or claim (perceived or actual) associated with the Project that an individual, or group, or representative wants to address and resolve. The GRM will be designed to be accessible through different mechanisms at local and national levels, while ensuring the safety, confidence and, if required, anonymity of complainants.

The following principles should govern the grievance redress system to be implemented by the project:

- Legitimate, accountable, without reprisal.
- Accessible
- Predictable and timebound
- Equitable
- Transparent
- Rights compatible
- Used to improve policies, procedures, and practices to improve performance and prevent future harm.
- Based on engagement and dialogue

The full details of these GRMs will be agreed upon during the Inception Phase, a process that will be overseen by the Project Management Team

The grievance redress mechanism helps all stakeholders involved in the project – be it the affected groups and/or UNDP’s partners in particular governments and others to jointly address grievances or disputes related to the social and/or environmental impacts of UNDP supported projects. While a grievance redress mechanism is important for all project stakeholders, it is particularly key for the indigenous people, who are often marginalised. The proposed project will be implemented in areas which are home to indigenous/marginalized people. Hence it is critical that there is a transparent grievance redress mechanism for any eventualities. Aggrieved stakeholders can approach the Project Management Unit and the Implementing Partner, the Ministry of Environment, Natural Resources, and Tourism to register their grievances. In cases when the agencies are not able to address the grievances, or in cases when the grievances have not been addressed successfully, the aggrieved stakeholders have recourse using other national grievance mechanisms or the courts.

At a local level, due to barriers of language, access to communications, potential issues of discrimination, and perceived issues of safety where protection of the identity of complainants may be required, it is essential to provide a local point of contact for community grievances. This

may be a local NGO, trusted community members in various locations, trusted persons of authority, community associations, or other points of contact agreed through consultations with community members, and particularly with indigenous peoples where they are included in project activities. It is critical that this point of contact understands the need for community complaints to be anonymous where issues of individual or group safety are perceived, and that the point of contact has direct access to the PMU staff. In the case of a complaint where anonymity is requested, the PMU and any resulting grievance process must respect this condition.

Those able to access and communicate with national grievance mechanisms have established options in Botswana. These include the Office of the Ombudsman, which promotes and protects human rights of all Batswana. Some human rights monitoring is also done by Ditshwanelo, the Botswana Centre for Human Rights.

The mandate of the GRM will be to:

- (i) Receive and address any concerns, complaints, notices of emerging conflicts, or grievances (collectively “*Grievance*”) alleging actual or potential harm to affected person(s) (the “*Claimant(s)*”) arising from the project;
- (ii) Assist in resolution of Grievances between and among Project Stakeholders; as well as the various government ministries, agencies and commissions, CSOs and NGOs, and others (collectively, the “*Stakeholders*”) in the context of the project;
- (iii) Conduct itself at all times in a flexible, collaborative, and transparent manner aimed at problem solving and consensus building.

II. *Functions*

The functions of the GRM will be to:

- (i) Receive, log and track all grievances received;
- (ii) Provide regular status updates on grievances to claimants, Project Board (PB) members and other relevant stakeholders, as applicable;
- (iii) Engage the PB members, government institutions and other relevant stakeholders in grievance resolution;
- (iv) Process and propose solutions and ways forward related to specific grievances *within a period not to exceed sixty (60) days* from receipt of the grievance;
- (v) Identify growing trends in grievances and recommend possible measures to avoid the same;
- (vi) Receive and service requests for, and suggest the use of, mediation or facilitation;
- (vii) Elaborate bi-annual reports, make said reports available to the public, and more generally work to maximize the disclosure of its work (including its reports, findings and outcomes);
- (viii) Ensure increased awareness, accessibility, predictability, transparency, legitimacy, and credibility of the GRM process;
- (ix) Collaborate with Partner Institutions and other NGOs, CSOs and other entities to conduct outreach initiatives to increase awareness among Stakeholders as to the existence of the GRM and how its services can be accessed;

- (x) Ensure continuing education of PB members and their respective institutions about the relevant laws and policies that they will need to be aware of to participate in the development of effective resolutions to grievances likely to come before the GRM;

Monitor follow up to grievance resolutions, as appropriate

6.1.1 Rationale of the GRM

The GRM provides a means for stakeholders to express their opinions and concerns about the project, and to file them with a formal institution in government. They will then be able to track what happened to their grievances and see how they have been acted upon.

6.1.2 Potential sources of grievances

Potential sources of grievances could be the ways in which communities and individual members are treated by government and project officials. Some of the concerns expressed during previous discussions have been losses of livestock to wildlife, requirements to relocate residences, destruction of high value natural resources through such activities as fence and road construction, and failure of the project to ensure equitable benefits to community trust members.

6.1.3 GRM Institutional Framework

The GRM institutional framework relates to the establishment and implementation of an enforcement institution at the central government level in Botswana.

6.1.4 Guidelines and Tools for Reporting and Processing Grievances

Guidelines and tools for reporting and processing grievances are outlined in this document and in the Stakeholder Engagement Plan and other reports associated with the KGDEP and the United Nations Development Programme.

6.1.5 Logging, Acknowledgment, and Tracking

All Grievances and reports of conflict will be received, assigned a tracking number, acknowledged to Claimant, recorded electronically, and subject to periodic updates to the Claimant as well as the office file.

Within one (1) week from the receipt of a Grievance, the GRM will send a *written* acknowledgement to Claimant of the Grievance received with the assigned tracking number.¹

Each Grievance file will contain, at a minimum:

- i. the date of the request is received.
- ii. the date the written acknowledgment was sent (and oral acknowledgment if also done).
- iii. the dates and nature of all other communications or meetings with the Claimant and other relevant Stakeholders.
- iv. any requests, offers of, or engagements of a Mediator or Facilitator.
- v. the date and records related to the proposed solution/way forward.

¹ Oral acknowledgments can be used for expediency (and also recorded), but they must be followed by a written acknowledgment.

- vi. the acceptance or objections of the Claimant (or other Stakeholders).
- vii. the proposed next steps if objections arose.
- viii. the alternative solution if renewed dialogues were pursued.
- ix. notes regarding implementation; and
- x. any conclusions and recommendations arising from monitoring and follow up.

6.1.6 Maintaining Communication and Status Updates

Files for each Grievance will be available for review by the Claimant and other Stakeholders involved in the Grievance, or their designated representative(s). Appropriate steps will be taken to maintain the confidentiality of the Claimant if previously requested.

The GRM will provide periodic updates to the Claimant regarding the status and current actions to resolve the Grievance. Not including the acknowledgment of receipt of the Grievance, such updates will occur within reasonable intervals (not greater than every thirty (30) days).

6.1.7 Investigation and Consensus Building

Within one (1) week of receiving a Grievance, [Implementing Partner] will notify the Ministry of Environment Natural Resources, Conservation, and Tourism, (MENT) and any other relevant institutions of the receipt of the Grievance.

The MENT will identify a specific team of individuals drawn from the MENT and PMU and/or their respective institutions to develop a response to the Grievance. The names of these individuals will be made available to the Claimant.

The designated PMU members/GRM SC/GRM TT will promptly engage the Claimant and any other relevant Stakeholders deemed appropriate, to gather all necessary information regarding the Grievance.

Through the PMU members and MENT, the GRM will have the authority to request from relevant Government institutions any information (documents or otherwise) relevant to resolving the Grievance and avoiding future Grievances of the same nature.

As necessary, the PMU members and MENT will convene one or more meetings with relevant individuals and institutions in Gaborone or elsewhere in as needed.

The objective of all investigative activities is to develop a thorough understanding of the issues and concerns raised in the Grievance and facilitate consensus around a proposed solution and way forward. The PMU members and MENT will procure the cooperation of their respective staff with the investigation.

At any point during the investigation, the PMU members and MENT may determine that an onsite field investigation is necessary to properly understand the Grievance Redress Mechanism and develop an effective proposed solution and way forward.

6.1.8 Seeking Advisory Opinion and/or Technical Assistance

At any point after receiving a Grievance and through to implementation of the proposed solution and way forward, the MENT and PMU members may seek the technical assistance and/or an advisory opinion from any entity or individual in Botswana or internationally which may reasonably be believed to be of assistance. One example would be Ditshwanelo, the Botswana Centre for Human Rights.

6.1.9 Making Proposed Actions and Solutions Public and Overseeing Implementation

The PMU members and MENT will communicate to the Claimant one or more proposed actions or resolutions and clearly articulate the reasons and basis for proposed way forward.

If the Claimant does not accept the resolution, the PMU members and MENT will engage with the Claimant to provide alternative options.

If the Claimant accepts the proposed solution and way forward, the GRM will continue to monitor the implementation directly and through the receipt of communications from the Claimant and other relevant parties. As necessary, the GRM may solicit information from the relevant parties and initiate renewed dialogue where appropriate.

In all communications with the Claimant and other stakeholders, the GRM will be guided by its problem-solving role, non-coercive principles and process, and the voluntary, good faith nature of the interaction with the Claimant and other stakeholders.

7 Chapter 7. Conclusions

This Environmental and Social management Framework has presented the social, environmental and political background of the KGDEP area. It has discussed the project goals and objectives. It has also identified a set of risks that the KGDEP assessment work has identified. The methodology and work plan for the ESMF is presented. Finally, a set of mitigation measures, responsibility organizations, and costs is outlined.

Table 5. Remote Area Settlements and Villages in Kgalagadi District, Botswana

Settlement	Latitude and Longitude	Population (1991, 2011)	Percentage of San Population	Type of Settlement	Land Use Zone
Ukhwi	23° 71' 23 S 20° 40' 75 E	430 (453 2011)	67	RAD settlement	WMA
Ncaang	22° 44' 23 S 21° 22' 32 E	191 (175 2011)	12	RAD settlement	WMA
Ngwatle	21° 71' 23 S 21° 07' 77 E	135 (206 2011)	100	RAD settlement	WMA
Monong	23° 66' 16 S 21° 51' 26 E	105 (172 2011)	95	RAD settlement	WMA
Maake (Make)	23° 69' 31 S 21° 78' 44 E	325 (366 2011)	71	RAD settlement	WMA
Zutshwa	23° 55' 97 S 24° 65' 00 E	365 (469 2011)	78	RAD settlement	WMA
Phuduhudu	23° 94' 75 S 22° 98' 22 E	365 (332 2011)	14	RAD settlement	Communal Grazing
Inalegolo	23° 94' 82 S 22° 97' 81 E	270 (489 2011)	97	RAD settlement	WMA
Hunhukwe	23° 41' 62 S 21° 60' 44 E	455 (431 2011)	12	Village	Residential
Tshane	24° 01' 99 S 21° 86' 92 E	858 (2011)	15	Village	Residential
Tshabong	26° 02' 34 S 22° 40' 27 E	6,591 (2011)	6	Village	Residential
Kang	23° 40' 92 S 22° 45' 92 E	3,289 (2011)	9	Village	Communal grazing
Hukuntsi	23° 59' 93 S 21° 46' 79 E	3,464 (3,807, 2011)	10	Village	Communal grazing
Lehututu	23° 91' 36 S 21° 82' 96 E	2,070 (2011)	10	Village	Communal grazing
Makopong	25° 33' 66 S 22° 97' 57 E	1,501 (2011)	10	Village	Multiple
Tshobokwane	22° 04' S 21° 12' E	86 (2011)	40	Commercial ranch	Commercial grazing
Khawa	26° 28' S 21° 37' E	817 (2011)	70	RAD settlement	WMA
Total			6-100%	17 communities	Multiple uses

Note: Data obtained from Kgalagadi District Council, the 1991 and 2011 Botswana Population Censuses, and the Remote Area Development Program, Botswana

Table 6. Land Zoning Categories in Ghanzi District, Botswana

Land Category	Area (in square kilometers) (km²)	Percentage of District
<i>Communal Area</i>		
Mixed Farming, grazing, and arable area	17,619 km ²	14.94%
Remote Area Dwellers Settlements	2,415 km ²	2.05%
Ghanzi Township	133 km ²	0.11%
Miscellaneous land (e.g. trek routes, villages)	556 km ²	0.47%
Artificial Insemination (AI) Camp, Veterinary Services	15 km ²	0.001%
<i>Freehold Land</i>		
Ghanzi Freehold Block	10,405 km ²	8.83%
Dqae Qare San +Farm	75 km ²	0.06%
Xanagas Freehold Block	1,374 km ²	1.14%
<i>Leasehold Land in Tribal Areas</i>		
Ncojane Leasehold Farms	1,664 km ²	1.41%
State Land Extension Farms	3,784 km ²	3.2%
Kuke State Land Leasehold Farms	430 km ²	0.36%
Makunda FDA (First Development Area) Ranches	444 km ²	0.37%
Southeast Ghanzi SDA (Second Development Area) Ranches	924 km ²	0.78%
<i>Wildlife Management Areas</i>		
Groot Laagte WMA	3,908 km ²	3.31%
Matlo-a-Phuduhudu WMA	8,816 km ²	7.47%
Okwa WMA	13,618 km ²	11.55%
<i>State Land</i>		
Central Kalahari Game Reserve	52,730 km ²	44.72%
Totals	117,910 km²	100.0%

Note: The abbreviations used here are as follows: WMA stands for Wildlife Management Area, FDA for First Development Area, SDA for Second Development Area (both TGLP commercial ranch areas), and RAD for Remote Area Dweller

Table 7. Remote Area Communities (RACs) in Ghanzi District and Predominant Languages

Community or Area Name and type of community	Latitude and Longitude	Predominant San Language(s)
Bere, Settlement	22° 82' S 21° 87' E	!Xóǎ, some Naro
D'Kar, settlement On private land	21° 52' S 21° 94' E	Naro
Groot Laagte, settlement in WMA	21° 36' S 21° 22' E	‡X'ao- 'aen (//Au//eisi, /Kxau//ein)
East Hanahai, settlement in WMA	22° 16' S 21° 85' E	Naro, some G/ui
West Hanahai, settlement in WMA	22° 10' S 21° 77' E	Naro, some G/ui
Charles Hill, settlement	22° 16' 21" S 20° 05' 20" E	Naro, some ‡X'ao- 'aen (//Au//eisi, /Kxau//ein)
Chobokwane, settlement	22° 16' S 21° 21' E	Naro, some ‡X'ao- 'aen (//Au//eisi, /Kxau//ein)
New Xanagas, settlement	22° 43' S 20° 65' E	Naro, ‡X'ao- 'aen (//Au//eisi, /Kxau//ein)
Qabo, settlement	21° 07' S 21° 73' E	Naro, Ts'akhoe
New Xade, resettlement site	22° 12' 11" S 22° 41' 84" E	G/ui, G//ana, Tsila
Kuke, settlement	21° 05' S 22° 40' E	Naro, G//ana, ‡X'ao- 'aen (//Au//eisi, /Kxau//ein)
Ka/Gae, settlement	22° 85' S 22° 21' E	G/ui, !Xóǎ
Lone Tree, settlement	22° 24' 09" S 21° 43' 41" E	!Xóǎ
Ghanzi Township	21° 70' S 21° 64' E	Naro, G/ui, G//ana, ‡X'ao- 'aen (//Au//eisi, /Kxau//ein) !Xóǎ
Ranyane, settlement in WMA	23° 14' S 21° 15' E	Naro
Total	15 communities	

Table 8. Community Trusts in Ghanzi and Kgalagadi Districts, Botswana

Name of Trust and Date of Founding	Controlled Hunting Area (CHA), Support Organization	Number of Villages Involved, Population Size	Project Activities
Huiku Community Based Conservation Trust, 1999	GH 1, Komku Development Trust	2 villages (Groot Laagte and Qabo), 1,013 people	Community tourism, lodge, crafts, veld bush) products
D'Kar Kuru Trust, 1999	Dqae Qare freehold farm, D'Kar Kuru Trust	1 village, (D'Kar), 943 people	Community tourism, crafts, lodge at Dqae Qare in Ghanzi Farms
Kgoesakani (New Xade) Management Trust, 2000	GH 3 (2,790 km ²) RADP, government of Botswana, Permaculture	1 village (Kgoesakani, or New Xade) 1,094 people	Community tourism, crafts, livestock, veld products, related to the Central Kalahari Game Reserve
Xwiskurusa Community Trust, 1996	GH 10 (1,248 km ²), Permaculture Trust	3 villages (East and West Hanahai, Ka/Gae), 1,247 people	Community tourism, crafts, veld products
Chobokwane Community Trust, 1999	GH 11, Komku Development Trust	1 village (Chobokwane), 489 people	Community campsites, crafts, veld products
Xwiskurusa Natural Resources Conservation Trust, 1996	East and West Hanahai, Ka/Gae, Ghanzi. GH 10 (1,248 km ²)	3 villages, 1,600 people	Wildlife utilization, tourism, crafts, veld products, related to the CKGR
Au Shee Xha, Ulu Community Natural Resources Trust, 1996	Bere, Ghanzi District GH 11	1 village, 400 people	Grapple plant and other veld products, crafts, bee keeping
Nqwaa Khobe Yeya Trust, 2001	Ncaang, Ngwatle, Ukwi. KD 1 (12,180 km ²) Kgalagadi District	3 villages, 1,000 people	Wildlife utilization, tourism, crafts, veld products
Qhaa Qhing Conservation Trust, 2001	Zutswa, KD 2, Kgalagadi District 7,002 km ²	1 village, 350 people	Wildlife utilization, tourism, crafts, veld products
Maiteko Tshwaragano Development Trust, 2002	Zutswa, KD 2, Kgalagadi District 7,002 km ²	1 village, 350 people	Salt production, tourism, crafts

Koinapu Community Trust, 2000	Kokotsha, Inalegolo, and Phuduhudu, KD 12, 348 km ²	3 villages, 2,200 people	Wildlife utilization, tourism, crafts, veld products
Khawa Kopanelo Development Trust, 2001	Khawa, KD 15, 6,638 km ²	1 village, 700 people	Wildlife utilization, tourism, crafts, veld products

Note: Data obtained from the Ghanzi District Council, the Kgalagadi District Council, and the CBNRM Support Program (www.cbnrm.bw and www.iucnbot.bw) of the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN)

Table 9. Population and Location Data for Communities in the Central Kalahari

Name of Community	Latitude and Longitude	2014 population	2015 population	2019 population	2021 Population
Central Kalahari					
Gope (Ghagoo)	22°37'2.90"S 24°46'19.18"E	24	30	90	120
Gugamma	23° 6'55.34"S 24°15'27.47"E	0	29	28	0
Kikao	23° 1'42.21"S 24° 5'36.80"E	25	26	0 (10 on occasion)	0
Matswere	21° 9'24.21"S 24° 0'24.57"E	0	0 (DWNP staff only)	0	0
Menoatshe	22°41'2.94"S 23°58'33.13"E	0	0	Utilized for gathering	0
Metseamonong	22° 25' 12.59" S 24° 13' 02.76" E	120	130	46	56
Molapo	21°57'40.70"S 23°55'46.11"E	130	120	56	86
Mothomelo	22° 06' 39.19" S 25° 01' 59.61" E	150	26	77	91
!Xade	22° 20' 20" S 23° 00' 27" E	0	0 (DWNP staff only)	0	0
Xaxa	22°17'21.91"S 23°35'14.93"E	0	0	0	0
TOTAL		449	362	317 -330	353
CKGR Resettlement Sites					
New Xade	22° 12' 11" S 22° 41' 84" E	1,269	Ghanzi District	1,900	2,100
Kaudwane	23°22'53.37"S 24°39'34.67"E	1,084	Kweneng District	1,700	1,900
Xere	21° 8' 21.57"S 24°18'49.50"E	343	Central District	500	600
				4,100	4,600

Note: Data obtained from surveys and population censuses

Table 10. Mines and Prospecting Locations in the Republic of Botswana

Mine Location	Company and Mineral Exploited	Date of Inception of Mining	Current Stage of Mining
Dukwe and Moseitse	African Copper - copper	2008	Production early stages
Selibi-Phikwe	Bamangwato Concessions Ltd. Copper-nickel	1973	On-going production but facing potential closure
Gope (Ghaghoo), Central Kalahari Game Reserve	Pro Civil – bought from Gem Diamonds June 2019	2007, officially opened 2009, closure February 2017	Mine being refurbished
Letlhakane BK 16	Firestone Diamonds - diamonds	2011	Mine closed
Matshelagabedi and Matsiloje	Tati Nickel Copper, nickel	1989 Selkirk Mine 1995 Phoenix Mine	Production
Orapa (Central District)	Debswana – diamonds	1971	Production
Jwaneng (Southern District)	Debswana – diamonds	1982	Production and expansion
Sua (Central District)	Botswana Ash – soda, potash	1991	Production
Northern Ghanzi District and southern Ngamiland, Toteng and areas to the east (North West District)	Khoemacau Copper Mining (Motheo) – copper, silver, includes Boseto on the Toteng River	2020	In process of being established
Morupule (Central District)	Debswana - coal	1973	Production and expansion
Tsabong, Kgalagadi District	Pangolin Diamonds -diamonds	2020	In process
Kolonkwaneng, Middlepits Project, Kgalagadi District	Tango Mining Ltd. - diamonds	2020	In process

Note: Data obtained from the Ministry of Minerals, Energy and Water Resources (MMEWR); Jefferis (2009); Mengwe (2010:15, Table 1.4), and from the websites of mining companies

Table 11. Economically Valuable Plants and Insects Used by Naro, G/ui, G//ana, Tsila, //Au//eisi (ǀX'ao-// 'aen) and Other Groups in the Western Kalahari Desert Region, Southern Africa

Common Name	Scientific Name	Local Name	Uses
Baobab	<i>Adansonia digitata</i>	Mowana	Food, medicine
Cochineal	<i>Dactylopius coccus</i>	Cochineal, an insect that feeds on <i>Opuntia</i> spp. (prickly pear)	Making of carmine dye, food coloring
Devil's Claw, grapple plant	<i>Harpagophytum procumbens</i>	Sengaparile	Headaches, made into a tea for medicinal purposes
<i>Commiphora</i> spp. (<i>pyracanthoides</i>) plants as host to larvae of beetles	<i>Diamphidia simplex</i> , <i>Diamphidia nigro-ornata</i>	Antidote to the poison is from the bulb <i>Ammocaris coranica</i>	Used in making arrow poison among G/ui, G//ana, Naro, //Au//eisi, Ju/'hoan
Hoodia	<i>Hoodia pelifera</i> , <i>H. gordonii</i>	Ghaap, xhooba, !khoba	Plant used in allaying thirst and hunger, high potential commercial value
Marula	<i>Sclerocarya caffra</i>	Marula	Making wine, fruits into candy, Amarula
Mongongo	<i>Schinziophyton [Ricinodendron] rautanenii</i>	Mongongo, Mangetti, mokongwa	Nuts for consumption, wood for stools and other items
Morama	<i>Tylosema esculentum</i>	Morama, tsin bean <i>cam</i> (Naro)	Nuts and roots for consumption
Truffle	<i>Terfezia pfeilii</i>	Kalahari truffle, <i>kama</i> , <i>dcoodcoo khuuts 'u</i> (Naro)	Fungus that is eaten and sold
Wild currant bush	<i>Grewia flava</i>	<i>n/ang</i> (Ju) <i>kg'om</i> (Naro)	Berries that are collected, eaten, and sold
Gemsbok Cucumber	<i>Acanthosicyos naudiniana</i>	<i>ncoro</i> (Naro)	Procured, eaten for moisture purposes, seeds consumed
Wild coffee bean	<i>Bauhinia petersiana</i>	ǀangǀoa (//Au//eisi)	Seeds procured, consumed, sold

Note: Data obtained from fieldwork and from Heinz and Maguire (1974); Tanaka (1980:56, 71, Tables 8 and 12); and Visser (2001:234-236).

