

SWM SUSTAINABLE WILDLIFE MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME

Towards sustainable wildlife management

An in-depth study for the promotion of community conservancies in Zambia and Zimbabwe

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II. PRESENTATION OF THE SWM PROGRAMME IN KAZA

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Introduction

The community conservancy (CC) as well as its central tenets and applications under the Sustainable Wildlife Management (SWM) Programme are presented in this chapter. We present the key results of the application of this model in specific chapters in this report. The programme team presents the governance issues surrounding Sustainable Management Units (SMU) which constitute some of the core aspects of the connectivity of wildlife areas within the Kavango-Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area (KaZa-TFCA) and how community conservancies add to their value. The development of robust management plans, effective wildlife monitoring protocols, and alternative sources of protein are some of the important pathways for the strengthening of wildlife conservation and empowerment of rural communities. The management of each CC must address these governance issues if the concept of the CC is to be realized.

Materials and methods

This chapter is based on the results of multiple interviews to determine the different actors involved in the SWM Programme in KaZa and their weight, whether these actors are administrative/political authorities at national or local levels, or traditional leaders and the communities that depend on the natural resources. These interviews made it possible to analyse governance in relation to wildlife conservation and to draw up an analysis of the stakeholders for each of the community conservancies.

In addition to these interviews, several workshops were held in order to analyse with all these stakeholders a theory of change that will have to be iterative and adaptive to changing situations throughout the project, as well as the social safeguard tools that are essential for the communities to make informed decisions about the SWM Programme in KaZa.

A. National historical and political context

The Republics of Zambia and Zimbabwe were British colonies and as such share some commonalities in terms of legal statutes and experiences. Pathways to independence varied greatly, with Zimbabwe variously known as Southern Rhodesia (1911–64), Rhodesia (1964–79), or Zimbabwe Rhodesia (1979–80), while Zambia, as a colony, was named Northern Rhodesia (1911–64) but gained independence in 1964 as the Republic of Zambia. Both were also at one time under the British South Africa Company, and were part of the ill-fated Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland (1953–63). The two countries are landlocked and share a 200 km common boundary stretching to the north. In addition, Zimbabwe shares boundaries with the Republic of South Africa, Botswana and Mozambique, while Zambia borders Angola, Botswana, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe.

A.1. Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe achieved majority rule and independence in April 1980 following a long period of colonial rule, which began in 1890, as well as a 15-year period of white-dominated minority rule from 1965. The 2013 Constitution defines Zimbabwe as a unitary, democratic and sovereign Republic. It is a multiparty democratic political system with an electoral system based on universal adult suffrage and equality of votes. Political and electoral rights are enshrined in Section 4 of the Constitution, which recognizes political rights as fundamental human rights, as well as in the Electoral Act [Chapter 2:13]. The executive authority of Zimbabwe vests in the President who exercises it, subject to the Constitution, through the Cabinet. The President is the Head of State and Government and the Commander-in-Chief of the Defence Forces. Section 90 of the Constitution sets the President's duties which include upholding, defending, obeying and respecting the Constitution as the supreme law of the nation and ensuring that it and all the other laws are faithfully observed. Further, the President must: promote unity and peace in the nation for the benefit and well-being of all the people of Zimbabwe; ensure the protection of the fundamental human rights and freedoms and the rule of law; and respect the diversity of the people and communities of Zimbabwe. The President discharges his functions with the assistance of two Vice Presidents who perform any other functions, including the administration of any Ministry, Department or Act of Parliament, that the President may assign to them. The Constitution vests legislative authority in the legislature which consists of the Senate and the National Assembly. Judicial authority is vested in the Ministry of Justice, Legal and Parliamentary Affairs with the Constitutional Court being the superior court of record.

A.2. Zambia

Zambia was formerly known as Northern Rhodesia. The drive for independence was started by tribal chiefs, arguing against the federation (Rhodesia and Nyasaland) when they pressed the Northern Provincial Council to address the people's concerns over land matters and inequality. They were joined by clerks and teachers who sat in the African Representative Council, who called for the formation of an expressly indigenous political body to organize political action against the white settlers. This led to the creation of the Northern Rhodesia Congress in 1948 and, as opposition grew, students, mineworkers and other black Africans were encouraged to boycott and picket European businesses as well as not to cooperate with the Federal government. With more repression, a greater desire for an independent Zambia grew until a new constitution was drawn up in 1964, and elections the same year allowed for universal suffrage after 20 years of active engagement.

In 1991, the country experienced a peaceful political transition from a one-party to a multiparty system of government. Zambia has never experienced civil war arising from political differences or transition. Nonetheless, state managers have not been able to fully capitalize on the massive popular support of the Zambian people to consolidate democracy and a culture of respect for human rights. The fifth (2006–2010) and the seventh (2016–2021) national development plans were viewed as prerequisites to the advancement of the rule of law, poverty reduction and sustainable development. However, the government's efforts to fulfil this need are seriously deficient in this respect. According to the 1991 constitution of the country, the President should ensure that the country's laws are fully observed, but, while the constitution has been amended five times since 1996 (the latest being in 2016), the major provisions have remained intact and

unchanged. The President holds the welfare of the people at the centre of discharging his/her rule and therefore fundamental human rights and freedoms and must uphold the rule of law. To carry out these key functions, the President works with a Vice President and Ministers (sector-based) who perform designated functions provided through the various acts of Parliament. There is a National Assembly as well as a house of chiefs that are also at the core of managing the affairs of the state.

