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# Chapter 10

## Understanding the Politics of Climate Change in Zimbabwe



Munyaradzi A. Dzvimbo , Abraham R. Matamanda, Samuel Adelabu, Adriaan Van der Walt, and Albert Mawonde

**Abstract** This article analyses how politics and livelihoods are challenged and affected by global climate change while paying particular attention to how traditionally formed, non-climatic factors are manipulated within Zimbabwe's climate change policy framework. In this context, the article will proffer legislation and laws as tools of governance that enable climate change policies and legislature to be implemented within the confines of the existing constitution. The methods will be drawn from an extensive literature review between 2011 and 2022 and document analysis to report the interconnectedness of climate change and politics. After critiquing the vulnerability theoretical framework and applying qualitative methods, the article will discuss and trace the influence of politics on how climate policies and laws impact livelihoods. The findings of this article are two-fold. Firstly, local communities and ordinary people are not involved in climate change decisions and policy-formulation processes whilst they are the most vulnerable. Secondly, the government, as the critical decision-maker, must adhere to international climate change conventions and develop homegrown policies with local consultations.

## Introduction

Zimbabwe is a developing country experiencing calamities induced by climate change, and the consequence of this phenomenon is adversely affecting the majority of its population. Several Zimbabweans engage in farming as a backbone of the economy, but due to climate change, the country has been grappling with prolonged droughts, heatwaves and intermittent floods (Matsa 2020). These climate-induced disasters have resulted in food insecurity, forced migration, poverty, malnutrition,

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school dropouts, and poor living standards in the country (Nhapi 2021). The Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO) (2016) opines that climate change is a danger to food access worldwide as it disturbs all proportions of food security, such as accessibility, availability, stability and utilisation. The majority of the affected people by climate change lack an adequate understanding of the root problem causing climate change, and they are often left out in climate change policy-making and decisions as grassroots people (Chirisa and Matamanda 2022). The government of Zimbabwe relies more on a top-down approach to governance where citizens do not have a say in policy formulation issues (Nyama and Mukwada 2022) and climate politics. This scenario exacerbates climate change challenges as vulnerable people fail to adapt and appropriately respond to them due to an absence of sound public participation in climate issues (Thomas et al. 2019).

The climate crisis is a political question; hence, the government is part of the climate question and the obstacle to a solution or the enabler to the solution (Dodman and Mitlin 2015). Therefore, the solution to the climate question requires the political power of labourers and the oppressed sections of the society to participate in the policy-making processes. The policy-making process must take into cognisance local resources that are not homogenous but heterogeneous and, along the process dismiss a “one size fit all” climate change policy that negates salient localised climate change challenges faced by a variety of societies in Zimbabwe. Climate change politics is centralised and intensified under capitalism (Dodman and Mitlin 2015; Tsabora 2019; Zhanda et al. 2021). Although Zimbabwe is a democratic country, its climate change dynamics adhere to Western Capitalist Climate Change Policies adopted at various conferences and fora. These capitalistic climate change ideologies sometimes do not address climate change challenges at local levels as they often target supranational scale or regional, or catchment area scales that ignores poor rural people (Broto 2017), or the “bottom billion” (Beddington 2009). Capitalist countries take the capital’s side in the labour-capital and nature-capital contradictions. So, the State is on one side of both contradictions. As the central political apparatus, the government is the partner of capital in ecological destruction as it gears for policies that favour economic growth over environmental concerns, especially for the poor and vulnerable sections of society (Allen et al. 2018). Mainly, the capitalist State is organised to dominate the capitalist class on labouring classes and nature. All policies, climate, energy, transportation, mining, industry, construction, land use, agriculture, animal husbandry, and other country policies, are decided by the government’s legislative and executive organs without public consultation (Chatiza 2019; Coban 2021).

These policies are made to look out for the interests of the capitalists, not the benefit of labourers and nature (Coban 2021). In almost every country, the government sets and implements climate change policies. However, as various countries draw up climate change policies, the capitalists in the form of investors and developers have a good influence on how to protect their interests in the form of wealth gathering, product making, residues, cost-effectiveness, private property and labour manipulation (Michaelowa 2013; Mashizha et al. 2017; Hudson 2021). Furthermore,

the intertwined elements also include severe product consumption, individualisation of environmental accountability and high energy consumption shaped by these progressions.