Table 12. International River Basins That Are Shared Between or Among States in the Southern African Development Community (SADC)

River Basin	Basin Size (square kilometers)	Number of River Basin States	River Length (in kilometres)
Buzi	27,700	2	250
Congo	3,691,000	9	4,700
Cunene	109,832	2	1,050
Cuvelai / Ethosha	167,400	2	430
Incomati (Komati)	46,700	3	480
Limpopo	414,800	4	1,750
Maputo	30,700	3	380
Molopo	367,201	2	967
Nile	3,031,700	10	6,700
Nossob	40,000	2	740
Okavango	706,900	4	1,100
Orange (Gariep)	945,500	4	2,300
Pungue	32,711	2	300
Rovuma	151,700	3	800
Save	104,000	2	740
Umbeluzi	10,900	2	200
Zambezi	1,385,300	8	2,650
TOTALS	12,031,245 sq km	58	20,587 km in length

Sources: Pallett (1997:71, Table 3); Abrams (1999); Transboundary Freshwater Dispute Database Oregon State University, www.transboundarywaters.orst.edu. (Accessed 15 October 2020)

Table 13. Numbers of Tourists in Botswana, Namibia, and Zimbabwe

Country	Tourists in 2017	Tourists in 2018	Tourists in 2019
Botswana	1,623,000	1,830,224	1,935,042
Namibia	1,608,018	1,659,762	1,762,079
Zimbabwe	2,450,000	2,579,927	2.200,000
TOTALS	5,651,018	6,069,913	5,897,121

Note: Data obtained from the World Tourism Organization, Tourism Statistics Botswana, the Botswana Ministry of Environment, Natural Resources, Tourism, and Conservation, the Namibia Ministry of Environment, Forestry, and Tourism's *Namibia Statistical Reports*, the Zimbabwe Tourism Association (ZTA), the Zimbabwe National Statistical Agency, and the Ministry of Environment, Climate, Tourism, and Hospitality, Zimbabwe

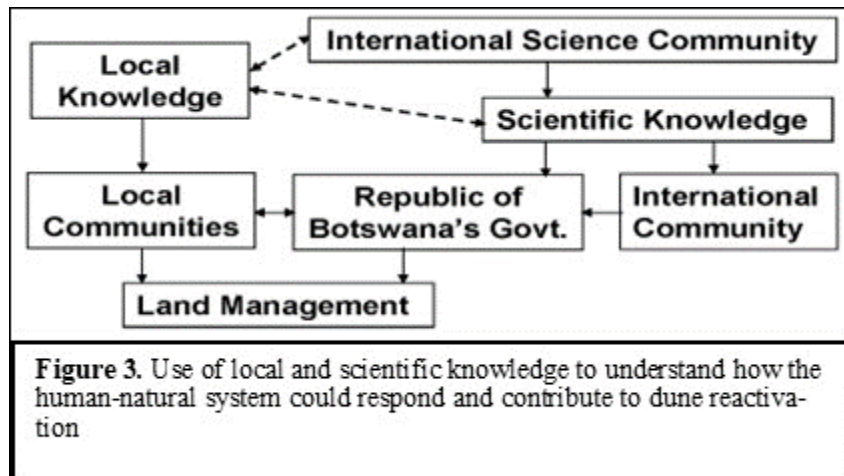


Figure 2. Impacts of Aelian processes.

Appendix 1. Botswana Government Policy Documents Relating to Land, Natural Resources, Wildlife, Water, Mining, and Remote Area Communities

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Appendix 3. A Chronology of Major Events in the Ghanzi and Kgalagadi Drylands Region, Botswana

1 st millennium AD	Iron Age populations establish themselves in Ghanzi and Kgalagadi region
1850's	First recorded encounters of Europeans with San in Ghanzi and Kgalagadi
1862-1870	Nama-Herero Wars. Northern expansion of Hereros in Namibia
1868	Hendrik Mathys van Zyl settled at the Kgwebe Hills.
1870	Hendrik van Zyl was established in the Ghanzi area and was hunting elephants and other game; he had a home at Ghanzi Pan (now on the property of Clive Eaton).
1871	van Zyl is given a land grant by Kgosi Letsholathebe of the Batawana. The area stretched from the G/wihaba Hills near /Xai/Xai south to Ghanzi and over to the Kgwebe Hills (Kobie); van Zyl claimed tribute from residents of this region
1875	First of several of Afrikaaner "treks" across the Kalahari to Ghanzi and Rietfontein, some of whom went on to Damaraland and to Angola.
1876-1878	The Afrikaaner 'thirstland trekkers' (Dorsland Trekkers) pass through Ghanzi, some of them staying for several months.
1876	Some Bushmen killed a trekker by the name of Prinsloo; in retaliation, van Zyl reportedly invited Bushmen to a feast and allegedly killed 33 of them. Van Zyl went on to have a complex set of interactions with other groups including the Tawana and the Nama. Subsequently, it was rumoured that van Zyl was murdered by "some of his own Bushmen" (Gillett 1969:54).
1877	Group of Dorsland Trekkers barely get across the eastern Kalahari, with many dying on the way of thirst at Nkawane and Mmaletswai. Some of them were saved by Kua Bushmen who gave them water and guided them eastward toward Lake Ngami
1885	British Protectorate of Bechuanaland declared
1890	Germany annexes territory of South West Africa (now Namibia).
1890s	Arrival of Barolong from the east, following the Okwa Valley.
1891	Beginning of the 15 year long reign (to 1906) of Tawana chief Sekgoma Letsholathebe

- 1893 Isaac John Bosman of the British South Africa Company got two mineral and land concessions from Chief Sekgoma for resources in Ngamiland.
- 1894 Group of Afrikaner trekkers, unable to make it across the Kalahari, were settled by the Bakwena chief (*kgosi*) at Molepolole.
- 1895 Lt. Fuller and a contingent of Bechuanaland Border Police crossed the southern Kalahari and stayed in Ghanzi, arriving on 24 April. There were some 25 Afrikaaner Trekkers with that group that hoped to establish themselves in Ngamiland, but they were rebuffed by the Tawana. Lt. Fuller submitted a report to the Bechuanaland Protectorate Administration that suggested that Ghanzi become a farming area for European settlement (Botswana National Archives file C.O. 417/141).
- 1896 Rinderpest wipes out large numbers of cattle and wild game animals in Ngamiland and Ghanzi and elsewhere in the Kalahari. On October 27th, the Tawana Chief signed a letter waiving rights of the Tawana to areas south of the Kgwebe Hills in exchange for a reserve (BNA C.O. 417/209, Sekgoma to High Commissioner). The Tawana had previously claimed Ghanzi on the basis of cattle posts established in the area. This claim was rejected by the High Commissioner.
- 1896-98 Visit to the north western Kalahari by German geologist Siegfried Passarge. The British West Charterland Company (BWC) expedition under Captain Frederick Lugard crossed the eastern Kalahari in June, 1896 and had serious difficulties at Nkwane, the same place where the Dorstland Trekkers had problems in 1877. Lugard and company established themselves at Kgwebe in September, 1896. Col. Francis W. Panzera of the BP Police was dispatched to Ngamiland in advance of new trekkers in early 1898.
- 1897 Plans made for allotment of farms in Ghanzi. Arrival of flu epidemic in Kgwebe and Ghanzi.
- 1898-1899 Allocation of 41 Ghanzi Farms to Afrikaaner and English farmers. The Boer War breaks out in South Africa in October, resulting in abandonment of Kgwebe by the BWC. The negotiations for the trekkers move to Ghanzi by Panzera included discussions with the Tawana, European traders, Wayeyi, and San (BNA C.O. 417/321, Panzera to Goold-Adams, 9 February 1899). Arrival of the Ghanzi Trekkers in Ngamiland and allocation of farms, 36 certificates of occupation were given to the heads of trekker families. Finalization of the Tawana Tribal Reserve border (December 1899).
- 1899-1902 Anglo-Boer War in South Africa.

- 1904-1907 German-Herero Wars, resulting in at least 6,000 Herero moving into Botswana, some of them settling in the Lake Ngami region (Sehitwa), some in Ghanzi and Makunda, and some as far east as Mahalapye in what is now Central District. (BNA C.O. 417/482, Panzera to Selborn, 47 H.C. of 18 April, 1910. In 1904, Arnold Hodson got as far west as Ukwi Pan in Kgalagadi District but also visited places in southern Ghanzi (Hodson 1912).
- 1906 Establishment of Kalkfontein (Tsosa in Sekgalagadi). There were already Bakgalagadi there who had been there for over a decade.
- 1910 It was reported that only 10 of the original Ghanzi farms still had European farmers on them (Panzera, Resident Commissioner, B.P.)
- 1911 Police Zone established in Namibia
- 1912 Over 40 people died from pneumonia at Tsau, the Tawana capital.
- 1913 The Taoge River near Tsau had been dry since 1897, and by 1913 malaria killed large numbers of people at Tsau and livestock died from rinderpest. Two individuals, Lewis and Hardbattle, became important cattle farmers in Ghanzi after leaving Tsau.
- 1915 Germany surrenders territory of South West Africa to South African troops.
- 1919 Chief Mathiba of the Batawana suspends grain shipments to Ghanzi during a time of grain shortage. Flu epidemic affects Ghanzi. Arrival of Thomas Hardbattle in Ghanzi.
- 1921 Census shows that Ghanzi District had a population of 1,700, of whom 142 were whites (Russell and Russell 1979:20).
- 1922 There were only 13 houses in the Ghanzi area according to a map by done by A.G. Stigand. Establishment of a magistracy in Ghanzi.
- 1928 Imperial Secretary visits D'Kar and the Talyaard family. First lorry brought through Ghanzi. Publication of an ethnographic study of the Naro by Dorothea F. Bleek (1928). Ncojane village in Ghanzi District settled. Two families, the Kotzes and Burgers, settled in Ghanzi, after having been at Olifants Kloof for a number of years.
- 1931 Locust invasion in Ghanzi which was dealt with by the Protectorate Administration and by local people as well as by locust-birds. Chief Sebele of the Bakwena was deposed and banished to Ghanzi.

- 1932 Tour of Bechuanaland Protectorate including Ghanzi by Sir Alan Pin, who did an economic report with recommendations on development.
- 1933 Severe drought in Ghanzi and Central Kalahari.
- 1934 Outbreak of Foot-and-Mouth Disease (FMD) at Rakops resulted in suspension of cattle exports from Ghanzi and elsewhere. Abattoir opened at Lobatse, but closed in 1937. Visit by delegation of Bechuanaland Protectorate officials including Resident Commissioner C.F. Rey (4-11 September).
- 1936 Slavery officially abolished in Botswana by the Abolition of Slavery Proclamation of 1936
- 1937 Establishment of a settlement scheme for Naro San at Elephantskloof. Rolong were moved from Kalkfontein to Karakobis.
- 1939 Visit by BP official (Malherbe) who discussed how few Ghanzi Farmers had taken up cream production, recommended to them by C.F. Rey in 1934. Malherbe also reported on a group of Dorstland Trekkers who did not make it across the eastern Kalahari and were allowed to resettle at Mahalapye by the Bamangwato.
- 1940s-50s 'Decades of development' in the Ghanzi region. Expansion of the livestock industry in Ghanzi. Some of the pans in northern Ghanzi District were incorporated into farms.
- 1946 Return of soldiers from the Second World War. A number of Bakgalagadi and San were among those who returned to Ghanzi after WW II.
- 1947 Establishment of a church school at D'Kar.
- 1948 Upsurge in the numbers of Herero coming in to northern Ghanzi District, some of whom worked as pump operators and others of whom kept cattle in the area.
- 1951-1952 French Panhard-Capricorn Expeditions to Ghanzi and elsewhere in the Kalahari begin in 1951 and made important observations.
- 1950s Regularization of land tenure in Ghanzi Farms. Survey and registration began in 1957.
- 1953 Boarding school opened in Ghanzi.
- 1957 Grading of a new sand road from Ghanzi to Lobatse completed.

- 1958 Bushman Survey Officer, George Silberbauer, appointed in the Bechuanaland Protectorate and begins his survey work in Ghanzi and the Central Kalahari. Establishment of the Kuke Veterinary Cordon fence and the quarantine camp at Kuke on the Ghanzi-Maun road.
- 1959 130 new farms were offered for sale in 1959. The tenure system in the Ghanzi Farms was changed from leasehold to freehold.
- 1960 As late as 1960 there were only a dozen or so African families living on the Ghanzi Farms (Guenther 1986:38). Run-up to independence in Botswana focused in part on issues in Ghanzi District. Death of Thomas Hardbattle.
- 1961 New Legislative Council established in the Protectorate, with some members from Ghanzi. Establishment of the Central Kalahari Game Reserve under the Fauna Conservation Proclamation of 1961.
- 1963 Decision to open schools to all comers in the Protectorate, including Ghanzi. CKGR Regulations passed
- 1963-1965 Run-up to independence in Ghanzi included not only the work on the CKGR but also the work on the farms in Ghanzi District. First of the Harvard Kalahari Research Group expeditions to the Dobe-/Xai/Xai region (Richard Lee and Irven DeVore).
- 1964 Bechuanaland Protectorate Census showed a population of 16,308 in Ghanzi. There was also a specialized portion of the which showed a nomadic population of mainly San and Bakgalagadi 14,050 persons (1964 census, p. 21, 24).
- 1965 Border fence erected between Namibia and Botswana. Publication of the *Bushman Survey Report* by George Silberbauer. Drought relief program mounted in Ghanzi and elsewhere in the country. On the Ghanzi Farms San, see Silberbauer (1965:118-126, 137-138).
- 1966 The 1960s drought breaks. Independence (*iposu*) for Botswana (September 30, 1966)
- 1967 Announcement of the discovery of diamonds at Orapa.
- 1966-1969 Simon Gillett is District Commissioner of Ghanzi.
- 1967-70 Second Kalahari Research Group expeditions in western Ngamiland. Fieldwork by Mathias Guenther in Ghanzi (August 1968-April 1970).

- 1970's South African Police (SAP) establish San tracker posts along the border between Namibia and Botswana.
- 1971 Ghanzi Farming Block population was 4,921, the majority of them San. Population census of Botswana in 1971 shows nearly 5,000 people in Ghanzi and Xanagas.
- 1972 Review of the Village Areas Development Project in Kgalagadi District by the Swedish International Development Authority (SIDA).
- 1973 Survey shows 65 owners of farms in Ghanzi and Xanagas who were residents, and 28 who were non-residents (Russell and Russell 1979:41). Kalahari Peoples Fund (KPF) founded. Disagreements break out regarding management of the !Xoo settlement at Bere. Arrival of the Jerlings at D'kar.
- 1974 Bushman Development Program (later, the Remote Area Development Program established in Botswana. Arrival of Mark and Delia Owens at Deception Pan in the CKGR (field work until 1981). Liz Wily was the Bushman Development Officer (BDO) from 1974-1978.
- 1974-75 Alan Barnard does fieldwork among Naro in Ghanzi (May 1974-September 1975).
- 1975 The Tribal Grazing Land Policy (TGLP) was declared in Botswana. University of New Mexico Kalahari Project works in the eastern and north Central District and in the CKGR (1975-76).
- 1975-76 Efforts by government officials to survey areas for purposes of determining areas of land for commercial, communal, and reserved purposes under TGLP. Gary W. Childers arrives to work in Ghanzi District as a Bushman Survey Officer. He liaises with Bill Jeffers, who is the District Officer (Development) for Ghanzi District. Survey of CKGR by Mark Murray (1976) and Paul Sheller (1977) for the Bushman Development Program.
- 1976-8 Initial land use zoning exercises in Ghanzi and Ngamiland as part of the TGLP. Drawing up of the initial Ghanzi District Land Use Plan was done by district administration personnel. Establishment of the Ghanzi settlements at West and East Hanahai and Groot Laagte. No potable water was struck at Rooibrak.
- 1977 Work on Remote Area Communities (RAC) by Kgalagadi District Remote Area Development Officer (RADO). Work carried out on a Spatial Development plan for northern Kgalagadi District by Steven Lawry and Axel Thoma.
- 1978 Meetings on TGLP held in Gaborone. Formal establishment of the RADP in Botswana. Large-scale survey report on impacts of TGLP in Central District. The Reformed Church Aranos in D'Kar became an independent congregation. Work

done by a consultant on a Gemsbok Domestication Project proposal in Nwatele, Kgalagadi District.

- 1979 Report by Elizabeth Wily on the San of Botswana which addressed issues including those relating to the Ghanzi District resettlement efforts. Passage of the *Unified Hunting Regulations* in Botswana which included the establishment of a Special Game License (SGL) for subsistence hunters. Drilling of new borehole at !Xade which attracted more people over the next decade.
- 1980 Death of President Seretse Khama. Ketumile Masire assumes the presidency of Botswana. Report of large-scale RADP survey of the CKGR by English *et al* (1980).
- 1981 Recommendation that people be removed from the CKGR by Mark and Delia Owens (1981:11). Controversy breaks out regarding the 'tail-end' fence of the CKGR impeding and reducing wildebeest migration. Issues arise regarding wildebeest and other wildlife migrations into and out of the CKGR and the tail-end fence.
- 1982 National meeting held on the First Livestock Development Project (Livestock 1) of the World Bank and Government of Botswana, sponsored by the Swedish International Development Authority (SIDA) was held in Gaborone.
- 1983 First vegetable garden and pre-school started at D'Kar. Ghanzi Craft established in Ghanzi. Publication of a series of reports on communal areas in Botswana, including ones in Kgalagadi District.
- 1984 Publication of *Cry of the Kalahari* by Mark and Delia Owens.
- 1985 Assessment of the Remote Area Development Program in Botswana by Norwegians (Gulbrandsen, Karlsen, Lexow), leading to the establishment of an Accelerated Remote Area Development Program (ARADP) funded by NORAD (the Norwegian Ministry of Development Cooperation) (1988-1996). Conducting of a Central Kalahari Game Reserve Commission (Government of Botswana 1985). Doug and Jane Williamson worked on wildebeest migrations in the CKGR beginning in 1985 and continuing for several years. Weekly craft purchases begun at D'Kar.
- 1986 Establishment of Kuru Development Trust (KDT) at D'Kar. Kuru means 'to do/create' in Naro. Government of Botswana announces decisions to resettle people out of the CKGR.
- 1988 First formal announcements that people will be resettled outside of the CKGR by two government ministers, Balopi and Nwako, speaking at !Xade. First craft shop

at D'Kar (part of Kuru). First international donors for Kuru were for the Bokamoso Preschool program and for the garden. Ghanzi Craft was registered as an independent trust.

