

**1Addressing the conservation challenges of human population growth: the
2case of the Ugalla ecosystem in Tanzania**

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18

19

20Abstract

21

22**Background and Aims:** The human population in Africa is predicted to more than double by
232050, making up half of all births worldwide during this period. Such growth will present
24critical challenges for conservation across Africa if no efforts are made to actively reverse it.
25Unfortunately, practical steps to address these challenges are rarely discussed. We use the
26Ugalla ecosystem in Tanzania to explore the relationships between human population and
27conservation outcomes. **Methods:** This paper draws on our long-term experience as
28researchers working in Ugalla. We also performed a thorough online search of available
29literature to identify relevant reference materials, incorporating key words such as population,
30sub-Saharan Africa, conservation crime, and wildlife. **Results:** Ugalla is experiencing a
31significant increase in demand for land and other natural resources from a growing human
32population. Both farmers and pastoralists compete for land, and pressures on protected areas
33from unauthorised resource use have escalated. Current rates of population growth around
34Ugalla must reduce, to preserve wildlife and to ensure food availability for future
35generations. Ensuring access to modern contraception, advocating family planning,
36discouraging early marriages and unplanned pregnancies, land-use planning, enhancing
37capacity for entrepreneurship and livelihood diversification, and facilitating access to
38economic opportunities for young people are important for addressing population-driven
39conservation challenges. **Conclusion:** Changes in the size and composition of human
40populations present challenges for conservation. Addressing these challenges requires a
41strong understanding of local livelihoods and socio-ecological contexts. **Implications for**
42**Conservation:** While appropriate measures to ensure local people can live prosperously
43alongside wildlife will vary according to context, we argue that limiting population growth,
44despite its perceived controversy, is a key part of the solution. If done in an equitable and
45socially acceptable way, it can contribute to better conservation policy and practice across
46Africa.

47

48**Keywords:** protected areas, unauthorised activities, family planning, urban, hunting, sub-
49Saharan Africa, agriculture, livelihoods, Ugalla, Tanzania

50

51Introduction

52

53Although the relationship between human population growth and biodiversity conservation
54has long been debated (*e.g.* Wittemyer et al., 2008; Joppa et al., 2009; [Crist](#) et al., 2017;
55Tilman et al., 2017; Barnard et al., 2021), genuine commitment and meaningful discussion of
56policies and approaches to address the impacts of rapidly growing human populations on
57resource conservation or highlight the urgency of reversing this trend have largely been
58absent from conservation circles (Cafaro et al., 2022; Delacroix & Owoo, 2023).

59

60Since the beginning of the twenty-first century, Africa's population has been the fastest
61growing in the world (Kaba, 2020). While some studies suggest that populations in parts of
62Africa could be stabilising (Sanderson et al., 2018; Mehring et al., 2020), the human
63population in sub-Saharan Africa is expected to quadruple by 2100, with projections
64indicating that it may reach nearly four billion people (Lindsey et al., 2022; Delacroix &
65Owoo, 2023). Considering the challenges to conservation efforts already posed by the
66proximity of human populations to areas of high biodiversity importance, this projected
67growth will result in even greater exploitation of natural resources and the conversion of
68more natural areas into farmland and settlements, causing biodiversity loss, and increased
69land use and human-wildlife conflicts (Lindsey et al., 2022; Bezeng et al., 2025; Storch et al.,
702025). The literature suggests that rapid human population growth in sub-Saharan Africa
71requires urgent and serious attention, especially given the increasing risks associated with
72climate change (*e.g.* Ezeh et al., 2020; Martens et al., 2022; Gayo, 2025).

73

74Studies show that population growth is already affecting conservation areas and people across
75sub-Saharan Africa. For example, the growth in the number of smallholder farmers has
76contributed to increased clearance of forested land for agricultural activities, exacerbating
77biodiversity loss in the Congo Basin (Tyukavina et al., 2018). Human population growth in
78the Serengeti-Mara ecosystem has increased settlements, farming and livestock herding
79activities, which have intensified human-wildlife conflicts and undermined the ecological
80integrity in and around Serengeti National Park and Masai Mara National Reserve (Veldhuis
81et al., 2019). Human population growth and agricultural expansion threaten the resilience of
82the Namibian component of the Kavango-Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area, as
83wildlife becomes increasingly restricted to protected areas, human-wildlife conflicts intensify,

84and dispersal areas and migration routes are progressively degraded (Stoldt et al., 2020).

85Elsewhere, for example in Zambia, Ghana, and Equatorial Guinea, growing human
86populations and their resource demands drive livelihood-related encroachments toward
87protected areas, human-wildlife conflicts, isolation of protected areas, and loss of wildlife
88population viability (Watson et al., 2015; Amankwah et al., 2021; Tella et al., 2026).

89

90The present human “population explosion” in Sub-Saharan Africa has been driven primarily
91by relatively high fertility and birth rates, and increased life expectancy (Bongaarts, 2020;
92Kaba, 2020; Abramova, 2022). Sub-Saharan Africa has many of the nations with the highest
93fertility rates in the world, particularly low- and lower-middle income countries (Chapman et
94al., 2022; Tesfa et al., 2023), such as the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Tanzania
95(UNDESA, 2022), which are also among the most biodiverse countries globally (Chapman et
96al., 2022). Other exogenous factors influencing immigration and emigration also contribute to
97population growth (Salerno et al. 2014; Mercandalli et al., 2019). Migration may result from
98people fleeing conflict, limited economic opportunities, droughts, declining soil fertility, and
99poor governance on a broader scale (*e.g.* Ezeh et al., 2020; Li & Samimi, 2022).

100

101Different methods are marshaled to slow human population growth and mitigate its impacts
102depending on the reason for the growth, communities in which they are used, and contexts,
103but each case enhances our understanding of more effective solutions. For instance, high birth
104rates are addressed by prioritising education and increasing awareness of and access to birth
105control and family planning services (*e.g.* Doctor et al., 2013; Bongaarts, 2020); nonetheless,
106this is not feasible everywhere. For example, in a rural area in Sierra Leone, the community
107has been educated and is aware of the use of contraceptives; however, many people still resist
108using them (Koroma et al., 2022). In another case, Muluneh et al. (2024) suggest that women
109from Ethiopia’s pastoralist communities largely do not use family planning and recommend
110promoting women’s health and education, raising awareness, engaging men and local leaders,
111and improving access to contraceptives.

112

113The conservation impacts of human population growth are mitigated through such activities
114as: investing in conservation education and raising awareness of environmental sustainability
115among different groups in society, including rural and urban populations, religious leaders,
116and politicians (Chapman et al., 2022; Lindsey et al., 2022). Other approaches include

117involving people living near core and lightly protected areas in conservation efforts so as to
118improve local livelihoods while protecting ecological integrity in the face of population
119growth (Martens et al., 2022); and developing quality participatory land use plans and
120enforcing them effectively to help mitigate human-wildlife conflicts in areas where
121encroachment pressures on protected areas are high (Bamford et al., 2014; Lindsey et al.,
1222022). For example, land-use planning is advocated as a mechanism to facilitate coexistence
123between wildlife and expanding human populations engaged in agriculture in game
124management areas surrounding protected areas in Zambia (Subakanya et al., 2018).

125

126Tanzania is among the eight countries projected to account for more than half of global
127population increase by 2050 (UNDESA, 2022). Pragmatic proposals are required on how to
128sustain natural ecosystems and wildlife population viability in the face of this trend, which
129interacts with, and exacerbates, other stressors on human welfare and natural ecosystems such
130as climate change. We address the issue of human population growth for conservation
131through the lens of a particular landscape in western Tanzania, the Ugalla ecosystem, to
132stimulate and inform constructive debate on the implications of rapid human population
133growth for the future of protected areas and natural resources in the country. We illustrate
134how interacting drivers of population growth translate into on-the-ground realities and
135highlight the importance of taking a context-specific view. We then suggest practical steps
136forward for addressing these challenges around Ugalla.

137

138**Review Approach**

139

140***Study area***

141The Ugalla ecosystem, in western Tanzania (Fig. 1), is dominated by miombo woodlands, and
142supports a diverse range of wildlife. Much of this wildlife is now found within protected
143areas (UGR, 2006; Wilfred & MacColl, 2016). Wildlife occurring outside protected areas is
144mainly found in wildlife management areas (WMA), and lightly protected forest reserves,
145and game controlled and open areas, where regulated hunting and other resource-use
146activities (e.g. subsistence fishing and beekeeping) occur (UGR, 2006; Wilfred, 2018).
147Poverty and the need to improve living standards tend to intensify resource use (Wilfred,
1482012). Demand for land for agriculture and human settlement is also increasing (Wilfred,
1492012). Agriculture, the primary source of local livelihoods, is practised extensively, partly

150due to the characteristically low fertility of miombo soils (Hazelhurst & Milner, 2007:
151Wilfred, 2018). Consequently, despite ongoing conservation efforts, protected areas are
152facing increasing pressure from a rapidly growing human population.

