

Zambia's National Adaptation Plan (NAP): Recommendations for the Improved Integration of the Climate, Peace, and Security Nexus

Introduction

The purpose of this policy brief is to provide practical recommendations so as to improve the integration of climate, peace, and security nexus considerations in the drafting and formulation of Zambia's first NAP. It is based on the analysis of Zambia's previously developed climate change, environment, disaster risk reduction, and agricultural policies and strategies. The process to formulate and implement NAPs was first established by the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) at the Conference of the Parties (COP) 16 for the purposes of identifying medium- and long-term adaptation needs, as well as developing and implementing strategies and programmes to address these needs. It therefore offers an overarching framework within which countries can identify strategic needs and priorities, design responses that address these needs and priorities, as well as (crucially) access technical and thematic expertise facilitated by the UNFCCC, affiliated countries and expert bodies as well as other international partners.

In the context of Zambia, the NAP formulation process has been ongoing since 2020, when the government was able to access and secure a grant worth USD 2.2 million from the Green Climate Fund's (GCF) Readiness and Preparatory Support Programme for the purposes of developing the NAP. The NAP is expected to guide the Zambian government in taking action against current and forecasted negative climate change impacts, particularly in climate-vulnerable sectors such as food production, water, and forestry. It builds upon previous adaptation that has since 2004 assisted the government in prioritising responses such as better land management, crop and livestock diversification, and climate-proofing sanitation in urban areas (Global Water Partnership, 2021). For instance, in Zambia's revised Nationally Determined Contributions (NDC), adaptation-related activities were focused on strategic productive systems (including agriculture, wildlife, and water), strategic infrastructure and health systems, as well as enhanced capacity, research, technology transfer, and finance for adaptation (Government of Zambia, 2021).

Previous work has already made the case for ensuring that NAPs - and the strategic objectives, priorities, and interventions they contain - are conflict-sensitive. As the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) has demonstrated, in order to avoid doing harm when designing climate adaptation priorities and interventions, it is imperative to recognise that climate change is expected to have important implications for peace and security, particularly in how it may exacerbate or further complicate extant conflict dynamics, and that – conversely – conflict and fragility are likely to present a significant obstacle to effective climate action and adaptation (UNDP, 2023). Moreover, it is also evident that if assessment, planning, and design processes are holistic in nature, climate adaptation can be successfully paired with and have co-benefits for other strategic objectives related to conflict prevention, conflict management/transformation, and peacebuilding (Morales-Munoz et al., 2022). Ensuring that Zambia's NAP is therefore cognisant of both how existing points of societal tensions may

become further enflamed by climate change and how climate adaptation may serve to mitigate these is critical.

To produce targeted recommendations regarding what topics related to the climate, peace, and security nexus are worthy of inclusion in Zambia's NAP, this brief makes use of the CGIAR FOCUS Climate Security team's Policy Coherence and Awareness Analysis (PCAA). The purpose of the PCAA method is twofold. Firstly, it provides an approach through which small-, medium, and large-scale datasets consisting of policy and strategy documents can be analysed for the purposes of detecting and evaluating the in-text presence of certain topics, concepts, and thematic interconnections within and across different policy and strategy documents. The method therefore reveals trends of successful engagement with particular issues, as well as gaps of understanding and the absence of engagement with said issues. Secondly, the PCAA method seeks to elucidate the extent to which cross-sectoral and cross-scalar integration and coherence are evident within and between policy and strategy documents subjected to analysis by recording in-text references to other relevant policy sectors, scales, or instances of coordination and cooperation between sectoral actors.

Using the PCAA method, this brief contains an analysis of Zambia's previously developed policies and strategies relating to climate change, the natural environment, disaster risk reduction, as well as agriculture and food security, to provide an overview of the extent to which (and how) such documents have previously engaged with the climate, peace, and security nexus. We therefore aim to locate successful examples of thematic and technical integration of the nexus in previous legislation, as well as identify gaps that the NAP could arguably help address. The research questions guiding this endeavour are as follows:

- To what extent have Zambia's previously developed policies and strategies demonstrated evidence of engagement with the climate, peace, and security nexus?
- Which particular aspects and dimensions of the nexus are identified as either challenges or opportunities for climate action?
- To what extent do previously developed policies appear to deploy appropriate analytical tools and approaches to ensure conflict-sensitivity and peace-responsiveness?