- 1989 Publication of a circular ('an urgent action bulletin') by Survival International on the issue of relocation of people out of the Central Kalahari Game Reserve. Aranos Reformed church withdraws from Botswana. Visit to Tsodilo Hills by people from D'Kar, which helped inspire the Kuru Art Project. Plans were made for establishing remote area dweller (RAD) farms in Ghanzi freehold farming block. The Ghanzi District Council approached a consortium of non-government organizations, including Kuru Development Trust, CORDE, and Permaculture, to assist in the development of the farms. The Norwegian development agency NORAD pledged P360,000 (then about \$180,000) for purposes of developing the water and fencing on the farms.
- 1990 The three RAD farms, designated NK 173 (near West Hanahai), NK 164 (near Chobokwane), and NK 145 (near Groot Laagte) were allocated officially to the Ghanzi District Council on behalf of the San in February, 1990. An interim assessment of the Accelerated Remote Area Development Program is done by Ulla Kann, Nomtuse Mbere, and Robert Hitchcock. A conference on tourism was held by the Botswana Society in which San and Bakgalagadi and Batswana participated.
- 1991 Disagreements break out regarding the allocation of three RAD Farms in Ghanzi District, the rights of which were taken over by influential government figures, causing an international outcry (Chr. Michelsen Institute 1996:31-32). Coby and Hessel Visser arrive in D'Kar to assist the Naro Language Program. Economic Consultancies (1991) does an evaluation of a number of different remote area settlements involved in the ARADP.
- 1992 A Regional Conference on Development Programs for Africa's San Populations was held in Windhoek from June 16-18, 1992. Several people from Ghanzi participated, as did government lands personnel. D'Kar Museum and Cultural Centre established. At Kuru, the cochineal and ostrich farming projects were funded by PACT and USAID. Initial work on establishing First People of the Kalahari (FPK) was done with help of Kuru.
- 1993 Second Regional San Conference held in Gaborone, October. Founding of First People of the Kalahari (October). International meetings on San and indigenous peoples' issues held in Denmark. Braam LeRoux of D'Kar nearly expelled from Botswana, bringing international recognition of San-related issues.
- 1994 SNV (Netherlands Development Organization) and the Dutch government assist Kuru in purchasing Dqae Qare game farm. In early 1994, research was done by John Hardbattle and Roy Sesana of FPK along with Paul Sheller of Audi Camp on

traditional territories and use in the Molapo area of the Central Kalahari Game Reserve. They used Geographic Positioning System (GPS) technology.

- 1995 Formal establishment of the settlement of Qabo in the northern Ghanzi District. Contagious Bovine Pleuropneumonia (CBPP) broke out in western Ngamiland at Xaudum. The Special Game License (SGL) Study was conducted at /Xai/Xai, Phuduhudu, and Ukwi in October, 1995 by Robert Hitchcock and Rosinah Rose B. Masilo for the Department of Wildlife and National Parks and the Natural Resource Management Program (USAID/Government of Botswana). The Working Group of Indigenous Minorities in Southern Africa (WIMSA) was established with an office in Windhoek, Namibia and a branch at D'Kar, Botswana. Work done on planning for Kgalegadi District by Corjan van der Jagt.
- 1996 Killing of 320,000 head of cattle in Ngamiland by government in an effort to address the CBPP (lungsickness) issue. All livestock sales suspended from the region. An evaluation is done of the Accelerated Remote Area Development Program by the Chr. Michelsen Institute which outlined achievements and challenges of the program. Report published on the CKGR situation by Ditshwanelo (1996). Deaths of John Hardbattle of FPK and Komtsha Komtsha of Kuru (November). South African San Institute formed in Cape Town.
- 1997 May-June, removals of some 1,300 people from !Xade and other communities in the Central Kalahari Game Reserve, with the establishment of a new set of settlements at New Xade in Ghanzi and Kaudwane in Kweneng District. CKGR Negotiating Team established at D'Kar consisting of NGOs including Kuru, FPK, WiMSA, Ditshwanelo, and the Botswana Christian Council. Kuru Dance Festival starts.
- 1998 A Kuru Development Trust office was established at Shakawe in 1998, and work began on a diversified program including community-based natural resource management (CBNRM), community assessment and consultation, capacity-building within the Shakawe Kuru (ShaKuru) staff, coordination with government and non-government institutions, and the initial work done with communities in the Panhandle region and western Ngamiland. Arrests of people for hunting in the CKGR increase. Production of a report on the land allocation process by Ditshwanelo (1998).
- 1999 Kuru Development Trust worked on the establishment of community trusts in Ghanzi District. In August, 1999 an assessment was done of Kuru Development Trust (Bollig *et al* 2000). In October, Kuru personnel carried out a community mapping exercise in the Dobe-!Goshe area (NG3) and applications were made to the Tawana Land Board for land. A series of CKGR negotiating team meetings were held, some of them with Botswana government officials.

- 2000 The site museum at Tsodilo Hills National Monument was completed, and the government of Botswana applied for World Heritage Site (WHS) status for Tsodilo in June, 2000. Major disagreements broke out regarding issues surrounding the management of the Kuru Development Trust. Community mapping exercises carried out in the Central Kalahari by Arthur Albertson and FPK (see Albertson 2000b). A D'Kar Residents Committee objects against inclusion of other San communities and districts as part of KDT, initiating a year-long series of negotiations.
- 2001 Formation of the Kuru Family of Organisations. Letloa Trust becomes the networking and administrative support body of KFO. The Population and Housing Census 2001 of the Botswana government reported that there were 689 people in the Central Kalahari.
- 2002 January 31, 2002 – social services and water provision was cut off by the government of Botswana in the CKGR and peoples' homes and other possessions destroyed along with water points. February 19th, 2002: filing of the legal case against the government of Botswana on behalf of the people of the Central Kalahari (Roy Sesana and 243 others) by a legal team headed up by Glyn Williams and Barrister John Whitehead of Chennells Albertyn, South Africa. This legal case was dismissed by a high court judge on the basis of technicalities on 19 April 2002. Dekker (2002) does a detailed analysis of the Kuru micro-finance program. Considerable attention paid internationally to the CKGR situation. A seminar on the CKGR was held by Ditshwanelo (2002).
- 2003 The CKGR legal case *Roy Sesana, Kiewa Setlhobogwa, & 241 Others v the Attorney General of Botswana*, case no. 52 of 2002), which had been dismissed, won on appeal and was referred to the High Court.
- 2004 The CKGR court case began in July, 2004 with hearings at New Xade in Ghanzi District. Only 3 witnesses gave testimony, including two San along with George Silberbauer. The case was continued until November, 2004 in part because the legal team ran out of funds. In the July-November period, discussions were held among some of the applicants (those who brought the case before the court). As a result of these discussions, the decision was made to bring new lawyers into the case on the side of the applicants. A second phase of the legal case began on November 5th, 2004 with some new lawyers on the side of the people of the Central Kalahari, including Gordon Bennett, an international lawyer from the United Kingdom, and Gideon Duma Boko from Botswana. On the government side was Sidney Pilane. Publication of *Voices of the San* by Willemien LeRoux and Alison White.
- 2005 The CKGR court case continued off and on throughout 2005. Incidents of confrontation occurred between people from the CKGR and the settlement of New

Xade and government officials in September, 2005, in which members of FPK and others were arrested and jailed for four days. Charges eventually were dismissed.

- 2006 Announcement on December 13th of the High Court judges decision on the CKGR court case (see Sapignoli 2018). December 14th, 2006, statement by the Attorney General on the Central Kalahari case stating that no services would be provided to people who returned to the CKGR. December 20th, 2006, decision of the government of Botswana not to appeal the legal case. A participatory evaluation of KFO was held, resulting in transformations in the leadership and management development program.
- 2007 People were stopped in January from going back into the CKGR after the CKGR court case decision of December, 2006. In June, 2007, it was announced that a mining company, Gem Diamonds, had purchased the mining licenses for sites around Gope in the CKGR. The company paid a reported US \$34 million for the license. Founding of Teyamasi, a San human rights advocacy organization, in D'Kar. A celebration of 21 years of Kuru were held in Gaborone in November.
- 2008 Environmental Impact Assessment of the Gope Area conducted by Marsh Environmental Services for Gem Diamonds. Seretse Ian Khama becomes president of Botswana, replacing Festus Mogae.
- 2009 Visit to the settlement of Kaudwane and other RAD settlements in Botswana by the UN Special Rapporteur on the human rights and fundamental freedoms of indigenous peoples, S. James Anaya (March, 2009), June, 2009, Universal Periodic Review of Botswana by the Human Rights Council in Geneva.
- 2010 Announcements made by Hana Mining Company and government of Botswana about the Ghanzi Copper Project. Formal consultations held on 24-25 September, 2010 in Ghanzi, D'Kar, and Kuke. EIA work on the project begins in earnest (Loci Environmental). June, 2010, filing of a second CKGR legal case in the High Court. *The High Court of Botswana, Lobatse, in the matter between Matsipane Moseithanyene, first applicant, and Gakenyatsiwe Matsipana, second applicant, and further applicants, vs. Attorney General of Botswana respondent, June 9, 2010. MAHLB-0393-09, decided on July 21st, 2010 by J. Walia, Judge.* Publication of book on the Central Kalahari by Kuela Kiema (2010), who was born in the region.
- 2011 Appeal of second CKGR court case ruled against the government in January, 2011 by a group of High Court judges, giving the people of the Central Kalahari the right to water SIAPAC conducts social impact assessment of the Ghanzi Copper Project (July-September, 2011). Anthropological Assessment carried out July-August, 2011. September, 2011: striking of water and equipping of a borehole at Mothomelo in the CKGR. 50th anniversary of the Central Kalahari Game Reserve

(January); dissemination of new draft Botswana land policy (January), Visit by 2 ministers (Mr. Skelemani, Foreign Affairs and Mr. Mokaila, MEWT) to the Central Kalahari for 'consultations' (February); work on activating borehole at Mothomelo, March, 2011; discussions of water provision in CKGR (June)

2012 On May 5th the government of Botswana sent Special Support Group (SSG) police paramilitary personnel) and Department of Wildlife and National Parks officers to camp at Metsiamonong in the CKGR in order to intimidate the community from hunting; 5 people were arrested initially, with several dozen after that in 2012. A meeting was held at Mothomelo on the copper-silver mine planned for the CKGR by Hana Mining (19 July); Kuru Dance Festival held 1 August 2012; visit by First Peoples Worldwide (FPW) Team to CKGR (October-November).

2013 In February, a legal case brought before the Botswana High Court on Access of people to the reserve and rights to keep livestock. This case was dismissed on a technicality by High Court Judge L. Walia. A meeting of the CKGR Negotiating Committee in April questioned the decision of the High Court. On 18 June 2013, a case filed against Ghanzi Land Board and District Council on removals of people from Ranyane in southern Ghanzi District was won by the applicants. There was a report issued in September 2013 by the Open Society Institute of Southern Africa (OSISA) of fracking (hydraulic fracturing) taking place in the Central Kalahari, the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park (KTP), the Makgadikgadi Pans National Park and other protected areas of Botswana. A meeting of San organizations, including First People of the Kalahari, the Botswana Khwedom Council, the Kuru Family of Organizations, and the San Youth Network (SYNET) held in D'Kar, Ghanzi District on 13 December 2013. A national Anti-poaching strategy was announced by the government of Botswana.

2014 A nation-wide hunting ban went into effect in Botswana on 1 January 2014; 3 people from New Xade file legal cases in Ghanzi against Botswana police for mistreatment during arrests (January); Botswana government officials and San attend the 13th annual meetings of the UNPFII (12-23 May); dedication of the Gope (Ghaghoo) Diamond mine in the CKGR (September). The elections of October 2014 saw several San and Bakgalagadi elected to the Ghanzi District Council. Residents of Ranyane filed a legal case against the government of Botswana for failure to provide services (13 November). The United Nations Special Rapporteur for Cultural Rights Farida Shaheed visited Botswana including Gaborone, the CKGR and several settlements (14-26 November)

2015 On 4 February 2015 meeting held between Roy Sesana and Botswana President Seretse Khama Ian Khama along with ministers from foreign affairs, environment, wildlife, and tourism, and local government and rural development to discuss issues in the Central Kalahari. The Botswana government declared a national drought on 15th June. The Kuru Dance Festival was held at Dqae Qare from 24th – 27th August;

A Botswana Khwedom Council (BKC) leadership meeting was held at Dqae Qare Game Lodge from 27th-28th July. Three government ministry representatives (Foreign Affairs, Health, and Environment, Wildlife and Tourism) met in the CKGR at Metsiamonong with local community members from Metsiamonong, Mothomelo, and Molapo in August. Dismissal of the Ranyane legal case by High Court Judge J. Rannowane, on 21 October 2015.

- 2016 Government appointed Roy Sesana as a CKGR representative and provided him with a salary (January). Mr. Sesana is the head of a CKGR committee consisting of 5 members from each community. He also had a secretary and a staff. The secretary was also a member of the Remote Area Development Program of the Ghanzi District Council. An election of a new CKGR representatives committee occurred in January. The Universal Periodic Review (UPR) meeting was held in Geneva in which Botswana officials addressed the Central Kalahari and government programs. In March-April, visits were paid by government ministers to the CKGR where they held discussions about potential developments including water, food, and pensions. They also addressed the possibility of community campsites under Botswana's CBNRM program in order to allow community-based tourism in the reserve. Attendance of Botswana government officials and 4 San from Botswana at the Fifteenth UNPFII meetings in New York 9-20 May 2016. A government helicopter crash in the southern CKGR resulted in injuries to 6 police officers. 50th anniversary of Botswana Independence (30 September 2016)
- 2017 On 16 February government announced the closing of Ghaghoo (Gope) mine and the cutting of 250 jobs. On 3 April a large earthquake occurred at Moiyabana east of the CKGR which caused some damage in Ghaghoo Mine. Some analysts attributed this event to fracking activities while others said it was a natural event. UNPFII 16th annual meeting, New York, 24 April-6 May. On 20 July Roy Sesana held a meeting with President Khama. A Botswana Khwedom Council (BKC) meeting was held at Dqae Qare San Lodge from 6-7 July. In August-September, a trip to the various communities in the CKGR sponsored by Sacharuna took place, involving a consultant and Jumanda Gakelebone. The United Nations Development Programme Project Document titled *Botswana Project Document: Managing the Human-Wildlife Interface to Establish the flow of Agro-ecosystem Services and Prevent Illegal Wildlife Trafficking in the Kgalagadi and Ghanzi Drylands* UNDP-GEF PIMS ID No. 5590 was finalized.
- 2018 The Ghanzi District Council sent a delegation to the communities in the Central Kalahari from 21-25 May 2018. A full Ghanzi District Council meeting was held 27 June 2018 to address the issues that were raised by the communities in the meetings. The CKGR Residents Committee sent a letter to the government in November 2018, requesting that the government not implement their plans for having the proposed Memoghamoga Community Trust (MCD), designed by a law firm, Lecha and Associates, go forward but instead allow each of the 5 communities

in the CKGR to have their own individual community trusts. Maria Sapignoli's book *Hunting Justice* was published in September 2018, which documented the history and legal cases involving the CKGR. The Central Kalahari issue was raised at the Regional Conference on San and Inclusion sponsored by the United Nations Department of Social and Economic Affairs (UNDESA) that was held in Windhoek, Namibia from 3-5 December 2018 which was attended by several Botswana government officials and San including Steven Ludick, Director, Department of Community Development, Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development. Particular emphasis was placed on the Botswana government's Affirmative Action Framework (AAF).

2019

A visit was paid to the Central Kalahari by Job Morris of Natural Justice and Jumanda Gakelebone of the Ghanzi District Council in early February 2018. Meetings were held with the Ghanzi District Council and with Roy Sesana by a delegation from the NGO Natural Justice (4-8 February 2018). Roy Sesana hoped to meet with the president of Botswana, Mr. Masisi, on 14 February but the meeting was postponed. Mr. Masisi said he wants to visit the Central Kalahari. A visit to the Central Kalahari was paid by a group of scientists from the Botswana International University for Science and Technology and the U.S. from 29 March – 5 April 2019. The purpose of this visit, sponsored by the National Geographic Society, was to look at arrow poison. In June 2019 a Botswana-based firm, Pro Civil, bought the Ghaghoo mine. In October 2019 Jumanda Gakelebone was elected Councilor to the Ghanzi District Council as a member of the UDC from New Xade. Human-wildlife conflict, including elephant damage to crops and water point facilities, led to calls for opening the hunting of elephants, which the government announced that it would do in October 2019. Elephant damage to crops was reported in the Central Kalahari several times in 2019 including at Molapo, Metsiamonong, and Mothomelo. There were discussions in late 2019 about the construction of an elephant-proof fence that would go along the northern portion of the CKGR and down part of the northeastern portion of the reserve.

2020

On 24 March 2020 4 men were arrested by the Botswana Police for illegal hunting in the Central Kalahari. Their Magistrates Court trial in Ghanzi on 10 June was postponed. A human-wildlife conflict (HWC) strategy was produced by Karuna Consulting for the Kgalagadi and Ghanzi Drylands Ecosystem Project on 20 July. Visits were paid to the CKGR by representatives of the CKGR Residents Committee along with a water specialist to assess how to help fix the boreholes at Molapo, Mothomelo, and Metsiamonong. In late October, several government ministers flew into the Central Kalahari Game Reserve and told the residents that there would be 6 boreholes drilled in the Central Kalahari. No specifics were provided to the communities on where the boreholes would be placed. There were no reported cases of COVID-19 in Ghanzi or Kgalagadi as of November 2020. Work continued on the Social and Environmental Management Plan and Social Safeguards in the Ghanzi-Kgalagadi Drylands project area.

