

**CHALLENGES AND PROSPECTS OF REFUGEES IN SOCIAL- ECONOMIC
PARTICIPATION IN ZAMBIA: A CASE OF MEHEBA REFUGEE SETTLEMENT;
KALUMBILA**

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Master of Science in Peace, Leadership and Conflict Resolution.**

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APPROVAL

This dissertation of Kinglevis Zulu is approved in fulfilling the partial requirements for the award of the degree of Master by the University of Zambia/ Zimbabwe Open University (UNZAZOU)

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ABSTRACT

This study was an investigation into challenges and prospects of refugees' in social economic participation; in Meheba refugee settlement of Kalumbila. The objectives of this study were to examine refugees' social and economic participation in Zambia, to identify the challenges refugees face in their community in Zambia and to explore factors which enable or constrain refugees' to participate socially and economically in Zambia.

The sampling procedure used in this study was stratified random sampling. In this case, an equal number of participants was randomly selected to avoid over representation of the sample and therefore leading to erroneous interpretation of data.

A case study design was used so as to have a deeper understanding of the challenges and prospects of refugees in participation with regards to employment and the community in Maheba.

Following a qualitative research methodology, empirical data was collected from a total sample of 29 participants. The data collected was through interviews, field notes, informal dialogues, focus group discussions as well as observations.

The main findings of this research were that most of the refugees were not included in employment and were rarely considered in national matters, neither were they considered in social empowerments. Furthermore, refugees face a lot of challenges such as transportation, access to education, health facilities and lack of proper psychosocial counselling services among other things. In addition, there were also a number of factors that affected their participation socially and economically such as communication and cultural barriers coupled with change in family dynamics. The recommendations were therefore that the United Nations High Commission for Refugees should be operating on the grassroots direct with the refugees themselves through government institutions to carry out their many initiated activities in a most prudent and efficient manner; and that the Zambian Government after a through screening process of refugees, should allow the refugees to stand up for their rights. As a refugee acknowledging and accepting the new status is one important gateway to escape the sense of self-pity. The study therefore concludes that for socio-economic participation to be appreciated and trusted, organizations and the government need to come in and render full support.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my supportive family, my wife Clara M. Zulu, the children and friends whose effort and tireless work towards seeing my success in my endeavors cannot go unnoticed, God bless you.

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AHRC	Australian Human Rights Commission
MPI	Migration Policy Institute
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
PTSS	Programme and Technical Support Service
GRZ	Government Republic of Zambia
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
JCTR	Jesuits Centre for Theological Reflections
SME	Small and Medium Enterprises

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Massive new displacements caused by conflicts, natural disasters and human rights abuse continue to hit greater levels around the globe and this continue to affect many recipient countries in Africa. UNHCR (2015), projects that the numbers of people of concern in Africa will by 2015 decrease slightly (from 15.1 million in 2014 to 14.9 million), due to repatriation, resettlement and other durable solutions. However the continent continue to receive new arrivals from emerging political crisis like that witnessed in Burundi, continued conflicts in the Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and South Sudan. Coupled with this the world over continue to put tight security measures on receiving refugees as part of the resettlement scheme in a third country of asylum, due to some terrorists attacks happening across, hence this durable solution is slowly phasing out. Repatriation is thus far from attainable as most of these countries affected by conflicts continue recording massive atrocities, in some cases where peace has restored in these countries refugees are reluctant to go back.

Mazunda (2008) reveals that a lot of refugees were so unwilling to go back home, due to the lasting freedoms, social, political and some economic rights attained in Zambia that they picture could be hard to obtain in Angola when they return. Thus quiet a greater number of refugees in Africa continue to live in protracted situation and the most durable solution attainable in most countries is the local integration. All these consequences have significant implication for community participation in areas of settlement, if these 'new communities' are to be sustainable and self-reliant.

To explain various types of participation, the use of typologies of participation has taken varying degrees and kind, different typologies of participation have been useful in differentiating these. Typologies provide implicit normative assumptions which place these forms of participation along an axis of good to bad forms. The most famous one is the Arnstein's (1969) ladder of participation which simplifies citizen participation into different levels, these in turn helps in trying to grasp participation in practice. Therefore objective number one; to explore the local understanding of participation will be achievable by dwelling on the different rungs of the ladder, this research used this theoretical standpoint to reveal participation on the ground based on Arnstein differential viewpoint between empty rituals of participation and having the real power to initiate change. The

underlying issues as Arnstein (1969) puts it is that, nobodies' in several arenas are trying to become somebodies with enough power to make the target institutions responsive to their views, aspirations, and needs. To this, participation progresses in a ladder format from the lower bad forms to the most top influential good forms of participation.