The results of rapid wealth accumulation at the expense of the environment cause resource over-exploitation, ignorance of local communities' plights and climate change (Singh et al. 2021). In light of the above, energy from fossil sources (coal-fired power stations) is causing climate change, while there is no clear road map for Zimbabwe's renewable energy plan (Howells et al. 2021). Although Zimbabwe has a National Renewable Energy Policy of 2019, which advocates for geothermal, wind, hydro and biomass energy, the country is challenged by a lack of capital and relies on private capital funded by Capitalist countries (National Renewable Energy Policy 2019). According to the NREP (2019), Zimbabwe's renewable energy policy is limited by inadequate technology, a lack of renewable studies, a preliminary renewable tariff plan and a regulatory framework.

Even though Zimbabwe alluded to developing a Nationally Determined Contribution (NDC) to diminish GHG emissions, the country is focussing on ambitious hydroelectricity power generation under the vulnerability of climate change due to reduced precipitation (Howells et al. 2021). This scenario may cause the country to continuously rely on coal-fired power generation, hence reversing the ultimate goal to reduce carbon emissions by 2030 as stated in the country's climate change master-plan called Zimbabwe's National Climate Change Response Strategy (ZNCCRS) of 2017.

Under the ZNCCRS (2014) strategic objectives, objective (b) states that the country promotes the use and exploitation of natural resources sustainably and limits carbon emissions in all spheres of the economy by steering the adoption of green energy infrastructure that is not carbon-intensive. However, it appears as if the country is struggling to secure green and renewable energy funding as it is celebrating the extension of Hwange Coal Power Station Units by 600 MW via a Chinese company called Sinohydro ([nsenergybusiness.com](http://nsenergybusiness.com)). In contrast to the Hwange Coal Power Extension deal, the Chinese are reported to have halted the project halfway before its completion as the superpower adopted a policy of green energy financing (Banya et al. 2022). Using coal as an energy source is causing environmental degradation as it is altering the natural carbon cycle and the collapse of ecosystems. Similarly, the climate crisis is also political because countries have not taken the necessary measures to prevent labourers and the oppressed sections of society from the adverse effects of climate change. The government has not established a solid and financially backed organisational structure to tackle climate change and allocate necessary climate change budgets that transform the economy towards a circular and green economy (UNFCCC 2015; Mawonde and Togo 2021).

## Methods

This study is qualitative as it explores legislation and laws as tools of climate change governance in Zimbabwe. As such it adopted a case study research design in which document analysis was applied to examine reports and policies on the interconnectedness of climate change and politics. The methods used were drawn from an extensive literature review between 2011 and 2022.

## Results

### *Are Policies Beneficial or a Political Coy in Climate Change Consensus?*

Government is the principal actor in the international climate regime. The government adopts the decisions taken on an international scale or remains outside climate agreements and implements or does not implement some of the agreements adopted through laws and policies (Coban 2021). Government bureaucracies under capitalism give all permits and licences that lead to the plunder of nature by capital. In the audits, companies' activities against regulations are sometimes ignored to maintain good relations with investors, especially in less economically developed countries. Besides, as the executive organ, the president or the government in the parliamentary system controls the army, police, and gendarmerie, the "repressive state apparatuses" used to control natural resources and its people (Aseh 2011). The government needs a paradigm shift from simply signing and ratifying international conventions on climate change to implementing such policies meaningfully in a sustainable manner for the benefit of all.

Government politics focusing on GHGs emissions alone cannot solve all facets of climate change. Moreover, GHGs emissions focussed by the government cannot be solved by a "one size fit all" policy. Capitalism as a framework for economic development adopted by several governments damages the biophysical environment through mining, construction, timber, tourism and similar product production activities (White 2018). All these activities encourage deforestation, reducing trees as carbon sinks to control carbon dioxide levels in the atmosphere. In fact, the government must encourage planting more trees along with economic growth to solve deforestation and climate change (Singh et al. 2021). In total, the deliberate rate of planting trees by various people between 2010 and 2020 was half the rate at which people cut down trees. In simpler terms, the rate at which afforestation occurs is far below the rate at which natural forests are being destroyed by people (FAO 2020). The time taken by various ecosystems' lifecycles differs from one element to another. The carbon life cycle is an example of an ecosystem life cycle that differs in circulation rate to the rate at which capitalist industries and investments inject it into the atmosphere. Another instance is the long-time taken by fossil fuel to form

as opposed to a short period of combustion to produce energy in industries, factories and coal power stations. Unfortunately, climate change impacts as a result of fossil fuel combustion last for a very long time in the range of five to seven hundred years (Poole et al. 2019). This situation creates long-lasting effects of global warming and climate change, while the energy used from the fuels has since been forgotten (Brinkmann 2021).

