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STRATEGY

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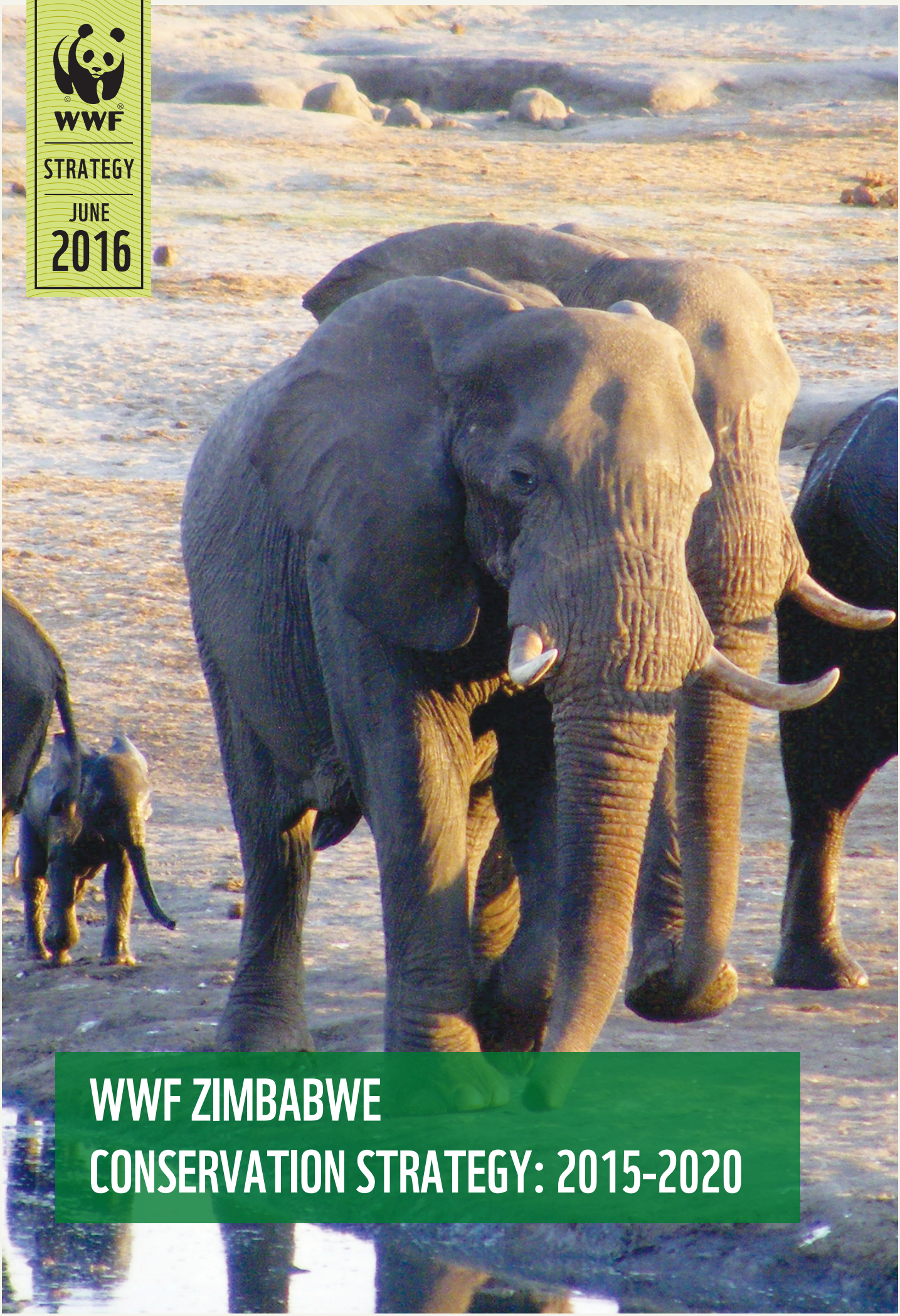

WWF ZIMBABWE CONSERVATION STRATEGY: 2015-2020

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“**Our vision** is to become a respected leader in conservation in places that matter to Zimbabweans and the WWF Network.”

We believe our critical contribution to the Network is our country of domicile's abundant elephant and rhino populations; its tradition and strong belief in sustainable use that embraces community based natural resources management (CBNRM) approaches (Annex 1); and its geographical positioning as part of the Miombo woodlands which encompass the Kavango Zambezi (KAZA), the largest Trans-frontier Conservation Area (TFCA) in the world. We can influence global discourse and action on wildlife at scale by providing knowledge based solutions on issues such as species population trends, illegal wildlife killing and trade and sustainable use for policy, advocacy and management purposes”.

Contents

ACRONYMS

CAMPFIRE	Community Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources
CBNRM	Community Based Natural Resources Management GDP Gross Domestic Product
GHG	Greenhouse Gas
HWC	Human Wildlife Conflict
IWT	Illegal Wildlife Trade
KAZA	Kavango Zambezi
METT	Management Effectiveness Tracking Tool
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
NGO	Non Governmental Organization
NP	National Parks
PPCP	Public Private Community Partnership
PSF	Public Sector Funding
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SFM	Sustainable Forestry Management
TFCA	Trans-frontier Conservation Areas
WWF	World Wide Fund for Nature
Zim Asset	Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation

FOREWORD

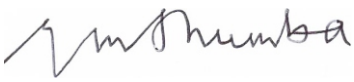
Zimbabwe has vast experience in the sustainable use of natural resources. It was the first country in Africa to develop an alternative approach to the management of wildlife outside protected areas using community based natural resources management approaches. Despite challenges that have beset the country in recent years, it still holds natural assets and innovations of global significance. It has the third largest individual black rhino population in the world and carries some 84 000 elephants. It introduced bio-fuel production and use with a 5% mandatory blending of bio-ethanol with petrol in 2013. The figure was raised to 10% a year later. It is therefore possible that with appropriate technical and financial support and encouragement, Zimbabwe can sustainably manage its natural heritage. WWF Zimbabwe stands ready to render support.

The Conservation Strategy covers the following thematic areas: wildlife and protected areas management; forestry and landscape management; wetlands management; and renewable energy solutions which fall within the wildlife, forests, freshwater, and climate and energy Global Practices of WWF respectively. The themes present opportunities to positively impact on Zimbabwe's rich natural resource assets which are under siege from agricultural expansion; high population growth and urbanization rates; over-reliance on wood energy; illegal wildlife killing and trade; and climate change, among other pressures. Strategies that mitigate the impacts of these pressures, key results and indicators are presented.

About 80% of the Conservation Strategy efforts will be implemented in four priority landscapes namely: the Kavango Zambezi (KAZA), Mid Zambezi, South East Lowveld; and Greater Mapungubwe. The remaining 20% will be in geographical locations considered critical by national stakeholders. The priority landscapes were chosen for their rich floral and faunal biodiversity that transcends national boundaries and thus offers opportunities for trans-boundary collaboration across WWF offices.

The successful implementation of the Conservation Strategy revolves around effective communication and local ownership; partnerships; people and organizational development; and financial resource mobilization through the following actions:
a. Making WWF Zimbabwe an unambiguous, visible, vibrant, and locally relevant office that appeals to a wide range of stakeholders and is rooted in the Zimbabwe fabric;
b. Developing and/or strengthening strategic partnerships that deliver conservation at scale based on comparative advantage, mutual respect and accountability;
c. Attracting and retaining a motivated, effective and lean personnel complement that grows organically with the demands of the conservation programme; and,
d. Increasing and diversifying the office's funding levels and sources to sustain conservation delivery.

We at WWF Zimbabwe remain mindful that issues of the environment and natural resources are everybody's responsibility. We therefore call upon all Zimbabweans and our international partners to join with us as we embark on supporting the implementation this Conservation Strategy.



Enos M. Shumba, PhD
COUNTRY DIRECTOR

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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1. CONTEXTUAL FRAMEWORK

1.1 Historical Context

About 49% of Zimbabwe's total land area of 390 000 km2 is under forests and woodlands while 27% is cultivated. The former are home to a wide range of fauna and flora that include 4 440 species of plants, 270 species of mammals, and 532 bird species. These biodiversity assets are found in all land categories-namely state, communal and private lands, albeit to varying extents. In terms of WWF Flagship species, the country has the second largest elephant population and third largest total numbers of rhinos in Southern Africa (excluding South Africa) and the third largest individual black rhino population in the world. Hwange National Park is said to hold twice its carrying capacity of elephants. With respect to the rhino, Zimbabwe has 3% of Africa's total population of the species. Consequently, its contribution is central to the continent's rhino growth and expansion. Furthermore, the country holds significant tracts of the African teak (Baikiaea plurijuga) and mukwa (Pterocarpus angolensis) which are critical to the national hardwood timber industry.

The country is globally renowned for its past visionary approach to natural resources management. It was the first country in Africa to develop an alternative approach to the management of natural resources outside protected areas (viz. on private and communal lands) through appropriate legislative amendments. With its original land area of 3 442 km2, the Save Valley Conservancy in south east Zimbabwe, was the largest privately owned conservancy in the world and a critical rhino sanctuary. On the other hand, community management areas cover 10.2% of the country's total land area and were the bedrock of the world acclaimed Community Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE). They held 12 000 elephants and 14 000 buffalo in 2003 (Child, 2004) and generated income for rural communities through photographic and hunting safaris. WWF strongly supports participatory approaches to natural resources management through the use of Community Based Natural Resources Management (CBNRM) approaches.

Zimbabwe has comprehensive legislation that governs the use and management of its natural resources. It includes the Parks and Wildlife Management Act; The Forestry Act; the Communal Lands Forestry Produce Act; Environmental Management Act; the Environmental Impact Assessment legislation; Statutory Instrument (SI) 92 of 2014 that prohibits all mining activities in rivers and streams; and the Water Act. Furthermore, local authorities in urban and rural areas have adopted planning frameworks that embrace sustainable natural resources management. However, the effectiveness of such legislation is constrained by poor coordination among law enforcement agencies; and a perceived lack of transparency and political will to enforce the laws.

Three of the country's major national parks lie adjacent to international boundaries and are part of Trans-frontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs). They are Hwange National Park in the Kavango Zambezi (KAZA) TFCA; Mana Pools National Park in the Mid Zambezi TFCA; and Gonarezhou National Park in the Greater Limpopo TFCA. KAZA is arguably the largest TFCA in the world involving Angola, Botswana, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe; and embracing 36 protected areas that include national parks, game reserves, community conservancies and game management areas. A major objective of TFCAs is to merge fragmented wildlife habitats into an interconnected mosaic of protected areas and trans-boundary wildlife corridors that facilitate and enhance the free movement of wildlife across international boundaries (SADC & SARDC, 2008). Its geographical location therefore makes WWF Zimbabwe an important contributor to trans-boundary cooperation in the following areas:

a. Trans-boundary wildlife movements and tourism ventures. The country contributes a significant proportion of elephants found in the TFCA and is a key elephant range state in CITES discussions on the listing of the species;
b. Management of international waters such as the Zambezi, Limpopo, Save and Shashe rivers (e.g. environmental flows);
c. Commercialization of and regional trade in natural resources products such as charcoal and medicinal plants; and,
d. Natural resource governance and legislative arrangements that facilitate trans-boundary natural resources management.

WWF is one of the world's largest independent conservation organizations. It has worked in Southern Africa for over 20 years in the following areas: encouraging local conservation initiatives; strengthening community level natural resource management skills; supporting and advocating for enabling regulatory and institutional frameworks; and financing and managing selected national and trans-boundary initiatives in areas such as rhino and elephant conservation and CBNRM. It is against this background that WWF Zimbabwe will contribute to achieving the country's conservation goals through the implementation of this Conservation Strategy. More specifically, it will use its convening power to: catalyze and/or undertake project portfolio packaging and financial resource mobilization; support policy formulation and implementation and the development of specific technologies and tools; and strengthen partner institutions and community groups. WWF Zimbabwe also hosts the Miombo Eco-region Secretariat and its staff is involved in trans-boundary projects between Zimbabwe and Zambia; Zimbabwe and Botswana; and Zimbabwe and Malawi under the eco-region umbrella.