The ladder of participation acts as a relevant theoretical lens that pictures the case of refugees as minority groupings with little or no power availed in their communities to command social change. It becomes therefore of paramount importance to explore the dynamics of participation in such minority setting areas as these are areas where participation of the afflicted is supposed to be the core base or rather the first crucial step towards uplifting the standards and the self-value of these victims of war, crimes and human rights violence.

However one of the often cited limitation of this ladder of participation is that it does not include an analysis of the most significant barriers to achieving genuine levels of participation. These barriers lie on both sides of the simplistic fence. On the power- holders' side, they include racism, paternalism, and resistance to power redistribution. On the have-nots' side, they include inadequacies of the poor community's political socio-economic infrastructure and knowledge base, plus difficulties of organizing a representative and accountable citizens' group in the face of futility, alienation, and distrust. It can be seen that the much emphasis of Arnstein ladder of participation revolves around concepts of power and control (Arnstein, 1969). Nevertheless, the typology is of much useful to this study as it weighs participation of the refugees in employment and social activities in practice. Refugee's ability to act or take control is much dependent on power. Giddens (1979), argues that without any sizeable amount of power or control an individual ceases to be an agent. Refugees as minority groups in society, it becomes something valuable to determine whether they do have the affluence of power and control to influence change in their communities.

Therefore, the aim of this study was to examine challenges and prospects of refugees in social and economic participation in Zambia taking a case of refugee's community in Meheba refugee settlement.

1.2: Statement of the Problem

Normally, when refugees go to a country of asylum, they are expected to live in designated refugee camps where they are temporarily kept as asylum seekers until they are granted the refugee status. At this time they are supposed to be supported by various organisations that take the responsibility of food, health, shelter, land allocation and seed to help them settle and engage in subsistence farming to sustain themselves. They are only expected to produce enough food for domestic use and sell the excess for an income. They are taught minor survival skills by community development and social welfare department, other organs of government and the United Nations Agencies.

However, due to hardships in refugee camps, the refugees are forced to solicit for other extra source of income through jobs by those with skills and others through general labour. On leaving the camp, they are expected to obtain gate passes from the Refugee Officer for a period not exceeding thirty days. (UNHCR, 2014). This restricts them from formal work and is only meant to sell some produce or visiting their relatives who live in town as urban refugees. As a result some refugees are forced to marry Zambians so as to have access to movement stay out of the camp such as those with spouse permits. Some of these refugees despite their status have enough expertise that can contribute to social and economic development including those with enough capital to set up businesses around. A number of refugees if given some opportunity can ideally participate actively in the community and bring about social and economic changes. This is to say that refugees have the right to work but every country has its own labour laws.

As a result of the Zambian government ensuring to take care of the refugees' by allowing them to stay in camps, this minimises the scope to be employed, to do business and to adequately participate socially with people in different cities like every other Zambian. Additionally, According to the Refugees (Control) Act (1970), in order to acquire a self-employment permit, refugees require to have K120, 000.00 in assets or cash and a letter from Commissioner for Refugees supporting the application and must pay a statutory fee of K5, 000.00 inclusive of a certificate of registration of the business in Zambia or a certificate of incorporation and a bank statement and that organisation is also required to show proof that no Zambian is qualified to do the job that has been offered to the refugee. This in turn minimizes their social-economic inputs to the nation, however, their voice has less or no impact.

Therefore, this prompted the researcher to carry out an investigation into challenges and prospects of refugees in social economic participation in Zambia.

1.3: Purpose of the study

The main purpose of this research was to examine challenges and prospects of refugees in employment and community participation in Zambia taking a case of refugee's community in Meheba refugee settlement.

1.4: Objectives of the Study

1.4.1 Overall Objective

To examine challenges and prospects of refugees' in employment and community participation in Zambia taking a case of refugees' community in Meheba refugee settlement.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

- To examine refugees social and economic participation in Zambia
- To identify the challenges refugees face in their community in Zambia.
- To explore factors which enable or constrain refugees' to participate socially and economically in Zambia.

1.5: Research questions

The study is guided by the following research questions:

- Do refugees participate socially and economically in Zambia?
- What are the challenges refugees' face in their community in Zambia?
- What are the factors that enable or constrain refugees' to participate socially and economically in Zambia?

1.6: Significance of the Study

This study is important to matters related to local participation of the refugees in social and economic activities and give a direction on how refugees may be allowed to engage into activities that may uplift their economic status. This study may help to know the extent to which refugees are involved in employment levels and community support so that the gap that will be found can easily give a decisive conclusion on what to implement concerning the refugees in Zambia. The

study may act as a guiding tool to issues that have not been addressed to improve refugees' settlement in Zambia, it will add to the body of knowledge and to already existing data about refugees in Zambia and worldwide.