153

154*Information used*

155We report on human population growth and its implications for conservation in the Ugalla
156ecosystem, based on our long-term engagement with and knowledge of the area as
157researchers working in conservation and the sustainable use of natural resources. Borgerhoff
158Mulder et al. (2007) suggest that researchers who are working in a particular area over an
159extended period develop a strong understanding of on-the-ground realities and are therefore
160well positioned to devise practical recommendations that can improve conservation practice
161In addition, we conducted online literature searches using Google to identify relevant
162reference materials, incorporating the following key words: Tanzania, population, sub-
163Saharan Africa, conservation crime, wildlife, land use, family planning, protected areas,
164conservation education, WMA, ICT, contraception, population characteristics, livelihoods,
165human-wildlife conflicts, unauthorised resource use, and climate change.

166

167**The Relationship Between Biodiversity Loss and Population Growth in**

168**Sub-Saharan Africa**

169

170Biodiversity loss in sub-Saharan Africa is often associated in the literature with population
171growth. Particularly relevant factors include: growing demands for productive land near
172protected area edges; increased extraction of forest products; degradation of wetlands;
173degradation, isolation, shrinking and even degazettement of protected areas; and wildlife
174declines due to unauthorised and unsustainable oftakes (Estes et al., 2012; Salerno et al.
1752014 Ryan et al., 2017; Munishi & Jewitt, 2019; Van Velden et al., 2020; Cafaro et al., 2022).
176These studies serve as useful yardsticks for understanding factors related to local and regional
177contexts and guiding targeted interventions (Salerno et al. 2014; Mercandalli et al., 2019).
178Other factors also influence resource use; for instance, cultural factors (Rizzolo et al., 2017),
179preference for particular resources (Chausson et al., 2019), presence or absence of livelihood
180alternatives (Wicander & Coad, 2018), agricultural land productivity (Salerno et al. 2014),
181food security (Jouzi et al., 2022), and limited capacity to adopt sustainable technologies
182(Sanderson et al., 2018). Further, at global scales, mega-consumers are responsible for

183biodiversity loss, as increasing demand drives supply. For example, the international trade in
184agricultural commodities (Kastner et al., 2021) and wildlife (‘t Sas-Rolfes et al., 2019; Liew
185et al., 2021) have been important drivers of Africa’s biodiversity declines.

186

187**Population Growth Around Ugalla**

188

189The Ugalla ecosystem spans both the Tabora and Katavi administrative regions of Tanzania
190(Fig. 1; Supplementary Fig. S3). Tabora and Katavi are among the regions in mainland
191Tanzania experiencing rapid growth in human population (URT, 2024). Of the 26 regions of
192mainland Tanzania, Katavi recorded the highest average annual intercensal population growth
193rate between 2012 and 2022, at 7.1%. Over this ten-year period, the population more than
194doubled. According to national census data, the population was 410,452 in 2002, increased to
195564,604 in 2012, and reached 1,152,958 by 2022 (URT, 2024). Tabora ranked fifth, with a
196growth rate of 3.9% (URT, 2024; Fig. 2). Nevertheless, in terms of absolute population
197growth, Tabora ranked higher than Katavi, with a population of 1,710,465 in 2002, rising to
1982,291,623 in 2012, and reaching 3,391,679 by 2022 (URT, 2024). Tabora is the third largest
199contributor to the country’s total population, accounting for 5.7%, behind the two major cities
200of Dar es Salaam (9%) and Mwanza (6.2%) (URT, 2024). Tabora and Katavi both have
201population growth rates above the national average of 3.2%, with at least 80% of the
202populations in the two regions living in rural areas, where most conservation areas are found
203(Wilfred, 2012; URT, 2024). The combined population growth rates for the administrative
204districts neighbouring the Ugalla ecosystem, during the intercensal periods of 2002-2012 and
2052012-2022, are more than half the corresponding growth rates of the respective regions (Fig.
2062). The average household sizes in Tabora and Katavi are 5.6 and 5.3, second and third largest
207in the country, respectively (URT, 2024). Both Tabora and Katavi are among the five regions
208with the worst family planning services in Tanzania (URT, 2022)

209

210**Relationship Between Conservation and Population Growth Around Ugalla**

211

212For decades, the growing human population around Ugalla has intensified interactions
213between local livelihood activities and protected areas (Wilfred, 2012). Conservation
214challenges in the ecosystem can be traced back to the 1950s, when the area was designated as
215a game controlled area, in 1954, to protect concentrations of large game animals (Thomas,

2161961; Fisher, 2002). Wildlife populations suffered substantial declines due to unauthorised
217hunting related to limited livelihood opportunities (Fisher, 2002). In 1965, Ugalla became a
218game reserve (Government Notice 281 & 282) to further strengthen the protection of wildlife.
219Ugalla Game Reserve protected approximately 5,000 sq. km. of land for wildlife until 2021.
220Other lightly protected areas both near and far from the reserve were vast expanses managed
221under different approaches, including open areas, game controlled areas, forest reserves, and
222WMA. In these areas, activities such as farming, cattle herding, settlement, beekeeping,
223fishing, and hunting were taking place. Legal subsistence hunting was also performed in open
224and game controlled areas under the supervision and cooperation of the national government
225and local authorities.

226

227In 2021, a new national park, Ugalla River National Park, was established taking about half
228of Ugalla Game Reserve and additional land from a forest reserve to the north (Fig. 1;
229Supplementary Fig. S3). The remaining half of the reserve was extended southwards,
230bringing the total area of Ugalla Game Reserve to 7,577.36 sq. km. In the same year, other
231new Game Reserves (Luganzo-Tongwe, Inyonga, Igombe, and Wembere) were established in
232the previously lightly protected areas (see Supplementary Fig. S3). These protected areas
233increased the total land under protection to approximately 25,000 sq. km., compared with the
2345,000 sq. km. of the former Ugalla Game Reserve. Only a few lightly protected areas were
235excluded from these changes, including wildlife management areas (Uyumbu and Ipole). The
236WMA were established in the 2000s as the main approach to community-based conservation
237in the area (IRA, 2007; Nelson, 2007).

238

239Therefore, the local population in Ugalla is now largely excluded from the land and other
240natural resources they have been relying on. Owing to the increasing local population - from
241just over one and a half million to nearly three million in a ten-year period from 2012 and
242continuing to grow (Fig. 3) - the demand for natural resources and land for agriculture is also
243increasing. For example, recent surveys suggest a rise in unauthorised hunting, livestock
244herding, fishing, logging, and human-wildlife conflicts, and conflicts between pastoralists and
245farmers over limited land (Nachihangu et al., 2022; Wilfred et al., 2025).

246

247**Factors Affecting Conservation Effectiveness in Ugalla**

248

249Several factors affect wildlife conservation effectiveness in Ugalla. We address them in turn
250and highlight how they relate to population growth in the region.

251

252*Increasing demand for land and conflicts*

253In 2022, Wilfred et al. (unpublished data) conducted focus group discussions with local
254communities around Ugalla, and asked participants whether they had enough land for
255farming, and whether they had enough land for livestock herding. Nearly all focus groups
256suggested people have insufficient land for farming (Table 1) or herding (Supplementary
257Table S2). Common reasons given for this included population growth, establishment or
258expansion of conservation areas, and limited or less productive land (Table 1; Supplementary
259Table S2).

260

261The high demand for land in Ugalla is driven by several factors. First, poor soil fertility and
262limited access to agricultural inputs (Fig. 4) mean that many people derive relatively low
263yields from their crops, which encourages them to practise extensive farming in the more
264fertile lightly protected areas (forest reserves, open and game controlled areas (Wilfred,
2652018).

266

267Second, Sukuma people, who are semi-nomadic agropastoralists originating from the north-
268western regions of Tanzania, have migrated to villages and lightly protected areas in Tabora
269and Katavi Regions, where they occupy extensive areas of land for cultivation, livestock
270herding, and settlement (Borgerhoff Mulder et al., 2007; Wilfred, 2012). Sukuma practice
271their traditional slash-and-burn shifting cultivation, which clears large areas of forest. They
272also keep large herds of cattle and other livestock, as they regard owning many cattle as a
273form of “bank” or wealth, and a symbol of status and prestige. Sukuma use cattle for paying
274bridewealth, and their families are characteristically polygamous and tend to have many
275children, who, they believe, provide them with labour for farming and livestock herding.
276Having large cattle herds in the area often puts Sukuma into conflict with other ethnic groups
277(e.g. Nyamwezi), who are predominantly subsistence smallholder farmers, especially when
278the herds graze on other people’s crops (Wilfred, 2018). Conflicts also occur when Sukuma
279use land that is already owned or cultivated by indigenous farmers. Clashes between farmers
280and pastoralists are common, contributing to food insecurity. The number of pastoralists,
281farmers, and new families has increased, all needing land. Although agropastoralism is

282practised to secure land for both crop cultivation and livestock keeping, the large number of
283livestock often compels herders to seek herding lands far from their villages (Wilfred, 2012).
284Regardless, the land laws and regulations are more supportive of farming activities than
285pastoralism (URT, 1999; Mattee & Shem, 2006).