1.2 Socio-Economic Environment

Zimbabwe's population is 13 million and is growing at 2.2% per annum. Urbanization rose from 20% in 1982 to 33% in 2012 (Zimstat, 2013). Women constitute 52% of the population. Despite the existence of a National Gender policy and supporting legislation, women, children and other vulnerable groups are generally marginalized in the ownership and utilization of natural resources and in the governance structures. Approximately 65% of the population lives in rural areas and the majority survive on less than $1 per day. Poverty levels are therefore high and there is a strong dependence on natural resources to augment subsistence agriculture, especially in low rainfall areas. A 2011-2012 poverty report showed that 72% of Zimbabweans were poor, with poverty being most prevalent in rural areas, where 84% of the households are considered poor and 16% extremely poor.

Food insecurity has declined since 2008-9 although it still remains at unacceptably high levels. The persistent vulnerability of the agricultural sector to shocks has been evident in the last few years as the late onset of rains, prolonged drought and late arrival of subsidized or free inputs led to the write off of about 45% of the potential maize harvest in 2011-2012. Food insecurity increases vulnerability as assets of poor households were eroded.

Zimbabwe has experienced relative political stability during the last six years. The adoption of a multi-currency regime and implementation of economic reforms have generated some economic growth. This should spur government and cooperating partner investment in the natural resources sector. The country's economic blue print, the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (Zim Asset: 2013-2018) mentions environmental management and protection; biodiversity conservation; and community level benefit realization among its key result areas for achieving food and nutrition security; and sustainable development (GoZ, 2013). The blueprint is

consistent with Goal 15 of the Sustainable Development Goals (2015-2030) on "ensuring environmental sustainability".

1.3 Strategy Development Process

The development of the Conservation Strategy was underpinned by a transparent and systematic approach that focused on understanding the prevailing challenges and on how and with what they will be resolved (the Theory of Change), This approach implies "a systemic set of transformations with key intervention points and explicit assumptions that are required to bring about long term change" and embraces the following steps (Figure 1):

a. Understanding the conservation relevance of the geographical region to WWF's Global Programme Framework;
b. Assessing the conservation values and/or footprint challenges-viz. drivers and threats of the region (situation analysis);
c. Developing goals and a vision that incorporate threat mitigation and the realization of opportunities; and,
d. Deciding on the actual interventions required to bring about the desired change.

A key component of the Theory of Change approach is linking interventions on the ground to the needed changes in areas of policy, standards, markets and financial flows to achieve transformational change through integration and partnerships.

The following steps were followed in developing the Conservation Strategy:

a. Reviewing and updating a 2010 draft Conservation Strategy by WWF Zimbabwe and WWF Sweden teams with input from a wide range of stakeholders and partners;
b. Convening a national consultation workshop to review the revised draft document. Workshop participants were drawn from relevant government departments and parastatals, Non Governmental Organizations, universities, the private sector, development partners and WWF personnel from WWF South Africa, the Regional Office for Africa and WWF Zimbabwe;
c. Incorporating input from the national consultation workshop into the document;
d. Further peer review of the revised version of the document; and,
e. Approval and publication of the Conservation Strategy

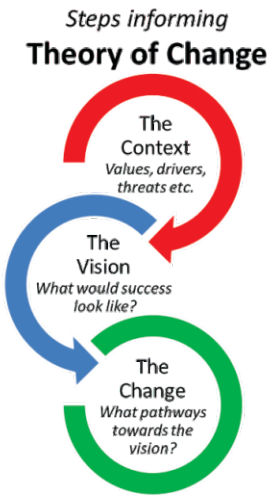

Figure 1: Summary of the Theory of Change approach

This Conservation Strategy document is organized into the following sections (Figure 2):
a. Thematic areas, their pressures/threats and strategic objectives;
b. Key results, actions and indicators;
c. Priority landscapes for conservation delivery; and,
c. Operational delivery

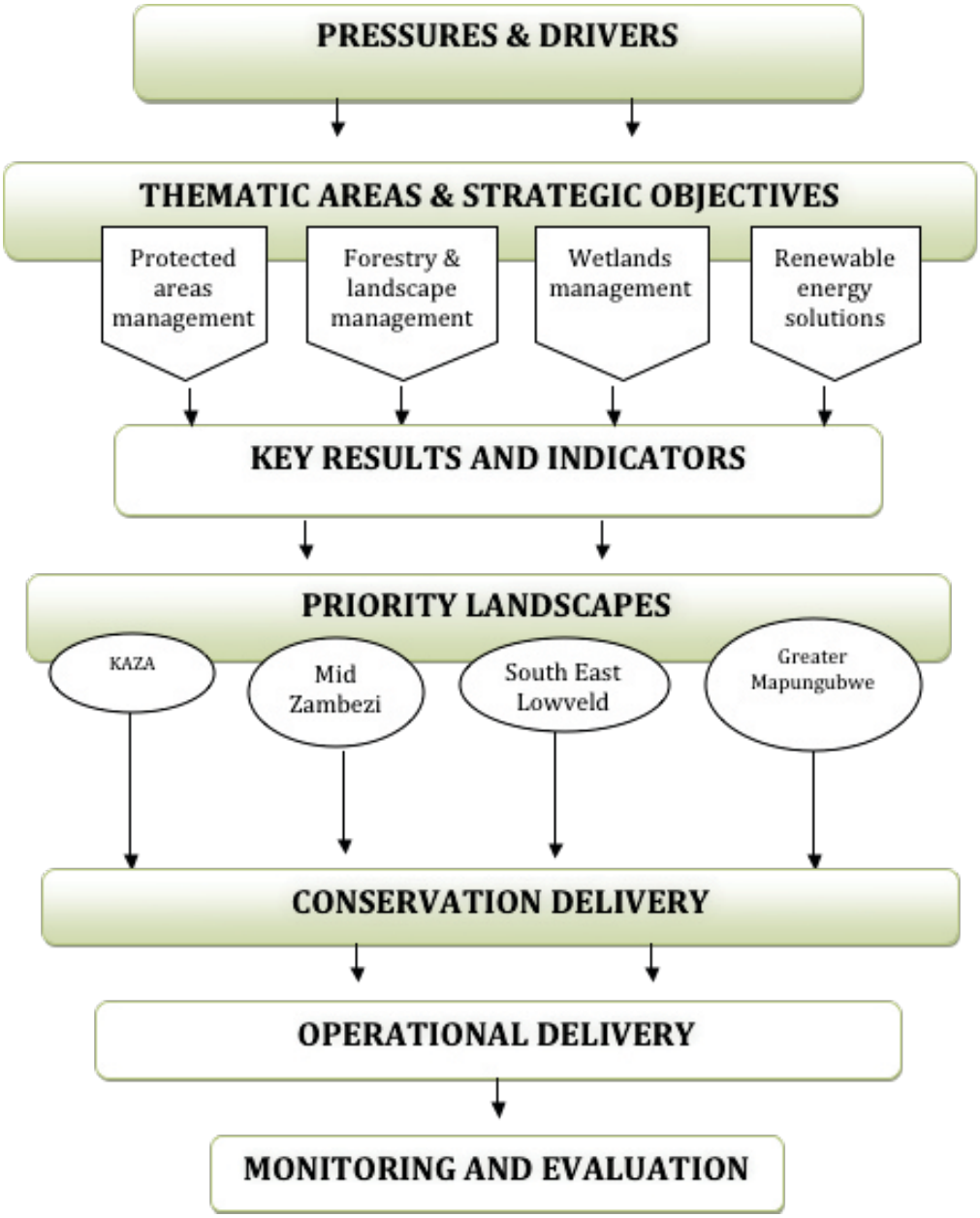

Figure 2: Organization of the Conservation Strategy document

2. THE CONSERVATION STRATEGY

2.1 Goal and Themes

The goal of the Conservation Strategy is to: "Contribute to the creation of a Zimbabwe with well managed networks of wild areas that co-exist with a society thriving on a sustainable natural resource based economy by 2020"

It covers the following four thematic areas:
a. Wildlife and protected areas management;
b. Forestry and landscape management;
c. Wetlands management; and,
d. Renewable energy solutions.

The thematic areas fall within the wildlife, forests, freshwater, and climate and energy Global Practices of WWF respectively.

2.2 Wildlife and Protected Areas Management

2.2.1 Strategic Objective and Key Results

The strategic objective of the thematic area is to" "Contribute to enhancing the capacity of protected areas management authorities to better manage their estate and proactively engage and empower buffer communities to economically and substantially benefit from wildlife resources in their areas by 2020". The objective revolves around: improved park management; greater buffer community engagement and economic benefit; strengthening the judiciary chain process for illegal wildlife killing and trade; and coordinated enforcement of relevant legislative provisions.

Key results and indicators for the thematic area are given in Table 5. Figure 4 shows the desired and current states of wildlife and protected areas management in the country. Threats that should be mitigated in order to transition to the desired state include: illegal wildlife killing and trade; unsustainable infrastructural development and human settlements; limited economic incentives for local communities; and inadequate funding for protected areas management.

Table 5: Key results for the wildlife and protected areas management theme

Planned intermediate results	Indicators
a. Strengthened capacity of protected areas management authorities	Population trends of key species; habitat condition; Parks Management Authority and community incomes; METT scores; number of arrests, prosecutions, convictions and seizures; number of effective partnerships (viz. public, private and community-PPCPs)
b. Improved and sustainable economic benefit flows to communities living with wildlife.	
c. Improved law enforcement and judicial chain processes on wildlife crime	
d. Models for the sustainable financing of protected areas developed and implemented.	

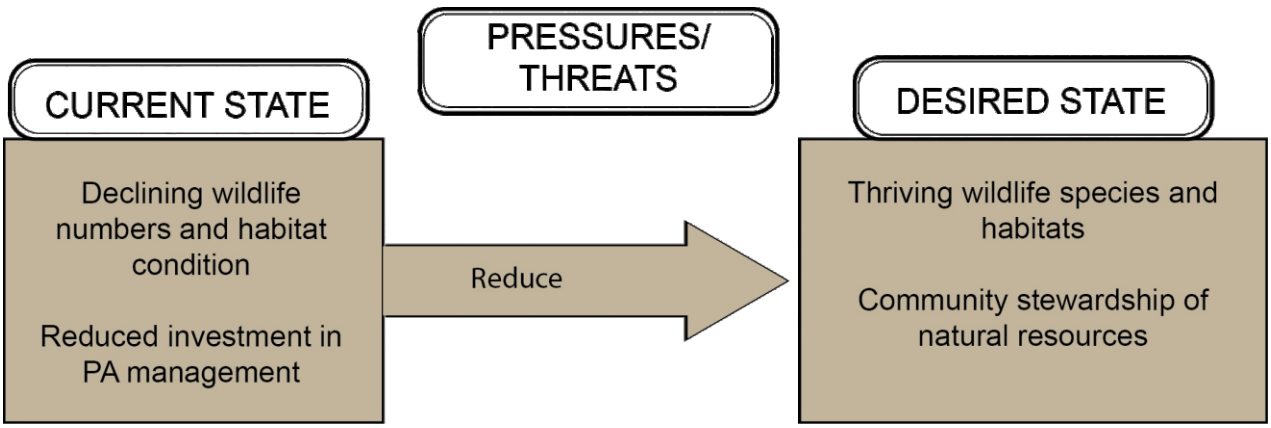

Figure 4: Current and desired states for the wildlife and protected areas management theme

2.2.3 Pressures on Wildlife and Protected Areas Management

a. Illegal wildlife killing and trade

The illegal killing of wildlife is not unique to Zimbabwe. Thousands of elephants and hundreds of rhino were killed by poachers across Africa in 2012. In 2008 Zimbabwe had 744 rhino of which 144 were poached. Corresponding figures for 2012 were 710 and 32 respectively. Figure 5 shows trends in rhino poaching in the country. Although elephant population figures have remained the same between 2001 and 2014, poaching levels have increased as illegal elephant killing has remained a major problem. In 2013 a tragedy involving the poisoning of salt licks and two water points with

cyanide in a remote and poorly accessible section of Hwange National Park that borders a communal area claimed the lives of over 100 elephants, one lion, two painted dogs, two buffalo, one giraffe and some vultures.