Results

Our in-text evaluation of Zambian policy content – disaggregated at both the document and sentence level – reveals several key trends and gaps with regards to engagement with the climate, peace, and security nexus (figure 1).¹ Firstly, in line with our expectations, virtually all policy documents from across the three sectors subjected to analysis demonstrate evidence of engagement with both the

¹ Results at the document level denote whether a specific variable was found to be present at least once in the document in its entirety, whilst results at the sentence level record the percentage of sentences from across all the policies within one sector containing content that fulfils the variable in question. Disaggregating our results in this manner allows not just an indication of the extent to which topics of interest are present across documents and sectors, but also provides a proxy for the weighted significance of the topic within the context of the documents.

natural environment and climate change (variables 1 and 2). The only minor outlier in this regard is the agriculture and food sector, of which 87.5% of policy documents engaged with climate change. Results at the sentence level further demonstrate that the natural environment and climate change are afforded significant attention within documents, with agriculture and food strategies demonstrating evidence of engagement in 33.8% and 5.7% of sentences respectively, climate change strategies containing evidence of engagement in 52.8% and 39.1% of sentences respectively, and those relating to the natural environment and natural resource management showing evidence of engagement in 60.9% and 8.6% respectively (figure 1). This suggests that across the agricultural and food, climate change, and environment sectors, the role that climate change may play in affecting natural resources and productive activities reliant upon them (such as agriculture) is fairly widespread.

Secondly, documents continue to score relatively high with regards to the extent to which connections between the environment and climate change are made with security. Importantly, despite their interrelatedness, our framework distinguishes between environmental security and climate security due to the qualitative difference between these two interfaces: conflict over access to and usage of natural resources may, for instance, occur outside of the realm of influence of climate change and be underpinned by conflict drivers not (directly) related to climate change. A majority of documents from across the three sectors as such appear to recognise connections between the natural environment and security (variable 3), whilst 75% of climate change and environment policy documents and 87.5% of agriculture and food policy documents similarly engaged with connections between climate change and security (variable 4). Equally important to note here, however, is that our assessment framework also distinguishes between various dimensions, understandings, and manifestations of 'security'. The framework for example records separately instances when a document appears to deploy nomenclature relating to human security (such as livelihood security or food security), as opposed to referencing security in a more conventional sense related to conflict and peace. Bearing this in mind, it is evident that the majority of discussion of the relationship between climate change and 'security' occurs within the framework of human security, emphasising the detrimental effects climate change is expected to have for livelihoods, food and nutritional security, amongst others. 75% of agriculture and food- and climate change-related policy documents that referenced security, for instance, did so in the context of human security risks as opposed to explicit references to conflict (variable 4.1).

By contrast, explicit references to the relationship between climate change and conflict are somewhat less ubiquitous. Only 12.5% of agriculture and food- and 25% of environment-related policy documents, for example, made explicit references to instances of conflict occurring as a consequence of or exacerbated by climate change impacts. Climate change-related strategies were more likely to make this connection, with 50% of climate policies that discuss security doing so in a manner that is explicit to conflict (variable 4.2). Disaggregated at the sentence level, it is also apparent that – particularly in agriculture and food- and environment-related policies – the comparative weighting and importance afforded within documents to this topic minimal, with less than 0.1% of sentences in the agriculture and food sector and around 0.1% of sentences in the environment sector containing evidence of engagement with explicit climate-conflict linkages (figure 1). A very clear gap emerges, however, when examining the extent to which climate action appears to be considered as an entry

point for the realisation of alternative co-benefits and objectives related to conflict prevention, conflict transformation, and peacebuilding. No documents from across the three sectors contained any in-text evidence regarding climate action being treated as a potential entry point for the achievement of secondary objectives relating to, for example, improved social cohesion within or between communities; the pursual of a positive, inclusive peace; or addressing root and proximate drivers of conflict and insecurity (variable 4.3).