286

287Third, the establishment of new protected areas has taken a substantial amount of land (Fig.
2881; Supplementary Fig. S3) and brought human settlements and livelihood activities closer to
289or into protected areas. For example, pastoralists often find themselves herding within
290protected areas and are sometimes compelled to enter them in search of pasture. At times,
291people discover too late that their households, farms, and beekeeping and herding lands are
292within protected area boundaries where access is restricted, and find themselves without
293alternatives to replace the lost livelihoods. Just after the establishment of Ugalla River
294National Park, for example, people were given less than a month to cease their decades-long
295permitted beekeeping and fishing activities in the area. This close proximity to protected
296areas and land scarcity has increased the frequency of human-wildlife conflicts which have
297been common in western Tanzania (Hausser et al., 2009; Wilfred et al., 2025), causing local
298communities to have negative attitudes towards the conservation of protected areas. Human-
299wildlife conflicts arise from livestock predation, crop damage, and wildlife attacks on people.
300Other conflicts occur between community members and conservation authorities over
301frequent amendment of protected area boundaries, unauthorised resource use, and cattle
302herding within protected areas.

303

304Communities living in relatively small rural villages in lightly protected areas have been
305involved in disputes with conservation authorities over their rights to use lands that have
306either been acquired or are planned for acquisition for inclusion into protected areas. Some of
307these communities even pressure the government for recognition of their villages and
308squeezing of protected areas to get more land (Wilfred, 2012). Such communities entered the
309forests decades ago as small families of fishermen, loggers, beekeepers, and hunters,
310gradually establishing permanent settlements and turning to agriculture and more commercial
311resource extraction. They also request infrastructure and services like local dispensaries,
312schools, roads, water, and electricity. These demands, and the presence of community
313development NGOs in the area, attract more people from outside looking for economic
314opportunities, contributing to rapid population growth.

315

316 *Limited income generation activities*

317 Most households in Ugalla rely on farming for the majority of their income (Wilfred &
318 MacColl, 2010; Wilfred et al., 2025). The common cash crops are tobacco, maize and rice.
319 Tobacco has been the dominant cash crop for a long time, but the input costs are high, and
320 prices are weak in some harvesting seasons (Wilfred, 2012). Although tobacco companies
321 have been supporting tobacco farmers with agricultural inputs to improve productivity, these
322 inputs are insufficient, and many farmers continue to clear forests to create larger spaces for
323 farmland so as to maximise profits. In the case of other cash crops, local communities often
324 practice extensive farming, thereby increasing pressure on protected areas, particularly as
325 population growth leads to an increase in the number of households dependent on agriculture.
326 Our recent surveys in Ugalla suggest that agriculture, which has long been the backbone of
327 local livelihoods, faces a number of challenges, including inadequate inputs, limited
328 availability of agricultural land, and lack of reliable markets (Fig. 4; Wilfred et al.,
329 unpublished data).

330

331 Local community members also rely on other activities for income. These include carpentry,
332 midwifery and traditional healing practices, small shops, local restaurants, day labour on
333 farms, selling fruits and vegetables, selling soft and local alcoholic drinks, maize mills,
334 tailoring, bicycle and motorcycle taxis, remittances, and technical work (e.g. house
335 construction and repair of electronics, bicycles and motorcycles) (Wilfred & MacColl, 2010;
336 Wilfred et al., 2025; Wilfred et al., unpublished data). However, incomes from these activities
337 cannot meet household needs; thus, when crop yields are poor, the cost of living and food
338 prices increase due to high demand for food. As a result, activities like unauthorised hunting,
339 logging, honey hunting, fishing, charcoal burning also increase in order to supplement
340 household incomes (Wilfred, 2012; Wilfred et al. 2017). For example, Wilfred et al. (2025)
341 reported considerable levels of unauthorised hunting for income.

342

343 *Unauthorised harvesting of natural resources*

344 Most commonly extracted resources from Ugalla include bushmeat, timber, ivory, honey,
345 fish, charcoal, building poles, and plant and animal products for traditional medicine. These
346 are used for both subsistence and local trade, and are usually harvested illegally (Wilfred,
347 2012; Wilfred et al., 2017). Unauthorised hunting and consumption of bushmeat have been

348 reported as prevalent behaviours in Ugalla (Kisingo et al., 2022; Wilfred et al., 2025). A
349 recent study suggests that around 25% and 30% households in Ugalla hunt for cash income
350 and food or subsistence, respectively (Wilfred et al., 2025). The main driver of unauthorised
351 use of natural resources is poverty, coupled with limited income-generating opportunities and
352 a growing desire for higher income as standards of living rise (Kisingo et al., 2022; Wilfred et
353 al., 2025).

354

355 Wilfred (2012) reported that the largest and most problematic group of unauthorised
356 harvesters are young people, the majority of whom fail to attain post-primary education.
357 Many aim to extract profitable resources like elephant tusks, timber, and bushmeat (*see also*
358 Wilfred et al., 2025). The rising demand for these products and the accessibility of markets
359 provide substantial motivation to work with traders from as far afield as Dar es Salaam who
360 supply the necessary gear for poaching and logging in protected areas (Wilfred, 2012). As the
361 number of young people in the area increases, this is likely to intensify the pressure on
362 protected areas.

363

364 **Ways Forward for Conservation in Ugalla**

365

366 Table 2 summarises our recommendations for effective conservation of Ugalla, and presents
367 the rationale, policy implications, and potential barriers associated with each
368 recommendation. To address the conservation challenges facing Ugalla, and indeed similar
369 ecosystems where rapid human population growth is occurring, in the subsequent paragraphs
370 we recommend prioritising family planning, engagement with young people, livelihood
371 diversification, promoting WMA, and sustainable agricultural practices alongside other forms
372 of land use.

373

374 ***Family planning***

375 Long-term family planning programmes can develop a more positive attitude towards
376 smaller, more manageable and sustainable families (Özgür *et al.*, 2000; Barnard et al., 2021).
377 Their most important aspect is enabling people to decide for themselves when they want to
378 have children. The first step would be to explore communities' family planning needs and
379 priorities, and the barriers they face in accessing these services. Secondly, urgent action is
380 needed to ensure access to modern contraception. This should go together with proper

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24

381education, awareness and access to information on the importance and benefits of
382contraceptives. These interventions have been shown to reduce fertility rates and prevent
383unintended pregnancies effectively and non-coercively (Barnard et al., 2021).

384

385Conservation practitioners and other stakeholders in Ugalla can learn from other experiences
386both domestically and internationally. For instance, the Jane Goodall Institute has long
387integrated family planning with conservation efforts around Gombe National Park (Mavanza
388& Grossman, 2007). Blue Ventures provides family planning services in Madagascar through
389an integrated Population-Health-Environment (PHE) approach (Mohan & Shellard, 2014).
390Community-based family planning has been integrated into conservation-focussed PHE
391project in the Greater Mahale Ecosystem of western Tanzania, the Tuungane Project (Hardee
392et al., 2018). PHE projects are instrumental in addressing the conservation impacts of
393population growth by integrating voluntary and rights-based family planning services with
394community health, biodiversity conservation and local livelihood initiatives (*see* Barnard et
395al., 2021; Cafaro et al., 2022).

396

397Interventions primarily targeted at women are key to achieving family planning objectives
398and improving household finances. For example, empowering women to make their own
399income can reduce household poverty and increase their participation in family decision-
400making, including family planning (Haley & Marsh, 2021; Wanjala, 2021). Encouraging
401women's participation in entrepreneurship and facilitating their access to savings and credit
402services would improve their financial capacity (Haley & Marsh, 2021). The empowerment
403of women must involve activities to instill knowledge about resource conservation, and make
404sure they consider sustainability in any income-generating activities they undertake. Regular
405training is essential to broaden their understanding of the income-generating opportunities
406and how to effectively make use of them. Prolonging women's education can remove the
407incentive for early marriages and unplanned pregnancies and give them a chance to mature
408and plan for their future (Schaffnit et al., 2019; Feyissa et al., 2023).

409

410*Land-use planning*

411Conservation authorities should support locally appropriate conservation practices agreed
412with local communities. Interventions that could work in Ugalla include: addressing soil
413fertility declines to reduce the need for land clearance, and maximise crop yields; allocating

414 designated areas to serve as rangelands and manage them in collaboration with local
415 communities, while reducing livestock numbers to minimise conflicts between herders and
416 farmers and reduce pressure on wildlife areas; implementing participatory land use planning
417 to reduce overlap between incompatible land-use types; and building the capacity of local
418 communities to defend their current land use rights.

419

420 Addressing protected area boundary disputes could foster positive attitudes towards
421 conservation (Wilfred, 2018). One of the root causes of such conflicts is protected area
422 extensions and frequent boundary amendments without involving the affected communities.
423 Installing visible physical markers would make clear the current conservation area
424 boundaries. Securing protected area boundaries, wildlife corridors and buffer zones should be
425 done in collaboration with all stakeholders including communities, government and NGOs,
426 so a balance is struck between various interests.