Illegal wildlife trade is driven by a rapidly growing Asian demand for ivory and rhino horn for multiple uses. In July 2013, 447 kg of ivory, traced from Zimbabwe, was seized at Dubai International Airport. In October 2013, a foreign national was caught attempting to smuggle out 100 kg of raw ivory at Harare International Airport. The country therefore finds itself at the centre of international ivory and rhino horn trafficking by sophisticated and well resourced poaching syndicates. This is worsened by an under strength judicial chain process and complicity with local communities who realize limited economic benefits from living with wildlife.

b. Unsustainable infrastructural development and human settlements

Infrastructural developments and human settlements affect traditional wildlife migratory routes and lead to human wildlife conflict (HWC) as wildlife destroys crops and kills livestock and people. For example, Botswana and Zimbabwe hold the largest and second largest elephant populations in Southern Africa respectively (wwf.panda.org/what we do/endangered species/elephants/African). A significant proportion of these animals reside in the Hwange National Park (NP) in Zimbabwe and the Chobe and Makgadikgadi NPs in Botswana. The three parks hold more than double their elephant carrying capacities. Collared studies have shown that elephants have established two sub-corridors between Hwange NP and Chobe NP; and between Hwange NP and Makgadikgadi NP. Due to habitat fragmentation, the animals are now coming into frequent contact with people as they move along the sub-corridors; and from the Parks areas into the buffer zones in communal areas.

The HWC problem is aggravated by limited consideration of the need for wildlife corridors when allowing settlements (either planned or unplanned) that results in typically linear pattern of human habitation along rural roads that cut across extensive landscapes instead of consolidating settlements in sites that are crucial for wildlife.

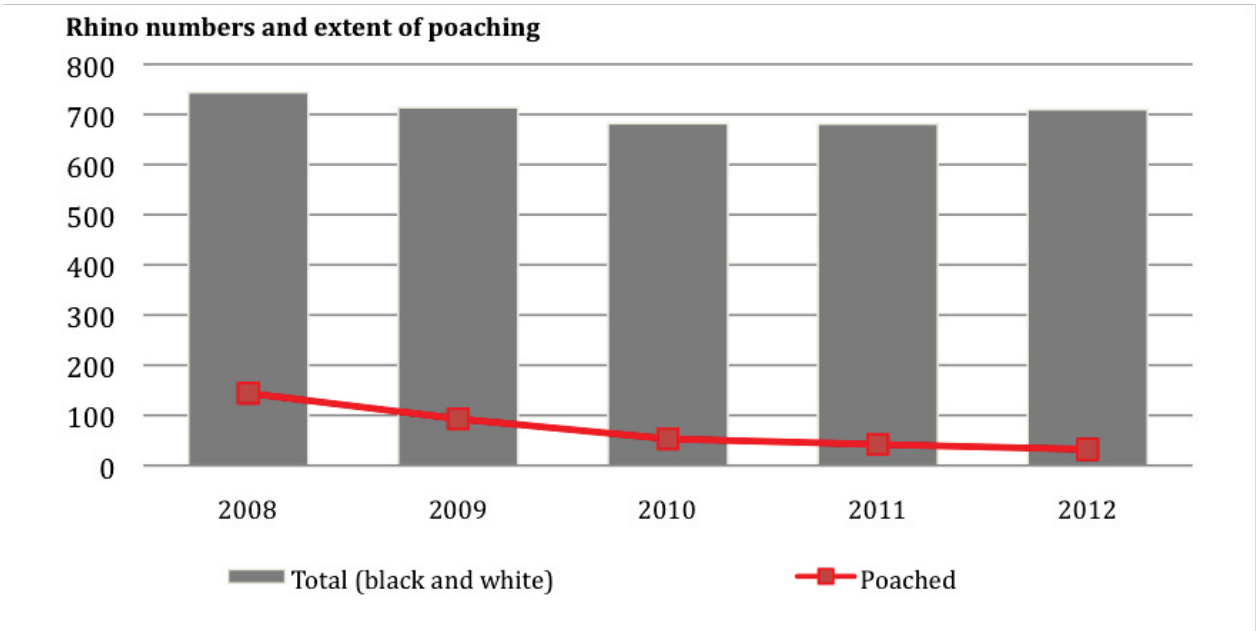

Figure 5: Trends in rhino poaching in Zimbabwe
Source: LRT, pers. Comm., 2014

c. Limited economic incentives for local communities

Zimbabwe was the first African country to develop a noticeable alternative approach to the management of natural resources outside protected areas through the Community Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) in the 1980s and 1990s. CAMPFIRE enabled local communities to benefit from wildlife hunting revenue streams in their areas. Part of the revenue was traditionally used to build schools, clinics and roads in targeted areas by the respective Rural District Councils. Figure 6 shows that CAMPFIRE revenues countrywide fell from $2.3 million in 2008 to $1.9 million in 2011. Such income levels are increasingly becoming inadequate to incentivize growing numbers of local communities who are subjected to wildlife damage on a regular basis. Furthermore, about 90% of CAMPFIRE incomes are based on wildlife hunting.

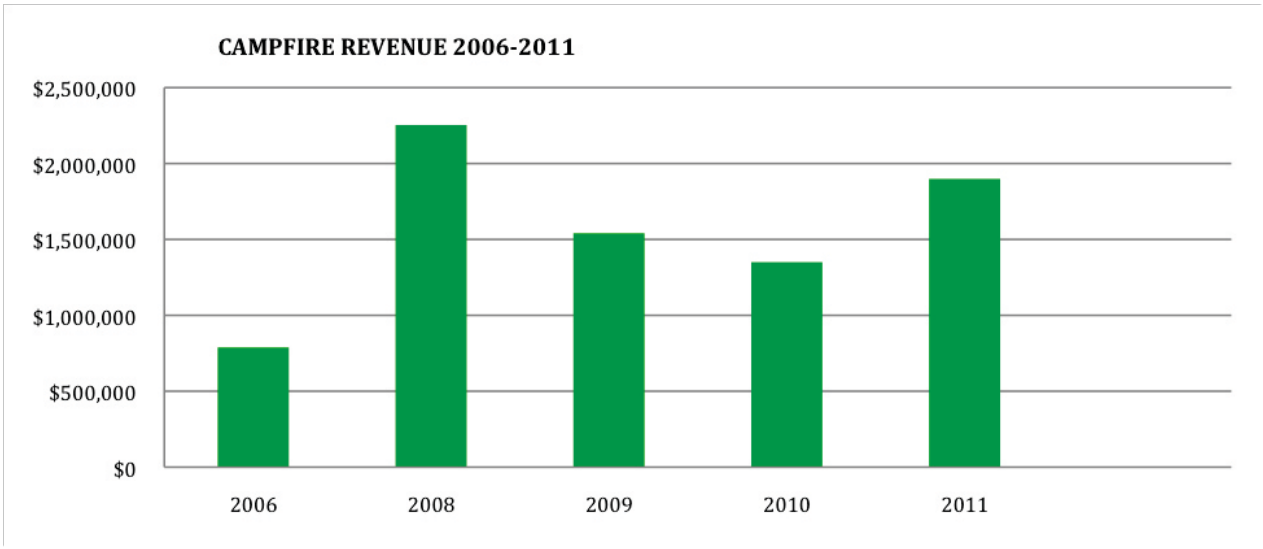

Figure 6: Trends in CAMPFIRE revenues: 2006-2011

d. Inadequate funding for protected areas management

The management effectiveness of the country's protected areas (parks estate) is in decline largely due to reduced government financing. Government funding for the protection and development of the estate fell from $200/km2 in 1980 to less than $10/km2 in 2009. A comparative figure for Kruger National Park in South Africa is $2 000/km2 (Cumming, 2009). This compromises routine activities such as anti poaching, game water supplies and veldt fire management.

2.2.4 Current State of Wildlife and Protected Areas Management in Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe is endowed with rich wildlife biodiversity that embraces the big five (viz. elephant, buffalo, lion, leopard and rhino) and concentrated in protected areas and their buffer zones. It has 26 protected areas consisting of 11 national parks, six safari areas, ten recreational parks, two botanical gardens, and two botanical reserves covering 5.2 million ha. The direct economic contribution of wildlife to the economy is reflected in tourism receipts (both consumptive and non consumptive) which increased from $294 million in 2008 to $749 million in 2012. Employment creation slightly

decreased from 8.8% in 2008 to 7.8% in 2012; while tourism's contribution to the GDP rose from 5% to 11% over the same period.

The national parks estate mostly borders communal areas whose districts constitute Community Management Areas for wildlife that comprise the Community Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources-CAMPFIRE (Figure 7). CAMPFIRE areas cover 26 of the country's 60 administrative districts. During the 1990's CAMPFIRE generated an average of $2 million per year largely from wildlife hunting. This acted as an incentive for local communities who bore the cost of living with wildlife on their land.

Table 6 summaries the status of some key wildlife species in the country.

Table 6: Status of selected wildlife species in Zimbabwe

Species	Status
Rhino	Zimbabwe has a small but viable population of black (browser) and white (grazer) rhino. A large percentage of the population is found in conservancies and wildlife reserves which provide sophisticated protection to the species. In 2008, the country had about 744 rhinos (453 black and 291 white). The figure increased to 752 (455 black and 297 white) in 2013 (*Lowveld Rhino Trust*).
Elephant	Zimbabwe's elephant population was estimated at 84 416 in 2001. Preliminary results of a 2014 Pan Africa Elephant Survey show that the country's elephant population remained statistically similar to the 2001 figure but poaching levels have increased. The nation's elephant carrying capacity is estimated at between 45,000 and 50,000 animals.
Lion	The country has about 1 300 lions in the wild with Hwange National Park holding the largest population. Some conservancies have good populations of the species but cannot sustain high densities due to their fairly small land areas.
Wild dog	Is one of Africa's most endangered species. About 500 animals are found in Zimbabwe and are confined to protected areas as they require large areas to roam, hunt and breed. The growing human population in buffer zones has increased wild dog contact with people and domestic dogs raising risks of conflict and disease spread respectively. Wild dogs are also highly susceptible to snaring.

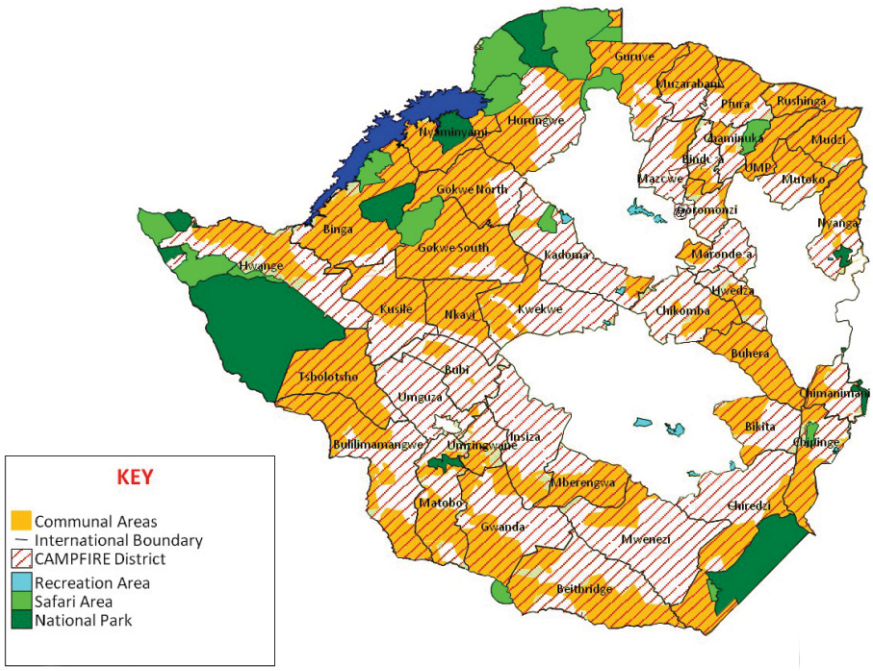

Figure 7: Zimbabwe's protected areas and buffer zones

3.3 Forestry & Landscape Management

3.3.1 Strategic Objective and Key Results

The strategic objective of the thematic area is to: "Support incentive based sustainable forestry and integrated landscape management by 2020". It revolves around: capacitating relevant institutions and communities; value addition to and commercialization of timber and non timber forest products and services; coordinated enforcement of relevant laws; and piloting and up scaling appropriate land management models.