B. Wildlife governance and management model

B.1. Description of the governance and management model

Wildlife policies in KaZa member countries (Namibia, Angola, Zambia, Botswana and Zimbabwe) have been heavily influenced by the 1999 Southern African Development Community (SADC) Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement, which has over time acted as the guiding policy document. In addition, the KaZa-TFCA Treaty of 2011 provides for a governance structure for the KaZa-TFCA including the National Committees, which coordinate the implementation of country-specific conservation programmes, ensuring alignment between national and KaZa-TFCA-wide activities. The committees facilitate the participation of national stakeholders in the wider planning processes and ensure that local communities derive benefits from the KaZa-TFCA. The Secretariat which coordinates the day-to-day operations of the KaZa-TFCA is of additional interest. It facilitates workshops, programme implementation and interlinking programmes, and ensures effective communication within the KaZa countries.

Over the decades, Zambia and Zimbabwe are known to have positively promoted the role of communities in the sustainable management of wildlife and other natural resources through the concepts of Community-Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM), and Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE), respectively. These two models offer the sustainable utilization of wildlife and other natural resources as a livelihood option for rural communities – especially the ones living in wildlife areas which are hot and arid regions too marginal for agriculture, such as Kazungula in Zambia and Binga in Zimbabwe.

In Zambia, the concept of CBNRM was first promulgated in policy instruments such as the National Conservation Strategy (NCS) of 1985. The CC model is underpinned by a willingness of communities, their leaderships and partners including government to manage wildlife and other natural resources under each community's jurisdiction. The communities are expected to obtain direct financial benefits from activities associated with consumptive and non-consumptive tourism. In the two countries where the CCs are located, i.e. Zambia and Zimbabwe, arrangements and procedures for communities to gain from wildlife and other resources in protected areas (PAs) have been in place since the late 1990s, but there have been no exclusive community-run amalgamated land units of this nature. Experiences have driven communities and their leaders, e.g. chiefs and local area councillors, to think of deploying the CC model in these two countries. In Zambia the key leaders have been traditional chiefs while in Zimbabwe it was a combination of chiefs and local ward councillors.

The establishment of a CC is a stepwise process starting with a common cause with respect to the management and sharing of benefits from locally available natural resources. The vision is often

tagged to national experiences imported into an area by community members and expounded and suggested for adoption by the community by leaders such as chiefs, ward councillors and village heads. This often triggers early dialogue at the community level with some additional messages coming from local non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and government extension agents, all combining to focus on the development of a vision of the future of land and use with respect to wildlife and other natural resources. Critical questions that are often raised centre on land availability, type of animals, vegetation, people and how the interactions among and between the various entities involved had been addressed in the past. Views of the community members are captured at the local level especially on cohabitation with wildlife. From similar initiatives established in the region, it is possible to formulate the following principles which in turn guided the establishment of governance systems for the CCs and are described in Box II.1.

Box II.1: The 7 guiding principles of CC establishment

- a legally registered entity with clearly defined boundaries and a constituted management body run by the community for the development of residents and the sustainable use of wildlife and tourism.
- an entity managed by a group elected to serve the interests of all its members
- an place where residents can add income from natural resources management (wildlife, tourism) and from traditional farming activities
- a place where wildlife populations increase as they are managed for productive gain
- a place where the value of the natural resources increases, enhancing the value of the land
- an entity through which services and developments can be channelled and integrated
- a land zoned for multiple uses to minimize conflict and maximize the interests of all stakeholders.

In these principles, the centrality of a living functional unit running the CC is called for rather than implied. Around such an entity are people, resources and a capacity to deal with localized contractions and conflicts. The application of the principles is often supported by biophysical and social data and information generated about the CC by the communities with support from partners so that monitoring systems can be put in place to show change and progress. Thus, the process of setting up a CC must be inclusive and encompass all the interested parties, and the management unit must address all interests as much as possible. This is informed by the long-established CCs in Namibia, which programme staff and Zimbabwean stakeholders had the opportunity to visit.