- 2021 Headmen/headwomen in the Central Kalahari Game Reserve were as follows
1. Molapo: Tshogo families: Mbonego; Kxei families: Roy Sesana. Heads up the government negotiating team, works for government in Ghanzi and an organization that has CKGR committee members
 2. Metsiamanong: Kgalagadi families: //Ganakhwe families: Kala-kala, Nare Gaoberekwe, Mongwegi Gaoberekwe, also Kalakala Tshenehe, Mohame Bolesa
 3. Mothomelo: Matsipane Mosetlhanyane (lead applicant, water case); Bless (Ntwamogala). The second being most helpful and also a CKGR committee member.
 4. Gugamma: Amogelang, however he is mostly residing outside the reserve and involved only by marriage. CKGR committee member. Traditional heads of Kgalagadi contingent and the Tshila contingent probably more significant though.
 5. Gope: Kepese Mohitsane
 6. New Xade – Mr. Lobase Beslag
 7. Kaudwane – Mr. Segwaba
 9. Xere – to be determined
- December 21 2021, death of Pitseng Gaoborekwe and battle over his burial in the Central Kalahari Game Reserve at his ancestral home of Metsiamonong.
- 2022 Efforts of Gaoborekwe family to get government and the Ghanzi District Council to allow for the burial of Pitseng at his home village of Metsiamonong. Arrest of 7 San children for possession of poached meet by game scouts of Department of Wildlife and National Parks, July. Discussion of the burial issue and San rights at COP 27 in Sharm el Shaik, Egypt, 6-18 November 2022. President Masisi’s State of the Nation address discussed issues such as COVID 19, climate change, and the introduction of a National Language Policy that will include mother tongue San and Nama languages.
- 2023 KGDEP Social Safeguards Review conducted, January-February 2023

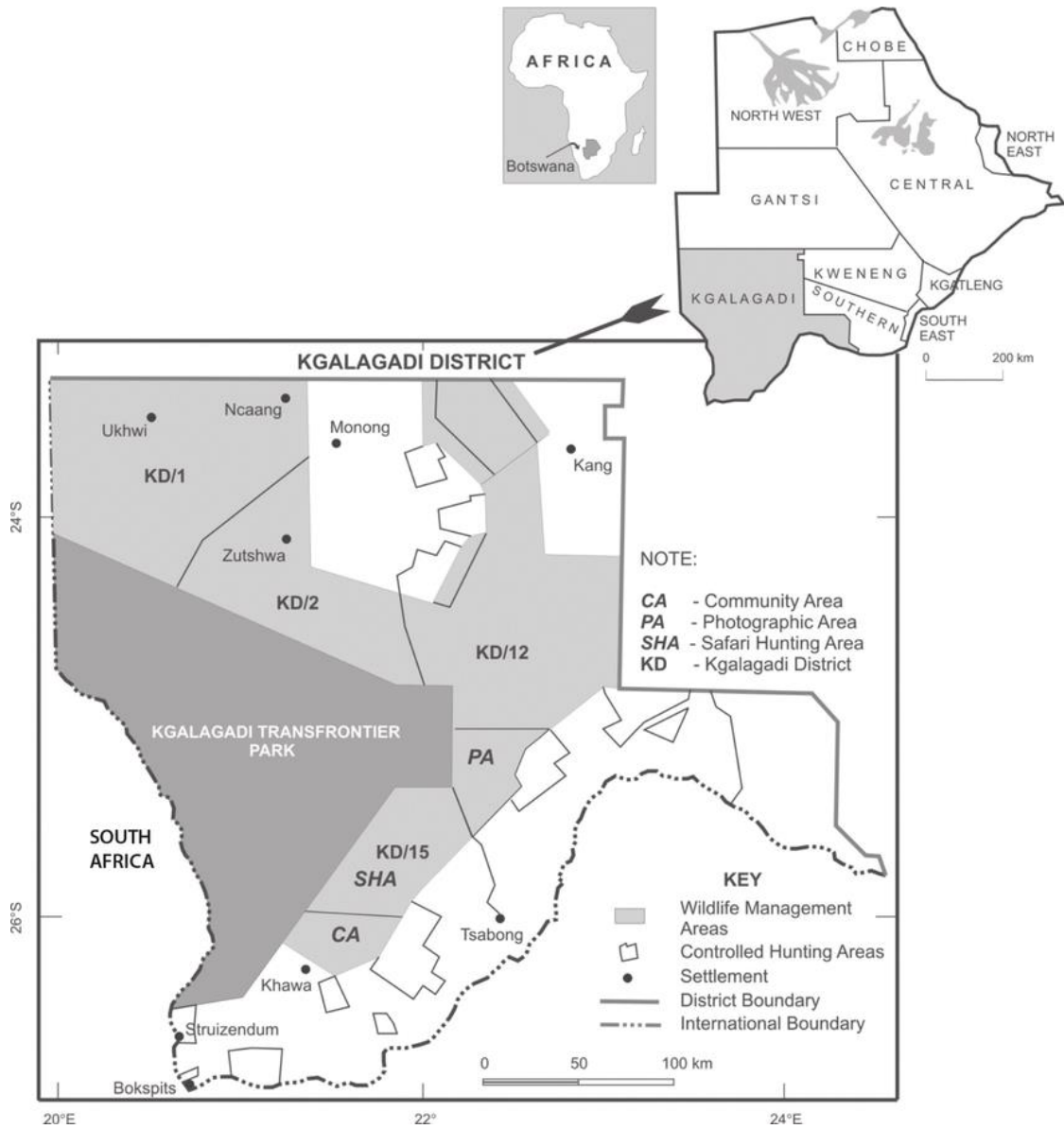


Figure 3. Area Map

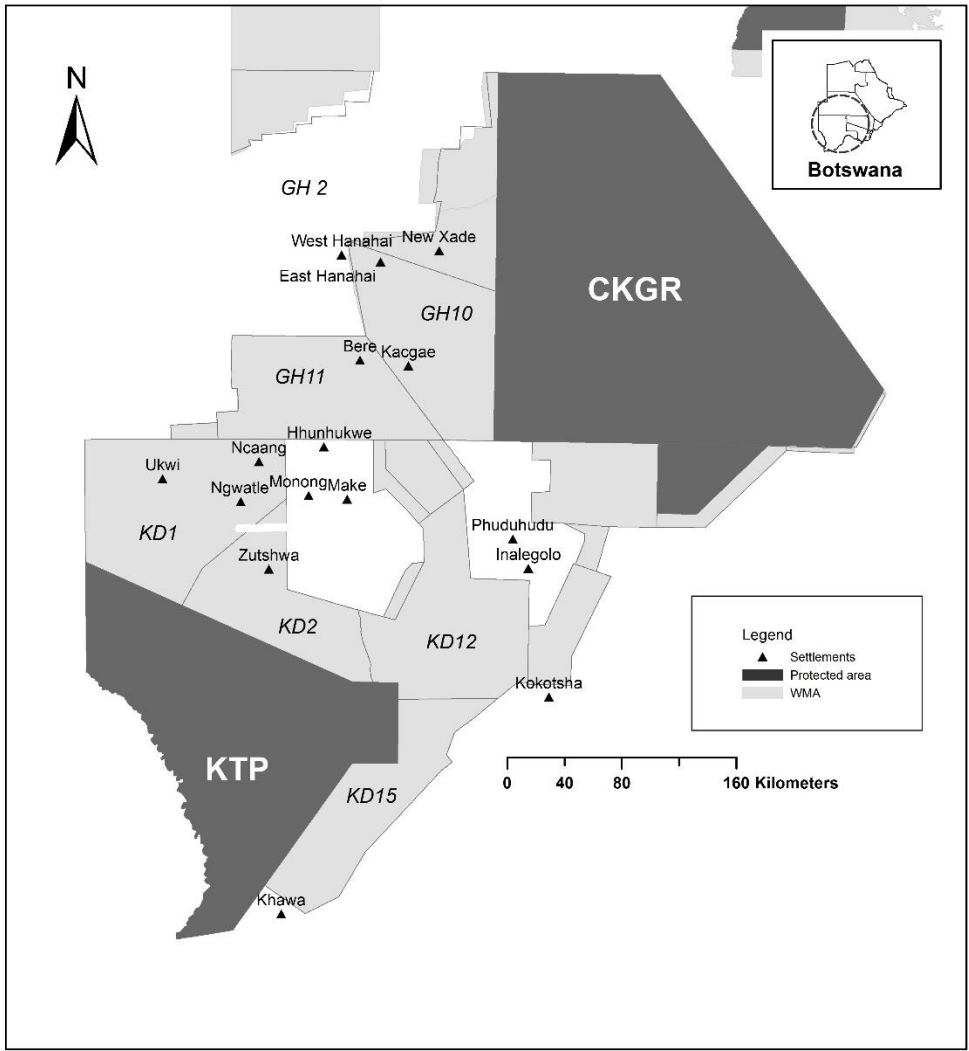


Figure 4. Area map

APPENDIX 4: INDIGENOUS PEOPLES PLANNING FRAMEWORK (IPPF)



*Empowered lives.
Resilient nations.*



Republic of Botswana



**INDIGENOUS PEOPLES PLANNING
FRAMEWORK (IPPF)**

KGALAGADI-GHANZI DRYLANDS ECOSYSTEM PROJECT (KGDEP)

GEF Project ID:	9154		
Country/Region:	Botswana		
Project Title:	Managing the human-wildlife interface to sustain the flow of agro-ecosystem services and prevent illegal wildlife trafficking in the Kgalagadi and Ghanzi Drylands		
GEF Agency:	UNDP	UNDP PIMS ID:	5590
Type of Trust Fund:	GEF Trust Fund	GEF 7 Focal Area (s):	Biodiversity (Child project: Global Wildlife Programme)
GEF-7 GWP Component (s):	1. Improved environment, natural resources, climate change governance, energy access, and disaster risk management		
	2. Anti-poaching, prevention of human-wildlife conflict, livelihoods enhancement, and capacity building of local institutions		
	3. solutions developed at national and sub-national levels for sustainable management of natural resources, ecosystem services		
	4. legal and regulatory frameworks, policies, and institutions enabled to ensure the conservation, sustainable use, access and benefit sharing of natural resources, biodiversity and ecosystems, in line with international conventions and national legislation, monitoring & evaluation		
Anticipated Financing PPG:		Project Grant:	USD 5,996,789.00
Co-financing:	Government: USD 21,000,000.00 UNDP: USD1,000,000 Birdlife Botswana \$500,000	Total Project Cost:	USD 28,496,789.00
UNDP Social and Environmental Screening Category: Low-moderate risk	UNDP Gender Marker: 2	LPAC Date: TBD	Atlas Project ID No 00103617
PIF Approval:		Council Approval/Expected:	
Expected Project Start Date:	1 May 2017	Expected Project End Date:	30 November 2024
Revisions	28 February 2023		

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ABS	Access and Benefit Sharing (Nagoya Protocol)
AAF	Affirmative Action Framework
BDF	Botswana Defense Force
BPS	Botswana Police Service
CBNRM	Community Based Natural Resource Management
CBO	Community-Based Organisation
CKGR	Central Kalahari Game Reserve
DLUPU	District Land Use Planning Unit
DWNP	Department of Wildlife and National Parks
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
ESIA	Environmental and Social Impact Assessment
ESMF	Environmental and Social Management Framework
ESMP	Environmental and Social Management Plan (UNDP)
ESF	Environmental and Social Framework (ESF)
FPIC	Free, Prior, and Informed Consent
FSL	Full Supply Level
GDC	Ghanzi District Council
GIS	Geographic Information System
GOB	Government of Botswana
GPS	Global Positioning System
GRM	Grievance Redress Mechanism
HWC	Human-wildlife conflict
IUCN	International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources
IWT	Illegal Wildlife Trade
KDC	Kgalagadi District Council
KGDEP	Kgalagadi and Ghanzi Drylands Ecosystems Project
KTP	Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park (Botswana, South Africa)
LCP	Local Communities Plan
LDP 1	Livestock Development Project 1 (World Bank)
LDP 2	Livestock Development Project 2 (World Bank)
LEA	Local Enterprise Authority
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MET	Ministry of Environment and Tourism
NGO	Non-government organization
NGPD	National Policy on Gender and Development
NSP	National Settlement Policy
NSP	National Spatial Plan
PAC	Problem Animal Control
PMU	Project Management Unit
RAC	Remote Area Community
RADP	Remote Area Development Programme
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SEP	Stakeholder Engagement Plan
SEMP	Strategic Environmental Management Plan
SES	Social and Environmental Standards (UNDP)
SESA	Strategic Social and Environmental Assessment

SESP	Social and Environmental Screening Procedure (UNDP)
SGL	Special Game License
SSAHULC	Sub-Saharan African Historically Underserved Communities (World Bank)
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
USD	United State Dollar
VADP	Village Area Development Programme
VDC	Village Development Committee (community)
WKCC	Western Kgalagadi Conservation Corridor
WMA	Wildlife Management Area

Executive Summary

This is the Indigenous Peoples Planning Framework (IPPF) for the GEF-UNDP Project titled Managing the human-wildlife interface to sustain the flow of agro-ecosystem services and prevent illegal wildlife trafficking in the Kgalagadi and Ghanzi Drylands Ecosystem (KGDEP). The KGDEP consists of 4 components: Component 1. Coordinating capacity for combating wildlife crime (including trafficking, poaching, and poisoning) and enforcement of wildlife policies and practices at district, national, and international levels; Component 2. Incentives and systems for wildlife protection by communities and increasing financial returns from natural resource exploitation and reducing human-wildlife-conflicts (HWC); Component 3. Integrated land use planning (ILUP) in the conservation areas and sustainable land use management (SLM) in communal lands, securing wildlife migratory corridors, and increasing productivity or rangelands respectively, reducing competition between land uses and increasing ecosystem integrity of the Kalahari ecosystem. Component 4. Gender mainstreaming, traditional ecological and scientific knowledge management, monitoring and evaluation (M&E), and ensuring the dissemination of project lessons. The project is being conducted in two districts of western Botswana: Ghanzi and Kgalagadi, covering approximately 224,850 km². There are some 24,625 people in the two districts who self-identify as indigenous of a total 118,087 residents in 2022. The number of groups who are classified by the United Nations as Indigenous is 15, 13 of them San, one Nama, and one Balala. They reside in 30 Remote Area settlements in the western Kalahari Region.

The application of the UNDP Social and Environmental Screening Procedure (SESP) identified 17 potential social and environmental risks associated with this Project. Seven of these risks are ranked as Substantial and ten are rated as Moderate. The overall rating of the project from a UNDP and Government of Botswana standpoint is Substantial. This report lays out mitigation measures for coping with the risks that have been identified.

Chapter 1. Introduction

The United Nations Development Programme – government of Botswana project titled ‘Managing the human-wildlife interface to sustain the flow of agro-ecosystem services and prevent illegal wildlife trafficking in the Kgalagadi and Ghanzi Drylands’ is a USD 28,496,789 project aimed at promoting wildlife conservation, reducing land and range degradation, reducing competition between the wildlife and livestock sectors, reducing human-wildlife conflict (HWC), reducing illegal wildlife exploitation, illegal wildlife trade (IWT), improving coordination and capacity of the Department of Wildlife and National Parks, and enhancing the livelihoods and well-being of some 30 remote area communities.

Accordingly, a consultant was engaged to undertake an Environmental and Social Impact Assessment (ESIA) and to develop an Environmental and Social Management Framework (ESMF) and Environmental and Social Management Plan (ESMP), including a Grievance Redress Mechanism and incorporating any other activity-specific management plans such as a Livelihoods Action Plan and Indigenous People’s Plan. This work is being carried out in Kgalagadi and Ghanzi Drylands region of Botswana, an area of some 220,500 km². This heterogeneous area is made up of two districts, Ghanzi and Kgalagadi which used to be the Western State Lands of Botswana. These two districts make up about 38% of Botswana’s total land area of 581,720 km². The region is complex, comprising two large, protected areas, the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park (KTP) (37,991 km²) and the Central Kalahari Game Reserve (CKGR) (52,730 km²), between which are 7 Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs), commercial ranching areas, communal land, and approximately 30 remote area communities (RACs). There are land use and conservation conflicts between people who live in the area, some of whom are former hunter-gatherers, subsistence-oriented livestock producers, and commercial ranchers.

From the standpoint of local communities in the area, the community trusts that were established under the Botswana’s government’s community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) policy have faced constraints since the implementation of the country-wide hunting ban in 2014 (Republic of Botswana 2014) and the more recent coronavirus pandemic, which has seriously affected tourism and travel since March of 2020. Some of the objectives of the KGDEP project are to reduce poverty (SDG 1), improve food security (SDG 2), improve economic growth and promote decent work (SDG 8), protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, halt or reverse land degradation and biodiversity loss (SDG 15), and promote peaceful and inclusive development (SDG 16).

In order to achieve these goals, the project aims to increase benefits to community trusts and village members, expand employment and incomes, and to diversify livelihoods. Data from the Department of Wildlife and National Parks reveal that there have been arrests made over the past decade for contravening Botswana’s wildlife conservation laws. Concerns of the Ministry of Environment, Wildlife, Natural Resources, Conservation, and Tourism (MENT) include illegal wildlife exploitation, human-wildlife conflict, illegal wildlife trade (IWT), and the reductions in the number of key species in the area. There are particular concerns about wildlife species that are considered critically endangered including black rhinoceros (*Diceros bicornis*), endangered (e.g. wild dog, *Lycaon pictus*), and vulnerable (e.g. cheetah, *Acinonyx jubatus*, brown hyena, *Hyaena brunnea*, and Temminck’s pangolin, *Manis temminckii*) (see Smithers 1971).² Human groups occupy virtually all of the western Kalahari with the exception of the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park.

² Smithers, Reay H.N. (1971) *The Mammals of Botswana*. Museum Memoir No. 4. Salisbury (Harare); Trustees of the National Museums of Rhodesia (Zimbabwe).

Chapter 2. Biophysical and Socioeconomic Environment

The Kgalagadi-Ghanzi drylands supports a wide range of wildlife species, including large herbivores that move from the southwest to the northeast and back again, depending on seasonal and longer-term rainfall patterns. A common characterization of the Kalahari Desert region of Southern Africa is that it is a 'thirstland,' implying that water availability is a serious problem for human, wildlife, livestock, plant, and insect populations. This is particularly true of the south western Kalahari, which generally lacks surface water except after rains. In the past, prior to the introduction of deep wells and boreholes that tapped sub-surface (ground) water, people had to rely on water found in natural springs, water in holes in trees or exploit wild plants such as melons and roots to provide moisture. Surface water was essentially a short-term treat after rains. San, Nama, and Bakgalagadi populations in the south western Kalahari were also known to use a labor-intensive water-collection strategy: sip-wells (*tsàho* or //tanata in !Xóǀ, !kaen in G/ui, *mamuno* in Sekgalagadi). The distribution of remote area settlements in Kgalagadi District largely reflects the location of pans where water can be found and where in the past sip-wells were used, a practice that is no longer as commonly as it once was.

From a physiographic standpoint, the south western Kalahari region is largely flat and is characterized in some areas by east-west trending sand dunes and rolling vegetation-covered savanna countryside that is dotted with pans. The pans are shallow depressions formed by wind erosion that tend to have flat, impenetrable basins in which clays, silts, and salts accumulate. The pans are utilized by wildlife seeking salts and other nutritious materials and water in the rainy season. The Ghanzi Ridge, stretching from the Botswana-Namibia border west to the Tsau Hills, is characterized by quartzite and limestone outcrops and a relatively high water table.

The western Kalahari is a relatively dry region, with rainfall being relatively erratic in space and time. Rainfall in the area varies between 150 and 400 mm per annum, with an average of 300 mm but which varies both seasonally and on a daily basis. The wet season (ʼ||nāhu in !Xóǀ) lasts from roughly November to April. The highest annual temperatures are reached in early spring (late August-October) between 33° and 43° degrees C. (92°-110° degrees F.). Water loss via evaporation is highest during this time of year. The period of greatest stress for most species in the central, western, and south western Kalahari is the late dry season, generally in September-October.

Vegetation

The vegetation of the south western Kalahari region is characterized as southern Kalahari bush savanna and Central Kalahari bush savanna. The main tree species are *Acacia (Vachellia) erioloba*, *Acacia giraffae*, and *Acacia mellifera*, and *Boscia albitrunca* along with some *Terminalia sericea*. Shrubs include various *Grewia* species (e.g. *Grewia flava*, *Grewia retinervis*), *Dichrostachys cenearea*, *Ziziphus mucronata*, and *Bauhinia macrantha*. The greatest density of trees and shrubs is on the sand ridges and on the fringes of pans. Some of the grasses include *Eragrostis lehmanniana*, *Aristida uniplumis*, *Schmidtia bulbosa*, *Panicum kalahariense*, and *Aristida meridionalis* (Skarpe.1986a, b; Thomas and Shaw 1991)

Fauna

There is a plethora of wildlife in the south western Kalahari. Antelope species in the area generally are ones that can cope with dry conditions and they migrate from one area to the next. These antelopes include

hartebeest (*Alcelaphus buselaphus*), springbok (*Antidorcus marsupialis*), eland (*Taurotragus oryx*), and wildebeest (*Connochaetes taurinus*). Giraffes (*Giraffa camelopardis*) are found in the dryland areas as well. The wildlife in the western and south western Kalahari includes the full range of predators such as lions (*Panthera leo*), spotted hyena (*Crocuta crocuta*), brown hyena (*Hyaena brunnea*), cheetah (*Acionyx jubatus*), and leopard (*Panthera pardus*). Some pan areas have ground squirrels (*Xenus inauris*) and meerkats (*Suricata suricatta*) as well as small cats (e.g. the black-footed cat, *Felix nigripes*) and mice. There has been an increase in the numbers of elephants (*Loxodonta africana*) visiting the area, especially in the past several years. Elephants are considered vulnerable by the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN). The fauna in the area also includes lizards, tortoises, snakes, and insects.

Avifauna

The southwestern Kalahari is known for its diverse avifauna (birds), some of which ‘follow the rains’ (e.g. Kalahari larks, Alaudidae) (Maclean 1970). Some of the birds of the southwestern Kalahari are considered vulnerable according to the IUCN, including several species of vultures, (e.g. African white-backed vulture, *Gyps africanus*, the Cape vulture, *Gyps coprotheres*, and the lappet-faced vulture, *Torgos tracheliotis*). Also vulnerable are the black harrier (*Circus maurus*), the pallid harrier (*Circus macrourus*), and the lesser kestrel (*Falco naumanni*), and several species of cranes.

Hydrogeology and Geomorphology

The hydrogeology of the Ghanzi and Kgalagadi Districts varies over space. There are places, such as on the Ghanzi Ridge, where minerals such as copper and silver are found. In the central and southern Kalahari there are kimberlite pipes indicating the presence of diamonds (e.g. Ghaghoo, Tsabong, and Kolonkwaneng) (Moore and Roberts 2022). There are fossil river valleys in Ghanzi, including Groot Laagte, Hanahai, and Okwa Valley which extends into the Central Kalahari. The southern boundaries of Botswana are marked by the Nossob and Molopo Rivers, both of which are transboundary rivers. The kinds of water systems that exist in the Kgalagadi-Ghanzi Drylands include the following:

- Sipwells
- Springs
- Wells
- Boreholes
- Rivers
- Portable Rain Harvesters (PRH) (Central Kalahari)

In addition to valuable minerals, there is a variety of plants which have both subsistence and commercial value (see Table 7). Some of these plants include Devils Claw (*Harpagophytum procumbens*) and Kalahari truffles (*Terfezia pfeilii*). Livestock graze not only on grasses but they also browse. Small stock (sheep and goats) browse on shrubs. Wild ungulates may specialize on grasses (e.g. zebra) and there are ones (e.g. kudu) that both graze and browse). Some of the challenges in the southwestern Kalahari are the removal of grass cover by livestock and wild animals and removal of shrubs and trees by humans, leading to environmental degradation and desertification, which in turn leads to mobilization of sand dunes and dust emission

The western Kalahari is also an ideal location to investigate the interactions between human societies and the natural environment, due to the varieties of land use existing within the gradient, including i) Parks and nature reserves; ii) Private holdings, and iii) Communal Lands with grazing gradients associated with the

proximity to boreholes. This land-use variability exists within a single nation, thus simplifying the study of the human-environment interactions in the area. Approximately three-quarters of Botswana is made up of the semi-arid Kalahari Desert (Thomas and Shaw 1991), meaning that the government of Botswana is also highly invested in management of this region.