Key results and indicators for the thematic area are given in Table 7. Figure 8 shows the desired and current states of forestry and landscape management in the country. Threats that should be managed in order to transition to the desired state include: agricultural expansion; uncontrolled veldt fires; inadequate economic incentives for local communities; inadequacy of enabling legislation and its weak enforcement; and climate change.

Table 7: Key results for the forestry and landscape management thematic area

Planned intermediate results	Indicators
a. Strengthened capacity of forestry & land management authorities.	Habitat condition; METT scores; community incomes; deforested and/or rehabilitated areas.
b. Economic value of forest products and services enhanced and benefits transparently shared with local communities.	
c. Legislation on the management and commercialization of forestry products reviewed and/or enforced.	
d. Participatory forestry and integrated land use management models implemented	

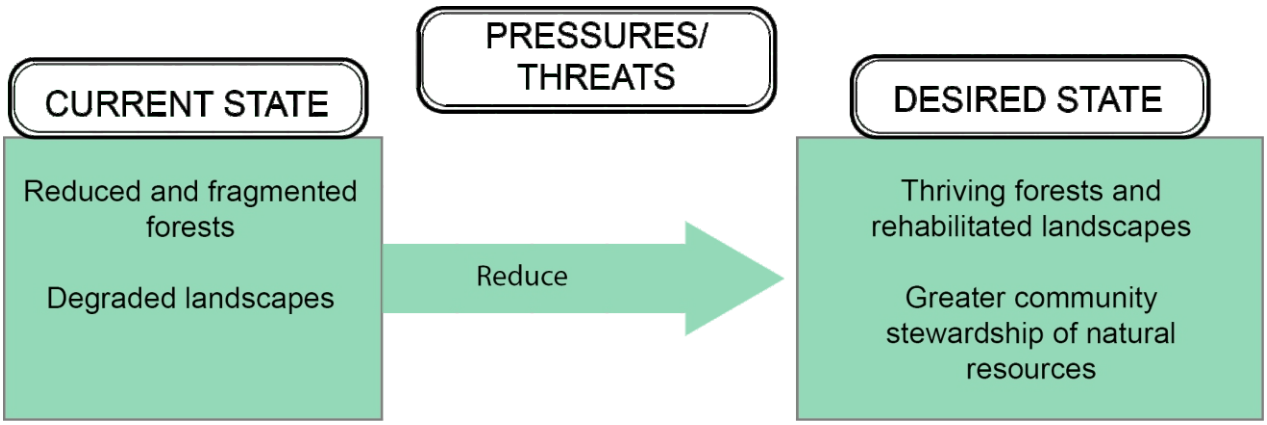

Figure 8: Current and desired states for the forestry and landscape management thematic area

3.3.2 Pressures on Forestry and Land Management

a. Agricultural expansion

Agriculture remains the mainstay of Zimbabwe's economy and a source of livelihood for the majority of the population, the bulk of which lives in rural areas. Dewees, et al (2011) established a strong negative correlation between the country's agricultural land and forest land between 1990 and 2005. This is largely driven by population growth and increased demand for food and food products. More forests and woodlands give way to cropping and pasture compared to any other land use. The land reform programme undertaken by government since independence in 1980 saw the reorganization of the country's agricultural sector by allocating part of the large scale commercial farmland (formerly owned by white farmers) to indigenous Zimbabweans. This resulted in the breaking up of most of the formerly white owned large scale commercial farms into smaller land

holdings depending on the farming model adopted (Harlon, et al, 2013). Table 8 shows land use changes that took place in Mazowe, a major agricultural district, between 2008 and 2013. The greatest changes occurred to wooded grasslands and woodlands that were reduced by 2.6% and 0.52% respectively. The largest expansion was in cultivated land that increased by 3.8%. Agricultural expansion contributes to habitat fragmentation and biodiversity loss; decreased base flows; and a reduced capacity of forests to sequestrate carbon dioxide. Only 7% of the country's land area is not degraded while the rest has light to moderate degradation (SADC, et al, 2008).

Table 8: Land use changes in the Mazowe district of Zimbabwe: 2008-2013

Land cover type	2008	2013	% change 2013-2008		
	Area, 000ha	% land cover	Area, 000ha	% land cover	
Plantation forests	4.3	0.96	4.2	0.95	-0.02
Woodland	125.8	28.33	123.5	27.80	-0.52
Bushland	24.1	5.42	22.9	5.15	-0.28
Wooded grassland	56.5	12.72	44.3	9.96	-2.76
Open grassland	18.3	4.12	17.6	4.00	-0.15
Cultivated land	200.5	45.13	217.2	48.90	+3.76
Rock outcrop	6.2	1.40	6.2	1.40	0.00
Water bodies	6.4	1.43	6.2	1.39	-0.04
Built up area	2.1	0.49	2.2	0.50	+0.01

Source: Forestry Commission, 2013

b. Uncontrolled veldt fires

Fire is a natural part of the functioning of forest ecosystems used by humans as a land management tool for thousands of years. However, uncontrolled forest fires have become a major threat to biodiversity in Zimbabwe. They threaten the bio-physical, social and economic environment due to their trail of destruction that directly impact on all sectors of the economy (Nyamadzawo et al. 2013). The area affected by veldt fires in the country increased from 0.9 million ha to 1.3 million ha between 2009 and 2012 (Table 9). Apart from affecting forests, fires led to the loss of human life and infrastructure. Long term effects of uncontrolled fires include reduced biodiversity; reduced soil fertility; increased soil erosion; and decreased infiltration that contribute to reduced water availability for livestock, irrigation, fish, wildlife and people (WWF, 2001).

Table 9: Damage caused by uncontrolled veldt fires in Zimbabwe: 2009 – 2012.

Year	Fire Incidents	Area affected (ha)	% of land affected	Lives lost	Infrastructure damaged ($) *
2009	7 409	950 905	2.4	10	1 984 560
2010	9 361	1 152 413	3.0	25	974 376
2011	6 780	713 770	2.0	5	227 214
2012	1 861	1 320 325	3.4	16	479 723

** Includes livestock, buildings, forest plantations, electricity poles, vehicles, farm equipment and farm produce.*
Source: EMA, 2009-12

c. Inadequate economic incentives for local communities

Most deforestation and land transformation in Zimbabwe takes place on communally/publicly managed land. Goods and services from such forests are a "public good" that cannot be internalized at individual household level hence they lend themselves to participatory forestry management (PFM). PFM is defined as "environmentally appropriate, socially beneficial and economically viable management of forests for present and future generations". Its pre-requisites are the active participation of local communities and stakeholders; the provision of adequate economic incentives; the presence of enabling legislative and institutional frameworks and their coordinated and effective enforcement at various levels; and respect for land use planning and the resultant plans. However, most of the forests have low economic value as they hold little merchantable timber based on existing technologies. Consequently, they do not provide sufficient economic incentives for SFM hence the appetite to convert them to higher economic return ventures such as agriculture and infrastructural development is high. The need to create value for such forests for the benefit of local communities can therefore not be overemphasized. This can be achieved by adding value to and comercializing both timber and non timber forest based products, including carbon trading through public, private and community partnerships (PPCPs) and eco-tourism promotion. There is also need to integrate forest management into other land use systems to secure a sustainable agriculture and forest interface.

d. Inadequacy of enabling legislation and its weak enforcement

The following observations can be made on the current legislation on forestry and land management:

i. The Communal Land Forest Produce Act offers very little economic incentives for SFM as it does not allow for the commercialization of natural resources on communal land;
ii. There is limited inter-institutional coordination and collaboration in the formulation and enforcement of forestry and land management laws by government and local authorities; and,
iii. Local communities have put in place by-laws that control the use of natural forests in their areas while the Forestry Commission has a Statutory Instrument that controls wood movement. The enforcement of such provisions has however remained weak.

Land use changes, unsustainable practices and poor enforcement of legislation particularly in the heavily utilized communal areas, result in inappropriate land use and non-compliance with natural resource conservation measures. This reduces land productivity and increases food insecurity.

There is therefore need to develop, pilot and up scale models that embrace improved water management, conservation agriculture, better crop and grazing land management and agro-forestry.

e. Climate change

Global Climate Models indicate that most of Southern Africa, including Zimbabwe, is likely to experience higher temperatures (2-40C higher than the 1961-1990 baseline) in the coming decades but the picture for rainfall is less clear. While average rainfall appears to have changed little over the last 50 years, droughts and floods have become more frequent and severe, and the onset of the rains less dependable. Preliminary findings from a World Bank study on Climate Change and Water Resources Planning Development and Management in Zimbabwe indicate the following:
a. A reduction in average precipitation in all the country's seven water catchments except Mazowe and Manyame. Ground water recharge will follow a similar pattern of reduction while surface runoff will be affected to an even greater extent than the decline in rainfall; and,
b. Increases in temperature, more frequent extreme weather events, and greater rainfall variability that are expected to increase the occurrence of crop failures, pests, crop disease and the degradation of both land and water resources.

Land degradation, exacerbated by climate change variability and change, manifests itself through soil erosion, water scarcity, and loss of vegetation, and affects agricultural productivity. Under the worst case scenario, plant diversity will decline throughout the country (MoEWC, 2013).

2.3.3 Current State of Forestry and Land Management

Zimbabwe has diverse forest ecosystems dominated by the following natural forests and woodlands: undifferentiated woodland, miombo woodland and semi arid shrub land (White, 1983; Feresu, 2010). Most of these forests and woodlands are on public/communal land, 3% are gazetted forests and 13% are part of the parks estate. They constitute complex ecosystems that provide a variety of valuable products such as timber, fuel-wood, fibre and non-wood forest products from tree species like Mopane and Marula; and contribute to the livelihoods of both urban and rural communities. They are also a source of vital ecosystem services such as protecting watersheds, maintaining biodiversity, and sustaining carbon sequestration. Unfortunately, most of these goods and services are not captured in the national accounting system hence the undervaluation of the forestry sector. The indigenous hardwood timber industry is based on Teak (Baikiaea plurijuga); and Mukwa (Pterocarpus angolensis) mostly found in the north western part of the country and directly employs 2,000 people. Commercial harvesting of indigenous hardwood timber species declined from 15 000 m3 in 2008, to 10 000 m3 in 2012 while the number of timber concessions fell from six to three over the same period mainly due to over-harvesting. It is estimated that Zimbabwe's natural forests and woodlands are being lost at an annual rate of 330 000 ha.

The eastern part of the country is home to a commercial forestry timber industry based on exotic plantations and contributes 4% to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The industry employed 5,311 and 8, 169 people in 2008 and 2012 respectively (TPF, 2012). The value of exotic timber exports fell from $40 million in 2008 to $21 million in 2012; and the area under plantation forestry declined from 98 318 ha to 81 583 ha between the two time periods.

2.4 Wetlands Management

2.4.1 Strategic Objective and Key Results

The strategic objective of the thematic area is to: "Promote wetlands management and governance systems that secure fresh water supply; reduce the rapid erosion of the wetland resource; and contribute to food security enhancement by 2020". It revolves around the valuation of wetlands goods and services; adoption of a coordinated inter-agency approach in crafting and enforcing laws on wetland management; development of a national wetlands strategy; and piloting and up scaling integrated best practice wetland management and governance models.