The other significance of this study is to provide a rich set of data that will contribute to the amendment of an effective Zambian refugee control Act regarding participation of refugees living in Zambia and the Immigration and Deportation Act on refugees regarding employment permits. Further, this study will assist the refugees to become experts at delivering their own refined narrative experiences. Finally, this study will enable the researcher fulfill the requirements for the award of the Master of Science in Peace, Leadership and Conflict Resolution from the University of Zambia in association with The Zimbabwe Open University.

1.7: Limitations of the study

Time factor was an issue as most participants had their own time schedules. In addition, getting data from all refugee camps was very cumbersome looking at the many protocols on the way from UNHCR, Commissioner for Refugees and looking at time and financial constraints that the researcher was undergoing through. The researcher had also challenges in language use in sections of the refugee camp. However, the research was undertaken by adhering to the time frames of the participants and through the use of research agents who could easily interpret the language.

1.8: Delimitation

This study was confined to Meheba refugee community in North Western Province of Zambia. No respondent outside Meheba refugee community was allowed to take part in this research. Because of some differences in the characteristics of refugee settlements, the findings of this research may not be generalized to a wider context.



Meheba refugee settlement in Kalumbila district, north- Western

1.9: Operational definition of terms

The major terms in this research were used as defined below.

Challenge: A call to someone to participate in a competitive situation or fight to decide who is superior in terms of ability or strength.

Prospect: The possibility that something good might happen in the future:

Refugee: An individual who; owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality, and is unable or- unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country.

Employment: A relationship between two parties, usually based on a contract where work is paid for, where one party, which may be a corporation, for profit, not-for-profit organization, co-operative or other entity is the employer and the other is the employee.

Community: A small or large social unit (a group of living things) that has something in common, such as norms, religion, values, or identity.

Participation: The act of joining with others in doing something

1.10: Theoretical framework

This study was done based on a theory that attempts to showcase the aspect of refugee participation in Zambia. Kasonde (2013) defines a theory as a supposition or speculation about a phenomenon which can be looked at as a collection of interconnected ideas based on theories. Furthermore, Kombo and Tromp (2006) envisage that a theory is a logical set of prepositions derived from and supported by data and or facts. Therefore use of a theoretical framework attempts to explain the reason as to why refugees ought to participate in social economic.

In view of the above, this study therefore was guided by Olson's theory. Mancur Olson (1971) has challenged a generally held view that groups of individuals having common interests usually work together to achieve them. He argues that "...unless the number of individuals in a group is quite small, or unless there is coercion or some other special device to make individuals act in their common interest, rational, self-interested individuals will not act to achieve their common or group interests" (IRMA, 1992).

Benefits from most groups are collective goods, much like such activities of a nation state as defence, police protection, etc., which, once produced, are available to all the members of the organisation. Just as a state cannot support itself by voluntary contributions, neither can other large organisations support themselves entirely without coercing their members to pay for the collective goods that they provide for them or without some attraction or incentive that will motivate the members to contribute to the establishment and survival of the organisation. The individual member of a large group, like his counterpart - a tax payer in the state, or a firm in a perfectly competitive market, is too small an entity to have any significant impact on his organisation by contributing or not contributing to the maintenance of the organisation, but he can share in the benefits of the organisation even if he has not contributed anything to bring them about. In other words, free riding (on the back of those who contribute) is possible in all large organisations.

In general, the larger the group, the less noticeable the actions of its individual members, the higher the transaction costs of bringing them together, and hence, higher the tendency to free ride. This is why large groups frequently fail to provide collective goods for their members. Using two simple tools of economic analysis, Olson has shown that "certain small groups can provide themselves with collective goods without relying on coercion or any positive inducements apart from the collective good itself. This is because in some small groups each of the members, or at least some of them, will find that his personal gain from having the collective good exceeds the

total cost of providing the collective good. Olson does not specify the number of individuals that would make the very small group, but he asserts that the group should be small enough so that "the individual actions of any one or more members are noticeable to any other individuals in the group.