Human Populations

The population of the Ghanzi Drylands region is diverse; it consists of Batswana, Bakgalagadi, Herero, Mbanderu, Kalanga, Nama, San, Balala and Europeans. The Bakgalagadi, who have been in the region for some 2,000 years, include Bakgwatheng, Babolangwe, Bangologa, Baphaleng and Bashaga (Kuper 1970). Herero and Mbanderu are found in Ghanzi, Kang, Nojane, and Tsabong, among other villages in Ghanzi and Kgalagadi Districts. Nama are found in Bokspits and scattered in Kgalagadi District. Some Nama had escaped into what is now the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park during the German-Nama-Herero wars of 1904-1907 and later were moved out of the park. There have been changes in the demographic composition of some parts of the Ghanzi-Kgalagadi drylands; for example, farm laborers in the Ghanzi Farms now include Zimbabweans and some Namibians. The total number of remote area communities that are gazetted under Botswana’s Remote Area Community (RAC) program is 30. The various studies that have been conducted are presented below

Table A. Preliminary assessments conducted and existing studies

Assessment	Name of the Document, status
Gender assessment	Gender Action Plan, completed
Stakeholder analysis	Stakeholder Engagement Plan, completed
Cultural Heritage Impact Assessment	CH Impact Assessment, to be updated upon project inception
Free Prior and Informed Consent	FPIC Report completed (Bradley 2022)

In broad terms, indigenous peoples in Botswana refer to Khoesan (Khoisan) peoples, including the San, who belong to over 30 named, self-identified groups, along with the Nama, and the Balala. Other groups in Botswana would fit the World Bank’s criteria of Sub-Saharan African historically underserved Traditional Local Communities (ESS7) (World Bank 2018), such as the Mbanderu and Herero.

The government and many members of Botswana public – the Batswana -- generally refer to the San as Basarwa, while the government identifies them as Remote Area Dwellers. Botswana does not disaggregate its population along the lines of ethnicity, and as a result population estimates for the various groups are limited. The total population in Botswana of people who are considered to be Remote Area Dwellers is approximately 77,000.³

San is a collective name for a wide range of peoples living throughout Botswana. As mentioned previously, Batswana and some government officials refer to San peoples as Basarwa, a term that San and remote area dwellers reject. Today some San say that they prefer to use the term ‘Bushmen’ to refer to themselves, while others prefer individual group names, such as |Ani, G//ana, and G/ui. They self-identify as San or Bushmen at international meetings such as the United Nations Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues (UNPFII). All of them speak languages containing several click consonants and have a history of hunting and gathering.

³ Steven Ludick, Director, Department of Community Development, Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development, personal communications, 2020, 2021, 2022.

Some San in western Botswana work as cattle herders (*badisa*) mainly for Batswana, Bakgalagadi, and Europeans. The Bakgalagadi have a different pattern of residence and land use than do most San, with home villages surrounded by fields (*masimo*) and in some cases distant cattle posts (*meraka*).

The San of the study area belong to three different language groups: (1) Khoe-Kwadi, (2) Kx'a, and (3) Tuu according to linguist Tom Güldemann.⁴ The Nama, who reside primarily in the Kgalagadi District, speak Khoekhoe or Khoekhoegowab, a sub-group of the Khoe-Kwadi language family. Nama are also found in Namibia and South Africa and thus are a trans-boundary group. In these languages, each click consonant can combine with a number of different articulations, such as nasality, voicing, aspiration, and ejection, thus producing a large number of consonantal sounds. Nama has 20, G/ui has 52, and !Xóǀ has 80. The Naro, like the of Xóǀ and the †X'ao-||'aen are transboundary people, which means that they come under two different sets of government policies, those of Botswana and Namibia.

In addition to linguistic similarities, the San and Nama have a number of cultural and socioeconomic similarities. These include a history of mobility, foraging, and utilization of territories ranging from roughly 200 to 5,000 km² in area. Historically, all of them resided in groups, known as bands, ranging from 25-80 persons in number. The bands are linked through blood [kinship] ties, marriage, friendship, and sharing of gifts and sometimes services. There are large marriage pools which essentially are supra-regional networks consisting of up to 500 people related to one another that stretch across large areas. All of them have a strong sense of territorial land use and management which they define as 'ownership.' They all have knowledgeable individuals in each community who oversee land use and natural resource management. At the same time, each group has strong rules about sharing of meat, wild plants, and other resources. Many of these sharing rules for land and resources still exist today.

The indigenous groups are all largely egalitarian socially, economically, and politically, though some differences in social equality have begun to be seen. It is important to note, however, that leadership roles have always existed in all of these groups. The roles have become institutionalized over time, with some influential individuals becoming headmen and headwomen who oversee customary courts and have the power to resolve local disputes. These individuals are generally guided by a strong sense of ethics and morality that is drawn from their belief systems about the ways that the world should work. They are also very aware of their environments and do what they can to ensure sustainable natural resource use, though sometimes overuse of resources does occur, particularly when large groups of people come together for marriage ceremonies or for honoring the memory of one of their number who has passed away. Virtually all San, Nama, and Balala have beliefs in an afterlife and in a spiritual being who influences their lives, including those who practice religions such as Christianity, Islam, and other religions.

The San and Nama have a shared history of marginalization, discrimination, and what they see as unjust treatment at the hands of other groups and the nation-state of Botswana. Historically, some of the members of these groups were viewed as '*bolata*', serfs or servants who lacked the same rights as other groups. In the past they did not have the right to speak in public meetings (*dikgotla*). They sometimes did not receive pay for their labor. They sometimes experienced corporal punishment for perceived transgressions, and they were moved without their permission from one place to another (Tlou and Campbell 1997:74-80, 99-100).⁵

⁴ Tom Güldemann, personal communication, November 2021. See also Güldemann, Tom (2014) 'Khoisan' linguistic classification today. In *Beyond 'Khoisan': Historical Relations in the Kalahari Basin*. Tom Güldemann and Anne-Maria Fehn, eds. pp. 1-44. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

⁵ Tlou, Thomas and Alec Campbell (1997) *History of Botswana*. Gaborone: Macmillan Botswana Publishing.

Many San have experienced dispossession of their ancestral lands throughout the country in the late 19th, 20th, and 21st centuries. In Ghanzi, San and Bakgalagadi were relocated out of the Central Kalahari District Council out of Ranyane and moved to another remote area settlement in 2013. These relocations, which local people said were involuntary, resulted in legal cases brought against the Botswana government. In the case of the CKGR, the government lost the case in 2006 and people returned to the Central Kalahari. These cases would have triggered UNDP SES Standard 5: Displacement and Resettlement⁶ and UNDP SES Standard 6: Indigenous Peoples.⁷ There continues to be concern among remote area communities in western Botswana that they will be relocated as a result of government and district council decisions regarding land use.

There are a number of government institutions, policies, and programmes that are relevant to Botswana's indigenous peoples. While the Botswana constitution does not contain specific reference to indigenous peoples, it does state specifically that all of the country's citizens have basic human rights and fundamental freedoms. Beginning in 1974, the government of Botswana engaged in development activities on behalf of the people then labeled Bushmen in a program known initially as the Bushmen Development Programme. Perhaps the most important method employed by personnel in this programme was to encourage Bushmen to speak for themselves, a process that the Bushmen Development Officer referred to as "politicization." The Bushmen, who felt that they were seriously marginalized, began calling for equal rights, particularly rights to land. Some Bushmen said that they wanted to be seen as full members of the national polity of Botswana.

Although the focus initially was on Bushmen, later the target group expanded to include other groups living outside of villages. Extra Rural Dwellers, later called Remote Area Dwellers (RADs) were defined initially as follows: Game Reserve in 1997, 2002, and 2005) (Sapignoli 2018).

They are rural citizens who (a) are poor (below the Poverty Datum Line), (b) live outside villages (or on the fringes), (c) are generally non-livestock owners, (d) depend at least partially on hunting and gathering for daily subsistence, (e) are often culturally or linguistically distinct (Minute to the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Local Government and Lands [MLGL], LG 1/3, 4 April 1977).

It was clear from this definition that there were other people besides Bushmen who were in need of assistance and who met specific criteria. The Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Local Government and Lands (MLGL, later MLGLH) agreed with this approach and recommended to the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning that the name and target group of the program be changed officially (MLGL file LG 1/3 VII [(79), 7 July 1977). At the suggestion of then Vice President Ketumile Masire, the name given to the expanded program was the Remote Area Development Program (RADP) which came into being in 1978.

The decision to broaden the definition of Remote Area Dwellers to include "all people living outside organized village settlements" was important in that it underscored the government of Botswana's commitment to a multiethnic set of policies in which all citizens have equal rights, something stated frequently in government white papers (for example, the Tribal Grazing Land White Paper⁸ and national

⁶ United Nations Development Programme (2020) *UNDP SES Standard 5. Displacement and Resettlement*. New York: United Nations Development Programme.

⁷ United Nations Development Programme (2021) *UNDP Social and Environmental Standards. Standard 6: Indigenous Peoples*. New York: United Nations Development Programme.

⁸ Republic of Botswana (1975) *National Policy on Tribal Grazing Land*. Government Paper No. 2. Gaborone: Government Printer.

development plans.)⁹ The recent changes in the Botswana constitution kept the statements on human rights and fundamental freedoms of all people in Botswana, including the right to land.

The Remote Area Development Program was housed in the then Ministry of Local Government and Lands; today, it is in the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (MLGRD). Funds for development of Remote Area Dwellers and Remote Area Communities (RACs) were set aside under a government financial institution in the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning (MFDP) known as LG 32 (later called LG 127). Funds were also allocated to the 7 districts that had Remote Area Dwellers, including Ghanzi District and Kgalagadi District.

Seven of Botswana's 10 districts have Remote Area Development Programme offices in which Remote Area Development Officers (RADOs) are housed. These offices are now part of the District Councils, administrative units of the Botswana government, each of which has a set of officers to address specific areas. The Remote Area Development Officers work alongside Assistant Social and Community Development Officers (S & CD officers) who were associated at one time with the Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs. In the field the RADOs had several responsibilities: ensuring that children were able to get to schools, helping to deliver destitute rations and drought relief food, and working on district and local planning for the establishment of activities aimed at helping local people in terms of agriculture, livestock, and small businesses. In the latter case the businesses were primarily income generating projects associated with craft production but later they were expanded to include ecotourism, beekeeping and honey sales, charcoal production, and other livelihood activities.

The Remote Area Development Programme attempted to come up with a means of getting around the problem of land not being allocated to specific groups, which had been the problem facing Basarwa/San and other minorities for generations.¹⁰ One way of ensuring that remote area minorities got land was to have the district land boards set aside areas for settlements. The first district where these kinds of schemes were planned was Ghanzi in western Botswana, an area where the Bushmen Development Officer had commissioned a study of the Ghanzi Basarwa to be undertaken in 1975-76.¹¹ These surveys laid the foundation for what we see today in Ghanzi District.

Unfortunately, several problems arose with the settlement schemes. The first one revolved around the size of the area to be allocated. While it was held that the area should be large enough to support a sizable population based on diverse production systems, with room enough for growth, the Ghanzi District Council decided to allocate blocks of land 20 X 20 kilometers in size (400 km² in area) for the proposed settlements at West and East Hanahai. As populations of humans and livestock grew, these areas turned out to be too small. They were not adjusted, however, to fit population needs. A second problem was that the central government of Botswana was reluctant to provide for security of tenure over the land to which people had been moved. This continues to be a major problem for people living in communal areas and in Wildlife Management Areas. A major problem relating to the RAD settlements was that they were open to anyone in the country who wanted to settle there. Thus, local people tended to get squeezed out by wealthier groups who came in with their livestock and who had the funds to start businesses like small general dealerships. According to many residents of Ghanzi and Kgalagadi remote area communities, there is still a problem of

⁹ See, for example, Republic of Botswana (2017) *Botswana National Development Plan 11 (2017-2023)*. Gaborone: Ministry of Finance and Development Planning.

¹⁰ Wily, Elizabeth A. (1979) *Official Policy Towards San (Bushmen) Hunter-Gatherers in Modern Botswana: 1966-1978*. Gaborone, Botswana: National Institute of Development and Cultural Research.

¹¹ Childers, Gary W. (1976) *Report on the Survey/Investigation of the Ghanzi Farm Basarwa Situation*. Gaborone, Botswana: Government Printer.

differential allocation by the Ghanzi and Kgalagadi Land Boards, an issue that they say they want investigated by the government Ombudsman or by the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development.

Remote Area Dweller settlements were not necessarily gazetted settlements under the government's National Settlement Policy (NSP), which added to the uncertain land tenure status. The National Settlement Policy of 1998 stipulates that communities having 500 or more people within a distance of 15 kilometers can be gazetted (made legal under government policy) and therefore can receive central and district government support for development activities.¹² Those settlements that either had fewer than 500 people or which were considered to be in cattle post (grazing) areas were not seen as having the same status as gazetted settlements.

The Remote Area Dweller settlements, of which there are 67 currently in Botswana,¹³ did, however, get social and physical infrastructure, much of it provided by donor funds, especially SIDA (Swedish International Development Agency) and NORAD (the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation), some of this work being undertaken under the Accelerated Remote Area Development Program (ARADP) which lasted from 1998 to 1996.¹⁴ Since that time, government has covered the costs of development and infrastructure in the remote area communities. The RAD settlements in Botswana usually have some or all of the following assets:

- borehole and storage tank standpipes for collection of water by residents
- water reticulation (pipes) health post or clinic
government offices (district administration) and government guest house
kgotla (meeting place)
chief's or headman's office
- tribal police office
school
- hostels for school children
teachers' quarters (homes for teachers)
- agricultural fields
kraal (corral) for lost cattle (*matimela*)

All of these materials were provided by the government of Botswana in the various settlements, some of the funding for which was obtained from the Norwegian Agency for International Development and the Swedish Agency for International Development.

Legal and Institutional Framework Relating to Remote Area Communities

There are three main Botswana government policy documents relating specifically to remote area populations. These are as follows:

¹² Republic of Botswana (1998) *National Settlement Policy*. Government Paper No. 2 of 1998. Gaborone, Botswana: Government Printer.

¹³ Ludick, Steven (2018) Botswana Report. In *Sub-Regional Workshop on Inclusive Development for San People in the Framework of the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, 3-5 December 2018, Windhoek, Namibia*. Windhoek: Minorities Communities Division, Office of the President, and New York: United Nations Department of Social and Economic Affairs (UNDESA).

¹⁴ Chr. Michelsen Institute (1996) *NORAD's Support of the Remote Area Development Programme in Botswana (RADP) in Botswana*. Bergen, Norway: Chr. Michelsen Institute, University of Bergen, Bergen, Norway, Oslo, Norway: Royal Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Gaborone, Botswana: Ministry of Local Government, Lands, and Housing.

- Republic of Botswana (2000) *Remote Area Development Program Operational Guidelines*. Gaborone, Botswana: Government Printer.
- Republic of Botswana (2009) *Revised Remote Area Development Programme (RADP)*. Ministry of Local Government, February 2009. Gaborone, Botswana: Republic of Botswana.15
- Republic of Botswana (2014) *Affirmative Action Framework for Remote Area Communities, 16th July 2014*. Gaborone: Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development.

The Botswana government never issued a formal white paper on indigenous peoples or on the Remote Area Development Programme even though a draft of one developed by the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development was discussed at Cabinet level in the 1990s. The revised Remote Area Development Programme of 2009 and the Affirmative Action Framework of 2014 are not very specific about the land issues facing Remote Area Dwellers in particular, saying members of a remote area community have the same rights as other people to apply for land in remote area settlements. The openness and lack of specificity about issues such as the gazettelement of remote area communities as settlements has left open the possibility of members of other groups moving into the remote area communities and utilizing the water, grazing, and other resources in these places, a subject of major concern to indigenous and other communities. Land use competition is on the rise in all of the communal and Wildlife Management Areas of the two districts.¹⁶

Land has been set aside by the Ghanzi and Kgalagadi Land Boards in the form of settlements for remote area communities. These settlements follow the guidelines of the government of Botswana on distances from existing settlements as spelled out in the National Settlement Policy and other land-related documents of the government of Botswana. There is no mention whatsoever of Remote Area Dweller land needs and rights in the 2015 Botswana government land policy.¹⁷ Those remote area communities that have applied for land under the 2015 Land Policy have not been granted any land, unlike individuals, some of them well-to-do, who have applied for land. Such issues have been raised by Botswana citizens and representatives of Botswana San non-government organizations at the meetings of the United Nations Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues (UNPFII) in New York and in UN and International Labour Organization meetings in Geneva numerous times in the past decade, and at regional meetings on San inclusive development such as the one held from 3-5 December 2018 in Windhoek. Some of these meetings were convened by the Working Group of Indigenous Minorities in Southern Africa and some by the governments of Botswana and Namibia. Others were convened by local non-government organizations such as the Kuru Family of Organizations and Ditshwanelo, the Botswana Center for Human rights.

In addition to indigenous peoples in the project area there are also vulnerable groups, including some voluntary isolated hunting and gathering peoples (VIIPs) in remote parts of the Ghanzi District. Vulnerable groups also include women, girls, and youth, orphans, the elderly, and people with disabilities. Some of these vulnerable groups receive assistance through the Botswana government's social safety net

¹⁵ Republic of Botswana (2009) *Revised Remote Area Development Programme (RADP)*. Ministry of Local Government, February 2009. Gaborone, Botswana: Republic of Botswana. See especially pp. 9-10. See also Republic of Botswana (2014) *Affirmative Action Framework for Remote Area Communities, 16th July 2014*. Gaborone: Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development, p. 9.

¹⁶ Keeping, Derek, Zaneta Kaszta, and Samuel A. Cashman (2022) *Kalahari Wildlife Landscape Connectivity Analysis Phase 2 (Final) Report*. Gaborone, Botswana: United Nations Development Programme.

¹⁷ Republic of Botswana (2015) *Botswana Land Policy*. Government Paper No. 4 of 2015. Gaborone: Botswana Government Printer.

programmes, some of which are spelled out in the national policy on destitute persons.¹⁸ There are also people who have HIV/AIDS and ones with drug-resistant tuberculosis who are assisted through government programmes sponsored by the Ministry of Health and Wellness and the District Health Teams. Voluntary isolated indigenous peoples, however, are beyond the range of government programmes.

A recent area of concern has been the COVID-19 pandemic, which led the government to mount a whole series of lockdowns, dissemination of information, and provision of soap, hand sanitizer, and personal protective equipment beginning in late March 2020. Various organizations in Botswana have undertaken gap analyses to determine the statuses of vulnerable groups and to recommend assistance.¹⁹ In addition to the COVID-19 epidemic, there have been concerns about gender violence and abuse of youth, particularly at school hostels, an issue highlighted by the Botswana Khwedom Council and the San Youth Network (SYNET) in 2020.²⁰ The Department of Social Protection and UNICEF Botswana have raised the issue of violence against women and youth, as have various government agencies, including the Ministry of Nationality, Immigration and Gender Affairs and the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sport, and Culture Development (MYSC).²¹

Botswana is a signatory of the Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples that was passed in the United Nations in September 2007 and is a party to a number of other treaties and declarations relevant to indigenous peoples (see Box 1). Botswana has not, however, signed the International Labour Organization (ILO) Convention 169 which is the only international convention directly focused on indigenous people. It is important to note that Botswana has supported the African Commission of Human and People's Rights' position on group rights and peoples' rights in meetings of the Universal Periodic Review (UPR) of the United Nations. Indigenous people from Botswana have attended the meetings of the Working Group on Indigenous Populations/Communities in Africa held in the Gambia and elsewhere in Africa over the past 20 years.²²

Indigenous peoples and vulnerable groups have both been very active in terms of asking the government of Botswana to treat them equally and to address their specific human rights concerns. What remote area dwellers want is for Botswana to carefully consider the concept of juridical personality, which is the recognition of a group, association, or organization of indigenous peoples within the legal system whereby both individuals and organizations have certain rights, protection privileges, responsibilities, and liabilities in law.²³ The Remote Area Development Programme does not have a White Paper devoted to it by the Government of Botswana, and the government has yet to pass national-level legislation addressing remote area communities. However, the government did pass a National Language Policy that included mother tongue language instruction in 2022.