427

428 Riggio & Caro (2017) suggest that Ugalla is an important area for conservation of wildlife in
429 the country as it contains potential corridors that connect wildlife populations between
430 protected areas in western Tanzania and other parts of the country. Ugalla is also included
431 among areas of high conservation value for wildlife corridors in the National Wildlife
432 Corridors Assessment and Action Plan (MNRT, 2022). To realise the conservation of
433 corridors, and indeed protected areas in Ugalla in practice, there must be effective local law
434 enforcement and regular monitoring to keep conservation authorities informed about the level
435 of compliance with land-use planning. Failure to afford proper protection for corridors, buffer
436 zones, and dispersal areas through well-executed land-use planning means that even the
437 newly established protected areas around Ugalla are unlikely to be sufficient to safeguard
438 wildlife. The Katavi-Rukwa ecosystem, also in western Tanzania, is a good example, where
439 the growing human population and their unsustainable agricultural activities pose serious
440 threats to the ecosystem and the elephant corridor connecting it to Mahale Mountains
441 National Parks (Giliba et al., 2022).

442

443 **Promoting WMA**

444 Tanzania's model of community-based conservation, WMA, could in principle increase local
445 buy-in to conservation as WMA seek to ensure fair and equitable benefit-sharing so that local
446 people benefit from leaving some land and resources for wildlife (Kiwango et al., 2015). Recent

447studies report success in some WMA in northern Tanzania (Nelson et al., 2021; Raycraft,
4482023). However, considerable work remains to be done to ensure that WMA nationwide
449achieve their desired outcomes (Keane et al., 2019). For example, Ipole and Uyumbu WMA
450within the Ugalla ecosystem have largely failed to fulfil the purpose for which they were
451established (IRA, 2007; Nelson, 2007; Wilfred, 2010). Together, the two WMA cover
452approximately 3,500 sq. km of village lands that would otherwise have been allocated to
453livelihood activities (e.g. farming, grazing, and beekeeping), but member villages get little to
454no benefit from these lands (IRA, 2007; Wilfred, 2012). We suggest that WMA be reformed
455to provide tangible conservation benefits, keep members actively engaged, and inspire them
456to feel a sense of ownership of wildlife. This would prevent them from becoming short-term
457fixes for conservation problems, which require the constant presence of donors and NGOs to
458remain effective.

459

460***Reducing youth involvement in unauthorised activities***

461Measures to deter unauthorised behaviours in Ugalla (e.g. law enforcement) should be
462supplemented with interventions targeted at preventing young people from engaging in
463unauthorised use of natural resources in the first place. For example, the need for active
464engagement of young people in conservation law enforcement (e.g. as village game scouts
465and/or confidential informants) expressed by Ugalla communities in a recent study (Wilfred
466et al., 2025) presents an opportunity to empower them to combat poaching, while also serving
467as a potential source of income. The local communities have also expressed a desire for their
468youth to receive training as wildlife rangers, and to be given priority in employment
469opportunities in protected areas within Ugalla, rather than conservation authorities relying
470primarily on rangers from outside (Wilfred et al., unpublished data). Conservation
471practitioners in Ugalla could also draw lessons from a youth engagement initiative – “Vijana
472na Mazingira” (VIMA) - run in the nearby Katavi ecosystem (Milner-Gulland et al., 2020).
473VIMA aims to build the capacity of young people aged 12 to 35 through local projects (e.g.
474beekeeping) that can improve their living standards and discourage them from engaging in
475poaching. VIMA also raises conservation awareness among youth through organised visits to
476protected areas.

477

478Conservationists could further draw on theories from the criminological literature to inform
479their practice (e.g. Nation et al., 2003; Greenwood & Turner, 2009; Weisburd et al., 2017).

480For example, some approaches that could be relevant to Ugalla include raising awareness
481among young people of the impact of unauthorised activities on biodiversity and livelihoods,
482in settings that influence their lifestyle choices (e.g. parents, community leaders, peers,
483schoolteachers); engaging them in the initial stages of crime-prevention interventions; and
484ensuring that interventions address their specific needs so to increase their receptiveness and
485relevance (e.g. Nation et al., 2003; Flanagan, et al., 2019). The tendency of youth to follow in
486the footsteps of non-complying family members and friends must be addressed in order to
487stop the “intergenerational transfer” of unauthorised behaviours (Bijleveld & Wijkman, 2009;
488Van Dijk et al., 2019).

489

490*Diversifying livelihoods based on ICT*

491Livelihood diversification can help people out of the vicious cycle of resource degradation
492(Ellis & Allison, 2004; Gashu & Muchie, 2018). But this requires better infrastructure to
493facilitate access to economic opportunities in urban and peri-urban centres. The wide use of
494mobile phones in many rural areas of Tanzania has potential to contribute to local livelihoods.
495For example, mobile networks facilitate access to agricultural technologies, inputs and related
496services that increase crop yields (Quandt et al., 2020). Mobile phones also enable local
497communities to access information about opportunities for income generation (Bahia et al.,
4982021). Rural development officers could raise awareness of, and provide appropriate training
499on, the use of the internet to access relevant and reliable information. Furthermore, reliable
500and affordable internet connectivity is vital for effectively taking advantage of relevant
501opportunities (Ruiz-Martínez & Esparcia, 2020; Rolandi et al., 2021).

502

503An internet connection and basic training in information and communication technology
504(ICT) by teachers in local schools and colleges can enable youth to access remote-working
505jobs while staying in their villages (Ruiz-Martínez & Esparcia, 2020; Matli & Wamba, 2023).
506ICT presents an opportunity that can be unlocked through improved basic education. For
507example, youth can work as agents with companies and institutions that use digital platforms,
508such as transport and communication companies, and banks. They can also participate in the
509agribusiness industry while staying in their villages (e.g. Arthur et al., 2024); for instance,
510they can generate income by working remotely with digital agriculture companies based in
511cities or urban centres. With ICT skills, and capacity building by the government and NGOs,
512youth can also work as agricultural entrepreneurs; promoting common cash crops (e.g.,

513maize, rice, and tobacco) through digital markets, and networking with other stakeholders in
514the agricultural business. Such activities could reduce issues related to in-migration into areas
515where natural resources are still abundant enough to support income-generation (for example
516around protected areas), and address issues of rural depopulation in which younger people
517move away and older people cannot then maintain their livelihoods (*e.g.* Wright, 2021).
518Targeted investments could help integrate ICT into livelihood diversification in western
519Tanzania, linked to support for young people to gain the ICT-based skills needed for their
520future careers. Enhancing the capacity of youth for entrepreneurship and income
521diversification could reduce their motivation for unauthorised resource use.

522

523***Taking advantage of urban economic opportunities***

524Although a common strategy to reduce human pressures on protected areas has been to relocate
525people or deny them access to natural resources (Brockington & Wilkie, 2015), such relocations in the
526name of conservation have a very bad history of human rights abuses (Agrawal & Redford, 2009;
527Brittain et al., 2021; Weldemichel, 2022). Like other countries in Africa, areas designated for wildlife
528conservation in Tanzania have historically involved the relocation or resettlement of people from
529those areas (*see* Chatty & Colchester, 2002). For example, Ugalla Game Reserve exists today because
530the people who had been living in the area were resettled in the 1920s following a sleeping sickness
531epidemic (Fisher, 2002).

532

533Here, we argue that if appropriately managed, programmes providing opportunities in urban areas
534could serve as “incentives to relocate” voluntarily for communities living near areas of conservation
535importance (Wright, 2021). Urban communities have comparatively high living standards, better
536access to health and family planning services, and opportunities for economic and educational
537advancement (Lindsey et al., 2022). However, their demand for food and natural resources is usually
538higher than in rural areas. This can result in agricultural expansion and unsustainable extraction of
539resources in rural areas, particularly when birth rates are also high (Cafaro et al., 2022; Chapman et
540al., 2022). Therefore, other measures to safeguard wildlife and natural areas, as detailed in this article,
541are also necessary; for example, providing access to contraception and female education in urban
542areas as well as rural areas to reduce rapid population growth (*see also* Chapman et al., 2022), and
543strengthening local law enforcement against unauthorised resource extraction and encroachments in
544and around conservation areas. The need to control bushmeat supply to and consumption in urban
545areas cannot be overstated (*e.g.* Andimile & Floros, 2021). Bushmeat consumption in urban areas is
546also a problem elsewhere in Africa, and studies have been conducted to find solutions, for example in
547Cameroon (Nana et al., 2025) and the Democratic Republic of Congo (Fa et al., 2019). In the case of

548Tanzania, effective enforcement of the recently introduced game meat selling scheme, which specifies
549alternative sources of wild meat like wildlife farms, ranches, and problem animal control (URT,
5502020), can discourage bushmeat black markets in urban areas where game meat butcheries mostly
551operate (Kadigi et al., 2023). However, game meat in these butcheries should be affordable for low-
552income urban dwellers (Kagembe et al., 2024). As a measure to control bushmeat transported to urban
553areas, the Tanzania Wildlife Management Authority (TAWA), in collaboration with other security
554organs, can install checkpoints (Andimile & Floros, 2021). The government, NGOs, and other
555stakeholders can also raise awareness among consumers about the impact of bushmeat consumption
556on wildlife and implement additional interventions to reduce demand for bushmeat in urban areas, as
557recommended in other sub-Saharan African countries (Chausson et al., 2019; Cisse, et al., 2025).