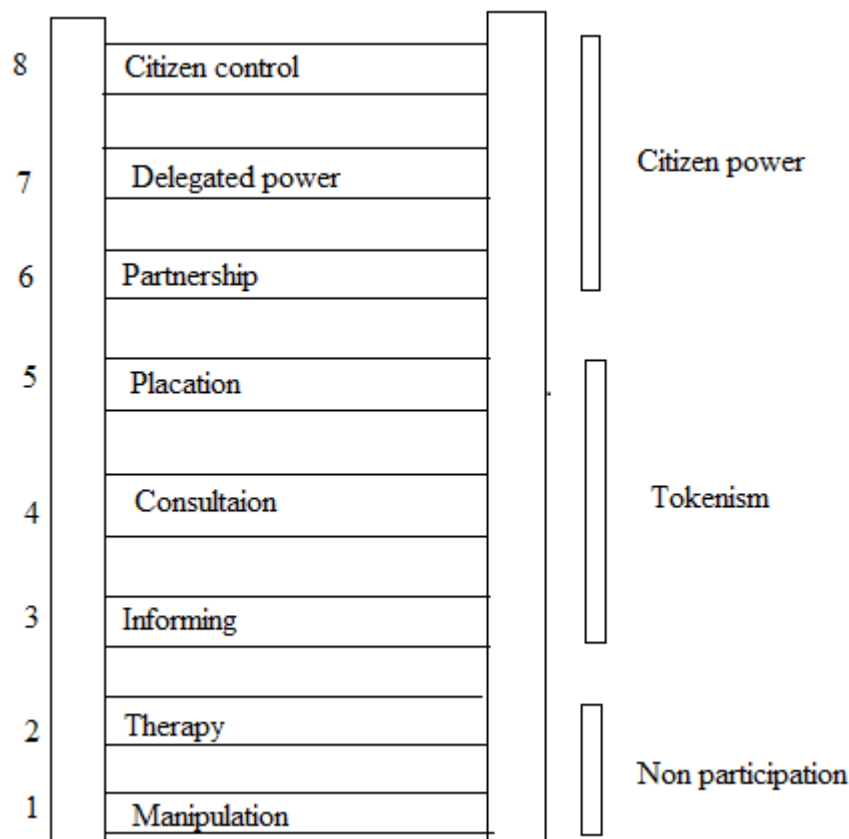
An important implication of Olson's theory for managing participation of refugees is that if a group of refugees using a is very large and heterogeneous, it should be divided into a number of small and homogeneous subgroups and each subgroup randomly assigned a portion of the participation that should be as far as possible proportionate to the size of the group. If there are marked variations in the quality of the participation, the assignments may be rotated every year. This is, however, possible only if the participation is divisible and if some arrangement exists for dividing and apportioning the participation among the subgroups.

According to Olson, despite the free rider problem, voluntary groups can provide collective goods in a wide variety of areas including education, labour unions, and natural resources. Group action can also emerge in such less desirable forms as collusion and oligopolies in which firms or agents collaborate to restrict quantity and maintain high prices. (IRMA, 1992).

According to IRMA (1992), in the appendix to his book added in 1971, Olson also discusses the possible role of the political entrepreneur in promoting collective action. A political entrepreneur is an individual with a combination of such traits as leadership, the trust of the community or its fear, the ability to discern the motivations of others, and the desire to organise the group for collective action. Olson suggests that the success of the political entrepreneur will be related to his ability to utilise selective incentives to motivate participation in collective action. In our opinion, another important role of the political entrepreneur is also to provide the much needed assurance to the resource users that the expected benefits from participation would, in fact, accrue to them and that the benefits would be equitably distributed among them.

1.11: Conceptual Framework

Typologies of participation has taken varying degrees and kind, different typologies of participation have been useful in differentiating these. Typologies provide implicit normative assumptions which place these forms of participation along an axis of good to bad forms. The most famous one is the Arnstein's (1969) ladder of participation illustrated below:



The ladder of participation simplifies citizen participation into different levels, these in turn helps in trying to grasp participation in practice. Therefore, examining the refugee's social and economic participation in Zambia will be achievable by dwelling on the different rungs of the ladder. This research used this theoretical stand point to reveal participation on the ground based on Arnstein differential viewpoint between empty rituals of participation and having the real power to initiate change. Arnstein (1969) puts it that, no bodies' in several arenas are trying to become somebodies with enough power to make the target institutions responsive to their views, aspirations, and needs. To this, participation progresses in a ladder format from the lower bad forms to the most top influential good forms of participation. The ladder of participation thus acts as a relevant theoretical lens that pictures the case of refugees as minority groupings with little or no power availed in their communities to command social change. It becomes therefore of paramount importance to explore the dynamics of participation in such minority setting areas as these are areas where participation of the afflicted is supposed to be the core base or rather the first crucial step towards uplifting the standards and the self-value of these victims of war, crimes and human right violence.