The climate impact of methane gas is twenty times greater than carbon dioxide. However, the atmospheric life of methane is twenty years. At the same time, carbon dioxide remains in the atmosphere for hundreds of years (Ramanathan 2020). Therefore, drastically limiting methane emissions in fossil and livestock farms will have a positive atmospheric effect in a short time. In a capitalist economy, fossil fuel reserves utilisation has been shortened while the accumulation of GHGs in the atmosphere increased in comparison to the past. Coban (2021) argued that “a problematic situation exists between the time of nature of time to accumulate wealth because of the cyclical processes of the global world evolving over millions of years and the need for rapid production, distribution and profit by capital”. The challenges faced by the world in terms of climate change are historical. However, hegemonic climate politics have no yesterday and tomorrow (Coban 2021).

### *Historical Climate Change Political Dynamics*

Often, in historical terms, events that transpired during the past are overlooked to underestimate the historical climate liability that the well-known establishments of rich countries have created for a hundred and fifty years (Coban 2021). Climate change uncertainties threaten years to come, and the world is fast approaching climate disaster and destruction with the likelihood of a six-degree temperature rise (Wallace-Wells 2019). There is an international call for all countries to put in immense effort to reduce global warming and climate change (Chappell et al. 2018; Williamson et al. 2018; Peter 2018). The emphasis on doomsday no-tomorrows is applied to the people to embrace solutions of the ruling climate politics, which asserts to overturn that destiny.

As a result, it is advised that it is possible to avert catastrophe, for example, the ratification of the Paris Agreement and its implementation in various countries (Bodansky 2016; Dzvimbo et al. 2017a, b; Coban 2021). The catastrophic impacts of climate change come from the linkages between the risk of climate destruction and the disposition to be affected by the destruction. The extent of the effects of climate change is also linked to the societal segments that will be negatively impacted and subjected to, for example, extreme weather events or rainfall variability patterns and droughts. To support the previous argument, one can argue that the impacts of climate change are hinged on the past; one cannot separate climate change calamities from negative impacts that occurred in the past and climate change is produced from past events (Compton 2020). Lately, several ecologically related organisations have lost hope in the United Nations climate deliberations and negotiations. Climate Activists

regard the United Nations climate negotiations as weak and non-binding as they prefer continual change (Glasgow Agreement 2020; Chirisa and Matamanda 2022).

The global corporations of the socialist and communist parties operating under various names are not effectively leading solid operations and campaigns on the climate change catastrophe question. Climate change has seen the mushrooming of social movements at the grassroots level, such as Greta Thunberg's idea for Friday school strikes. These activist movements started in 2018 and 2019 due to vibrant climate change-oriented students (Han and Ahn 2020; Zhanda et al. 2021). These students pursued and championed cleaner production methods and sustainable development broadly. As such, Greta Thunberg's students encouraged people to treat climate action as everyone's business, as the effects are threatening human lives globally. Unfortunately, ecologists and climate change organisations lack the autonomy to contest the United Nations climate change diplomacy.

### ***Zimbabwe's Climate Change Policy Framework***

Zimbabwe is drafting a climate change policy, and there is hope and optimism that such a policy will translate to meaningful climate programmes, plans and projects. Table 10.1 shows climate change policies in Zimbabwe to date.

Zimbabwe ratified the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) in 1992 at the Rio Earth Summit, showing commitment to climate change action in all facets of its economy. Zimbabwe produced its first communication to the UNFCCC in 1998 detailing its commitment to lower greenhouse gas emissions and possibly serious challenges that global climate change might have on the country through its various economic activities such as mining, agriculture, transport, energy emissions, rural impacts and forestry (Zimbabwe's Initial Communication on Climate Change 1998). As a follow-up to the Initial Communication on Climate Change in 1998, Zimbabwe produced its Second National Communication in 2013, emphasising reduced climate change pollutants and enhanced sustainable living conditions of citizens from all spheres of life and economic activities (Dodman and Mitlin 2015).