B.2. Selection of intervention sites

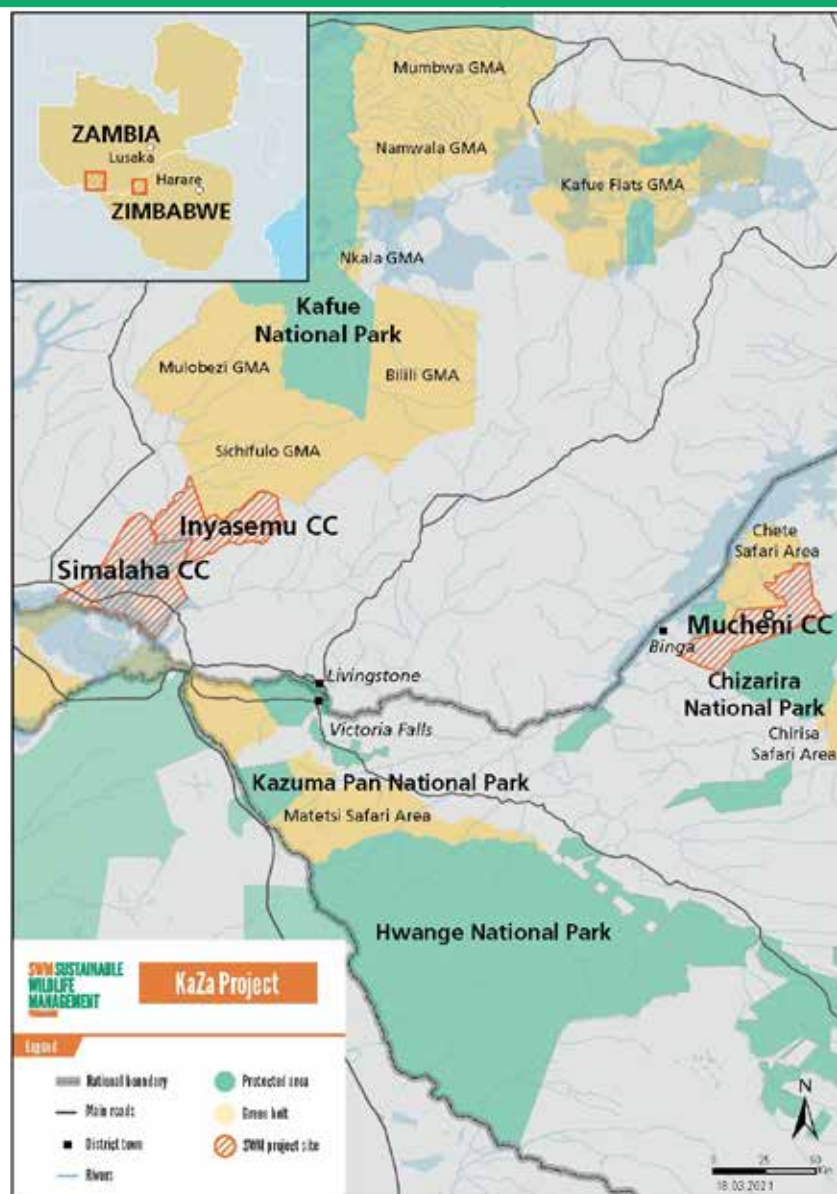
B.2.1. Selection criteria

The selection of the sites of the SWM Programme in KaZa was the subject of identification work in Zambia and Zimbabwe that lasted several months before the official start of the programme, and was carried out by a joint working group of conservation experts, national and regional decision-makers and representatives of the SWM Programme in KaZa. Their duty was aimed at promoting a multipurpose wildlife and fish uses and trade (consumptive and non-consumptive) project offering alternative livelihood options for rural communities living in marginal areas rich in wildlife, in: (i)

diversifying local sources of income; (ii) improving food access of vulnerable rural communities from wildlife utilization (direct and indirect benefits); (iii) diversifying livelihood; and (iv) improving resilience to climatic and socioeconomic shocks. This working group was previously made aware of the objectives of the SWM Programme in KaZa, summarized as reducing the social and economic impacts of sharing space and resources with wildlife and minimizing human–wildlife conflicts to reach a sustainability based on three pillars, economic, social and ecological. A set of preselected indicators was proposed for each of these pillars in order to benefit a sufficient number of households in an equitable way without socially reprehensible practice, and to create additional value without permanently exhausting natural resources.

After considering the data and information, and conscious that the CC model was legally non-existent in the two countries at the conceptual stage, the expert group decided to select Simalaha and Mucheni as the potential sites, in Zambia and Zimbabwe respectively. In Zambia,

Figure II.1: Location map of the three CCs of the SWM Programme in KaZa (Source: SWM Programme in KaZa)



from the beginning and in line with KaZa-TFCA's idea of linking up wildlife dispersal areas (WDAs), adding Inyaseму to the conservancy was also considered, as this would link Kafue National Park and Chobe in Botswana (Figure II.1). The SWM Programme in KaZa was officially launched after adoption of the project document produced during this inception phase, whose title is "Model: Community Conservancy as a basis for a nested wild and domestic protein supply model promoted for protein and income".

These conservancies are at various levels in their development but are all strongly influenced by the CBNRM approach – a concept widely used in southern Africa. The region has a long history of rural communities jointly with the government managing and benefiting from natural resources under their jurisdiction. The planned conservancies are not at variance with current attempts at state-led efforts to conserve, manage and protect natural resources, but complement such efforts by providing an alternative which involves a greater role for local communities and their leaderships.

B.2.2. Specific aspects in the CCs of the SWM Programme in KaZa

B.2.2.1. In Zimbabwe

Mucheni Conservancy was originally established as a 7 000 ha contiguous area in Ward 4 of Binga District in Chief Sinansengwe's area. The conservancy was established through the collaborative effort of the Ward 4 councillor and the chief in 2016 and following a feasibility assessment done by the Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Management Authority (ZPWMA), which recommended the area as being suitable for a conservancy. Binga Rural District Council (BRDC) facilitated the demarcation of the initial 7 000 ha, which was then named Mucheni Community Conservancy (MCC). The MCC is currently run along CAMPFIRE lines with the Ward Environmental Management Committee (WEMC) being the local institution responsible for local administration of the MCC with technical support from local resource monitors. BRDC has appropriate authority (AA) for the area and conducts anti-poaching and problem animal control (PAC) through a team of rangers under the CAMPFIRE Department. The MCC has a wildlife quota and is under lease to Tokoloshe Safaris for consumptive safaris. The safari operator (SO) carries out activities such as road maintenance, game water supply and anti-poaching patrols in the leased area. The establishment of conservancies is provided for in the Rural District Council (RDC) policy and is considered as a viable and strategic option for resource management in areas suitable for this type of activity in the district. This fitted well within the SWM Programme's thrust and especially as regards the fulfilment of the seven guiding principles of community conservancy (Box II.1) establishment. Realizing that a CC does not necessarily need to be on a contiguous piece of land, the initial 7 000 ha was extended with additional land from neighbouring Wards 3 and 5 to give 100 000 ha boasting integrated and multiple land uses including settlement and crop lands, wildlife and forests, grazing areas and socioeconomic infrastructure. Communities in the three wards have already gone through participatory mapping which shows the envisaged land uses (Figure II.2).