Key results and indicators for the thematic area are given in Table 10. Figure 9 shows the desired and current states of wetlands in the country. Transitioning to the desired state will require mitigation of the following threats: population growth, urbanization and food insecurity; limited understanding and knowledge on wetlands; and poor law enforcement and institutional coordination.

Table 10: Key results for the wetlands management thematic area

Planned intermediate results	Indicators
a. Knowledge and understanding around key wetland ecosystems functions and economic values generated and disseminated.	Report on economic valuation of wetlands; wetlands management strategy document; wetlands degradation levels.
b. Interventions that sustain key wetland ecosystems functions identified and documented.	
c. Sustainable wetlands management and governance systems piloted.	
d. A coordinated inter-agency approach to the enforcement of wetland related legislation adopted.	

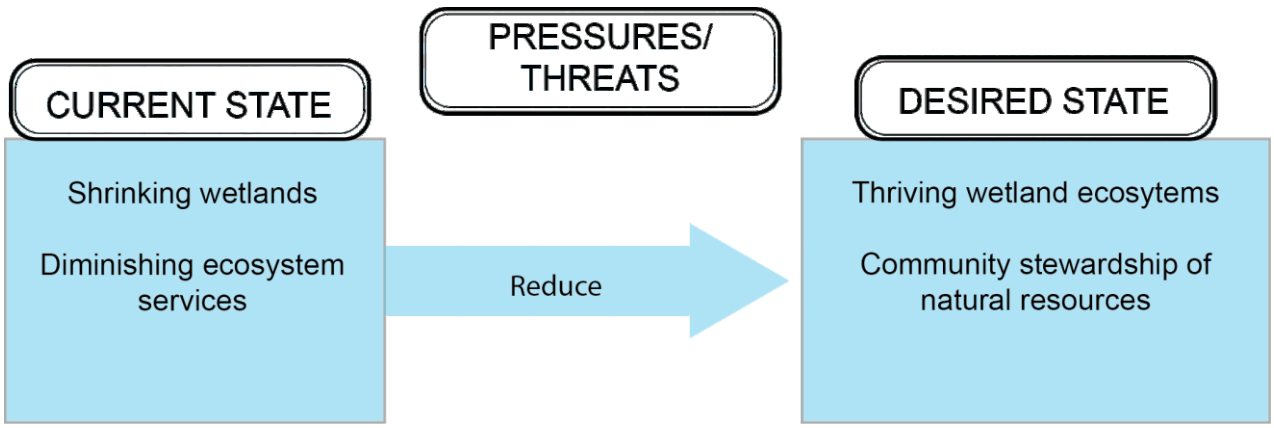

Figure 9: Current and desired states for the wetland management thematic area

2.4.2 PRESSURES ON WETLANDS

a. Population growth, urbanization and food insecurity

The country's annual population growth rate stands at 2.2% and 33% of the 13 million Zimbabweans live in urban areas. This necessitates the establishment of infrastructure and settlements which contribute to deforestation, land degradation and habitat fragmentation. For example, between 1984 and 2013, the City of Harare's built-up areas increased from 12.6% to 36.3% of its total land area; and non-built-up areas decreased from 87.3% to 63.4% (Kamusoko et al, 2013). Some of the structures were put up in inappropriate areas such as wetlands resulting in biodiversity loss, land degradation and disruption of key ecological processes. In addition, the advent of climate change has increased risks associated with rain fed agriculture and buttressed community reliance on wetland and stream bank cultivation for food security in both urban and rural areas.

b. Limited understanding and knowledge of wetlands

There is limited public awareness and understanding of wetland functions; uses; economic values; and cost of rehabilitation. The likely impacts of climate change on wetland integrity are also not well understood. This is notwithstanding the fact that one of the main responses to climate change is likely to be greater reliance on ground water which is also susceptible to droughts. Furthermore, there has been very little research and inventory of on-going wetland transformations and their implications on the ability of wetlands to provide essential goods and services.

c. Poor law enforcement and institutional coordination

Zimbabwe has comprehensive legislation that governs the use and management of wetlands. It includes the Environmental Management Act (Chapter 20:27), Section 113 on the protection of wetlands; the Environment Impact Assessment (EIA) legislation; Statutory Instrument (SI) 92 of 2014 that prohibits all mining activities in rivers and streams; the Water Act (Chapter 20:24) that imposes restrictions on the use of "public water"; the Urban Councils Act (Chapter 29:15) section 181 that controls public water streams; and the Regional, Town and Country Planning Act (Chapter 29:12) that deals with master plans. In May 2013, the country ratified the Ramsar Convention on wetlands and designated seven wetlands (including the Driefontein wetlands complex) for this purpose. In addition, an intersectoral national wetlands committee was established to oversee national Ramsar processes in particular and the country's wetland management in general in partnership with WWF Zimbabwe.

There is, however, a perceived lack of transparency and political will in the enforcement of existing legislative frameworks such as the EIA as evidenced by the existence of infrastructural developments in undesignated areas despite pronouncements of EIAs. This has led to a notion that the EIA process protects the developer rather than the environment. Furthermore, there is limited coordination in the crafting and enforcement of legislation on wetland utilization and management such as the Environmental Management Act, the Urban Councils Act and the Regional, Town and Country Planning Act. This leads to conflicts among the implementing or enforcement entities. In addition, the levels of fines imposed for environmental crime are not punitive enough and trivialize environmental offences. In fact most law violators find it cheaper to pay fines than to conform to environmental standards prescribed by legislation.

2.4.3 CURRENT STATE OF WETLANDS IN ZIMBABWE

Zimbabwe's fresh water is a finite and vulnerable resource that is essential for sustaining human life, maintaining ecological systems and achieving sustainable development. The country experiences two distinct rainfall seasons: a dry season with very high evaporation losses; and a wet season with large temporal and spatial variations in rainfall. It is also susceptible to perennial floods and droughts. Annual rainfall ranges from above 2 000 mm in the mountainous eastern part of the country to less than 400mm in the south western part. Zimbabwe is divided into seven water catchment areas defined by a major river system and associated tributaries (Figure 10). According to the Water Act a "catchment" is an area which drains naturally into a dam, lake, reservoir, river or watercourse and from which the dam, lake or reservoir, river or watercourse receives surface or ground flow which originates from rainfall. The country's river base flows are influenced by rainfall patterns, damming and land use changes. Many rivers dry up at the end of the rainy season from May/June. Most perennial rivers occur in areas with over 800mm annual rainfall. Exceptions include Save river in the Lowveld which receives less than 800mm and Manyame river which is no longer perennial due to excessive siltation and sewage.

The country depends on impounded water resources (in lakes and dams) and recharge from groundwater and wetlands for the greater part of the year. Its seven catchments are therefore strongly linked to wetlands for recharge through surface and groundwater. According to the Ramsar Convention, wetlands are "areas of marsh, fen, peat land or water, whether natural or artificial, permanent or temporary, with water that is static or flowing, fresh, brackish or salt, including areas of marine water, the depth of which at low tide does not exceed six metres". They maintain river base flows at a rate sufficient to support the dependent native fish and wildlife species; purify water as they filter out sediments and decomposing plant matter; and, retain and export nutrients, especially nitrogen and phosphorus through their accumulation in the subsoil or storage in the vegetation. The value of wetlands for both surface and groundwater resources management and governance can therefore not be overemphasized. Furthermore, they provide food and nutrients for resident communities.

Wetlands cover 1.5% of Zimbabwe's land area and stand out as rich islands of floral and faunal biodiversity. However, their integrity is under seige with 21% of them being severely degraded; 61% moderately degraded; and only 18% stable (EMA, 2012). The unprecendented decimation of the country's wetlands has reduced their capacity to naturally filter the influx of untreated effluent discharge from industries and municipal sewege. This increases the cost of water purification. The Driefontein wetland complex, one of the designated Ramsar sites, covers 20 000 ha of grasslands and patches of Miombo woodlands on communal land that straddles three districts. It has many wetlands that store water for long periods every year and are the main water source for most central streams and rivers that originate from this catchment area. Consequently, the wetland complex provides important ecosystems services to communities and wildlife that live within and outside the area. It is habitat to three globally threatened bird species namely the Wattled Crane, the Grey Crowned Crane and the Secretary Bird. Resident smallholder farmers practice rain fed agriculture but employ poor farming methods that degrade this fragile ecosystem. This is worsened by increasing human population and lack of alternative livelihood opportunities that put additional pressure on the wetland complex.

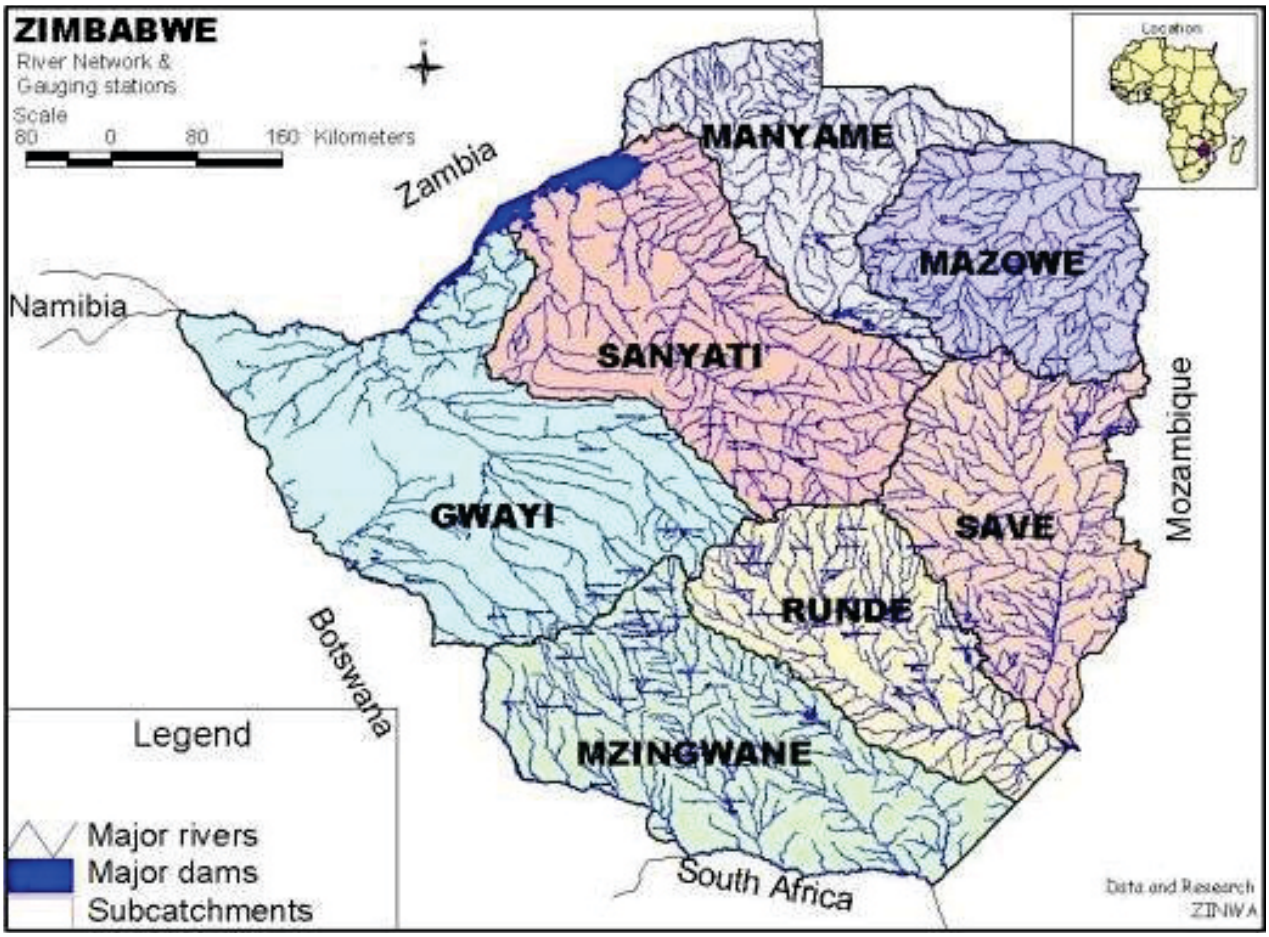

Figure 10: Zimbabwe's seven water catchments

2.5 Renewable Energy Solutions

2.5.1 Strategic Objective and Key Results

The strategic objective of the thematic area is to "Support the creation of an enabling technical and policy environment for renewable energy access and investment by 2020". It revolves around the identification, piloting and up scaling of appropriate and cost effective renewable energy solutions; provision of appropriate funding mechanisms and support systems; improvement of current wood energy use efficiencies; and the development and/or enforcement of relevant legal instruments.