**Table 10.1** Zimbabwe climate change policies

Name of climate change policy	Year
Zimbabwe Initial National Communication to the UNFCCC	1998
Zimbabwe Second National Communication of Climate Change to the UNFCCC	2013
Zimbabwe's National Climate Change Response Strategy	2014
Zimbabwe Third National Communication to UNFCCC	2016
Zimbabwe Fourth National Communication and First Biennial Update to the Report UNFCCC	2020

Source Authors

In 2014, Zimbabwe produced its National Climate Change Response Strategy. The response strategy has seven central pillars in response to climate change issues. These pillars include (1) Adaptation and Disaster Risk Management; (2) Mitigation and low carbon development strategies (LCDS); (3) Capacity to effect: adaptation and mitigation, climate change communication, education and raising awareness, research and development, appropriate institutions to address climate change issues; (4) Governance framework; (5) Finance and Investment; (6) Technology development and transfer, including infrastructure and (7) Communication and advocacy; information management and dissemination (Zimbabwe's National Climate Change Response Strategy 2014). The country's national climate change policy is a comprehensive document that considers the inclusive nature of an intervention strategy that includes all major stakeholders and supporting frameworks emanating from various international protocols.

In its commitment to a brighter climate future, Zimbabwe produced a Third National Communication to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change in 2016. The production included a multi-actor approach ranging from various ministries in the country, NGOs, academics, civil society, Zimbabwe Meteorological Services Department and Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency, to mention a few. The overarching aim of this document is to notify the Convention Parties, relevant climate change stakeholders, government policy planners and decision-makers, various field specialists, and the public at large of the impacts of climate change in Zimbabwe. The Communication also delivers Zimbabwe's GHG emissions whilst outlining mitigatory measures to be taken to avert the impacts caused by climate change (ZTNCFCCC 2016).

In 2020, Zimbabwe produced its First Biennial Update Report (BUR1) to the UNFCCC. Through this report, the country provides updated climate change information on national climate change conditions, GHG profile, and mitigatory plans and outlines finance, technology and capacity-building needs and support for a better climate-resilient society (ZFBURUNFCCC 2020).

Apart from these national climate change policies, according to Dodman and Mitlin (2015), Zimbabwe has a National Climate Change Office housed in the Ministry of Environment and funded by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). Its mandate is to liaise with the UNFCCC to produce various national climate change communication documents. The country has a National Climate Change Task Team housed in the Office of the President, with a permanent secretary handling its affairs at the highest level. The task team has a climate change budget from the national government and is responsible for coordinating all relevant government structures to design, plan and execute a solid national climate change strategy that focuses on the country's climate change challenges (Dodman and Mitlin 2015). In addition, Zimbabwe has a National Climate Change Steering Committee. This committee is responsible for facilitating a more comprehensive range of climate change participants from government and civil society in response to formulating national climate change response strategies.

While Zimbabwe is good at crafting sound climate change policies among others, it suffers from implementation paralysis; hence it is yet to be seen if the climate



change policy will be different in any way. Significant climate policy needs broader collective changes due to its long-duration nature. This may be challenged by those in the engineering field who propose and believe in scientific and quantitative methods as solutions to GHG emissions reduction instead of policies compartmentalised in the government's storage files without proper implementation (Dzvimbo et al. 2017a, b).

Methods such as the scientific geological storage and sequestration of carbon-captured fossil fuel combustion or geo-engineering are becoming progressively more prevalent (Huisinigh et al. 2015); hence, Zimbabwe's government needs to spearhead such projects with the help of the private sector and emissions markets. This approach is technologically vibrant as carbon emissions mitigation markets work well if the government ensures scarcity on the market. This scenario leads to a price and an effective fine or punishment for non-complying companies. Climate change policies must be treated as essential set standards to ensure better living standards for people as stipulated by sustainable development goal 13 (climate action). Climate change policies must not be seen or regarded as policies that conflict with humanity or divisive policies (Thomas 2021; Ojha et al. 2016). This paradigm drifting in climate change policies means that the government should act as an "enabling state" by ensuring an adequate, inclusive and integrated climate change policy framework that enables a smooth operationalisation of climate change adaptation and mitigation (Clarvis et al. 2014).