It is also the intention under the SWM Programme in KaZa to facilitate formalization of a governance body in the form of a trust or association as well as a management body operating in close cooperation with the RDC as the key statutory body. It is however not yet clear what form this governance body will assume, but this has to be in line with recommendations of the recent review of CAMPFIRE, which advocates for acceptable autonomous arrangements at the

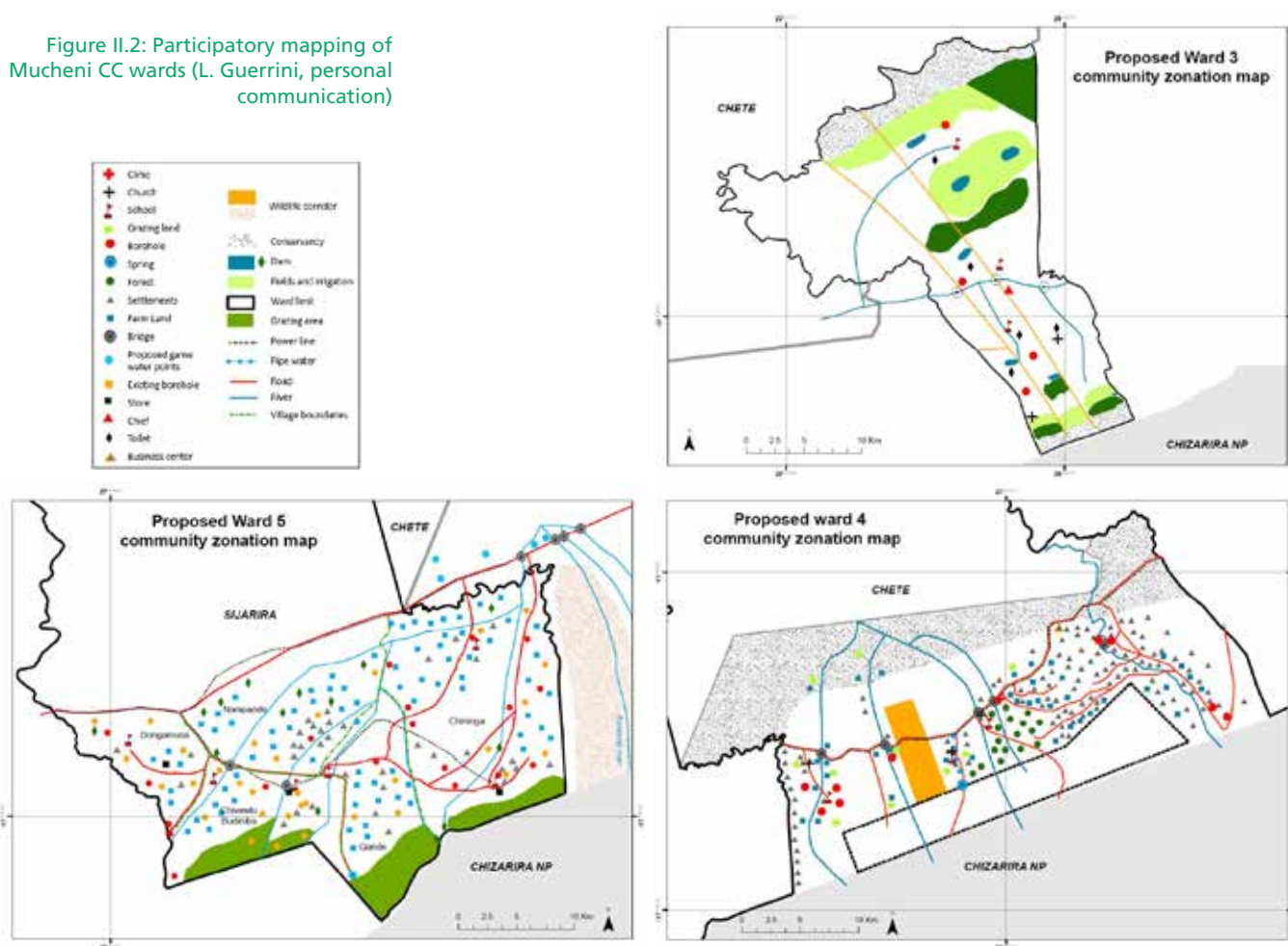
subdistrict level that take advantage of the appropriate authority status of the Binga RDCs. Private–community partnerships are envisaged in value chains such as tourism, livestock and non-timber forest products (NTFPs).

B.2.2.2. In Zambia

The two CCs in Zambia, Inyasemu (ICC) and Simalaha (SCC) Community Conservancies, were inspired by the vision of traditional leaders: two in Simalaha (His Royal Highness – HRH – Senior Chief Inyambo Yeta and HRH Sekute), and four in Inyasemu (the two previous ones and HRH Nyawa and HRH Musokotwane).

SCC is much more advanced in terms of governance and legality: negotiations with communities on the establishment of a CC started in 2009, an agreement on the formation of the 180 000 ha CC was reached in 2012 and, in 2019, the Simalaha Community Conservancy Trust was registered. Subsequently, members of the Village Action Groups (VAGs) were elected as part of the management body of the CC and, together with appointed members from the traditional authorities, they formed the Board of Trustees. The Trust's role is to ensure the transparent and efficient management of the Conservancy, and to ensure that monies being generated through

Figure II.2: Participatory mapping of Mucheni CC wards (L. Guerrini, personal communication)



socioeconomic activities of the CC are shared equitably between all chiefdoms and community members. The NGO Peace Parks Foundation (PPF) is currently providing the Trust with the necessary support until the Trust is able to manage its own affairs.