This Indigenous Peoples Planning Framework has been prepared in line with UNDP's Social and Environmental Standards (SES) Policy, which came into effect 1 January 2016 and was updated in January

¹⁸ Republic of Botswana (2002) *Revised National Policy on Destitute Persons*. Gaborone: Government Printer.

¹⁹ See Child Frontiers (2020a) *Mapping and Capacity Gap Analysis: Strengthening the social service workforce to prevent and respond to violence against children in Botswana*. Gaborone: Child Frontiers.

²⁰ Hitchcock, R.K. and J. Frost (2021). Botswana. In *Indigenous World 2021*, Dwayne Mamo, ed. Pp. 37-47. Copenhagen: International Work Group for Indigenous Affairs.

²¹ Child Frontiers (2020b) *Protecting Children of Nomadic Groups in Botswana*. Gaborone: Child Frontiers and UNICEF, May 2020.

²² See Valérie Couillard and Jérémie Gilbert (2022) *The Working Group on Indigenous Populations/Communities in Africa: Celebrating 20 years of Indigenous leadership, standard setting and sensitization*. Copenhagen: International Working Group for Indigenous Affairs.

²³ Adriano, Elvia Arcelia Quintana (2015) The Natural Person, Legal Entity or Juridical Person and Juridical Personality. *Penn State Journal of Law and International Affairs* 4(1):365-393.

2021.²⁴ It has also been prepared in line with the updated SES policy that came into effect on 1 January 2021. These standards underpin UNDP's commitment to ensure protection of indigenous peoples. They are an integral component of UNDP's quality assurance and risk management approach to programming. Through the SES, UNDP meets the requirements of the GEF's Environmental and Social Safeguards Policy.

The objectives of the UNDP SES are to:

- Strengthen the social and environmental outcomes of Programs and Projects.
- Avoid adverse impacts to people and the environment.
- Minimize, mitigate, and manage adverse impacts where avoidance is not possible.
- Strengthen UNDP and partner capacities for managing social and environmental risks.
- Ensure full and effective stakeholder engagement, including through the development of a mechanism to respond to complaints from project-affected people.

In accordance with UNDP SES policy, the Social and Environmental Screening Procedure (SESP) was applied to the Project during the project development phase (both at Project Identification and Project Grant Preparation stages). In addition, in accordance with that policy, an SES principle or standard is 'triggered' when a potential risk is identified and assessed as having either a 'moderate' or 'high' risk-rating based on its probability of occurrence and extent of impact. Risks are assessed as 'low' if they do not trigger the related principle or standard. In the case of this project, the overall rating initially was low, but has been upgraded to substantial risk in this assessment.

The KGDEP aims to mainstream human rights, gender equality and women's empowerment, and ensure equitable access to benefits from wildlife resources. Careful attention was paid to UNDP's SES Standard 6 on Indigenous Peoples in the current assessment.²⁵ Impact risk assessments were undertaken using the Social and Environmental Screening Procedure to identify and assess both the probability and the impact of risks posed by the project.

The project includes key measures to ensure effective and meaningful participation and Free Prior Informed Consent (FPIC) through an ad hoc protocol to be used throughout the project to seek and obtain consent on any activity linked with the identified risks. Culturally appropriate consultations have been and will be continuously carried out with the objective of achieving agreement and FPIC is ensured on any matters that may affect—positively or negatively—the indigenous peoples' rights and interests, lands, territories, resources, traditional livelihoods, and/or tangible and intangible Cultural Heritage. Project activities that may adversely affect the existence, value, use or enjoyment of indigenous lands, resources or territories will not be conducted unless agreement has been achieved through the FPIC process.²⁶

The FPIC process has started during PPG and the consent to participate to the project activities was collected. The FPIC process' primary goal at the beginning of the project will be to confirm Indigenous Peoples' participation in the implementation of the pilot projects in the sites where these communities could be affected. If the indigenous communities decide not to confirm their participation in the Project, an eligibility process will be carried out to establish alternative pilot interventions that comply with the

²⁴ United Nations Development Programme (2016) *Guidance Note: UNDP Social and Environmental Standards. Social and Environmental Assessment and Management*. New York: United Nations Development Programme. Updated 2021.

²⁵ United Nations Development Programme (2021) *UNDP Social and Environmental Standards. Standard 6: Indigenous Peoples*. New York: United Nations Development Programme. Updated 2021.

²⁶ UNDP seeks to provide technical and financial support to the indigenous peoples concerned in order to increase the awareness of their rights and strengthen their participation in accordance with their own norms, values and customs and through representatives designated by them.

particularities of the pilot intervention and UNDP SES. The initiation of the FPIC process and its findings will also serve to update this Indigenous Peoples Planning Framework to convert it into a comprehensive IPP. The IPP will be carried out in a participatory manner, it will be developed based on a complete analysis about potential social and environmental impacts to the indigenous communities and will include appropriate management measures to address them. THE FPIC survey was conducted in 15 of the 30 settlements in Ghanzi and Kgalagadi Districts in June-July 2022.²⁷ All but three of the communities agreed completely with the project's goals and objectives, while three of the communities, including West Hanahai, Kacgae and Monong, asked for further information before they would agree to the project's objectives. It is assumed that the Botswana government agencies responsible for the project has gone back to these three villages and provided them the information that they requested and has gotten their agreement to go ahead with the project.

The Free Prior Informed Consent is linked with legally binding rights embedded in several international treaties and declarations ratified by Botswana:

- The United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples.
- The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights.
- The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.
- The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination
- The Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD)
- The African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights.

The Government of Botswana ratified the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights. The African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (African Charter), in particular, is a binding instrument under international law and has the ability to issue legally binding decisions on human rights cases. In May 2012, ACHPR issued a resolution calling on States to ensure local participation in decision making related to natural resource governance. The resolution specifies that States should take all necessary measures “to ensure participation, including the free, prior and informed consent of communities.” The resolution does not limit FPIC application to indigenous peoples but rather links it to natural resource projects. The International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights also provide FPIC protection to all local communities. The African Charter notes concern over the “disproportionate impact of human rights abuses upon the rural communities in Africa that continue to struggle to assert their customary rights of access and control of various resources, including land, minerals, forestry and fishing.” In this context, the African charter introduces FPIC as a safeguard to counter risks associated with natural resource projects entailing elevated human rights risks.

Socioeconomic Data on the Resident Populations of Ghanzi and Kgalagadi Districts

The Ghanzi and Kgalagadi Districts are demographically heterogeneous. They contain a variety of different ethnic groups, ranging from Batswana to Bakgalagadi and from Kalanga to Herero. Some of the people in the two districts moved into Ghanzi and Kgalagadi in the 20th century, such as Herero, Mbanderu, and

²⁷ Bradley, James (2022) *Community Stakeholder Consultation – Free and Prior Informed Consent (FPIC): FPIC Report*. Gaborone: Government of Botswana and United Nations Development Programme. 21 July 2022.

Nama, as a result of the German-Herero-Nama wars of 1904-1907 (Tlou and Campbell 1997). The population that is the most diverse and has the longest history of occupation of western Botswana is the San. A list of the various San groups, Nama, and Balala groups in western Botswana is presented in Table 2.

In Kgalagadi District there are 17 remote area settlements, sometimes titled remote area communities (see Table 3). These settlements are located primarily near pans. The indigenous population in the region consists primarily of !Xóǀ San along with Nama and Balala. Kgalagadi District has a variety of land categories (see Table 4).

The Ghanzi District has a variety of land uses, a large percentage of which are devoted to freehold farms or commercial ranches (see Table 5). The Central Kalahari Game Reserve makes up some 45% of the district. Ghanzi District Remote Area Dweller settlements are listed in Table 6. It should be noted that there is a variety of languages spoken in the Ghanzi District, something that must be taken into consideration in identifying personnel to conduct survey and development work in these places.

There are a number of community trusts in Ghanzi and Kgalagadi Districts (see Table 7), many of which were functioning reasonably well until the imposition of the hunting ban in January 2014 and later, the coronavirus epidemic declaration beginning in March of 2020. The two sets of events led to a decline in the viability of many of the community trusts, and some of them were taken over by private interests. One of the objectives of the KGDEP is to strengthen the community trusts, which is something seen as crucial by the local communities who have trusts in Ghanzi and Kgalagadi.

Survey work has been carried out extensively in the Central Kalahari Game Reserve by both researchers and government development personnel (see Table 8). At present, it is unclear as to the degree to which the KGDEP project plans to concern itself with the CKGR. One place which is important to the CKGR, and the project is New Xade, which has over 2,000 people in it, the vast majority of them indigenous. The people of New Xade and those in the Central Kalahari feel that they should have the rights to their own community trusts, which at present the five communities in the CKGR lack. The government sponsored CKGR trust does not allow participation of the CKGR communities, only those who were resettled (New Xade, Kaudwane, and Xere).

Tourism represents an important source of income and livelihoods for people in the western and south western Kalahari and the KGDEP project hopes to expand the tourism visits in western Botswana. Much of the tourism in the area is wildlife-based or nature tourism (World Bank 2020). There is also some cultural heritage tourism that includes archaeological sites, for example at Mamuno, close to the Botswana-Namibia border on the A2-B6 highway. The site has petroglyphs (rock engravings). There is a private lodge at Mamuno, which raises the issue of community control over the cultural resources. Mabuasehube Pan, now part of the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park, has Early, Middle, and Late Stone Age archaeological remains. A Late Stone Age site was found at Buitsavango in the Ghanzi Farms as well as at places along the Okwa Valley. Archaeological sites were also discovered in the northern Ghanzi District in the area affected by the Khoemacau (now Motheo) Copper-Silver Mining holdings (Walker 2013). Interviews of tourists who visited Botswana in 2019 indicated that most of them came to see wildlife, with approximately 15% also visiting communities in order to see how people were living. Some of the tourists came specifically to see historical and archaeological sites. Data on tourism numbers from Botswana along with Namibia and Zimbabwe for comparative purposes are shown in Table 9.

In terms of cultural heritage, some of the places in Ghanzi District that had historical significance include the remains of the house of Hendrik Van Zyl, the first Afrikaner settler in Ghanzi and a major elephant

hunter in the Ghanzi region, are on private property. His home is on the land of Clive Eaton who has a safari hunting business (Tholo Safaris). Some of the pans in Kgalagadi District such as Ukhwi contain the remains of hunting blinds that were used in the 20th century. Ghanzi Township has the Kalahari Arms, Gantiscraft, and the remains of the old jail. D'Kar is a largely Naro San village that has the Kuru Family of Organizations (KFO), a community center, a clinic, a pre-school, an arts program, and a small museum. There is a church at D'Kar which has been used since the 1960s. Useful information on the important places in the Ghanzi and Kgalagadi Districts can be found in the *African Adventurer's Guide to Botswana* (Main 2010). A Cultural Heritage Plan for the KGDEP was developed in 2020 but it is important that the plan is revisited because of some of the more recent discoveries in the area, some of them related to the mining activities that have occurred in the region.

Chapter 3. KGDEP Project Goals and Objectives

The KGDEP project aims to enhance planning capacity at the local level through training and information dissemination, coordination with community trusts, non-government organizations, district councils, village development committees, and government ministries. Some of the work will be done with the Ministry of Environment, Natural Resources, Conservation and Tourism (MENT)’s Department of Wildlife and National Parks, and will focus on capacity building, training, improvements in awareness of government policies including those related to Remote Area Development, the Affirmative Action Framework (AAF) Policy of 2014, and the 2015 Land Policy.

The KGDEP will engage in integrated land use and landscape-level planning. It is aimed at reducing poaching, animal and bird poisonings, and the illegal trade of wildlife products. Reduction of human-wildlife conflict will be facilitated through various measures (e.g. the use of livestock guard dogs, expansion of livestock facilities such as kraals). Community-level training will include new means of natural resource-based production, and the enhancement of benefits to local communities that engage in sustainable land and range management practices. Particular emphasis will be placed on programmes that are gender sensitive and aimed at meeting the objectives of the National Policy on Gender and Development of the government of Botswana.

A Social and Environmental Impact Assessment (ESIA) was carried out during the course of this work. UNDP’s Social and Environmental Standards (SES) are key in promoting environmental and economic and social sustainability and help to avoid adverse impacts to people and the environment. The Social and Environmental Safeguards overarching principles of human rights, gender equality and environmental sustainability are key. Project efforts are aimed at ensuring effective stakeholder engagement, and efforts will seek to strengthen UNDP and GOB partner capacities for managing social and environmental risks.

In line with accordance with UNDP’s Social and Environmental Safeguards, an ESIA was carried out by an independent expert along with a field worker. The ESIA sought to identify and assess social and environmental impacts of the project and the project’s area of influence; evaluate alternatives; and consider appropriate avoidance, mitigation, management, and monitoring measures. All relevant issues related to the SES Principles and Standards, with particular focus on Principle 1 (Human Rights), Standard 3 (Community Health, Safety and Working Conditions), Standard 5 (Displacement) and Standard 6 (Indigenous Peoples). The Environmental and Social Impact Assessment Report was used to inform the development of the Environmental and Social Management Plan which is now complete. The ESMP provides a set of (a) avoidance, (b) mitigation, (c) monitoring and (d) institutional measures, including a project-level Grievance Redress Mechanism. Special emphasis is placed on stakeholder engagement at all levels. The methodological approach includes Free, Prior, and Informed Consent (FPIC) work, training for stakeholders and members of the project team, discussions of social safeguards, and identification of project risks based on the interview and field data collection and analysis. During the project work, a set of risks were identified in the KGDEP Project. These are as follows.

Table B. Risks identified in the KGDEP Project

	Risk	Ranking
1	There is a risk that the project may not implement Stakeholder engagement in a matter that fully engages all stakeholders, particularly marginalized groups, in decisions that affect their land, culture, and rights (Component 2).	Substantial
2	Indigenous peoples including vulnerable groups might not engage in, support, or benefit from project activities (Component 2).	Substantial

3	Anti-poaching patrols could pose safety risks to local communities if they are not properly trained, managed or overseen (Component 1).	Substantial
4	Anti-poaching patrols could face safety risks during encounters with poachers (Component 1).	Substantial
5	Local communities may resist anti-poaching efforts because of a past history of perceived abuse (Component 1).	Substantial
6	Incorporation of local community members into anti-poaching units or who are encouraged to take part in providing information to the Department of Wildlife and National Parks or the Botswana police or the military (the Botswana Defense Force) could lead to those individuals being ostracized from the community. There is also the chance that the anti-poaching and information-seeking actions may lead to tensions and potential conflicts within communities (Component 1).	Substantial
7	Increased enforcement and new approaches to HWC could change current access to Protected areas, buffer zones and resources, potentially leading to economic displacement and/or changes to property rights (Component 1).	Substantial
8	Local governments and community associations might not have the support to implement and/or coordinate project activities successfully.	Moderate
9	Poorly informed or executed project activities could damage critical habitats and change landscape suitability for threatened or endangered species.	Moderate
10	Project activities and approaches might not fully incorporate or reflect views of women and girls, and thus necessitate the need to ensure equitable opportunities for their involvement and benefit.	Moderate
11	Project activities involving livestock, human wildlife conflict mitigation (HWC), and corridor formation could result in some people being relocated away from their original territories	Moderate
12	Project activities, if they are delayed, could result in national and district-level land use shifting away from wildlife and human use to commercial ranch and cattle post establishment which would have impacts on the communities and individuals utilizing the project area	Moderate
13	Project activities could lead to differential access by various segments of communities to benefits, with some individuals, including minorities, the elderly, women and girls, and people with disabilities being potentially excluded.	Moderate
14	There is a risk that cultural and biological heritage knowledge could be documented and not shared with the people who have that knowledge, and that the intellectual and biological property rights of the people who reside in western Botswana might therefore be compromised.	Moderate
15	There is a risk that the project may distribute the benefits and profits from livelihood activities in an unequal, unfair, or inappropriate manner (Component 3)	Moderate
16	Project activities may be impacted by climate change, political changes, and the coronavirus pandemic, causing delays in consultation, Free, Prior and Informed Consent (FPIC), and feedback from communities as well as implementation of livelihood and other projects which local communities have been told that they will benefit from.	Moderate
17	There is a risk that the Grievance Redress Mechanism will not be in place in the project in time to ensure that grievances from stakeholders are captured and dealt with appropriately	Moderate

All of these risks will be mitigated by a set of strategies developed during the course of the project implementation. A summary of UNDP’s Social and environmental safeguards is provided in Table C.

Table C. Summary of UNDP’s Social and Environmental Safeguards triggered by the project.

Principles and Standards	Rating	Justification
Principle 1: Human rights	Substantial	By promoting anti-poaching, the project may lead to the denial of basic human rights of those suspected of contravening wildlife conservation laws. The project may also result in the removal of people from their ancestral lands if land is set aside as protected areas or other kind of land uses. These impacts and restrictions may differentially impact marginalized and vulnerable groups, such as remote area dwellers (indigenous people).
Principle 2: Gender equality and women’s empowerment	Substantial	Women may not be able to participate fully in decision-making around use, benefit-sharing and protection of the wildlife and other natural resources such as those from which craft items are made. Women’s roles in community trusts may not be as great as they might be without efforts to promote their full participation.
Principle 3: Sustainability and Resilience	Moderate	The project outputs will promote the collection and harvesting of wild animal and plant resources, which might result in over-exploitation, with adverse impacts on biodiversity, species and ecosystems. This is of particular concern for species which may be rare or threatened or may occur in or adjacent to critical habitats or environmentally sensitive areas (including legally protected areas or areas proposed for protection or recognized as valuable or deserving of protection by local communities).
Principle 4: Accountability	Moderate	The duty bearers of this project may have low capacities to (1) measure and manage the impact of climate change on agriculture, (2) to engage with all members of the communities in depth, and (3) to facilitate and monitor a grievance redress mechanism (GRM)
Standard 1: Biodiversity conservation and sustainable natural resource management (Moderate)	Moderate	The afforestation activities, if not well designed, could potentially lead to an inadvertent introduction of invasive alien species. The Project envisages the construction of small-scale check-dams and other small soil and water conservation structures, including water storage, spreading structures and drainage, which could lead to alteration of natural flows and impound water.
Standard 2: Climate change and Disaster risks	Moderate	The outcomes and realization of the broader development objective of the project may exacerbate the impacts of climate change and disaster risks, including increases of temperature and greater vulnerability to droughts and floods

Standard 3: Community Health, Safety and Security	Moderate	COVID-19 could pose a risk to the health of project participants and beneficiary communities during project development and implementation, especially for activities that involve community consultation
Standard 4: Cultural heritage	Substantial	The project involves the expansion of project activities including corridors that could erode or have adverse impacts on the cultural heritage and identity of affected peoples (including those that fit the characteristics described under UNDP SES Standard 6). Some government agencies and NGOs may not have the knowledge or operational experience to recognize these rights or ensure that they are upheld in the development and implementation of the project outputs.
Standard 5: Displacement and resettlement	Moderate	The implementation of corridors between protected areas could lead to displacement and resettlement or could result in economic displacement for some communities or individuals or changes in community or customary rights to wildlife and other natural resources.
Standard 6: Indigenous peoples	Substantial	The outputs of the project will have impacts on the rights, lands, natural resources and traditional livelihoods and practices of peoples and resource-user collectives such as community trusts. There is a risk that indigenous peoples, vulnerable or marginalized groups, might not be involved during the implementation of the project including investments in local adaptation measures for resilient agriculture and implementation of local-level economic activities, and therefore may not be able to engaged in, supportive of, or benefit from project activities.
Standard 7: Labour and Working Conditions	Moderate	Women may become more vulnerable to gender-based violence as a result of their participation in the project and realization of benefits from livelihood activities. Indigenous people may be treated differentially in hiring for project activities.
Standard 8: Pollution Prevention and Resource Efficiency	Moderate	Some pollution may occur as a result of activities in the BORAVAST project involving charcoal production. Resource efficiency may be affected by such human-wildlife conflict preventative measures such as fences

CHAPTER 4: MITIGATION MEASURES

4.1 Introduction

The application of the UNDP Social and Environmental Screening Procedure (SESP) identified 17 potential social and environmental risks associated with this Project. The project activities that will trigger each of these risks are in all four of the components of the KGDEP. Mitigation measures are laid out for the various risks that have been identified.

4.2 Application of the Social and Environmental Screening Procedure (SESP)

The application of the UNDP Social and Environmental Screening Procedure (SESP) identified 17 potential social and environmental risks associated with this Project. Seven of these risks are ranked as Substantial and 10 are rated as Moderate. The project activities that will trigger each of these risks are in all four of the components of the KGDEP.