Key results and indicators for the thematic area are given in Table 11. Figure 11 shows the desired and current states of renewable energy in the country.Threats that should be mitigated in order to transition to the desired state include: over-reliance on wood energy; unsustainable bio-fuel production and use; and limited cost effective renewable energy solutions.

Table 11: Key results for the renewable energy solutions thematic area

Planned intermediate results	Indicators
a. Appropriate renewable energy solutions piloted and up-scaled.	Proportion of national energy demand met from renewable energy solutions; adoption levels of renewable energy solutions; deforestation rates
b. Sustainable support systems and funding mechanisms for renewable energy solutions put in place.	
c. Wood energy demand reduced and its use efficiency enhanced for targeted uses such cooking and tobacco curing.	
d. An enabling policy framework for renewable energy access and investment created.	

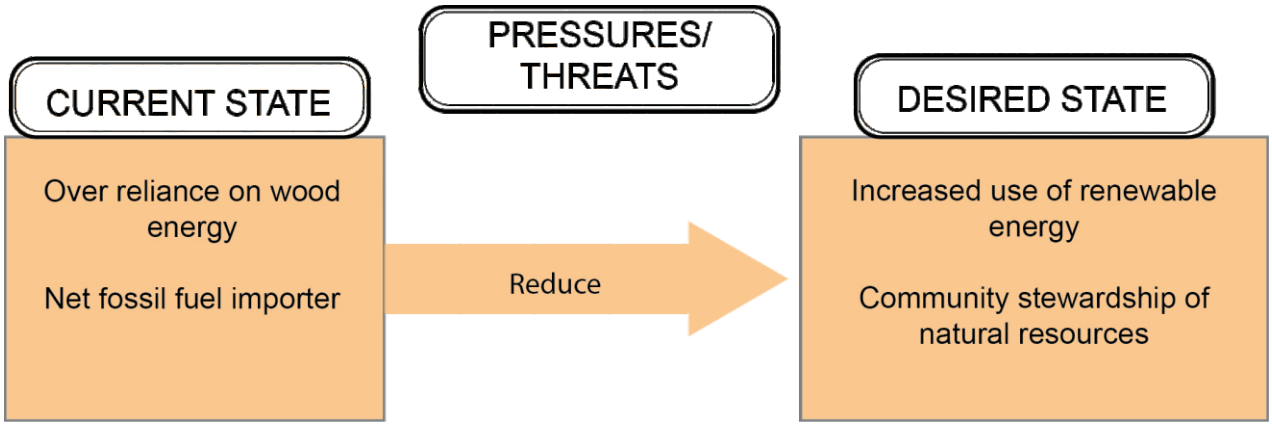

Figure 11: Current and desired states for renewable energy solutions

2.5.2 PRESSURES ON ENERGY SOURCES

a. Over-reliance on wood energy

Biomass, mainly in the form of wood, accounts for most of the primary energy needs of Zimbabweans. It provides 61% of the total energy supply followed by liquid fuels (18%), electricity (13%) and coal (8%)-(GOZ, 2009). Firewood is the main energy source for heating and cooking with an annual household consumption of 4.2 tons (Grundy, et al, 2013). Alternative and conventional energy sources such as electricity are beyond the reach of the bulk of the country's predominantly poor people due to their prohibitive costs and limited availability. Only 19% of rural households have access to electricity compared to 25% in urban areas. Most peri-urban and urban residents buy firewood from vendors. The widespread commercialization of firewood for household use has led to the felling of big trees and/or branches in areas where they still exist. The wood is then cut into smaller pieces for transportation and sale in high demand areas. This largely explains why firewood

has become a major cause of deforestation in a country faced with high population growth rates, increasing urbanization, reduced areas of natural forests and limited energy options.

Tobacco production is a major foreign currency earner and important income source for Zimbabwe's smallholder farmers. In 2013, it accounted for at least 10.7% of the country's Gross Domestic Product and 21.8% of all exports, compared to 9.2% for other agricultural commodities. The number of registered tobacco growers increased from less than 10 000 in 1999/2000 to 105 000 in 2013/14. This has been motivated by the existence of a readily available market, favourable crop prices and the existence of relatively cheap wood energy for tobacco curing. However, tobacco is emerging as a key driver of deforestation through forest clearing for its curing. For example, Hurungwe, a major tobacco growing district, lost about 7 000 ha of forests and woodlands to tobacco curing during the 2013-14 cropping season (Table 12).

Table 12: Selected statistics on Zimbabwe's tobacco industry: 2013-2014 cropping season

Parameter	Zimbabwe	Hurungwe district
Number of registered growers	105 000	22 000
Amount sold by 3 June 2014, million kg	175	35
Income realized from the sold crop, $ million	700	105
Area equivalent of forest cut to cure the crop, ha		7 000*

**70% & 90% of tobacco sold nationally and in Hurungwe is wood cured and the remainder is cured by coal respectively*

b. Unsustainable bio-fuel production and use

Zimbabwe's climate and soils are suitable for the cultivation of a wide range of bio-fuel feedstocks. Sugarcane is the most preferred bio-ethanol feedstock while interest in jatropha, a biodiesel feedstock is increasing. However, the cultivation of bio-fuel feedstocks requires substantial amounts of land. For example, about 10 000 ha is required to produce enough sugarcane that sustains a 12 million litre capacity bio-ethanol plant per year (Shumba, et al, 2009). Such investments can therefore lead to habitat alteration, biodiversity loss, land degradation, food insecurity and community displacement and disenfranchisement if not properly guided and responsibly implemented (FAO, 2008). It is against this background that WWF Zimbabwe catalyzed and supported the Government of Zimbabwe to develop a national bio-fuel policy grounded on extensive stakeholder participation in 2015.

c. Limited cost effective renewable energy solutions

A technology needs assessment study carried out by the Southern African Development Community (SADC) in some SADC member states, including Zimbabwe in 2000 showed preference for a technology mix of fossil fuels and renewable energy. This shows that while it is desirable to gradually move away from traditional biomass energy use, especially in areas where this resource is scarce, it will not happen overnight. There is therefore need to develop robust solutions for more sustainable extraction, production and use of traditional bio-energy while putting in place strategies and policies to gradually switch to other renewable energy solutions. Furthermore, awareness raising and education; and technology adaptation to local needs are needed.

2.5.3 Current State of Energy Use in Zimbabwe

Wood energy accounts for 71% of the primary energy needs of Zimbabwe's citizens. Alternative and conventional energy sources such as electricity and petroleum products are beyond the reach of many people due to their prohibitive costs and limited availability. For example, overall access to electricity in the country is 34% (Zhou, et al, 2011). Per capita electricity consumption is 1022 kWh compared to a regional average of 169 kWh and a world average of 2 777 kWh. The country launched its national energy policy in 2012. The policy provides for the development and use of renewable energy solutions to compliment conventional energy sources. Commonly used renewable energy solutions include small hydro, solar, ethanol-gel fuel and biogas (Nziramasanga, 2011).

Zimbabwe is a net importer of fossil fuel energy. Its current requirements are 3.5 million and 3.0 million litres of diesel and petrol per day respectively. The use of sustainable bio-fuels can reduce the country's dependence on imported petroleum products; stabilize fuel prices; ensure energy security; promote rural development and investment; reduce poverty; and create employment. The country's experience with this energy source dates back to pre-independence times. In 1966, the then Government of Rhodesia embarked on the production of sugarcane based fuel grade ethanol from molasses and blended it with fossil petrol up to 15%. The blending programme was terminated in 1992 due to drought and the creation of export markets for potable ethanol (for beverages). In 2005 an Ad-Hoc Cabinet Committee on Import Substitution in the energy sector was established. The Committee adopted the following strategies: resuscitation of bio-ethanol production for blending with petrol; and the promotion of biodiesel production from jatropha feedstock for blending with fossil diesel. A mandatory 5% blending of bio-ethanol was introduced in 2013 and raised to 10% in 2014.

3. PRIORITY LANDSCAPES FOR THE CONSERVATION STRATEGY

3.1 Preamble

Sixty five percent of Zimbabwe falls within the Miombo woodlands which are home to the majority of the country's population. The woodland is one of WWF's 35 priority eco-regions. It covers 3.6 million km2; spreads over ten countries of Southern Africa and has a population of over 65 million people, the majority of whom depend on dry land subsistence agriculture.

About 80% of the Conservation Strategy will be implemented in four landscapes namely: KAZA TFCA, Mid Zambezi, South East Lowveld and Greater Mapungubwe/Shashe (Figure 12). The landscapes embrace TFCAs. The remaining 20% will be in other geographical locations considered critical by national stakeholders. Reasons for choosing the landscapes are that (WWF, 2012):

a. They collectively hold over 90% of the country's elephant and rhino population and the bulk of its commercial hardwood timber species;
b. They embrace the country's four major river systems namely: Zambezi, Save, Limpopo and Shashe and straddle across all key land use systems of the country (viz. state, communal and private); and,
c. They embrace trans-boundary natural resources. This offers opportunities for trans-boundary collaboration among WWF offices.

Although emphasis will be on implementing activities that contribute to the achievement of all 16 key results of the Conservation Strategy on the Zimbabwe side of the TFCAs, attention will also be on trans-boundary issues in collaboration with sister WWF Offices. They are WWF Zambia and WWF Namibia in KAZA; WWF Zambia in Mid Zambezi, WWF Mozambique and WWF South Africa in the South East lowveld; and WWF South Africa in the Greater Mapungubwe. The distribution of the key results across the landscapes is given in Table 13.

Table 13: Distribution of the Conservation Strategy's key results across focal landscapes

Planned intermediate results	Focal landscapes			
	KAZA	Mid Zambezi	South East Lowveld	Greater Mapungubwe
1. Strengthened capacity of protected areas management authorities	X		X	
2. Improved and sustainable economic benefit flows to communities living with wildlife	X		X	
3. Improved law enforcement and judicial chain processes on wildlife crime	X	X	X	X
4. Models for the sustainable financing of protected areas developed & implemented	X	X		
5. Strengthened capacity of forestry and land management authorities	X	X		
6. Economic value of forest products and services enhanced and benefits transparently shared with local communities.	X	X		
7. Legislation on the management & commercialization of forestry products reviewed and enforced.	X	X		
8. Participatory forestry and integrated land use management models implemented.	X	X		
9. Knowledge and understanding around wetlands and their uses and economic values generated and disseminated.		X		
10. Interventions that sustain key wetland ecosystems functions identified and documented.		X		
11. Sustainable wetlands management and governance systems piloted in one Ramsar site.		X		

Planned intermediate results	Focal landscapes			
12. A coordinated inter-agency approach to the enforcement of wetland related legislation adopted.	X	X		
13. Appropriate renewable energy solutions piloted and up-scaled.	X	X		
14. Sustainable support systems and funding mechanisms for renewable energy solutions put in place.		X		
15. Wood energy demand reduced and its use efficiency enhanced for targeted uses such as cooking and tobacco curing.		X		
16. An enabling policy framework for renewable energy access and investments created	X	X	X	X

3.2 Overview of the Priority Landscapes

3.2.1 KAZA TFCA

The TFCA embraces Angola, Botswana, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe. On the Zimbabwe side, the landscape encompasses three national parks, two safari areas, six forest areas, four communal lands and private and/or settled land such as the Gwayi conservancy. It receives low and variable rainfall with the Zambezi river being its only perennial water source. Its vegetation is dominated by woodland and shrubland with a small proportion of grassland and tree savanna. It has 1 334 plant, 150 mammal, 500 bird and 109 fish species. Elephants make up 70% of the mammal biomass with buffalo, giraffe and impala contributing 24%. Vulnerable species include lion and cheetah while black rhino and the African wild dog are critically endangered.