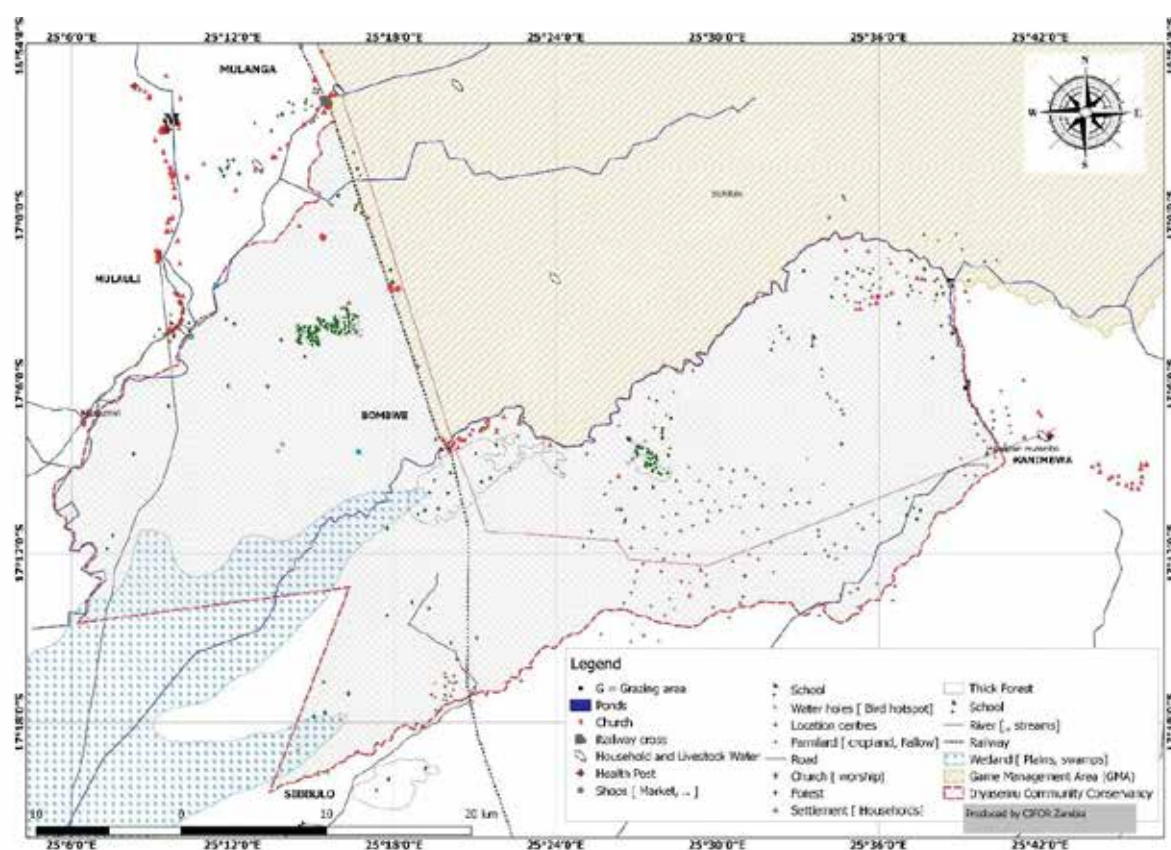
The establishment of Simalaha Conservancy inspired the traditional leaders of Simalaha to share their workable experience with HRH Chief Nyawa and HRH Chief Musokotwane to explore the possibility of using some 108 300 ha of Inyasemu open land that is shared among the four chiefdoms for the same purpose. Figure II.3 displays the collected geo-referenced features during the participatory mapping occurring on the occasion of the baseline survey (Banda *et al.*, 2019).

After extensive community consultations have been carried out with support of Panthera, PPF and the SWM Programme in KaZa, the traditional leaders are forging ahead to set up a new CC. At the moment the critical issues hinge on the governance structures for the new CC. The Simalaha model is likely to be used given that two of the chiefs are comfortable and were involved in Simalaha – a structure which is beginning to produce results. At the time of writing, the support organization together with the chiefs were organizing to carry out elections of VAGs which are central to the management of the CC if the Simalaha model is used.

B.3. Identification of partner Sustainable Management Units

Across the three CCs there are already many national level institutions regulating legal hunting and sustainable exploitation of wildlife populations and other natural resources, and these must work with communities. In Zambia, the central entity is the Department of National Parks and Wildlife (DNPW) while in Zimbabwe it is the ZPWMA. Their functions include controlling,

Figure II.3:
ICC participatory
mapping (Banda
et al., 2019)



managing and maintaining parks, sanctuaries, safari areas (SAs) and recreational parks for the purposes of the conservation and utilization of wildlife. While fish resources are covered by ZPWMA in Zimbabwe, this resource falls under the authority of the Department of Fisheries (DoF) in Zambia. Regarding forestry, the key institutions are the Forestry Department and the Forestry Commission in Zambia and Zimbabwe, respectively.

The other government institutions that play a role in wildlife and other natural resources management include the Environmental Management Agencies (EMA) in Zimbabwe and Zambia, both responsible for ensuring the projects and activities carried out are environmentally sensitive and adhere to national laws and regulations. These entities are housed in the Ministry of Environment, Climate, Tourism and Hospitality Industry (Zimbabwe), and the Ministries of Lands and Natural Resources, and Tourism and Arts (Zambia). Private sector operators also run operations in and around the conservancies and these often include safari operators, fishing cooperatives and in some cases community fishing groups.

At the local level, the key institution in wildlife conservation is a democratically established local authority termed RDC in Zimbabwe and the District Council (DC) in Zambia. This structure is supported by traditional leaders and a number of thematic district level sub-committees covering environment and natural resources. The RDCs in Zimbabwe have been given appropriate authority (AA) status under the Parks and Wildlife Act through the CAMPFIRE concept, which gives them rights to utilize wildlife resources in their areas of jurisdiction. RDCs do run CAMPFIRE projects for the benefit of local communities and are empowered to make by-laws on natural resources management following the Rural District Councils Act (1988) and the Environmental Management Act (EMA, 2002). Under CAMPFIRE, communities are empowered to manage locally available natural resources through an institutional arrangement of committees at the ward and village levels. These committees make decisions on biodiversity conservation and wildlife or forest management and protection. In Zambia, the situation is slightly different with specialized structures such as Community Resources Boards (CRBs) and VAGs for wildlife active at local level but closely aligned with the central government (National Parks and Wildlife Act of 2015). For the other natural resources, specific Zambian management committees were established with their respective policies (Fisheries Act of 2011; the Forest Act of 2015).