Substantial risks identified within the Project are:

- There is a risk that the project may not implement Stakeholder engagement in a manner that fully engages all stakeholders, particularly marginalized groups, in decisions that affect their land, culture, and rights (Component 2).
 - Indigenous peoples including vulnerable groups might not engage in, support, or benefit from project activities (Component 2).
 - Anti-poaching patrols could pose safety risks to local communities if they are not properly trained, managed or overseen (Component 1).
 - Anti-poaching patrols could face safety risks during encounters with poachers (Component 1).
 - Local communities may resist anti-poaching efforts because of a past history of perceived abuse (Component 1).
 - Incorporation of local community members into anti-poaching units or who are encouraged to take part in providing information to the Department of Wildlife and National Parks or the Botswana police or the military (the Botswana Defense Force) could lead to those individuals being ostracized from the community. There is also the chance that the anti-poaching and information-seeking actions may lead to tensions and potential conflicts within communities (Component 1).
 - Increased enforcement and new approaches to HWC could change current access to Protected areas, buffer zones and resources, potentially leading to economic displacement and/or changes to property rights (Component 1).

Moderate risks identified within the Project are:

- Local governments and community associations might not have the support to implement and/or coordinate project activities successfully.
- Poorly informed or executed project activities could damage critical habitats and change landscape suitability for threatened or endangered species.
- Project activities and approaches might not fully incorporate or reflect views of women and girls, and thus necessitate the need to ensure equitable opportunities for their involvement and benefit.

- Project activities involving livestock, human wildlife conflict mitigation (HWC), and corridor formation could result in some people being relocated away from their original territories.
- Project activities, if they are delayed, could result in national and district-level land use shifting away from wildlife and human use to commercial ranch and cattle post establishment which would have impacts on the communities and individuals utilizing the project area.
- Project activities could lead to differential access by various segments of communities to benefits, with some individuals, including minorities, the elderly, women and girls, and people with disabilities being potentially excluded.
- There is a risk that cultural and biological heritage knowledge could be documented and not shared with the people who have that knowledge, and that the intellectual and biological property rights of the people who reside in western Botswana might therefore be compromised.
- There is a risk that the project may distribute the benefits and profits from livelihood activities in an unequal, unfair, or inappropriate manner (Component 3)
- Project activities may be impacted by climate change, political changes, and the coronavirus pandemic, causing delays in consultation, Free, Prior and Informed Consent (FPIC), and feedback from communities as well as implementation of livelihood and other projects which local communities have been told that they will benefit from.
- There is a risk that the Grievance Redress Mechanism will not be in place in the project in time to ensure that grievances from stakeholders are captured and dealt with appropriately.

The various risks and their ranking are presented in the table below.

Table D: Potential social and environmental impacts and mitigation measures for the proposed project

Social and Environmental Risk	Ranking	Mitigation measures	Responsible party	Cost (USD)
18. There is a risk that the project may not implement Stakeholder engagement in a matter that fully engages all stakeholders, particularly marginalized groups, in decisions that affect their land, culture, and rights (Component 2).	Substantial	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure stakeholder identification and analysis. • Prepare a comprehensive stakeholder engagement plan (SEP) • Ensure Information disclosure. • Meaningful and periodic consultation and whenever an issue comes up 	DWNP	2,000,000
19. Indigenous peoples including vulnerable groups might not engage in, support, or benefit from project activities (Component 2).	Substantial	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Development of the Indigenous peoples plan (IPP). • Conduct periodic monitoring of the IPP with the affected communities 	Social Safeguards Specialist	50,000
20. Anti-poaching patrols could pose safety risks to local communities if they are not properly trained, managed, or overseen (Component 1).	Substantial	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop a security risk assessment and management plan • Provide adequate tactical training to the anti-poaching patrol units on how to handle the weapon • Provide tactical training on how to engage local community member and conduct threat assessment. • Conduct periodic awareness to the local community on how to engage with the anti-poaching patrol units to de-escalate dangerous encounter or situation. 	DWNP and PMU	25,000

Social and Environmental Risk	Ranking	Mitigation measures	Responsible party	Cost (USD)
21. Anti-poaching patrols could face safety risks during encounters with poachers (Component 1).	Substantial	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop a risk assessment and management plan. • Provide tactical training on assessment and neutralizing threat potential threat posed by the poachers. • Conduct frequent announcement on the media on the dangers of poaching and post warnings to deter people from poaching. 	DWNP and PMU	10,000
22. Local communities may resist anti-poaching efforts because of a past history of perceived abuse (Component 1).	Substantial	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Engage the local community in the recruitment process of the anti-poaching exercise • Conduct frequent engagement/meeting, updating and sharing of information on the progress and achievements and benefits of the anti-poaching. 	DWNP and PMU	5,000
23. Incorporation of local community members into anti-poaching units or who are encouraged to take part in providing information to the Department of Wildlife and National Parks or the Botswana police or the military (the Botswana Defense Force) could lead to those individuals being ostracized from the community. There is	Substantial	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct awareness workshops to share with the local community the importance them being involved in the anti-poaching campaign directly or indirectly. • Creating a confidential system for local community members to share security concerns or information against poaching without disclosing the 	DWNP and PMU	50,000

Social and Environmental Risk	Ranking	Mitigation measures	Responsible party	Cost (USD)
also the chance that the anti-poaching and information-seeking actions may lead to tensions and potential conflicts within communities (Component 1).		identity of the source.		
24. Increased enforcement and new approaches to HWC could change current access to Protected areas, buffer zones and resources, potentially leading to economic displacement and/or changes to property rights (Component 1).	Substantial	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure fair and just approaches to anti-poaching and ensuring of non-displacement and protection of property rights 	DWNP and PMU	25,000
25. Local governments and community associations might not have the support to implement and/or coordinate project activities successfully.	Moderate	Provide assistance to local governments and community associations, including community trusts	DWNP and PMU and NGOs	20,000
26. Poorly informed or executed project activities could damage critical habitats and change landscape suitability for threatened or endangered species.	Moderate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conducting biodiversity survey before commencement of the project • Conduct a comprehensive baseline survey of the project area. • Development of the Biodiversity Conservation Plan • Engage a competent and qualified project manager. • Engage a qualified and competent social and environmental safeguards officer to 	DWNP and NGOs	10,000

Social and Environmental Risk	Ranking	Mitigation measures	Responsible party	Cost (USD)
		monitor and implement the ESMP		
27. Project activities and approaches might not fully incorporate or reflect views of women and girls, and thus necessitate the need to ensure equitable opportunities for their involvement and benefit.	Moderate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ensure women and girls views are reflected in the Stakeholder and Gender Analysis plans and that their needs and complaints are heard 	PMU and DWNP	15,000
28. Project activities involving livestock, human wildlife conflict mitigation (HWC), and corridor formation could result in some people being relocated away from their original territories	Moderate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review of status of communities and individuals in the project area 	PMU and DWNP	10,000
29. Project activities, if they are delayed, could result in national and district-level land use shifting away from wildlife and human use to commercial ranch and cattle post establishment which would have impacts on the communities and individuals utilizing the project area	Moderate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assessment of project activities and their impacts 	PMU and DWNP	10,000
30. Project activities could lead to differential access by various segments of communities to benefits, with some individuals, including minorities, the elderly,	Moderate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review of benefit distribution at community level 	PMU and DWNP	10,000

Social and Environmental Risk	Ranking	Mitigation measures	Responsible party	Cost (USD)
women and girls, and people with disabilities being potentially excluded.				
31. There is a risk that cultural and biological heritage knowledge could be documented and not shared with the people who have that knowledge, and that the intellectual and biological property rights of the people who reside in western Botswana might therefore be compromised.	Moderate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review of Traditional knowledge (TK) and assessment of community TK issues 	PMU and DWNP	5,000
32. There is a risk that the project may distribute the benefits and profits from livelihood activities in an unequal, unfair, or inappropriate manner (Component 3)	Moderate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review of livelihood activity reports and GRM findings 	PMU and DWNP	5,000
33. Project activities may be impacted by climate change, political changes, and the coronavirus pandemic, causing delays in consultation, Free, Prior and Informed Consent (FPIC), and feedback from communities as well as implementation of livelihood and other projects which local communities have been told that they will benefit from.	Moderate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assessment of stakeholder reports and FPIC follow up 	PMU and DWNP	5,000

Social and Environmental Risk	Ranking	Mitigation measures	Responsible party	Cost (USD)
34. There is a risk that the Grievance Redress Mechanism will not be in place in the project in time to ensure that grievances from stakeholders are captured and dealt with appropriately	Moderate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review of GRM status and effectiveness 	PMU and DWNP	5,000

CHAPTER 5: GRIEVANCE REDRESS MECHANISM

5.1 Introduction

As described in the Project Document and in the UNDP Social and Environmental Assessment documents, the Project will establish a project-level Grievance Redress Mechanism (GRM) during the first year of implementation. The GRM is a way to provide an effective avenue for expressing concerns and achieving remedies for complaints by communities, to promote a mutually constructive relationship and to enhance the achievement of project development objectives. A community grievance is an issue, concern, problem, or claim (perceived or actual) associated with the Project that an individual, or group, or representative wants to address and resolve. The GRM will be designed to be accessible through different mechanisms at local and national levels, while ensuring the safety, confidence and, if required, anonymity of complainants.

The following principles should govern the grievance redress system to be implemented by the project:

- Legitimate, accountable, without reprisal.
- Accessible
- Predictable and timebound
- Equitable
- Transparent
- Rights compatible
- Used to improve policies, procedures, and practices to improve performance and prevent future harm.
- Based on engagement and dialogue

The full details of these GRMs will be agreed upon during the Inception Phase, a process that will be overseen by the Project Management Team

The grievance redress mechanism helps all stakeholders involved in the project – be it the affected groups and/or UNDP’s partners in particular governments and others to jointly address grievances or disputes related to the social and/or environmental impacts of UNDP supported projects. While a grievance redress mechanism is important for all project stakeholders, it is particularly key for the indigenous people, who are often marginalised. The proposed project will be implemented in areas which are home to indigenous/marginalized people. Hence it is critical that there is a transparent grievance redress mechanism for any eventualities. Aggrieved stakeholders can approach the Project Management Unit and the Implementing Partner, the Ministry of Environment, Natural Resources, and Tourism to register their grievances. In cases when the agencies are not able to address the grievances, or in cases when the grievances have not been addressed successfully, the aggrieved stakeholders have recourse using other national grievance mechanisms or the courts.

At a local level, due to barriers of language, access to communications, potential issues of discrimination, and perceived issues of safety where protection of the identity of complainants may be required, it is essential to provide a local point of contact for community grievances. This may be a local NGO, trusted community members in various locations, trusted persons of authority, community associations, or other points of contact agreed through consultations with community members, and particularly with indigenous peoples where they are included in project activities. It is critical that this point of contact understands the need for community complaints to be anonymous where issues of individual or group safety are perceived, and that the point of contact has direct access to the PMU staff. In the case of a complaint where anonymity is requested, the PMU and any resulting grievance process must respect this condition.

Those able to access and communicate with national grievance mechanisms have established options in Botswana. These include the Office of the Ombudsman, which promotes and protects human rights of all Botswana. Some human rights monitoring is also done by Ditshwanelo, the Botswana Centre for Human Rights.

The mandate of the GRM will be to:

- (xi) Receive and address any concerns, complaints, notices of emerging conflicts, or grievances (collectively “*Grievance*”) alleging actual or potential harm to affected person(s) (the “*Claimant(s)*”) arising from the project;
- (xii) Assist in resolution of Grievances between and among Project Stakeholders; as well as the various government ministries, agencies and commissions, CSOs and NGOs, and others (collectively, the “*Stakeholders*”) in the context of the project;
- (xiii) Conduct itself at all times in a flexible, collaborative, and transparent manner aimed at problem solving and consensus building.

III. *Functions*

The functions of the GRM will be to:

- (i) Receive, log and track all grievances received;
- (ii) Provide regular status updates on grievances to claimants, Project Board (PB) members and other relevant stakeholders, as applicable;
- (iii) Engage the PB members, government institutions and other relevant stakeholders in grievance resolution;
- (iv) Process and propose solutions and ways forward related to specific grievances *within a period not to exceed sixty (60) days* from receipt of the grievance;
- (v) Identify growing trends in grievances and recommend possible measures to avoid the same;
- (vi) Receive and service requests for, and suggest the use of, mediation or facilitation;
- (vii) Elaborate bi-annual reports, make said reports available to the public, and more generally work to maximize the disclosure of its work (including its reports, findings and outcomes);
- (viii) Ensure increased awareness, accessibility, predictability, transparency, legitimacy, and credibility of the GRM process;
- (ix) Collaborate with Partner Institutions and other NGOs, CSOs and other entities to conduct outreach initiatives to increase awareness among Stakeholders as to the existence of the GRM and how its services can be accessed;
- (x) Ensure continuing education of PB members and their respective institutions about the relevant laws and policies that they will need to be aware of to participate in the development of effective resolutions to grievances likely to come before the GRM; and monitor follow up to grievance resolutions, as appropriate

5.1.1 Rationale of the GRM

The GRM provides a means for stakeholders to express their opinions and concerns about the project, and to file them with a formal institution in government. They will then be able to track what happened to their grievances and see how they have been acted upon.

5.1.2 potential sources of grievances

Potential sources of grievances could be the ways in which communities and individual members are treated by government and project officials. Some of the concerns expressed during previous discussions have been losses of livestock to wildlife, requirements to relocate residences, destruction of high value natural resources through such activities as fence and road construction, and failure of the project to ensure equitable benefits to community trust members.

5.1.3 GRM Institutional Framework

The GRM institutional framework relates to the establishment and implementation of an enforcement institution at the central government level in Botswana.

5.1.4 Guidelines and Tools for Reporting and Processing Grievances

Guidelines and tools for reporting and processing grievances are outlined in this document and in the Stakeholder Engagement Plan and other reports associated with the KGDEP and the United Nations Development Programme.

5.1.5. Logging, Acknowledgment, and Tracking

All Grievances and reports of conflict will be received, assigned a tracking number, acknowledged to Claimant, recorded electronically, and subject to periodic updates to the Claimant as well as the office file.

Within one (1) week from the receipt of a Grievance, the GRM will send a *written* acknowledgement to Claimant of the Grievance received with the assigned tracking number.²⁸

Each Grievance file will contain, at a minimum:

- xi. the date of the request is received.
- xii. the date the written acknowledgment was sent (and oral acknowledgment if also done).
- xiii. the dates and nature of all other communications or meetings with the Claimant and other relevant Stakeholders.
- xiv. any requests, offers of, or engagements of a Mediator or Facilitator.
- xv. the date and records related to the proposed solution/way forward.
- xvi. the acceptance or objections of the Claimant (or other Stakeholders).
- xvii. the proposed next steps if objections arose.
- xviii. the alternative solution if renewed dialogues were pursued.
- xix. notes regarding implementation; and
- xx. any conclusions and recommendations arising from monitoring and follow up.

5.1.6. Maintaining Communication and Status Updates

Files for each Grievance will be available for review by the Claimant and other Stakeholders involved in the Grievance, or their designated representative(s). Appropriate steps will be taken to maintain the confidentiality of the Claimant if previously requested.

The GRM will provide periodic updates to the Claimant regarding the status and current actions to resolve the Grievance. Not including the acknowledgment of receipt of the Grievance, such updates will occur within reasonable intervals (not greater than every thirty (30) days).

5.1.7. Investigation and Consensus Building

Within one (1) week of receiving a Grievance, [Implementing Partner] will notify the Ministry of Environment Natural Resources, Conservation, and Tourism, (MENT) and any other relevant institutions of the receipt of the Grievance.

²⁸ Oral acknowledgments can be used for expediency (and also recorded), but they must be followed by a written acknowledgment.

The MENT will identify a specific team of individuals drawn from the MENT and PMU and/or their respective institutions to develop a response to the Grievance. The names of these individuals will be made available to the Claimant.

The designated PMU members/GRM SC/GRM TT will promptly engage the Claimant and any other relevant Stakeholders deemed appropriate, to gather all necessary information regarding the Grievance.

Through the PMU members and MENT, the GRM will have the authority to request from relevant Government institutions any information (documents or otherwise) relevant to resolving the Grievance and avoiding future Grievances of the same nature.

As necessary, the PMU members and MENT will convene one or more meetings with relevant individuals and institutions in Gaborone or elsewhere in as needed.

The objective of all investigative activities is to develop a thorough understanding of the issues and concerns raised in the Grievance and facilitate consensus around a proposed solution and way forward. The PMU members and MENT will procure the cooperation of their respective staff with the investigation.

At any point during the investigation, the PMU members and MENT may determine that an onsite field investigation is necessary to properly understand the Grievance Redress Mechanism and develop an effective proposed solution and way forward.

5.1.8. Seeking Advisory Opinion and/or Technical Assistance

At any point after receiving a Grievance and through to implementation of the proposed solution and way forward, the MENT and PMU members may seek the technical assistance and/or an advisory opinion from any entity or individual in Botswana or internationally which may reasonably be believed to be of assistance. One example would be Ditshwanelo, the Botswana Centre for Human Rights.

5.1.9. Making Proposed Actions and Solutions Public and Overseeing Implementation

The PMU members and MENT will communicate to the Claimant one or more proposed actions or resolutions and clearly articulate the reasons and basis for proposed way forward.

If the Claimant does not accept the resolution, the PMU members and MENT will engage with the Claimant to provide alternative options.

If the Claimant accepts the proposed solution and way forward, the GRM will continue to monitor the implementation directly and through the receipt of communications from the Claimant and other relevant parties. As necessary, the GRM may solicit information from the relevant parties and initiate renewed dialogue where appropriate.

In all communications with the Claimant and other stakeholders, the GRM will be guided by its problem-solving role, non-coercive principles and process, and the voluntary, good faith nature of the interaction with the Claimant and other stakeholders.

Chapter 6. Conclusions

Botswana is a middle-income country in southern Africa with a population of 2,384,246 inhabitants as of July 2022. The country is culturally diverse, with at least 15 different ethnic groups and 28 different languages spoken. Within Botswana's population there are several groups who are considered indigenous peoples under the UNDP's Social and Environmental Standards (SES), Standard 6 criteria.²⁹ These include the San (known in Botswana as Basarwa), made up of some two dozen groups, who currently number about 68,000; the Nama, who number 2,750; and the Balala, who number 2,350. The San, Nama and Balala have a history of hunting and gathering, but today they almost all have mixed economic systems that include some foraging, agriculture, livestock raising, and working for other people. In total, these groups represent approximately 3.14% of the current population of Botswana. The San and Nama are among the most underprivileged people in the country, with a high percentage living below the poverty line.

As is the case with most African states, the Botswana government does not recognize the term 'indigenous peoples,' maintaining that all citizens of the country are indigenous.³⁰ The government of Botswana does recognize what it terms 'remote area dwellers' who reside in outlying rural areas. The government has a Remote Area Development Program that is part of the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (MLGRD). Seven of the 10 district councils have remote area development and social and community development personnel. Botswana also has an Affirmative Action Framework (AAF) that is aimed at promoting the well-being of remote area community members.

UNDP SES Standard 6 requires that in cases where indigenous peoples are found within project areas, an indigenous peoples' plan (IPP) must be developed with the purpose of promoting full participation of those groups in the project. The plan must mitigate the impacts from the project and must ensure equal and relevant benefits from the project alongside other participants. This Indigenous Peoples Planning Framework (IPPF) is a precursor to that plan, setting out the frameworks, issues, and requirements for IPP development during the first part of project implementation.

This Indigenous Peoples Planning Framework can be considered to be a part of the Environmental and Social Management Framework for the KGDEP area in western Botswana. This IPPF has presented background material on the indigenous people in the western Kalahari area. It has discussed the project goals and objectives. It has also laid out a set of risks that the KGDEP assessment work has identified. Finally, a set of mitigation measures, organizations responsible for addressing them, and estimated costs was outlined.

²⁹ United Nations Development Programme (2021) *UNDP Social and Environmental Standards. Standard 6: Indigenous Peoples*. New York: United Nations Development Programme. Updated January 2021.

³⁰ Sapignoli, Maria (2018) *Hunting Justice: Displacement, Law, and Activism in the Kalahari*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Also, statements made at the United Nations Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues (UNPFII) meetings by Botswana government representatives (2014-2022).