Species requiring special attention include leopard, buffalo, hippo, gemsbok, sable, roan antelope, oribi, brown hyena and pangolin. The landscape is also home to commercial hardwood timber species such as Teak (Baikiaea plurijuga) and Mukwa (Pterocarpus angolensis).

Poverty levels among buffer communities are high with strong dependence on natural resources to augment subsistence agriculture that consists of limited crop production and livestock rearing. Cropping is largely done in wetter areas. Agricultural expansion increases contact between people and wildlife and worsens human and wildlife conflict. CBNRM (mostly sport hunting) through CAMPFIRE has provided supplementary income to some communities in the landscape.

3.2.2 The Mid Zambezi Landscape

The landscape incorporates Zambia and Zimbabwe. On the Zimbabwean side, it consists of a number of land use and tenure arrangements such as Mana Pools National Park, six safari areas; and a number of communal and commercial farming areas. It has high to low, variable and highly seasonal rainfall and consists of Colophospermum mopane woodland and open woodland with trees and shrubs of varying height and density. Twenty two large mammal species, including elephants, buffalo, lion, impala, warthog and birds commonly occur in the landscape. The rhino became locally extinct in the Mana pools in 1992 when the last known individuals were translocated out of the valley following a poaching onslaught the previous decade. Given that the valley is a suitable rhino habitat, reintroduction programmes could be considered on condition that the animals will be protected. Similar reintroductions have been done on the Zambian side in North Luangwa National Park.

Wildlife management is the primary land use in the park and safari areas and is a complimentary land use in communal areas through CAMPFIRE. Options for wildlife use are however shrinking in the face of growing human populations. Subsistence and cash cropping is the primary agricultural activity in the northern part of the landscape. In the southern part, a number of cash crops such as tobacco are grown by both small scale and large scale commercial farmers.

3.2.3 South East Lowveld Landscape

The landscape is part of the Greater Limpopo TFCA which incorporates Mozambique, South Africa and Zimbabwe and embraces different land tenure arrangements. Communal areas cover the largest portion of the landscape, followed by commercial farmland and protected areas in that order. The latter consist of Gonarezhou National Park, Malipati Safari Area and Manjinji Pan Sanctuary. Private land encompasses wildlife conservancies-the Save Valley Conservancy; the Malilangwe Trust Wildlife Reserve and large sugar estates.

It receives low and erratic rainfall and has flood plains that are interspersed with lagoons and riverine forests. Its arid hinterland comprises the mopane woodland. The landscape's mammal species include the elephant, wild dog, roan antelope, nyala and birds. The Save Valley Conservancy has over 1 000 elephant, 150 rhino and 1 800 buffalo and keeps over 9 900 cattle while the Malilangwe Trust Wildlife Reserve has 220 rhino and the last remnants of Lichtenstein's hartebeest, and roan antelope. Commercial sugar estates, mainly in Chiredzi district, are under freehold title.

Rural communities in the landscape are exposed to recurrent droughts and floods that adversely impact on agricultural production. CAMPFIRE, through sport hunting, has somewhat provided supplementary incomes to communities though the net benefit to individual households remains minimal.

3.2.4 Greater Mapungubwe/Shashe TFCA

The TFCA encompasses Botswana, South Africa and Zimbabwe. It includes the Tuli Circle Safari Area; Bubye Valley Conservancy; and Maramani communal land and a number of game ranches. It is characterized by low and erratic rainfall, is marginal for agriculture but ideal for wildlife

community; and has the unique baobab and illala palm trees and mixed western mopane veldt. The landscape has 26 RED Data plant species; and is home to elephants, birds, crocodiles, hippos and a variety of fish species.

Communities in the landscape survive on unreliable subsistence crop production, livestock rearing; harvesting and utilization of illala palm; and limited utilization of wildlife resources. Wildlife poses major threats to communities largely through predation and crop destruction.

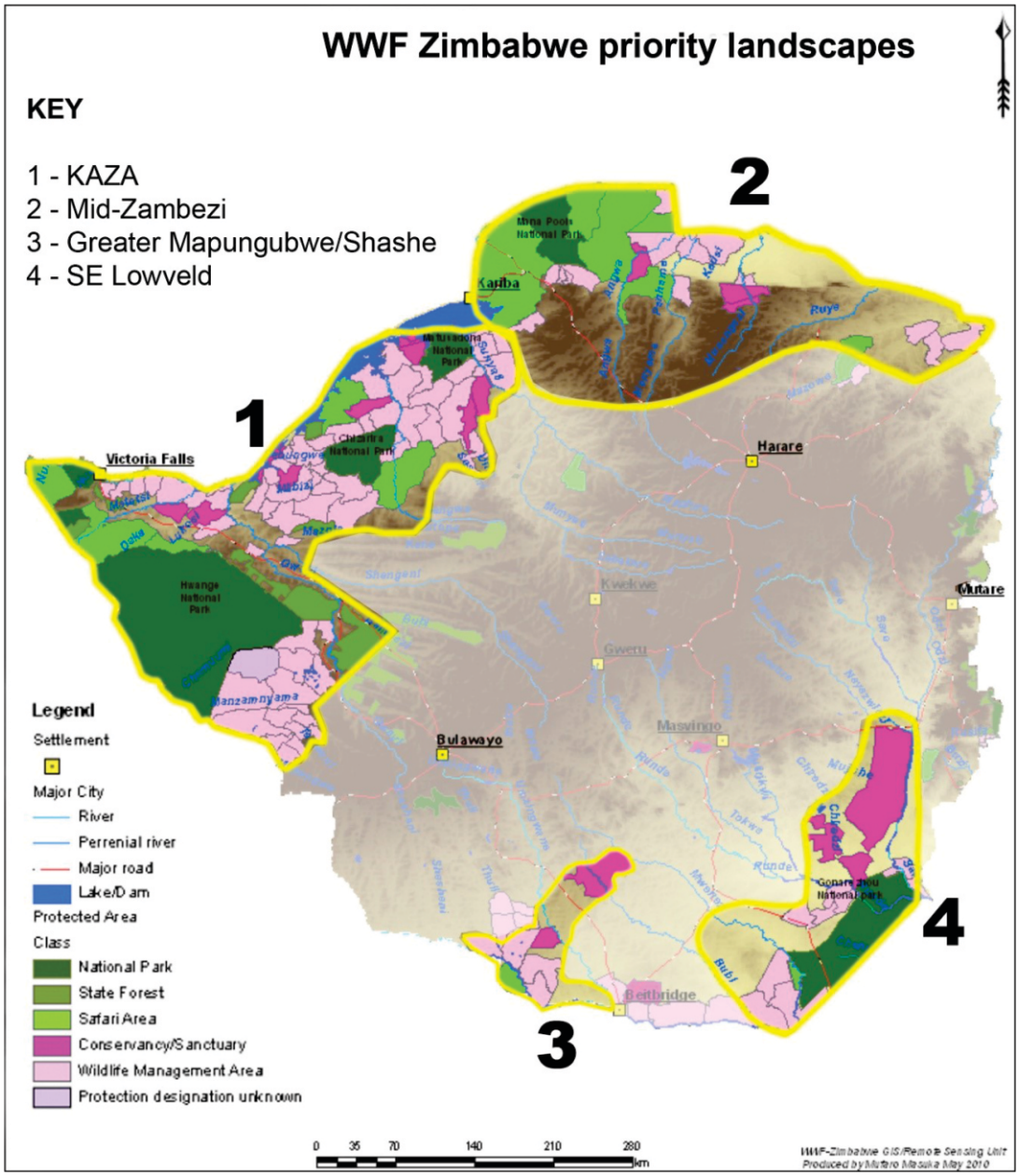

Figure 12: Priority landscapes for Conservation Strategy delivery

4. OPERATIONAL DELIVERY

4.1 Strategic Objectives and Key Results

The strategic objective of the Operational Delivery component is to: "Support the implementation of the Conservation strategy". It revolves around: people development; organizational development; partnerships; financial resource mobilization; finance and administration; communication; and trans-boundary conservation delivery. Its specific objectives are to:

a. Attract and retain a motivated, effective and lean team. It revolves around maintaining a high calibre and competitively renumerated personnel compliment that grows organically with the demands of the conservation programme;
b. Establish an office structure and setup that supports the effective delivery of the Conservation Strategy. This revolves around an approapriate organic structure and rooting the Office into the fabric of the Zimbabwean society.
c. Develop and strenghten strategic partnerships that help deliver conservation at scale. It revolves around engaging in and strengthening functional relationships that leverage on competencies resident within partner institutions based on comparative advantage, mutual respect and accountability;
d. Increase and diversify the Offices' funding levels and sources for sustained conservation delivery. It revolve around income growth and diversification, flexibility and sustainability;
e. Enhance the effeciency and effectiveness of the office's financial and adminstrative management systems. This revolves around continous improvemnents in ICT; regular review and implementation of risk mangement strategies; and dedicated implementation of compliance measures;
f. Create a visible, vibrant and locally relevant WWF Zimbabwe Office that appeals to a wide range of stakeholders. The latter include: government, the public, civil society, media, private sector, development partners and the WWF Network;
g. Provide oversight and leadership on relevant trans-boundary initiatives

Key results, activities and indicators of the Operational Delivery componenent are given in Table 14.

Table 14: Key results of the Operational Delivery component

Planned immediate results/activities	Indicators
1. A critical mass of high calibre personnel attracted and retained (People development) a. Organically grow the staff compliment b. Offer attractive compensation and benefits (C&B) in line with the WWF Talent Aquisition Strategy and industry benchmerks (CSOs & private sector) in the Zimbabwe market c. Foster a spirit of team work d. Undertake targeted capacity building; mentoring; attachments; and secondments of experienced personnel from supporting WWF National Offices (NOs).	Staff retention; growth in staff numbers in relation to programme portfolio size, C&B levels; relevant courses undertaken; team building activities; personal development plans, talent management & succession plans.
2. Organizational development a. Implement a program oriented organogram. b. Conduct regular meetings for the Senior Management Team. c. Develop TORs for an Advisory Board b. Set up an Advisory Board by July 2016.	Organizational structure; Local Advisory Board; Minutes of Board meetings.
3. Partner contribution to conservation delivery strengthened. a. Maintain and strengthen existing partnership arrangements b. Map out and prioritize new strategic partners and donors for each thematic area of the Conservation Strategy c. Identify partner capacity gaps & support remedial measures.	Number of partners and donors; joint projects implemented; capacities imparted
4. Office's funding increased and diversified on a sustained basis a. Increase the Office Program budget by 100% of the 2015 figure by 2020. Adequate cost recovery will be built into this incremental funding to cater for growth in core spending especially around staff costs and organizational development. b. Strengthen existing relationships with partners to leverage on traditional bilateral and multilateral funding arrangements c. Develop corporate sector fund raising capacity with support from WWF South Africa which has relationships with some South African companies that operate in Zimbabwe. d. Explore and develop foundation and public fund raising capacity with support from the Network. e. Develop, implement and monitor a financial sustainability plan for the Office. f. Use the Office's conservation successes to leverage funding from various sources.	Budget growth and diversity of funding sources; budgetary allocations to thematic areas.

Planned immediate results/activities	Indicators
5. The efficiency and effectiveness of the Office's financial and administrative management system enhanced. a. Upgrade IT infrastructure to enhance operational efficiency and reduce transaction costs. b. Streamline procurement systems, processes and controls. c. Maintain and regularly review the risk register. d. Routinely review compliance systems.	IT system's accessibility (speed, availability, etc.); service level agreements; cost recovery ratios; risk register; audit reports.
6. A visible, vibrant and locally relevant Office in place. a. Conduct an office brand survey. b. Repackage, re-brand and aggressively market the Office c. Continuously review and update the Office's website and other communication tools.	Publicity materials; website and other communication tools.
7. Effective particiaption in trans-boundary conservation delivery a. Provide leadership in relevant trans-boundary projects. b. Provide trans-boundary coordination, reporting and cross learning on the food and agriculture transformational project.	Number of trans-boundary projects led, coodinated or participating in.