In both countries, the community level is dominated by traditional systems, customary practices, laws and norms, that are held by chiefs and traditional authorities, who are the custodians of the natural resources and therefore are well positioned to play a vital role in biodiversity conservation and wildlife conservation and protection. However, their mandate in wildlife management is not well defined, although the Traditional Leaders Act of 2001 (Zimbabwe) and the Chiefs Act 1965 (Zambia) mandate them to assist the government in environmental and natural resources conservation. In many cases, customary courts can play a vital role, although in the modern world their roles are overlooked or not sufficiently respected by people involved in illegal hunting and fishing activities (e.g. poachers). The relationship between traditional leaders, as custodians of customary norms, and the District Councils has not always been cordial. Traditional leaders often complain about lack of consultation by the RDC or DC on key decisions related to conservation practices. In Zambia, for instance, the chiefs work directly with the DNPW and, lately, sit on District Council meetings and therefore support the land management decisions that councils have made.

C. Theory of change and assumptions

The theory of change methodology makes it possible to design in a participatory way, with all programme stakeholders in KaZa, what should be the sequence of actions that would lead to the outcomes needed to reach the shared vision and long-term impacts for the KaZa CCs. One workshop was held in each country to build a common vision and decide upon the key activities to reach it (Newberry *et al.*, 2019; Ezzine de Blas *et al.*, 2020). One theory of change common to the two countries has been elaborated. Such a common vision was articulated towards the achievement of the programme's ultimate goals, i.e. increased diversity and abundance of natural resources (wildlife, fish and forests) as well as improved human well-being (supply of protein and alternative sources of revenues). The participation of experts from R1, R5 and R6 Results of the SWM Programme and from other different institutions responded to three complexities that had to be addressed simultaneously:

- The site is part of the KaZa-TFCA and is under the general coordination of CIRAD but divided in the sub-sites of Zambia, led by CIFOR, and Zimbabwe, led by CIRAD.
- The workshop needed to integrate requirements from R6 (local observatories) and Social Safeguards issues (mainly FPIC – Free, Prior and Informed Consent – and CRBA – community rights-based approach).
- The methodological and facilitation approach needed to set the baseline for the theory of change workshops in the other sites of the SWM Programme in KaZa.

In both countries the workshops were attended by 25 people on average, including around 12 percent women, and were dominated by community members, government representatives and NGOs. The workshops were organized in four sessions: (i) introduction and objectives of the workshop – presentation of FPIC expectations; (ii) discussion of human–wildlife issues; (iii) issues at the territorial scale; and (iv) identification of stakeholders, their interactions and impacts. Both in Zambia and in Zimbabwe, thanks to the active participation of the attendants, the theory of change exercise proved useful in identifying grounded actions that are appropriate to the context, the local dynamics and impacts that the Project Document had not identified.

Among the main conclusions:

- Participatory land-use planning or zoning of economic activities, fire management actions and water sourcing were raised as key issues both by representatives of communities and national institutions attending the ToC workshops in both countries.
- Human–wildlife competition was highlighted as one additional issue requiring attention. Calls were repeatedly made throughout the workshop discussions for the SWM Programme in KaZa to proffer some solutions to this aspect. To this end, suggestions such as tightening the zoning of human activities to avoid overlapping on wildlife habitat were made and were subsequently a key consideration under the land zonation exercise. The same workshops also raised the interest for the SWM Programme in KaZa to facilitate the creation of alternative sources of food and income.
- The workshops noted that one of the sources of competition between people, livestock and wildlife was the need for water. Included in this area were grass and grazing for cattle. A cascade of conflicts often emerges as a result of such competition.

There is an important need to clarify boundaries and exclusion rights in the CCs, as well as a

need to have clear mechanisms for accessing resources and income from wildlife.

- Beekeeping also appeared a number of times as a win-win strategy for generating household (HH) income while protecting crops from elephants. However, this activity should be promoted with caution since the groups underscored that villagers are generally scared of bees.
- Other activities mentioned included capacity building for a number of strategic actions, such as fire prevention and control, anti-poaching and planning at community levels, which were to be developed later.