Other notable absences regarding particular iterations of the relationship between climate change and conflict include in-text references to natural resource competition and gender-based violence (GBV) (variables 4.4 and 4.5, respectively). The absence of the former within policy documents in the context of Zambia is particularly striking due to there being a fairly abundant body of academic evidence suggesting that conflict and tension between natural resource users is certainly present within the country, such as in the commercial fishing industry (Ratner et al., 2017), around Lake Kariba (Madzudzo et al., 2014), as well as (increasingly) between refugee and host communities (Gronau and Ruesink, 2021). Such research highlights the importance of developing inclusive and sustainable common pool resource management arrangements that are conscious of and sensitive to existing systems and patterns of conflict, effectively link sub-national level resource uses and management structures to national level support and funding, and promote sustained dialogue between diverse user groups through multi-stakeholder fora (Ratner et al., 2017). Yet the absence of any reference to natural resource conflict across policy documents from the three sectors suggests that these realities and considerations are perhaps not seen as a strategic priority, despite their evolving importance in the context of increasingly evident climate-induced scarcities.

The general absence of engagement with the relationship between climate change and GBV within policy documents from the three sectors is similarly worth highlighting. It has been well established for instance that the convergence of climate change, heightened competition over natural resources, and an increased risk of violence (including GBV) restrict women's coping capacity; their participation in decision-making, leadership, educational, and income generation opportunities; destabilises local economies; and undermines the resilience of households and family units (Castañeda Carney et al., 2020). Ensuring that climate action and adaptation priorities are sensitive to both the unique intersectional characteristics that render women and girls more exposed and sensitive to climate change impacts, as well as the specific risks that they are likely to encounter in the context of the climate, peace, and security nexus, is critical in realising the potential co-benefits of climate action for a truly positive peace.

Thirdly, gaps of engagement are also identified with regards to the apparent integration of specific socio-economic and cultural groups within policy discourse on climate change (variable 5). Despite the absence of in-text discussion around GBV, women and girls are broadly recognised across all sectors as facing specific and intersectional vulnerabilities to climate change, with just over two thirds of agriculture and food- and environment-related policies and half of climate change-related policies displaying evidence of recognising such intersectional vulnerabilities (variable 5.1). Indigenous communities and low-income communities are also to varying degrees present in discourse relating to climate change across the three sectors (variables 5.2 and 5.3 respectively). A gap in engagement

is, however, evident with regards to minority groups (variable 5.4) and displaced communities (variable 5.5), with the latter only being referenced in 12.5% of agriculture and food-related policies and not being included in climate change- and environment-related legislation.

This is again an interesting omission in the context of Zambia, which although not hosting particularly high numbers of refugees, still witnesses a degree of social tension between host and refugee communities. Zambia is estimated to host over 80,000 refugees, asylum seekers, and other persons of concern as defined by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). The vast majority of these originate from the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), followed by Burundi and Somalia, and reside in Manatpala, Meheba, and Mayukwayukwa refugee settlements as well as in Lusaka and other urban centres (UNHCR, 2023). Evidence based on the experiences of those currently or having previously experienced life in Zambian refugee camps suggests that aside from insufficient culturally and dietarily acceptable food sources, restricted mobility in and out of the camp(s) constrains opportunities for income generation or organise food sources outside of the boundaries of the settlement. Furthermore, opportunities for income generation within the camp – primarily focused around agricultural production – are contingent upon being able to sell produce to Zambian traders, who tend to exploit the fact that refugees are unable to travel to larger urban markets and therefore purchase their produce at a cheaper price, after which it is sold on for a profit (Inbetween, 2020). Perception issues between refugees and host communities therefore persist, with tensions particularly emerging over (amongst other factors) food insecurity, agricultural ownership, and natural resource usage (Gronau and Reusink, 2021).