558

559Well-planned and better-managed urbanisation has a place in reducing the impact of human
560population growth on conservation areas, with the assurance of strong and reliable institutions,
561sustainable infrastructure, and good governance (*see* Sakketa, 2023). As urban-based rural migrants in
562sub-Saharan Africa sustain their relationships with their villages of origin (Mercandalli et al., 2019;
563Wright, 2021), they can create economic opportunities for their rural communities through investing
564in farming, promoting “multi-spatial livelihoods”, inspiring other community members, and
565contributing to diverting growing rural populations to off-forest livelihoods (Lohnert, 2017; Wright,
5662021). Urban-to-rural cash remittances, via mobile phone banking, also have a role to play in rural
567economies (Batista & Vicente, 2023). These remittances can contribute to promoting food security,
568educational development, agricultural production, and livelihoods that are less dependent on natural
569resources (Sakketa, 2023). Conversely, they can also contribute to exacerbating unsustainable use of
570natural resources, if they are invested in further expansion of farm area or in hunting. It is important,
571therefore, to ensure that improvement in livelihoods and living standards does not lead to further
572unsustainable use of natural resources in the context of more people needing them. Support for
573communities is needed to help them move to a fewer-children future. In this way, they would be better
574off, improve their children’s future prospects, and maintain healthier families with fewer dependent
575children (*see* Norrman, 2023).

576

577There are some important caveats, though, when supporting rural economies through urbanisation,
578rural-to-urban migration, and externally-initiated entrepreneurship interventions in general. Firstly,
579people should be able to decide what they themselves need in regard to income-generating activities,
580training and mentorship needs (Brittain et al. 2020). Building household capacity can empower them
581to participate productively in the rural economy for more resilient and sustainable livelihoods
582(Sedlmayr et al., 2020). Secondly, rural youth out-migration should not result in depopulation and the
583long-run loss of people with attachments to their rural areas, as this can damage the social-ecological

584system and leave areas exposed to land-grabbing and unsustainable extraction of natural resources by
585external actors (*e.g.* Hall, 2015; Mantero et al., 2020).

586

587**Conclusion and Implications for Conservation**

588

589The conservation impact of population growth in sub-Saharan Africa is one of the most
590contentious and sensitive topics in conservation, to the extent that many conservation
591scientists and practitioners have self-censored on the issue. This is not healthy, because
592changes in the size and composition of human populations are an important element of the
593complex, intertwined issues affecting conservation outcomes, human wellbeing, and rights.
594Here we have used the Ugalla ecosystem as a case study to explore some of these issues and
595suggest some practical ways forward.

596

597The core issue that commentators often focus on is the contention that the natural resource-
598based livelihoods of many rural communities are incompatible with conservation in the face
599of significant population growth. Land-use pressures and unsustainable extractive use of
600forest resources have been central to this debate. However, the reality is complex and area-
601specific. In many places, conservation practitioners have been striving to achieve a balance
602between livelihood needs and sustainable conservation, but to no avail. In the Ugalla area,
603people are inherently and historically reliant on hunting, logging, peasant agriculture,
604beekeeping and fishing. Population growth in the area goes hand in glove with increased
605demand for land and forest resources. Therefore, the recent decision by the government to
606expand the network of protected areas could potentially help protect wildlife populations and
607corridors, but it may also negatively affect local livelihoods that previously relied on natural
608resources and land now designated as protected areas. Based on our long-term experience in
609Ugalla, we recommend that there should be no further expansion of protected areas; instead,
610the existing protected areas should be effectively managed to ensure that illegal activities are
611controlled (including poaching, grazing). Protected area planning also needs to ensure that
612enough land is available for farming, settlement, livestock herding and other activities for
613local populations. We further recommend taking measures to enhance family planning,
614implement participatory land use plans, diversify livelihoods, and get young people engaged
615in livelihoods that work better for them than illegal resource extraction (including potentially
616through better ICT, and more constructive and sustainable urban-rural linkages).

37

19

38

617

618Conservationists could advocate for the importance of slowing and ultimately reversing
619population growth in order to save Ugalla’s biodiversity in the long term. Additionally,
620further research would broaden our understanding of the interactions between population
621growth, effectiveness of conservation efforts, and sustainable use of natural resources,
622supporting better conservation outcomes in Ugalla and similar ecosystems elsewhere in sub-
623Saharan Africa. Discussions about population change need to be framed within broader
624debates on how best to reconcile human rights, conservation and livelihoods within real-
625world landscapes, rather than being based on unhelpful sweeping statements and
626generalisations (Newing et al., 2023). Commentators also need to be cognisant of the
627systemic external drivers of biodiversity loss, including climate change and global
628inequalities in wealth and consumption. Addressing the challenge of a growing human
629population requires a strong understanding of the local context and the needs of people living
630in those landscapes. Ultimately, a failure to plan for and end human pressure on natural
631ecosystems risks imposing negative outcomes on both people and biodiversity.

632

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1049 **Table 1:** Reasons given by local communities around the Ugalla ecosystem who discussed the question of whether
 1050 people had enough land for farming (Wilfred et al., unpublished data)

Response (focus groups)	Reason (frequency^a)	Selected quote
No (10)	The local population is growing, and so is the demand for land (9)	“...there are more farmers than available agricultural land” “...the village boundaries have remained the same since 1961” “...main reason for population growth is births, and then followed by immigration”
	Expansion and/or creation of conservation areas (7)	“Historically, our area was a game controlled area, and as a result, people here feel as though the land has been lent to them rather than belonging to them” “Conservation authorities are taking over, by force, village lands that had been set aside for the community. These areas had been reserved for future use in anticipation of increasing population and future land needs”
	Soil fertility declines quickly (1) Land is costly, while incomes are low (1)	“...communities are forced to look for new farmland”
Yes (2)	There are farms (1)	“...there are many open spaces”
	There is a mixture of various income generation activities Shortage of agricultural equipment and inputs (1)	“...reduces the capacity to cultivate large areas of agricultural land...”

1051^aNumber of times the reason was mentioned

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1057 **Table 2: Recommendations for and potential barriers to addressing conservation challenges of human**
 1058 **population growth around the Ugalla ecosystem of western Tanzania**

Recommendation	Rationale	Policy intervention needed	Potential barriers
Family planning and contraception services	Increase in unplanned and/or unintended births Population pressure on both livelihoods and protected areas	Education/awareness raising, and regular training workshops on family planning Ensure availability of family planning services, and remove barriers to accessing modern contraception	Limited political commitment, coupled with active resistance on religious grounds Limited resources (financial and personnel) to implement family planning programmes Larger families are often viewed as a source of labour Financial barriers to contraceptives
Women's academic and economic development	Many girls do not continue with their education beyond basic or primary education Child and forced marriages contribute to the rise in low-income households, particularly because they prevent women from fully participating in the family and local economy Reduced family sizes will reduce pressure on land and natural resources	More effectively prevent child and forced marriages Increase support for girls to stay in school Strengthen women's potential for effective participation in key decisions related to family size and finances Increase women's economic opportunities through affordable loans, entrepreneurship training, and markets for agricultural products etc.	Patriarchy Many incidents of child marriage remain hidden or unreported Poor quality of education in rural primary schools Many girls or teenage mothers face stigma and social isolation, which consequently affect their development and academic performance
Sustainable	Extensive slash-and-	Promote availability	Poor roads limit