Climate change activists and individuals concerned about the climate are constantly warning the world about an impending severe, catastrophic climate challenge that requires swift and drastic adaptation and responsive measures to be implemented (Han and Ahn 2020; Lomborg 2020). On the other side of the coin, climate doubters suspect and doubt the reality or the seriousness of global warming. They usually contend contrary to far-reaching climate policy or find climate policy not relevant at all (Renn 2011; Lo 2014). For example, in the United States, climate-doubting people have relatively huge media attention as the media believe in hearing both sides of the story (Boykoff and Boykoff 2004). As a result, a balanced bias is created as the small climate change cohort attains much media coverage as opposed to their non-sceptical proponents.

## Discussion

### *The Dynamics of Global Climate Change Policies and Frameworks*

Studies show the mismatch between the policies and the necessary emission reduction target. For example, following the Paris Climate Agreement signed in 2015, the state parties to the agreement should update and upgrade greenhouse gas emission reduction targets for 2030 (FAO 2016; Zhanda et al. 2021). It is critical to note that

if the temperature rise is to hold at 1.5 degrees by 2100, it is necessary to reduce the parties' emissions by 55%, according to their first pledges. However, according to a report that examines the declaration of the 75 states who reported a renovated target, there is only 2.8% of additional reduction pledges from these countries compared to their targets five years ago (UNFCCC 2021: 5; Fransen et al. 2021). This is a mere drop in the ocean. Besides, the countries' total emissions have increased since 1992, when the United Nations Climate Convention was signed. Annual emissions have increased by 60%, while the global cumulative emission doubled from 1990 to 2015 (Matamanda et al. 2017). Let alone the reduction of emissions, the hegemonic climate policy measures have doubled cumulative output and thus clearly indicate their ineffectuality (Çoban 2021).

### *Questioning the Politics of Climate Change*

Climate politics is evolving over time and may be entering a new era (Zhang and Li 2018). Several inquiries and questions have been asked on how to respond to climate change and who are the majority of victims of the change (Davis 2020). However, it is known now that climate change affects human health directly and indirectly and increases human mental health challenges like solastalgia (Bourque and Cunsolo Willox 2014). Youthful climate change activists and movements are playing a significant role in imparting climate change awareness and education; the landscape of climate action seems to be overwhelmed by unintentional impacts as pragmatic evidence emerges of greening projects' adverse impacts, for example, causing people's displacement (UN-Habitat 2020). However, Davies (2021) noted that despite international concern about climate change issues, the world seems to be losing the battle to keep GHG emissions low to a reasonable amount. Developing countries suffer the most from the failure to adapt to climate change (Tadesse 2010; Burke et al. 2018).

The Covid-19 occurrence in 2020 has negatively affected global economies, but its impact on the environment is unclear (International Energy Agency 2020; Khan et al. 2020). According to Cheval et al. (2020), efforts to reduce poverty and inequality have been compromised by the arrival of the Covid-19 pandemic. Covid-19 has triggered the need to avail stimulus packages to assist peoples' standard of living. The bulk of the stimulus package was also channelled to infrastructural developments such as information technology, hospital expansion, purchasing personal protective equipment, and climate emergency (Shah et al. 2020). Part of the Covid-19 stimulus package was meant to support climate emergency under the auspices of the "Green New Deal" and just transitions. Dzvimbo et al. (2017a, b) and Samper et al. (2021) argued that terms like the "Green New Deal" may reflect a new paradigm shift towards climate change or are easily a continuation of old climate change politics wrapped in a different piece of glittering paper. There has been a comprehensive, widely held

response to the clarion call to confront anthropogenic climate change on a global scale (Scott 2021). The ecological footprint presents a gloomy picture that threatens all dimensions of sustainable development.

### ***Beyond Climate Change Impacts and Challenges***

The impacts of climate change are complicated to quantify and predict; however, it is estimated that anthropogenic climate change causes over 300,000 deaths per year. The death is related to hunger, poor nutrition, famine and food insecurity (Paslakis et al. 2021). The challenges caused by the negative impacts of climate change have a ripple effect (Levner and Ptuskin 2018). Human migration in the form of forced or voluntary migration is one of the most significant results of environmental degradation and resource overexploitation (Parrish et al. 2020). Environmental degradation and over-exploitation of natural resources, especially plants and trees, directly result from drought, low rainfall and a shift in weather patterns. The result is human-animal conflict and human-to-human conflict over boundaries and the availability of fresh water and arable land (Everard et al. 2020).