Finally, our results also suggest that there is very limited evidence of the deployment of peace and conflict-specific analyses, approaches, or tools in the generation of policies across the three sectors. Whereas all environment- and climate change-related and 75% of agriculture and food-related policies displayed evidence of having deployed approaches relating to mapping climate vulnerability or the inclusion of climate forecasting or projections (variable 8), in-text evidence of the deployment of analyses or tools designed to help ensure conflict-sensitivity was scarce. No climate change- and only 12.5% of agriculture and food- and environment-related policies contained evidence of such approaches being deployed in the design, implementation, or evaluation of strategies (variable 9). This suggests that current capacities to ensure the conflict-sensitive enactment of agricultural, environment, and climate change are perhaps limited.



Figure 1. PCAA assessment framework results disaggregated by sector and organised across both document and sentence level results.

Recommendations for Zambia's NAP: Requisite Strategic Priorities

Based on the trends, patterns, and gaps identified through our analysis, this section provides several recommendations with regards to thematic and technical topics and capacities that - despite their salience - have not previously tended to feature in climate change-related policy and legislation. The majority of these recommendations are expected to inform objectives, considerations, and outcomes at the strategic level within the NAP.

- 1. Prioritise the identification of opportunities for where climate action can better integrate peacebuilding and social cohesion as secondary objectives.** Given how our analysis identified a dearth of consideration of how climate action may produce co-benefits for peace and social cohesion, Zambia's NAP represents an important first step to begin the integration of such co-benefits into the strategic orientation of the country's adaptation priorities and activities. Objectives, outcomes, and programmes related to improved natural resource management and adaptation in the agriculture and food sector are likely to be particularly ripe for the inclusion of such considerations. Specifically, it is recommended that:
 - i. Strategic adaptation objectives and outcomes in the common pool natural resource management and agriculture and food sectors are adapted to include wording related to improved social cohesion within and between communities (including GBV) and the realisation of a (positive) climate-resilient peace.
 - ii. Strategic adaptation objectives and outcomes are added stipulating the identification of specific programmes and projects that are either due to their thematic content or geographical focus particularly suitable for the inclusion of peacebuilding and social cohesion as secondary objectives.

- 2. Improve the inclusion and integration of specific socio-economic and cultural groups in the design and implementation of adaptation activities that have tended to be excluded from such practices in the past, particularly displaced and refugee populations.** As identified by Gronau and Reusink (2021), food insecurity, agricultural ownership, and natural resource usage are areas where targeted policy interventions could seek to actively ensure the conscious participation of both host and refugee populations for the purposes of improved integration. Climate adaptation intervention modalities – particularly when enacted at the community level in specific locations where refugees are known to be hosted – form important entry points for where secondary objectives relating to improved social cohesion and inter-communal trust could be integrated. Priority funding and investment should therefore be given to adaptation programmes and activities enacted in and around refugee hosting areas in Manatpala, Meheba, and Mayukwayukwa. Specifically, it is recommended that:
 - i. Refugee communities and the communities that host them are specifically included and recognised as groups and entities that are particularly vulnerable to the impacts

of climate change. Furthermore, the effects that climate change may have on inter-communal relations in areas where refugee hosting takes place should be recognised as an important contextual factor and potential obstacle to the achievement of adaptation outcomes.

- ii. Adaptation programmes and activities enacted in and around refugee hosting areas in Manatpala, Meheba, and Mayukwayuka are specifically mentioned as examples of where community-level climate action projects involving individuals and households from both communities could be piloted.

3. Include provisions around improving the technical capacity of those designing adaptation interventions with regards to their ability to engage in conflict-sensitive planning and implementation, thereby enshrining the principle of ‘do no harm’. A key component of mainstreaming conflict-sensitive and peace responsive approaches through the design and implementation of adaptation activities in Zambia in a sustainable way will be through building the capacity of relevant technical staff. This should include context-relevant sensitisation efforts on how the climate, peace, and security nexus is likely to manifest and how best to conceptualise the relationship between these phenomena, but also more technical courses and workshops on how to integrate conflict-sensitivity components into existing adaptation planning and design cycles. Specifically, we recommend:

- i. Identifying the improved capacity of relevant ministerial technical staff to conduct conflict-sensitive assessments and analyses in the climate adaptation programmatic cycle, including design, implementation, and evaluation, as a strategic priority

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