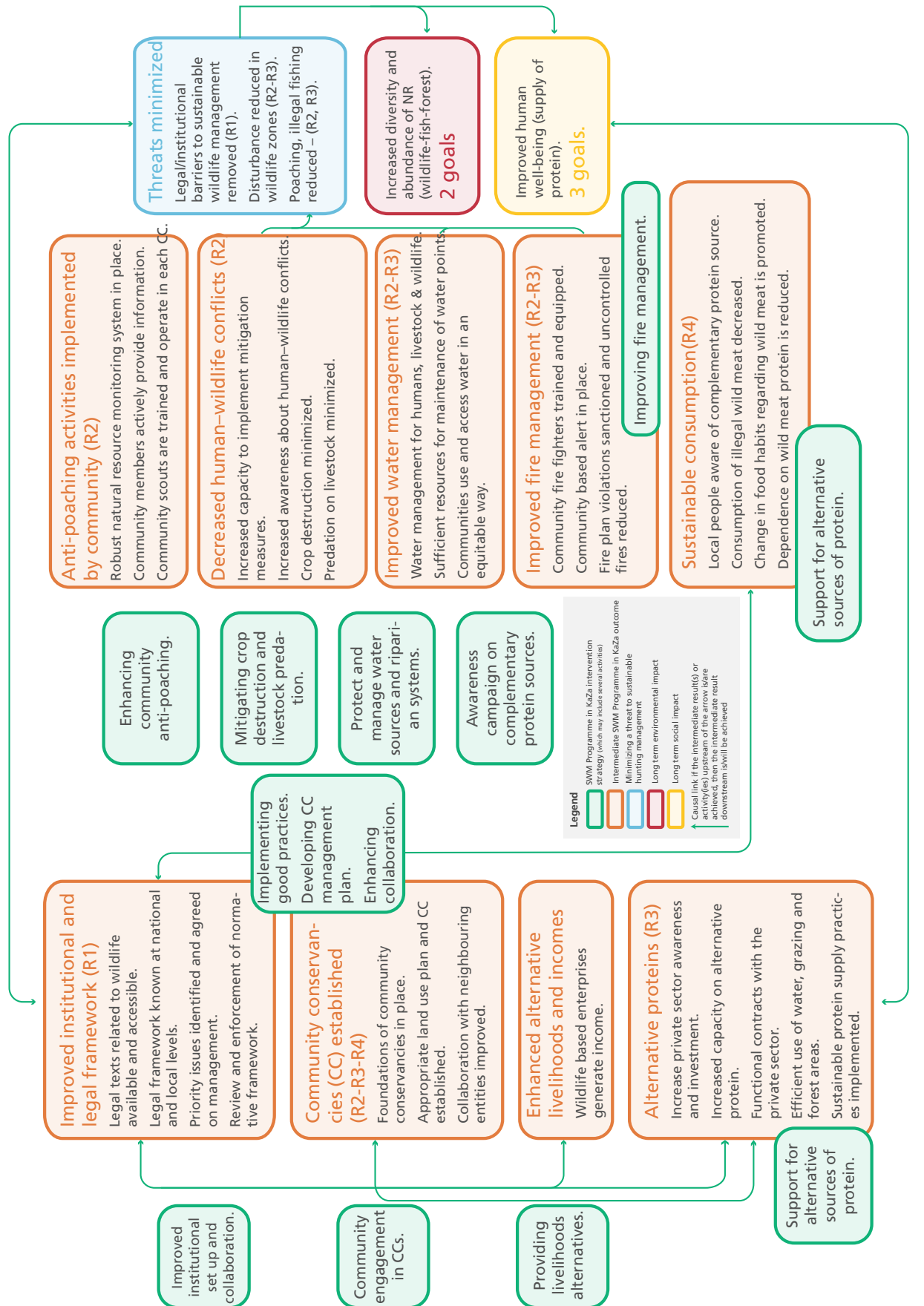
A key area to which the SWM Programme in KaZa aims at contributing is solving the issue of lack of interaction and sharing spaces between the different actors, who often tend to interact separately. To address this issue, a body needs to be established that meets regularly to share information about human–wildlife interactions, the progress of actions taken and identification of new actions. It is however important to highlight that the theory of change exercise is ultimately the result of the participants are present and how they express their views, and not a rigid plan on how to achieve success. The communities and entities must take this to a point of departure and develop executable plans based on their realities.

The participation of different persons or institutions produced similar but also different results in the two countries. Nevertheless, the strong convergence of the two theory of change exercises supports their coherence and validity. Figure II.4 presents the current theory of change, elaborated towards achievement of the ultimate goals of the SWM Programme in KaZa, previously mentioned and to be found at the bottom-right of the figure. As the process is a continuous/iterative one, annual meetings will take into account the outcomes of the activities according to their implementation, or to their changes, through adaptive management.

This graph is organized in three columns, each of them being linked to the other and demonstrating strong linkages and subsequently interactions with the other two, as symbolized by arrows: (i) the left column maps the intermediate outcomes with the corresponding domains of Results (the “Rs”); (ii) the middle column focuses on concrete actions to be addressed through technical R domains (R1 to R4); and (iii) the right column presents in addition to the ultimate goals previously announced the threats to be minimized during the implementation of the SWM Programme in KaZa. The theory of change is a dynamic process that needs to be updated as the results in the different technical Rs are obtained:

- **R1:** In both countries, relevant laws are analysed through a legal matrix and the gaps and impediments identified for the promotion of a CC model. These are part of the process of harmonizing national legislation and regulatory frameworks, involving national or subregional authorities (e.g. KaZa-TFCA) in charge of applying the Acts in the respective countries.
- **R2:** Innovative models for the sustainable uses of wild species resilient to hunting or fishing (WSRHF) and the safeguarding of protected and endangered species are co-developed and implemented at CC and village levels. Innovative approaches addressing human–wildlife conflict (HWC) are promoted to address the constraints of sharing space and resources with wildlife.
- **R3:** A favourable environment is created for the development of sustainable livestock, forest foods and aquaculture sectors as alternative sources of protein and income, with a particular focus on small-scale animal husbandry. The sources of these alternative proteins are enhanced and better managed.

Figure II.4:
Theory of
change of
the SWM
Programme
in KaZa –
Overall 2019
(adapted from
Newberry et
al., 2019 and
Ezzine de Blas
et al., 2020)



- **R4:** The consumption of wild meat is matched with the sustainable production capacity of wild species and balanced by livestock farming, forestry and aquaculture products. Legal provision of wild meat through specialist shops and restaurants is regulated and promoted.

The **R5 team** (Monitoring, Evaluation and Learning) assists the site coordinator and his/her team to coordinate the development of site-level theory of change, and identify a set of associated indicators. A regularly updated effectiveness scorecard allows having an annual follow-up of the activities conducted in both Zambia and Zimbabwe. A set of indicators in the theory of change makes it possible to monitor and track implementation of the SWM Programme in KaZa and help adapt to the dynamic and ever-changing context of the SWM Programme in KaZa in all the domains to be presented in the subsequent chapters.

D. SWM Programme in KaZa approach towards local beneficiaries

A CRBA has been developed for the SWM Programme. This CRBA includes a specific protocol on FPIC, which is a continual process that involves mutual respect and meaningful participation of Indigenous Peoples in decision-making on matters affecting them. The CRBA and the FPIC have been used in the site of the SWM Programme in KaZa since 2018 during the first theory of change workshops held in both Zambia and Zimbabwe as part of ensuring that stakeholder buy-in was obtained.