Compared to other catastrophic events that have confronted the world, climate change can be regarded as one of the greatest calamities humanities ever faced (Gurría and Leape 2009; Dzvimbo et al. 2017a, b; Conversi 2020). Considering the diabolical implications of keeping up with the current GHG emission levels, let alone increasing them (Khan and Munira 2021), it is scary that less effort has been put into altering global production-consumption levels except for endless talks yielding meagre results. In an attempt to limit GHG emissions by the UNFCCC, the Kyoto Protocol educated nations about the calamities of climate change and the need to reduce GHG emissions but failed to govern and regulate various countries' GHG emissions as it favoured continual change and phasing out of chemically toxic ozone depleting substance (Tabassum 2021).

Climate change is an urgent crisis with a devastating effect on the development of intact radical forms of political commitment and engagement within the Camp for Climate Action (Howes et al. 2015). Whilst it is premature to challenge the climate change problem as a matter of urgency and concern to us all, the appeal of urgency encourages the liberal carbon consensus (Hornsey and Fielding 2020). The IPCC Fourth Assessment Report and the New Economics Foundation's "100 months" report noted a rise in GHG emissions as time progressed (IPCC 2007). However, in these reports, the IPCC emphasised the need to deal with climate change first while other contented issues were set aside for tomorrow's deliberations.

## ***Trade-Offs and Rethinking Climate Change Integration***

The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) met in Copenhagen for the Fifteenth Conference of Parties (COP15) (Dzvimbo et al. 2017a, b; Kinley et al. 2021). The COP 15 meeting emanated from the 1992 Rio Summit on the Environment and Development, also known as the Rio Earth Summit. The highest meeting and renowned of them is Kyoto in 1997, where the disreputable ‘Kyoto Protocol’ was adopted to curb increased greenhouse gas emissions. Under the Kyoto Protocol, numerous carbon reduction strategies were proposed and adopted. These include the Cap and Trade and Clean Development Mechanism, emissions and trading and joint implementation (Michaelowa et al. 2019). The COP15 was elevated as a champion in solving climate change impacts by reducing GHGs emissions. The media and other communication led the positive Kyoto Protocol campaign, but a few years later, it proved to be weak ratification of climate change policy (Ruddock 2009; Costa 2016).

There are concerns in the literature about the Copenhagen Climate Change Conference of 2009 on whether the conference tried to solve climate change and embrace a sustainable way of living or promoted the starting of a new cycle of wealth accumulation. This Copenhagen crisis is a tug-of-war between Copenhagen from above and Copenhagen from below. The Copenhagen above and below is a clash over ‘justice’, a battle of values. The Capitalists view maintaining and extending their modes of production and resource exploitation in a drive to accumulate wealth as fast as possible, whereas the ‘below’ wants to embrace sustainable development principles in wealth accumulation growth. Capitalists regard the Copenhagen Climate Change Conference of 2009 as an opportunity to restore faith in the capitalist system and representative democracy amid political and economic crises (Klein 2015).

## **Study Limitations**

The study was limited by time constraints on the researcher’s side. The researchers felt that more time was needed to gather more grey literature to support the study with more facts and examples. However, due to work commitments, the researchers struggled to coordinate effectively. Nonetheless, the researchers gathered valuable secondary data from a few available resources to develop a comprehensive line of argument.

## Conclusion

The chapter outlined climate change politics in Zimbabwe and detailed hegemonic climate change policies adopted from various United Nations conferences. Zimbabwe drafted various localised climate change policies without many implementations of those policies on the ground. Ordinary Zimbabweans are not consulted on climate change policies, and the country relies on a top-down approach making it difficult for ordinary citizens to participate in climate change adaptation and coping mechanisms. While climate change policies in Zimbabwe appear very good on paper, the country is challenged by a lack of finance, international funding, technology and real timeframes to embrace projects which support the green economy transition. Climate change is affecting rainfall patterns in Zimbabwe, reducing the amount of water required at green power stations such as Kariba Hydro Power Station. Climate change takes the country back to relying more on producing energy through non-renewable resources in the form of coal at Hwange Power Station. The expansion of Hwange Power Station is a testimony to Zimbabwe's government's challenges to adopting clean sources of energy. Despite being a signatory to international conventions on climate change, Zimbabwe still has a long way to go in domesticating and crafting policies and plans. Much is yet to be realised from the climate change policy in Zimbabwe.

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