farming practices	<p>burn farming due to inherently low soil fertility</p> <p>Protected areas are threatened by expansion of farming activities</p> <p>Low crop yields relative to family sizes</p> <p>Conflicts between farmers and pastoralists</p> <p>Tensions between communities and conservation authorities over protected area extensions</p>	<p>of and access to agricultural technologies and inputs (equipment, seeds, fertilizers, and agrochemicals)</p> <p>Support interventions to prevent extensive farming</p> <p>Provide reliable markets and affordable loans to farmers</p> <p>Implement land use plans</p>	<p>transportation of agricultural produce</p> <p>Crop raiding animals</p> <p>Limited skilled personnel and financial resources to prepare, administer, and enforce land use plans</p> <p>Financial barriers to agricultural inputs</p>
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Sustainable livestock production and practices	<p>Growth in pastoralist population places greater demand for grazing areas</p> <p>Grazing areas are limited as extensive farming converts grassland to crops</p> <p>Grazing occurs in conservation areas (game reserves, controlled areas, and national parks)</p>	<p>Set aside areas for pastoralists to graze their livestock (grazing zones)</p> <p>There should be a limit on the number of cattle a household can have</p>	<p>Wealthier livestock owners from other parts of the country hire locals to graze their livestock</p> <p>Pastoralist communities keep big herds of cattle as a sign of wealth and status</p> <p>Lack of political will, especially because local political representatives rely on the support of pastoralist communities</p>
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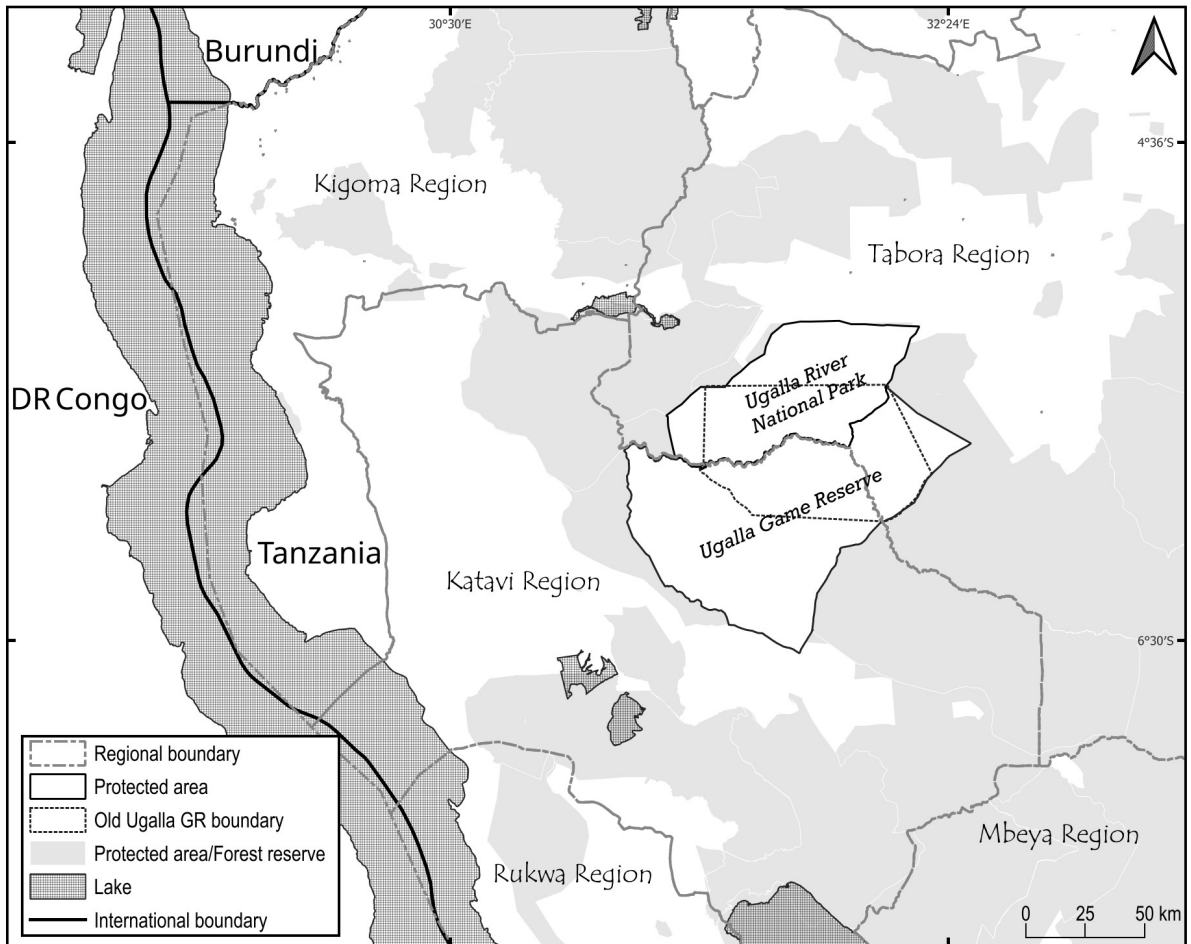
Effective wildlife management areas (WMA)	<p>Many people have negative attitudes towards protected areas' conservation</p> <p>Widespread</p>	<p>Actively engage member villages</p> <p>Promote equitable sharing of benefits</p>	<p>Lack of willingness on the part of the government to fully decentralise the</p>
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	<p>unauthorised resource use activities</p> <p>Local communities do not benefit from conservation</p>	<p>from WMA</p> <p>Build local capacity for innovative and sustainable use of WMA</p>	<p>management of WMA</p> <p>WMA are still highly dependent on donors</p>
Youth economic development	<p>Limited reliable income generating opportunities for youth</p> <p>Limited youth contribution to household income</p> <p>Youth perform illegal logging, hunting, and grazing activities in protected areas</p>	<p>Build the capacity of youth to actively participate in anti-poaching, and encourage them to engage in different short- and long-term income generation activities</p> <p>Youth who have been unable to continue with secondary or higher education should be allowed and supported to join institutions that offer basic training in skills they are interested in</p>	<p>Poor transport, electricity, internet, markets, and other key services, limit youth's access to different economic opportunities</p> <p>Many youth desire quick income and higher standards of living, often irrespective of the means they use to achieve them</p>
Livelihood diversification	<p>Livelihoods are commonly dependent on natural resources</p> <p>Income-generating opportunities are limited</p> <p>Subsistence farming does not adequately meet the basic household needs</p>	<p>Raise awareness and build local capacity to engage in off-farm sources of income</p> <p>Provide ICT infrastructure and services to facilitate access to relevant information on economic opportunities available in urban areas and elsewhere in the country</p>	<p>Slow pace of road and other types of development connecting urban and rural areas</p> <p>Low levels of literacy and education around Ugalla, so people require sustained capacity-building before they can effectively benefit from urban economies</p>

Provide financial education, and facilitate access to formal financial services (e.g. savings, investment opportunities, government bonds, fixed deposits, credit facilities)

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1074 **Figure 1:** Western Tanzania, where the Ugalla ecosystem is located. Ugalla River National Park and Ugalla Game
1075 Reserve form an integral part of this ecosystem. These are surrounded by other conservation areas, namely game
1076 reserves, wildlife management areas, forest reserves, game controlled areas, and open areas. The former boundaries
1077 of Ugalla Game Reserve (old Ugalla GR) persisted from 1965 to 2021, prior to changes that involved the expansion
1078 of existing protected areas and the creation of new ones