Since then, the SWM Programme in KaZa has deliberately mainstreamed CRBA and FPIC into all the result areas of the programme through provision of accurate information on which stakeholders make decisions and provide consent to be part of programme interventions. The FPIC was not completely new to the facilitating partners as permission/consent has always been sought to work with communities, but SWM project-related activities brought the community engagement process into sharper focus (including documenting the agreement), even though no official agreement has been signed yet. The central institutions involved in the development of the CCs laid the basis for both CRBA and FPIC.

In Zambia, the strong role of traditional chiefs provided convening power and brought an early centralization and lobbying for the programme idea. To begin with, the chiefs agreed among themselves to set up the two conservancies though at different times. With their customary power and respect, they were able to rally other institutions including the government to work with them on the idea. SCC's Trust ropes in all the key stakeholders with the communities represented by VAGs; a similar representative Trust is proposed for ICC and the chiefs will be signing a four-way Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) to cement their agreement. These discussions do not exclude the key institutions such as the Department of National Parks and Wildlife, Fisheries and Forestry Departments, and Kazungula and Mwandia District Councils, which remain as key supporters of the projects. To these can be added private sector entities such as safari operators, fishing companies and livestock companies such as abattoirs. It is important to mention that PPF has been active in facilitating the setting of SCC, now joined by Panthera and CIFOR under the SWM Programme in KaZa for ICC.

In Zimbabwe, similar processes were followed in Mucheni but the centralizing document is the MoU with Binga RDC, which is signed annually and provides the framework under which the SWM Programme in KaZa should operate. The SWM Programme in KaZa also works through

existing structures of the Council, created by the Environmental Management Act: the Binga Environmental Management Committee (BEMC), which reports to the full Council, the Ward Environmental Management Committee (WEMC) at the ward level, and the less functional Village Environmental Management Committees (VEMCs) at the village level. At the local level, the project also works with the resource monitors who ideally should be the technical/operational part of the WEMCs and VEMCs and report their activities to these institutions. Interaction with traditional leadership (chiefs and village heads) is through the village and ward assemblies as well as through the Ward Development Committee (WARDCO). At the district level, the project works with relevant public and civil society organizations through the Council and the Binga Rural District Development Committee (BRDDC) chaired by the District Development Coordinator. Some relevant public stakeholders include ZPWMA, Forestry Commission, Department of Agricultural, Technical and Extension services (AGRITEX), Department of Veterinary Services and EMA. There are also links with the Provincial Development Coordinator and the National Focal Point who are based at the Ministry of Environment Climate, Tourism and Hospitality Industry (MECTHI). The project is also open to other functional linkages and arrangements such as with the private sector, who are perceived as the major potential drivers of markets and business development interventions envisaged under the project.

The stakeholder analysis (SWM, 2020) identified in both countries key stakeholders, a combination of rights holders and duty bearers, who have significant interaction with the project at the various levels mentioned above (village, ward, district, provincial, national and regional). They are as follows:

- The rights holders (local communities) are the stakeholders that are directly dependent on the resources at stake (in particular wildlife, forests, water and soil) and as such hold claims on the resources through various statutory and customary rules. Some of these are embodied in customary laws and traditional rules that bestow power on traditional leaders vis-à-vis resource management. These roles have been fortified by the state through the Traditional Leaders Act, Communal Lands Act (Zimbabwe) and Chiefs Act (Zambia) which highlight the interests/expectations of this category of stakeholders, and their possible impacts and influences on the project are rated on a scale of low, medium and high. The analysis generally notes the high impact and influence that the rights holders have on implementation of the project. This analysis also highlights how the stakeholders could contribute to the success of the project (by taking ownership of the project) and possible hindrances they could cause to this success. An engagement strategy is proposed for the rights holders, and stakeholders to be contacted for interaction and continuous engagement (for example, through meetings, workshops and site visits) throughout the life of the project are listed in an analysis matrix (SWM, 2020). The aforementioned stakeholders include traditional leaders (chiefs and village heads), political leaders (councillors), local-level environment institutions and the beneficiaries themselves (the community at large).
- The duty bearers are composed largely of the public, private and civil society stakeholders (who have a particular obligation or responsibility to respect, protect and fulfil rights of the poorest, weakest, most marginalized and vulnerable); these are listed in the analysis matrix. As in the case of the rights holders, their expectations/interests as well as their possible impact and influence on the project are highlighted. It is observed that the impact and influence of the stakeholders in this category cut across the three ratings (low, medium and

high) depending on how closely the stakeholder interacts with the project. For example, in Zambia, the impact and influence of the SWM Programme in KaZa (through CIFOR), NGOs Panthera and Peace Parks Foundations (PPF), and Government departments are very high because these institutions almost always work with the stakeholders by attending meetings together and having combined field missions.

In Zambia, public stakeholders include the Ministry of Tourism and Arts, especially the Department of National Parks and Wildlife, Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources (Forestry Department), Ministry of Local Government, Ministry of Livestock and Fisheries (Department of Fisheries – DoF – and Department of Livestock and Veterinary Services – DLVS, respectively) and the Department of Agriculture. The public stakeholders also include representatives from the Provincial and District levels of Government departments. In Zimbabwe, public stakeholders include BRDC, the Ministry of Local Government, Rural and Urban Development (MLGRUD), MECTHI and its parastatals (Parks and Wildlife Management Authority and the Forestry Commission), AGRITEX, DLVS and the EMA. The public stakeholders also include representatives from the provincial and national levels of the MLGRUD and MECTHI, respectively. The Ministries in charge of environment are the focal points of the SWM Programme in KaZa in both countries and they provide policy and technical guidance to the programme.

Civil society stakeholders who are also duty bearers have been described in the same way as the previous stakeholders. The civil society organizations include the African Landscape and Environmental Research Trust (ALERT), National Parks Rescue (NPR), World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF), PPF and Panthera. The matrix also identifies the key private sector stakeholders that could also be categorized as duty bearers (and very important in driving value chains) and does a similar analysis as in the case of the other stakeholders.