Table 1. Population Sizes and Distributions of Major San (Basarwa), Nama, and Balala Groups in the Kgalagadi and Ghanzi Dryland Ecosystem Project Area, Botswana

Group Name	Location	Population Size	Reference(s)
Ani	Eastern Ghanzi District	600	Barnard (1992:122, 127)
Balala	Eastern Kgalagadi District and Southern District	2,350	Thoma, Axel and Steve Lawry, field data
G ana	Central Kalahari	2,825	Tanaka (2014)
G olo	Central Kalahari	750	Silberbauer (1965, 1981)
G ui	Central and western Kalahari	2,300	Silberbauer (1965, 1981)
#Hoan	Central Kalahari	300	Barnard (1992:74-76)
#Khomani	Kgalagadi District	250	R. Hitchcock, field data
Kua	Central Kalahari and eastern Kalahari	650	R. Hitchcock field data
Nama	Kgalagadi District	600	Barnard (1992:176-198), R. Hitchcock, field data
Naro	Ghanzi District	8,000	Barnard (1992:134-155)
Ts'aokhoe	Ghanzi District	1,000	Silberbauer (1965)
Tshila	Central Kalahari	500	Silberbauer (1965)
#X'ao- 'aen (Auen)	Northern Ghanzi District	1,000	Barnard (1992:46-47)
!Xǀó	Kgalagadi District	3,800	Heinz (1994)
Total	15 groups	24.625	

Table 2. Remote Area Settlements and Villages in Kgalagadi District, Botswana

Settlement	Latitude and Longitude	Population (1991, 2011)	Percentage of San Population	Type of Settlement	Land Use Zone
Ukhwi	23° 71' 23 S 20° 40' 75 E	430 (453 2011)	67	RAD settlement	WMA
Ncaang	22° 44' 23 S 21° 22' 32 E	191 (175 2011)	12	RAD settlement	WMA
Ngwatle	21° 71' 23 S 21° 07' 77 E	135 (206 2011)	100	RAD settlement	WMA
Monong	23° 66' 16 S 21° 51' 26 E	105 (172 2011)	95	RAD settlement	WMA
Maake (Make)	23° 69' 31 S 21° 78' 44 E	325 (366 2011)	71	RAD settlement	WMA
Zutshwa	23° 55' 97 S 24° 65' 00 E	365 (469 2011)	78	RAD settlement	WMA
Phuduhudu	23° 94' 75 S 22° 98' 22 E	365 (332 2011)	14	RAD settlement	Communal Grazing
Inalegolo	23° 94' 82 S 22° 97' 81 E	270 (489 2011)	97	RAD settlement	WMA
Hunhukwe	23° 41' 62 S 21° 60' 44 E	455 (431 2011)	12	Village	Residential
Tshane	24° 01' 99 S 21° 86' 92 E	858 (2011)	15	Village	Residential
Tshabong	26° 02' 34 S 22° 40' 27 E	6,591 (2011)	6	Village	Residential
Kang	23° 40' 92 S 22° 45' 92 E	3,289 (2011)	9	Village	Communal grazing
Hukuntsi	23° 59' 93 S 21° 46' 79 E	3,464 (3,807, 2011)	10	Village	Communal grazing
Lehututu	23° 91' 36 S 21° 82' 96 E	2,070 (2011)	10	Village	Communal grazing
Makopong	25° 33' 66 S 22° 97' 57 E	1,501 (2011)	10	Village	Multiple
Tshobokwane	22° 04' S 21° 12' E	86 (2011)	40	Commercial ranch	Commercial grazing
Khawa	26° 28' S 21° 37' E	817 (2011)	70	RAD settlement	WMA
Total			6-100%	17 communities	Multiple uses

Note: Data obtained from Kgalagadi District Council, the 1991 and 2011 Botswana Population Censuses, and the Remote Area Development Program, Botswana

Table 3. Land Use Zoning in Kgalagadi District. Botswana

Land Use Zone	Area (in square kilometers)	Percentage of the District
Communal	41,310 km ²	38.63%
Commercial Grazing (tribal leasehold)	4,564 km ²	4.27%
Commercial Grazing (freehold, state land lease)	6,490 km ²	6.07%
Wildlife Management Area	27,225 km ²	25.45%
National Park (Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park)	27,350 km ²	25.58%
Total	106,940 km²	100%

Note: Data obtained from the Kgalagadi District Council, Botswana

Table 4. Land Zoning Categories in Ghanzi District, Botswana

Land Category	Area (in square kilometers) (km ²)	Percentage of District
<i>Communal Area</i>		
Mixed Farming, grazing, and arable area	17,619 km ²	14.94%
Remote Area Dwellers Settlements	2,415 km ²	2.05%
Ghanzi Township	133 km ²	0.11%
Miscellaneous land (e.g. trek routes, villages)	556 km ²	0.47%
Artificial Insemination (AI) Camp, Veterinary Services	15 km ²	0.001%
<i>Freehold Land</i>		
Ghanzi Freehold Block	10,405 km ²	8.83%
Dqae Qare San +Farm	75 km ²	0.06%
Xanagas Freehold Block	1,374 km ²	1.14%
<i>Leasehold Land in Tribal Areas</i>		
Ncojane Leasehold Farms	1,664 km ²	1.41%
State Land Extension Farms	3,784 km ²	3.2%
Kuke State Land Leasehold Farms	430 km ²	0.36%
Makunda FDA (First Development Area) Ranches	444 km ²	0.37%
Southeast Ghanzi SDA (Second Development Area) Ranches	924 km ²	0.78%
<i>Wildlife Management Areas</i>		
Groot Laagte WMA	3,908 km ²	3.31%
Matlo-a-Phuduhudu WMA	8,816 km ²	7.47%
Okwa WMA	13,618 km ²	11.55%
<i>State Land</i>		
Central Kalahari Game Reserve	52,730 km ²	44.72%
Totals	117,910 km ²	100.0%

Note: The abbreviations used here are as follows: WMA stands for Wildlife Management Area, FDA for First Development Area, SDA for Second Development Area (both TGLP commercial ranch areas), and RAD for Remote Area Dweller

Table 5. Remote Area Communities (RACs) in Ghanzi District and Predominant Languages

Community or Area Name and type of community	Latitude and Longitude	Predominant San Language(s)
Bere, Settlement	22° 82' S 21° 87' E	!Xóǎ, some Naro
D'Kar, settlement On private land	21° 52' S 21° 94' E	Naro
Groot Laagte, settlement in WMA	21° 36' S 21° 22' E	ǀX'ao-ǁ'auen (//Au//eisi, /Kxau//ein)
East Hanahai, settlement in WMA	22° 16' S 21° 85' E	Naro, some G/ui
West Hanahai, settlement in WMA	22° 10' S 21° 77' E	Naro, some G/ui
Charles Hill, settlement	22° 16' 21" S 20° 05' 20" E	Naro, some ǀX'ao-ǁ'auen (//Au//eisi, /Kxau//ein)
Chobokwane, settlement	22° 16' S 21° 21' E	Naro, some ǀX'ao-ǁ'auen (//Au//eisi, /Kxau//ein)
New Xanagas, settlement	22° 43' S 20° 65' E	Naro, ǀX'ao-ǁ'auen (//Au//eisi, /Kxau//ein)
Qabo, settlement	21° 07' S 21° 73' E	Naro, Ts'akhoe
New Xade, resettlement site	22° 12' 11" S 22° 41' 84" E	G/ui, G//ana, Tsila
Kuke, settlement	21° 05' S 22° 40' E	Naro, G//ana, ǀX'ao-ǁ'auen (//Au//eisi, /Kxau//ein)
Ka/Gae, settlement	22° 85' S 22° 21' E	G/ui, !Xóǎ
Lone Tree, settlement	22° 24' 09" S 21° 43' 41" E	!Xóǎ
Ghanzi Township	21° 70' S 21° 64' E	Naro, G/ui, G//ana, ǀX'ao-ǁ'auen (//Au//eisi, /Kxau//ein) !Xóǎ
Ranyane, settlement in WMA	23° 14' S 21° 15' E	Naro
Total	15 communities	

Table 6. Community Trusts in Ghanzi and Kgalagadi Districts, Botswana

Name of Trust and Date of Founding	Controlled Hunting Area (CHA), Support Organization	Number of Villages Involved, Population Size	Project Activities
Huiku Community Based Conservation Trust, 1999	GH 1, Komku Development Trust	2 villages (Groot Laagte and Qabo), 1,013 people	Community tourism, lodge, crafts, veld bush products
D'Kar Kuru Trust, 1999	Dqae Qare freehold farm, D'Kar Kuru Trust	1 village, (D'Kar), 943 people	Community tourism, crafts, lodge at Dqae Qare in Ghanzi Farms
Kgoesakani (New Xade) Management Trust, 2000	GH 3 (2,790 km ²) RADP, government of Botswana, Permaculture	1 village (Kgoesakani, or New Xade) 1,094 people	Community tourism, crafts, livestock, veld products, related to the Central Kalahari Game Reserve
Xwiskurusa Community Trust, 1996	GH 10 (1,248 km ²), Permaculture Trust	3 villages (East and West Hanahai, Ka/Gae), 1,247 people	Community tourism, crafts, veld products
Chobokwane Community Trust, 1999	GH 11, Komku Development Trust	1 village (Chobokwane), 489 people	Community campsites, crafts, veld products
Xwiskurusa Natural Resources Conservation Trust, 1996	East and West Hanahai, Ka/Gae, Ghanzi. GH 10 (1,248 km ²)	3 villages, 1,600 people	Wildlife utilization, tourism, crafts, veld products, related to the CKGR
Au Shee Xha,Ulu Community Natural Resources Trust, 1996	Bere, Ghanzi District GH 11	1 village, 400 people	Grapple plant and other veld products, crafts, bee keeping
Nqwaa Khobe Yeya Trust, 2001	Ncaang, Ngwatle, Ukwi. KD 1 (12,180 km ²) Kgalagadi District	3 villages, 1,000 people	Wildlife utilization, tourism, crafts, veld products
Qhaa Qhing Conservation Trust, 2001	Zutswa, KD 2, Kgalagadi District 7,002 km ²	1 village, 350 people	Wildlife utilization, tourism, crafts, veld products
Maiteko Tshwaragano Development Trust, 2002	Zutswa, KD 2, Kgalagadi District 7,002 km ²	1 village, 350 people	Salt production, tourism, crafts
Koinapu Community Trust, 2000	Kokotsha, Inalegolo, and Phuduhudu, KD 12, 348 km ²	3 villages, 2,200 people	Wildlife utilization, tourism, crafts, veld products
Khawa Kopanelo Development Trust, 2001	Khawa, KD 15, 6,638 km ²	1 village, 700 people	Wildlife utilization, tourism, crafts, veld products

Note: Data obtained from the Ghanzi District Council, the Kgalagadi District Council, and the CBNRM Support Program (www.cbnrm.bw and www.iucnbot.bw) of the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN)

Table 7. Population and Location Data for Communities in the Central Kalahari Game Reserve and the three resettlement sites

Name of Community	Latitude and Longitude	2014 population	2015 population	2019 population	2022 Population
Central Kalahari					
Gope (Ghagoo)	22°37'2.90"S 24°46'19.18"E	24	30	90	120
Gugamma	23° 6'55.34"S 24°15'27.47"E	0	29	28	0
Kikao	23° 1'42.21"S 24° 5'36.80"E	25	26	0 (10 on occasion)	0
Matswere	21° 9'24.21"S 24° 0'24.57"E	0	0 (DWNP staff only)	0	0
Menoatshe	22°41'2.94"S 23°58'33.13"E	0	0	Utilized for gathering	0
Metseamonong	22° 25' 12.59" S 24° 13' 02.76" E	120	130	46	56
Molapo	21°57'40.70"S 23°55'46.11"E	130	120	56	86
Mothomelo	22° 06' 39.19" S 25° 01' 59.61" E	150	26	77	91
!Xade	22° 20' 20" S 23° 00' 27" E	0	0 (DWNP staff only)	0	0
Xaxa	22°17'21.91"S 23°35'14.93"E	0	0	0	0
TOTAL		449	362	317 -330	353
CKGR Resettlement Sites					
New Xade	22° 12' 11" S 22° 41' 84" E	1,269	Ghanzi District	1,900	2,100
Kaudwane	23°22'53.37"S 24°39'34.67"E	1,084	Kweneng District	1,700	1,900
Xere	21° 8' 21.57"S 24°18'49.50"E	343	Central District	500	600
				4,100	4,600

Note: Data obtained from surveys and population censuses

Table 8. Mines and Prospecting Locations in the Republic of Botswana

Mine Location	Company and Mineral Exploited	Date of Inception of Mining	Current Stage of Mining
Dukwe and Moseitse	African Copper - copper	2008	Production early stages
Selibi-Phikwe	Bamangwato Concessions Ltd. Copper-nickel	1973	On-going production but facing potential closure
Gope (Ghaghoo), Central Kalahari Game Reserve	Pro Civil – bought from Gem Diamonds June 2019	2007, officially opened 2009, closure February 2017	Mine being refurbished
Lethakane BK 16	Firestone Diamonds - diamonds	2011	Mine closed
Matshelagabedi and Matsiloje	Tati Nickel Copper, nickel	1989 Selkirk Mine 1995 Phoenix Mine	Production
Orapa (Central District)	Debswana – diamonds	1971	Production
Jwaneng (Southern District)	Debswana – diamonds	1982	Production and expansion
Sua (Central District)	Botswana Ash – soda, potash	1991	Production
Northern Ghanzi District and southern Ngamiland, Toteng and areas to the east (North West District)	Khoemacau Copper Mining (Motheo) – copper, silver, includes Boseto on the Toteng River	2020	In process of being established
Morupule (Central District)	Debswana - coal	1973	Production and expansion
Tsabong, Kgalagadi District	Pangolin Diamonds - diamonds	2020	In process
Kolonkwaneng, Middlepits Project, Kgalagadi District	Tango Mining Ltd. - diamonds	2020	In process

Note: Data obtained from the Ministry of Minerals, Energy and Water Resources (MMEWR); Jefferis (2009); Mengwe (2010:15, Table 1.4), and from the websites of mining companies

Table 9. Economically Valuable Plants and Insects Used by Naro, G//ui, G//ana, Tsila, //Au//eisi (†X'ao-||'aen) and Other Groups in the Western Kalahari Desert Region, Southern Africa

Common Name	Scientific Name	Local Name	Uses
Baobab	<i>Adansonia digitata</i>	Mowana	Food, medicine
Cochineal	<i>Dactylopius coccus</i>	Cochineal, an insect that feeds on <i>Opuntia</i> spp. (prickly pear)	Making of carmine dye, food coloring
Devil's Claw, grapple plant	<i>Harpagophytum procumbens</i>	Sengaparile	Headaches, made into a tea for medicinal purposes
<i>Commiphora</i> spp. (<i>pyracanthoides</i>) plants as host to larvae of beetles	<i>Diamphidia simplex</i> , <i>Diamphidia nigro-ornata</i>	Antidote to the poison is from the bulb <i>Ammocaris coranica</i>	Used in making arrow poison among G//ui, G//ana, Naro, //Au//eisi, Ju/'hoan
Hoodia	<i>Hoodia pelifera</i> , <i>H. gordonii</i>	Ghaap, xhooba, !khoba	Plant used in allaying thirst and hunger, high potential commercial value
Marula	<i>Sclerocarya caffra</i>	Marula	Making wine, fruits into candy, Amarula
Mongongo	<i>Schinziophyton [Ricinodendron] rautanenii</i>	Mongongo, Mangetti, mokongwa	Nuts for consumption, wood for stools and other items
Morama	<i>Tylosema esculentum</i>	Morama, tsin bean <i>cam</i> (Naro)	Nuts and roots for consumption
Truffle	<i>Terfezia pfeilii</i>	Kalahari truffle, <i>kama</i> , <i>dcoodcoo khuuts'u</i> (Naro)	Fungus that is eaten and sold
Wild currant bush	<i>Grewia flava</i>	<i>n/ang</i> (Ju) <i>kg'om</i> (Naro)	Berries that are collected, eaten, and sold
Gemsbok Cucumber	<i>Acanthosicyos naudiniana</i>	<i>ncoro</i> (Naro)	Procured, eaten for moisture purposes, seeds consumed
Wild coffee bean	<i>Bauhinia petersiana</i>	† <i>ang</i> † <i>oa</i> (//Au//eisi)	Seeds procured, consumed, sold

Note: Data obtained from fieldwork and from Heinz and Maguire (1974); Tanaka (1980:56, 71, Tables 8 and 12); and Visser (2001:234-236).

Table 10. Numbers of Tourists in Botswana, Namibia, and Zimbabwe

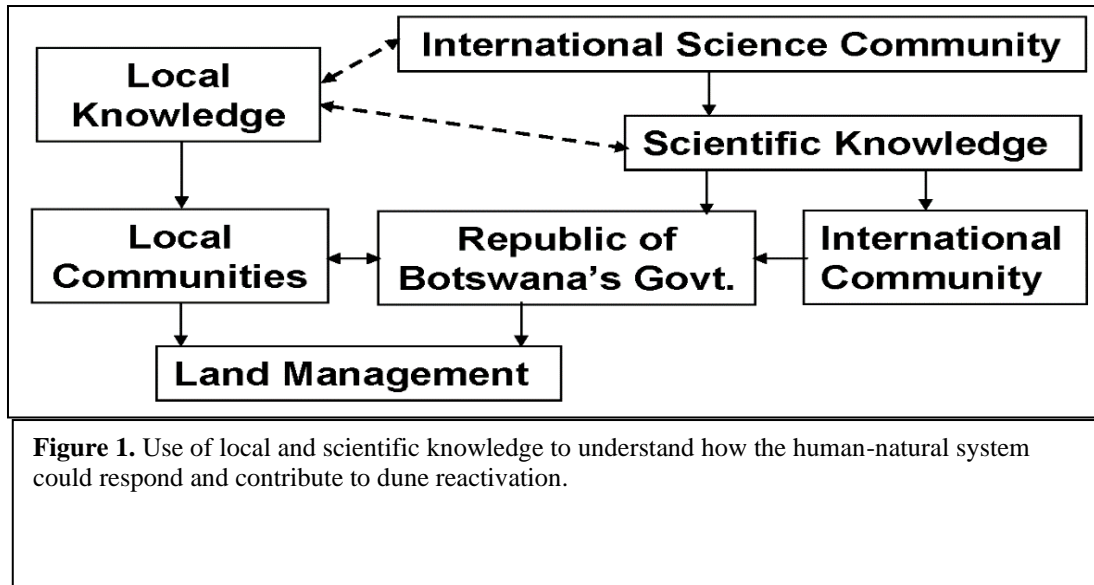
Country	Tourists in 2017	Tourists in 2018	Tourists in 2019
Botswana	1,623,000	1,830,224	1,935,042
Namibia	1,608,018	1,659,762	1,762,079
Zimbabwe	2,450,000	2,579,927	2,200,000
TOTALS	5,651,018	6,069,913	5,897,121

Note: Data obtained from the World Tourism Organization, Tourism Statistics Botswana, the Botswana Ministry of Environment, Natural Resources, Tourism, and Conservation, the Namibia Ministry of Environment, Forestry, and Tourism's *Namibia Statistical Reports*, the Zimbabwe Tourism Association (ZTA), the Zimbabwe National Statistical Agency, and the Ministry of Environment, Climate, Tourism, and Hospitality, Zimbabwe

Table 11 Consultation Survey Sites for KGDEP FPIC Fieldwork

District	Community	Date of Consultation	Location (Degrees, Minutes and Seconds)	Population (2022)	Land Category
Ghanzi	West Hanahai	6 June 2022	22°6'16"S 21°46'19"E	1,101 (2022)	WMA
Ghanzi	New Xade	7 June 2022	22°7'11"S 22°24'40"E	1,614 (2022)	WMA
Ghanzi	East Hanahai	8 June 2022	22°9'48"S 21°51'16"E	720 (2022)	WMA
Ghanzi	Bere	9 June 2022	22°49'17"S 21°52'30"E	874 (2022)	WMA
Ghanzi	Ka/Gae	10 June 2022	22°51'22"S 22°12'30"E	746 (2022)	WMA
No. Kgalagadi	Monong	13 June 2022	23°39'42"S 21°30'53"E	392 (2022)	Communal
No. Kgalagadi	Ncaang	14 June 2022	23°26'27"S 21°13'15"E	358 (2022)	WMA
No. Kgalagadi	Ukhwi	15 June 2022	23°33'21"S 20°29'58"E	669 (2022)	WMA
No Kgalagadi	Ngwatle	16 June 2022	23°42'33"S 21°4'41"E	461 (2022)	WMA
No. Kgalagadi	Zutshwa	17 June 2022	24°8'28"S 21°14'50"E	613 (2022)	WMA
So. Kgalagadi	Khawa	20 June 2022	26°16'54"S 21°22'7"E	1,299 (2022)	WMA
So. Kgalagadi	Struizendam	21 June 2022 and 23 June 2022	26°40'22"S 20°38'9"E	723 (2022)	Communal
So. Kgalagadi	Bokspits	22 June 2022	26°53'51"S 20°41'32"E	705 (2022)	Communal
So. Kgalagadi	Rappels Pan	23 June 2022	26°49'19"S 20°48'54"E	338 (2022)	Communal
So. Kgalagadi	Vaalhoek	24 June 2022	26°52'5"S 20°42'36"E	588 (2022)	Communal

Figure 1. Impacts of Aeolian processes on the landscapes of the western Kalahari



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Area Maps