4.2 Status of Operational Delivery Components

4.2.1 People Development

The Office has a lean staff complement that relies on the following strategies for greater conservation delivery and reach:

a. Multi-tasking and cross functional teams in project development, implementation, monitoring and reporting; and policy engagement; and,
b. Working with and through partners in areas such as project co-design and/or implementation; and policy discourse and advocacy.

Table 15 shows the existing and required staffing levels to deliver on the conservation strategy by 2020. Technical staff numbers should increase from nine in financial year (FY) 2015 to 16 in Fy20.

Corresponding figures for the Operations team are six to ten respectively. With respect to technical expertise only one of the four thematic areas (viz. wetlands management) has no in-house expert. The Office will therefore rely on short-term experts and its partners to co-design bankable projects after which a full time specialist will be recruited. Staffing levels will be progressively monitored to ensure they remain sufficient for business needs and to avoid staff burn out (organic growth).

Personnel category	Time period	
	FY15	FY20
1. Technical staff		
Wildlife	1	2
Forestry/land management	2	3
Wetlands management	0	1
Energy	1	1
Resource economics/ and CBNRM	1	1
Business Development & Fund Raising and Communication	1	2
Monitoring and Evaluation	1	1
Technical support	2	5
Sub-total	9	16
Operations staff		
Finance	2	4
Administration	2	3
Support	2	3
Sub-total	6	10
Grand total	15	26

4.2.2 Organizational Development and Governance

Until September 2009, Zimbabwe hosted the WWF Southern African (Regional) Programme Office. A Network Programme Audit of the same year recommended the transfer of the regional function of the Office to the Eastern and Southern Africa Programme Office in Kenya and the transitioning of the remaining entity into the WWF Zimbabwe office. A subsequent Network Presence Review of 2010 proposed the downscaling of the country Office to a dormant status that focuses on policy issues. This was overtaken by the Network's Truly Global initiative of 2014 that emphasized the strengthening and empowering of country offices. In addition, the initiative required that WWF country offices be grounded or rooted into the fabric of their countries of domicile through the establishment of local Advisory Boards as appropriate. The latter would consist of visionary leaders in relevant fields.

The current office organogram is project based. This has been informed by the office's fund raising model which has been project focused. However, unless carefully and judiciously monitored, such a model tends to create "silos" which restricts cross fertilization and learning. There is therefore need for a program oriented organogram which is "in sync" with the thematic areas of the Conservation Strategy as reflected in Figure 13.

Due to its lean staff structure, the office has operated with a three person Senior Management Team (SMT) consisting of a Country Director, Finance Manager and Manager of the largest office project. The team was broadened to five managers (Country Director, Finance Manager, Business Development & Fund raising expert and two Programme Managers in January 2016.

4.2.3 Partnerships

WWF Zimbabwe works with and through partners to deliver on its Conservation objectives. The partners include relevant government departments, civil society organizations, academia, media and the private sector. The partnerships are based on comparative advantage in areas such as socio-economic development; advocacy for institutional and policy change; and value addition to natural resource based products through Public Private Community Partnerships (PPCPs). Given that WWF Zimbabwe is the only international conservation Non Governmental Organization (NGO) active in the country, the Office utilizes its convening power to bring together partners for policy engagement and capacity building with emphasis on landscape thinking, monitoring and evaluation. In this regard it established a National Conservation and Discussion Forum where government and non-government stakeholders periodically meet to share ideas on specific technical and policy issues.

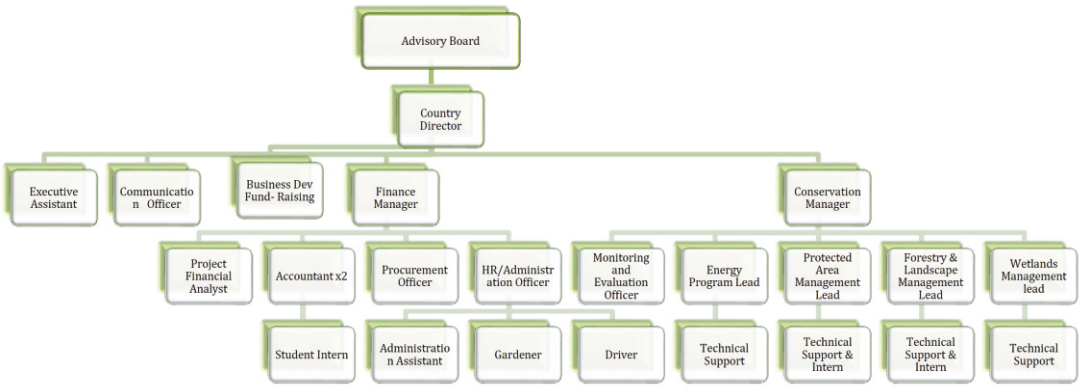

Figure 13: Projected Office organogram

4.2.4 Financial Resource Mobilization/Fundraising

Zimbabwe's macro-economic environment is depressed by constrained liquidity, limited foreign direct investment and low industry capacity utilization. This has constrained investment into conservation and environmental matters as available government and development partner resources were channeled to more pressing socio-economic issues. The November 2014 resumption of direct funding by the European Union to government for developmental programmes is therefore a welcome development.

Ninety nine percent of WWF Zimbabwe's conservation programme is funded by the WWF Network and the public sector (Public Sector Funding-PSF). However, these project specific funds cannot be redeployed to other aspects of the Conservation Strategy. The remaining 1% of the budget is internally generated with the Office's reserves currently standing at 8% of the annual budget. Not much effort has currently been placed on mobilizing private sector financing as the sector is depressed with preliminary assessments indicating a limited appetite for conservation support.

Significant implementation of the Conservation Strategy requires that the Office's budget increases by at least 100% of the 2015 figure by 2020. Current and projected funding sources and proportions are given in Table 16.

Table 16: Funding sources and spread for the Conservation Strategy

Funding source/structure	% distribution by period	
	FY15	FY20
Funding source		
a. PSF-direct	56	50
b. WWF Network	43	46
c. Internal	1	1
d. Private sector/corporate entities	0	3
Fund spread by thematic area*		
a. Wildlife and protected areas management	27	33
b. Forestry & landscape management	44	33
c. Wetland management	4	8
d. Renewable energy solutions	13	18
e. Core costs & organizational development	12	8

**The decline in the relative proportion of the forestry and landscape management thematic area budget is indicative of the relatively greater funding prospects for the wildlife and projected areas thematic area rather than a budget decline to the former.*

4.2.5 Financial and Administrative Management Systems

Finance and administration services are currently delivered through a mix of in-house capacity and outsourced service providers. Outsourced services include payroll processing and ICT management. Decision to keep in-house or out source in largely informed by cost benefit analysis and centrality of the service to the business. The office's policies and procedures are guided by the Field Operations Manual practices issued by WWF International. The accounting system was recently upgraded while the administrative systems are predominantly manual. This creates an opportunity to leverage on ICT to deploy even more efficient and effective systems that allow the office to continue to run with a lean finance and administration team.

4.2.6 Communication

Communication activities of the office have largely been project focused with emphasis on the production of publicity materials, reports and events. Moving forward, emphasis will be on: increasing WWF brand visibility within the country; and portraying the Office as a partner of choice to the government, cooperating partners and the private sector. Among the strategies to be implemented are:

a. The conduct of a WWF brand survey within the country;
b. Promotion of the Office, especially within the WWF Network through campaigns and awareness raising activities; and,
c. The appropriate and effective packaging and communication of the Office's programmes and achievements to various audiences.

4.2.7 Trans-boundary Conservation Delivery

WWF Zimbabwe hosts the Miombo eco-region Secretariat. In this capacity, it facilitates joint planning and reporting of conservation work across Miombo country offices. It is also leading the following trans-boundary initiatives:

a. Sustainable forestry management and honey production project in Zambia and Zimbabwe in collaboration with WWF Zambia;
b. Human wildlife conflict mitigation project at “hot spots” along the Hwange (Zimbabwe) and Makadidgadi (Botswana) wildlife sub-corridor in partnership with the Botswana government and a Botswana based Civil Society Organization (CSO); and,
c. The tobacco curing footprint project in Malawi and Zimbabwe in partnership with a Malawi based CSO.

With the shift from eco-regions to WWF Global practices, the Office will use its experience with trans-boundary projects to effectively participate or provide leadership in relevant practice related trans-boundary conservation work.

WWF Zimbabwe is also providing leadership in the development of the food and agriculture transformational project which falls within the global food practice. Although the project will be implemented at country level, there is scope for the Office to provide trans-boundary coordination, reporting and cross-learning.

4.3 Risk Analysis

Table 17 shows a risk analysis of WWF Zimbabwe's current conservation delivery model.

Table 17: Risk analysis of Office conservation delivery mode

Model component	Risk	Mitigation measure
1. Project approach to conservation delivery	a. Creation of "silos" that restrict cross fertilization & learning across teams b. Restrictive funding opportunities.	a. Adopt a program approach aligned to thematic areas of the Office's Zimbabwe Conservation Strategy which is aligned to Global Practices. b. Explore innovative longer term funding mechanisms, e.g. "basket funding" or the core management of selected Park estates.
2. Lean staff compliment and organic Office growth	a. Inadequate segregation of duties especially in finance and administration. b. Absence of Conservation and Human Resource leads. c. Restrictive organizational structure. d. Communication and administrative requirements in a growing organization might be time consuming and non-effective.	i. Closely monitor the finance and administration department and take corrective measures to ensure that the segregation of duties is not compromised. ii. Secure the services of an experienced conservationist for a 2 year interim Conservation Manager position as part of organizational development support. iii. Out-source the human resources function as the Office's personnel compliment does not justify the recruitment of a fully fledged and experienced HR practitioner. iv. Put in place a more robust organizational structure as the Office's conservation delivery portfolio grows. It should consist of the following departments whose leads report to the Country Director: Finance & Administration; Business Development, Fund Raising & Communication; & Conservation.
3. Multi-tasking	a. Loss of high fliers to the competition. b. Inadequate expertise to effectively engage.	i. Provide a flexible reward system that recognises performance or special skills at the time of recruitment. ii. Provide targeted training. iii. Seek secondments and attachments in critical areas. iv. Support professional growth and provide space for innovation.
4. Working with and through partners	Inadequate capacity for partners to deliver	i. Conduct focused capacity building sessions. ii. Continuously monitor partner capacity and offer appropriate training.

5. MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Broad Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) indicators for each strategic objective of the Conservation Strategy are given in Table 18. They will be better defined for each planned immediate result as new projects are developed. All current projects will be benchmarked against the broad indicators in FY16. Formal assessments on the implementation of the Conservation Strategy will be carried out in 2017 and 2020.

Table 18: Broad indicators by Strategic objective

Strategic objective	Broad indicators
1. Contribute to enhancing the capacity of protected areas management authorities to better manage and empower buffer communities to economically benefit from wildlife resources in their areas.	Population trends of key species; habitat condition; Park authority & community incomes; number of arrests, prosecutions, convictions & seizers; & number of effective partnerships (PPCPs)
2. Support incentive based sustainable forestry and integrated landscape management.	Habitat condition; METT scores; community incomes; areas deforested and or rehabilitated
3. Promote wetlands management and governance systems that secure fresh water supply; reduce the rapid erosion of the wetland resource; and contribute to food security enhancement	Economic valuation of wetlands report; wetlands management strategy document; levels of wetland degradation
4. Support the creation of an enabling technical and policy environment for renewable energy access and investment	Proportion of national energy demand met from renewable energy; adoption levels of renewable energy solutions; deforestation levels
5. Support the implementation of the Conservation Strategy.	Rebranded publicity materials; local Advisory Board, joint projects implemented and policy processes supported; programme portfolio size; & budget growth and diversity

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