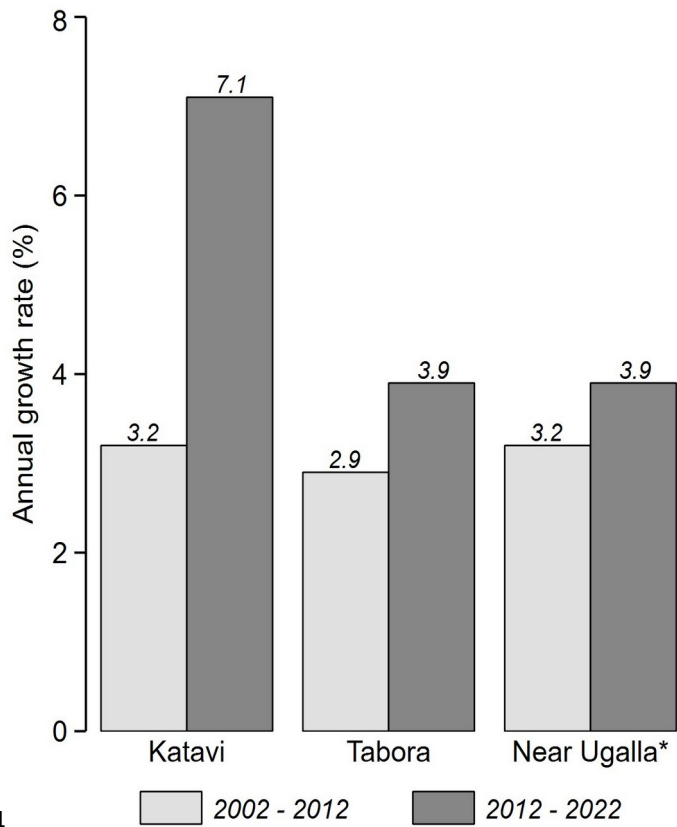
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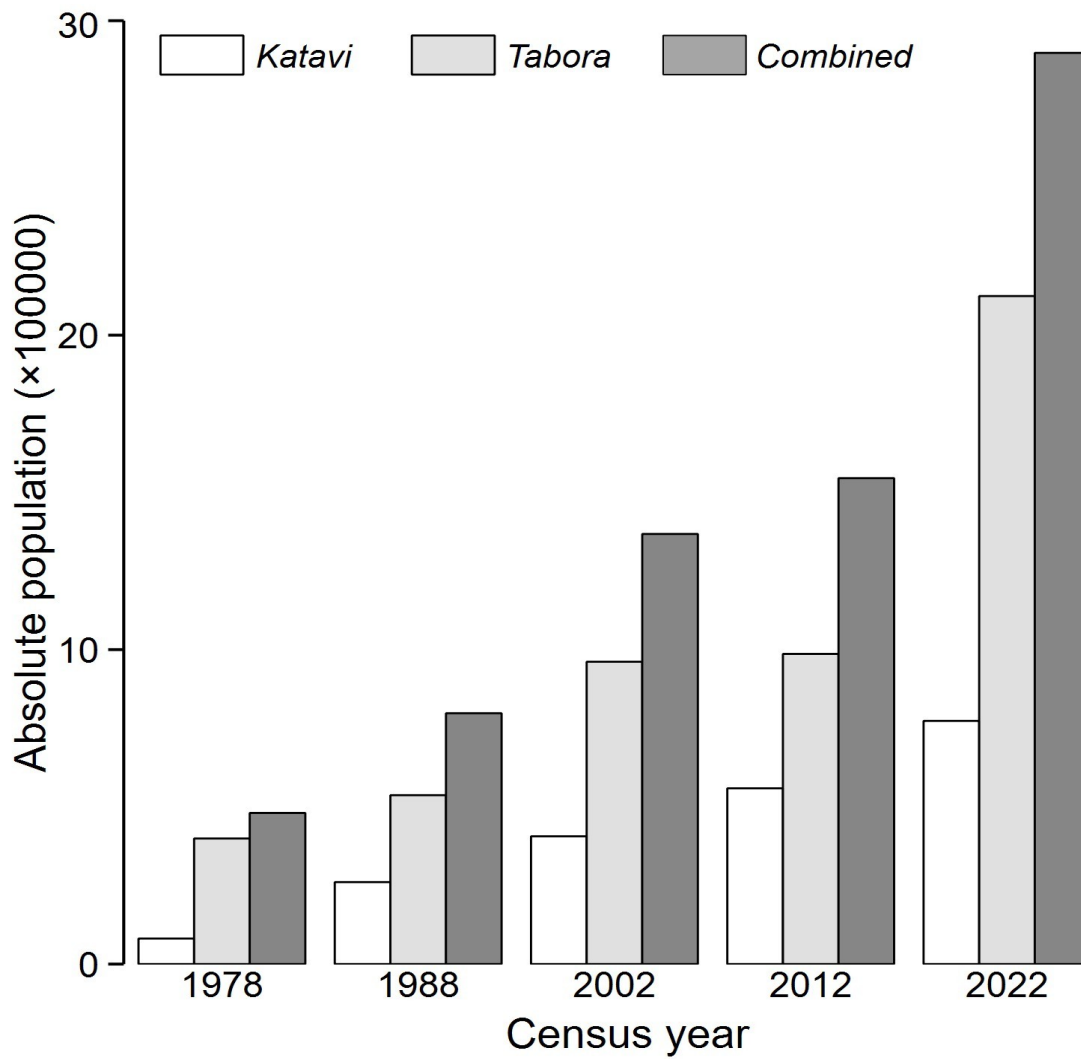
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1086 **Figure 2:** Human population growth rates for Katavi and Tabora regions, and districts around the Ugalla ecosystem of
 1087 western Tanzania. *Combined districts within Tabora administrative boundaries (Kaliua, Urambo, Tabora Urban, Uyui,
 1088 Sikonge), and Katavi (Mpanda, Nsimbo, Mlele). *Data source URL: <https://www.nbs.go.tz/>*

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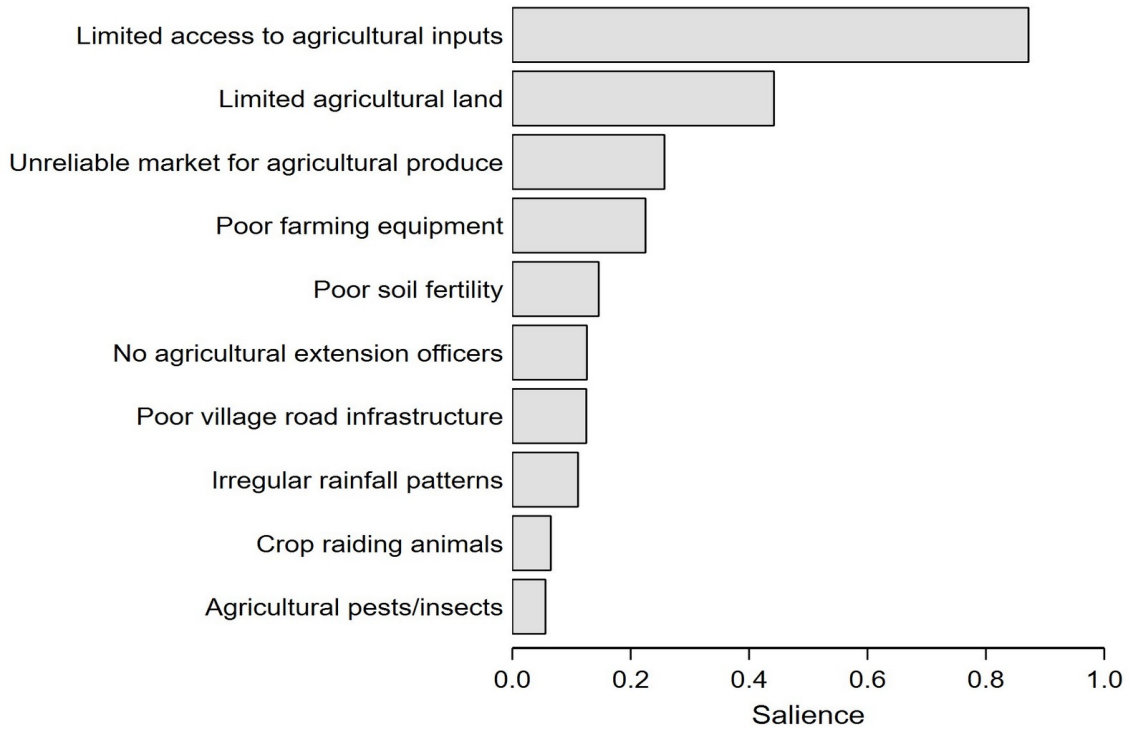
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1094 **Figure 3:** Human population sizes in census years 1978-2022 for administrative districts surrounding the Ugalla
1095 ecosystem. Tabora Region (Districts: Kaliua, Urambo, Tabora Urban, Uyui, Sikonge) and Katavi Region (Mpanda,
1096 Nsimbo, Mlele). *Data source URL: <https://www.nbs.go.tz/>*

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1102 **Figure 4:** Salience score of the top agricultural challenges faced by the communities around the Ugalla ecosystem as
1103 ranked by 12 focus groups (score of 1 means that challenge was ranked first by all focus groups; score <1, challenge
1104 ranked lower or not ranked in every group) (Wilfred et al., unpublished data)

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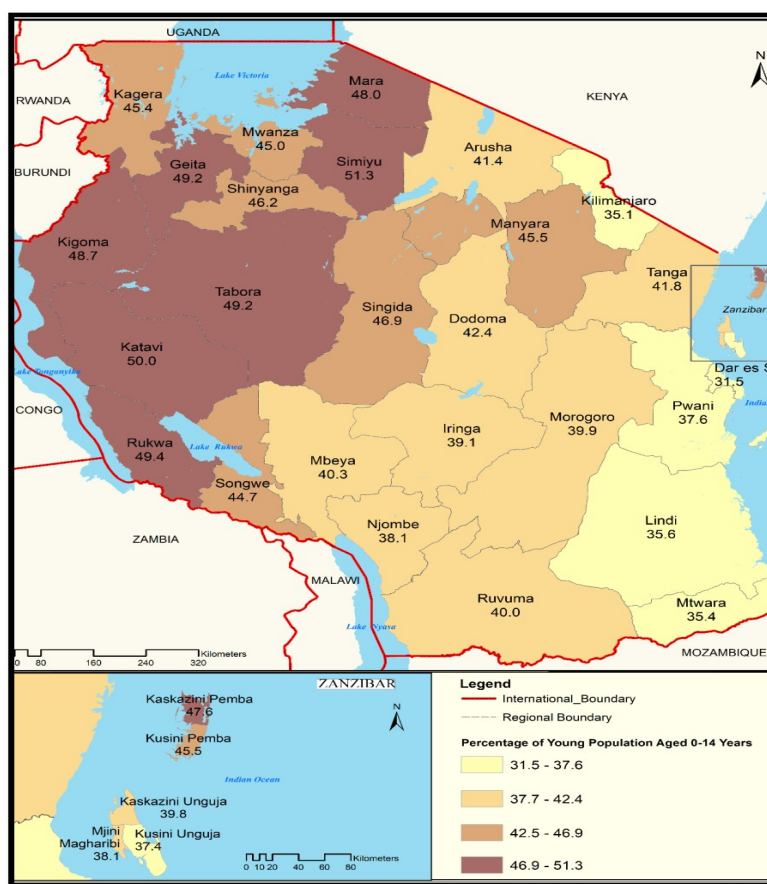
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Supporting Information

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1126 **Addressing the conservation challenges of human population growth: the**
1127 **case of the Ugalla ecosystem in Tanzania**

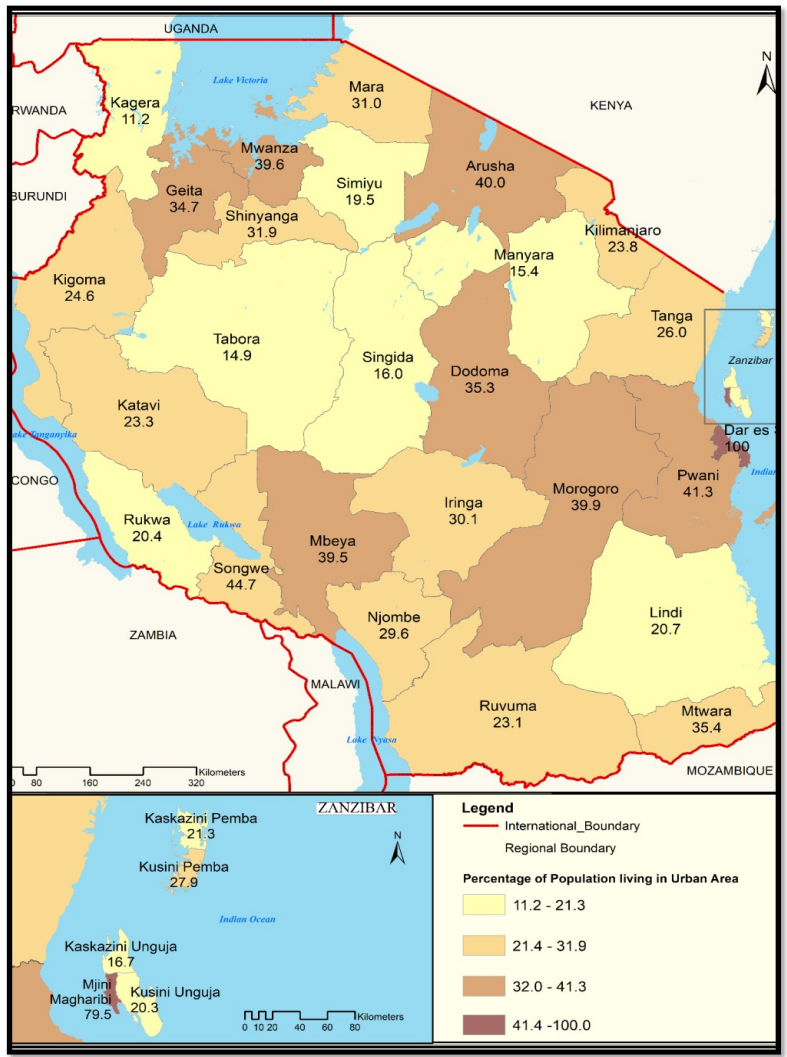
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1130 **Figure S1:** Percentage distribution of total population below 15 years by region. Total population in Tanzania is 113161,741,120 people. Source: URT, 2022b

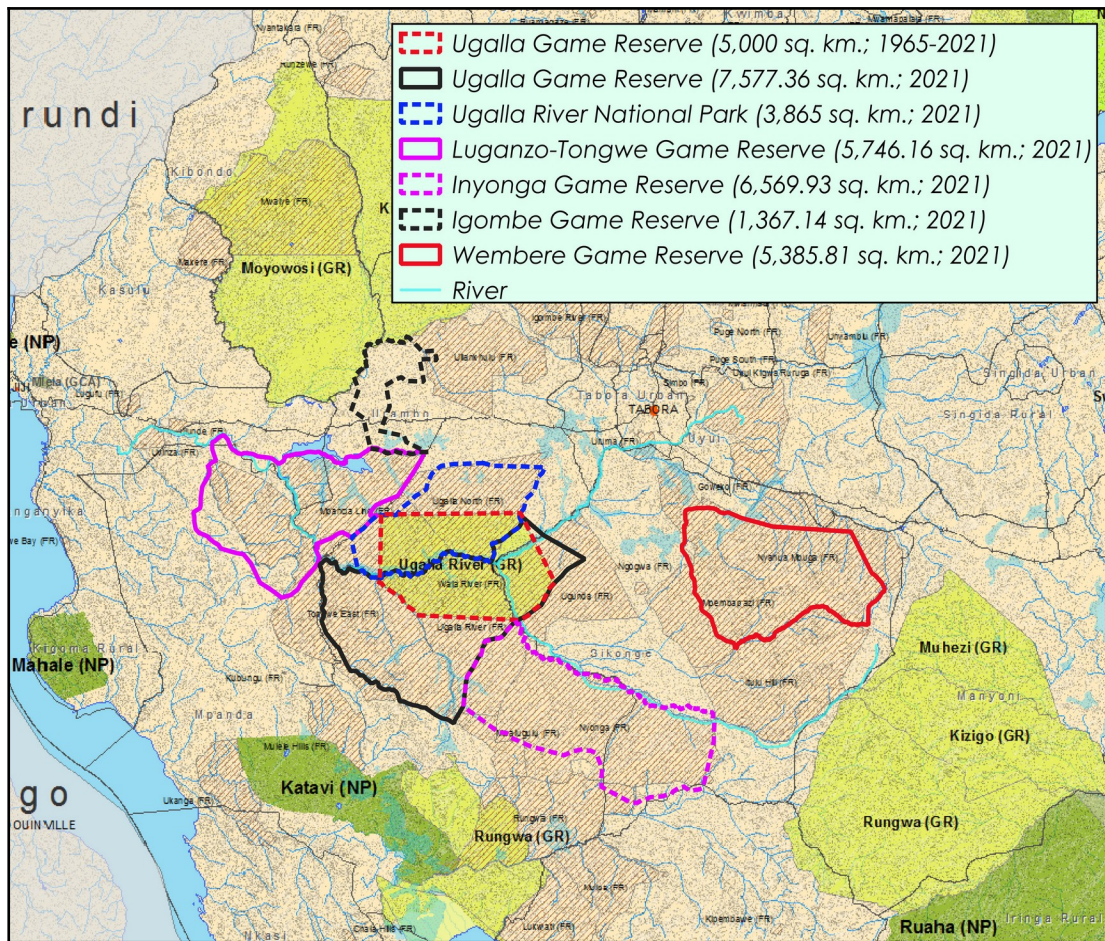
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1134 **Figure S2:** Percentage distribution of population living in urban areas by region. Total population in Tanzania 1135 is 61,741,120 people. Source: URT, 2022b

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1138 **Figure S3:** Western Tanzania showing changes to protected area boundaries in the Ugalla ecosystem. The
 1139 boundaries became officially operational from 2021. The red dashed line in the middle shows the former Ugalla
 1140 Game Reserve that lasted from 1965 to 2021.

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1142 **Table S1:** Human population growth rates for administrative regions near selected conservation areas in Tanzania. The
 1143 administrative regions for Ugalla (Tabora and Katavi) are highlighted in bold.

Conservation area	Region	Intercensal growth rate [†]				
		1967/1978	1978/1988	1988/2002	2002/2012	2012/2022
Serengeti	Mara	2.6	2.9	2.6	2.5	3.1
	Simiyu [§]	N/A	N/A	N/A	1.8	3.0
Ruaha	Iringa	2.7	2.7	1.6	1.2	2.4
Katavi	Katavi[§]	N/A	N/A	N/A	3.2	7.1
Ugalla	Tabora	4.4	2.4	3.6	2.9	3.9
Muyowosi	Kigoma	2.9	2.7	4.8	2.4	1.5
Selous	Coast	1.7	2.1	2.4	2.2	6.1
	Lindi	2.1	2.0	1.4	0.9	3.2
	Morogoro	2.9	2.6	2.6	2.4	3.7
	Mtwara	2.0	1.4	1.7	1.2	2.5
	Ruvuma	3.2	3.3	2.5	2.1	2.9

1144[§]Administrative Region established in 2012

1145[†]Data source URL: <https://www.nbs.go.tz/>

1146NA = Not Applicable

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1148Table s2: Reasons for people not having enough land for grazing as discussed by focus groups
 1149around Ugalla (Wilfred et al., unpublished data)

Response (focus groups)	Reason (frequency ^a)	Selected quote
No (12)	Protected areas occupy a large portion of land (4)	
	The number of livestock is increasing (3)	"...grazing areas are few"
	Grazing areas have not been designated (3)	"...this causes conflicts between farmers and pastoralists"
	The available land is limited (3)	
	A large part of land is used for farming (2)	"...pastoralists do not have designated grazing areas"
	The number of farmers and pastoralists is increasing (1)	"...farmers and pastoralists are competing over the available land..."
	The human population is growing (1)	
	Pastoralism is predominantly practised in a migratory manner (1)	"...it causes conflicts between farmers and pastoralists"
Yes (0)	-	-

1150^aNumber of times the reason was mentioned

1151-No response

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