However, one of the often cited limitation of this ladder of participation is that it does not include an analysis of the most significant barriers to achieving genuine levels of participation. These

barriers lay on both sides of the simplistic fence. On the power- holders' side, they include racism, paternalism, and resistance to power redistribution. On the have-nots' side, they include inadequacies of the poor community's political, social, economic infrastructure and knowledge-base, plus difficulties of organizing a representative and accountable citizens' group in the face of futility, alienation, and distrust. It thus can be seen that the much emphasis of the Arnstein ladder of participation revolves around concepts of power and control (Arnstein, 1969). Nevertheless, the typology is of much useful to this study as it weighs participation in practice. Refugee's ability to act or take control is much dependent on power. Giddens (1979), argues that without any sizeable amount of power or control an individual sizes to be an agent. Refugees as minority groups in society, it becomes something valuable to determine whether they do have the affluence of power and control to influence change in their communities.

1.12: Conclusion

This chapter has looked at the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research objectives, research questions, significance of the study, limitation of the study, delimitation of the study, conceptual frame work and ethical considerations. The chapter that follows looks at literature review on the challenges and prospects of refugees in employment and community participation in Zambia taking a case of refugee's community in Meheba refugee settlement.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0. Introduction

In this chapter, applicable literature on the challenges and prospects of refugees in employment and community participation in Zambia has been reviewed. This has been done according to the objectives set in this study. The objectives were to examine the refugees' social and economic participation in Zambia, examine the refugees' participation in Maheba community, identify the challenges refugees face in their community in Zambia and to explore the factors which enable or constrain refugees' to participate socially and economically in Zambia.

2.1. Participation of refugees socially and economically in Zambia

UNHCR (2012) reports that according to the Zambian legislation of refugees, all refugees are required to live in camps thus social economic participation is minimized, these spontaneously self-settled refugees are in time and again rounded up and relocated to designated government settlement schemes. Government of the Republic of Zambia (GRZ) is responsible for conducting refugee status determination. United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) is part of the National Eligibility Committee (NEC) and provides technical advice and country of origin information. UNHCR also provides training for officials on the NEC. Ministry of Home Affairs (2015a), documents that in July 2015, 139 Burundians, consisting of 94 households were relocated from Lusaka to Meheba, and a total of 607 Burundians have fled to Zambia since May 2017. Zambia has many people living in protracted exile, the unwillingness of Angolans to return to their countries and the continued violence in DRC and political atrocities in Burundi leaves the country with little feasible durable solutions for such cases. This however put the Zambian government to work and ensures to take care of the refugees' by allowing them to stay in camps, thus, minimizing the scope to be employed, to do business and to adequately socially with people in different cities like every other Zambian. This in turn minimizes their social economic inputs to the nation, however, their voice has less or no impact.

According to the Refugees (Control) Act (1970), in order to acquire a self-employment permit, refugees require to have K120, 000.00 in assets or cash. The same regulation applies to external investors to have investments of \$250,000.00. They also need a letter from COR supporting the application and must pay a statutory fee of K5, 000.00. They also need a certificate of registration of the business in Zambia or a certificate of incorporation and a bank statement. In order to acquire a work permit, refugees need a letter showing that they have a job offer, job contract, letter from

Commissioner for Refugees supporting the application, must have some forms of trade or educational qualification and that organisation is also required to show proof that no Zambian is qualified to do the job that has been offered to the refugee. Furthermore, the fee for an employment permit is K6, 000.00 if a government sponsored permit is K3, 000.00 private sector application is K6, 000.00. Despite these obstacles, some refugees do manage to gain employment in the medical and educational sectors where there are acute shortages as a result of the brain drain and HIV/Aids crisis. The ban on employment is especially difficult for those refugees who are allowed to be resident outside the camps, for example for health reasons, yet are given no means of subsistence. In this scenario refugees resort to working in the informal sector, yet if they are caught by the Immigration Department then they will be detained and face prosecutions and later returned under escort to respective camps.

Sweet (2007) points out that as would be expected, given the strict regulations imposed on refugees' livelihood activities, the dominant form of employment is self-employment which, according to the provisions of the immigration regulations is an illegal activity as all refugees are expected to have employment permits for them to engage in both informal and formal forms of employment. Most refugees complained of the strict specificity nature of the work permits-if such a permit is granted to a church minister, he would be committing an offence if he engages in any other forms of earning a livelihood that is outside the church ministry.

As Costa (2006) clarifies, another frequent example they cited is the running of grocery stores whereby if the permit is granted to the husband, the wife would be committing an offence to stand behind the counter and sell goods to customers. Consequently, many refugees and some key informant participants feel or expressed some concerns in relation to the human rights of refugees and former refugees. One government official warned that being a refugee is not by choice but is forced upon the many who find themselves in such a situation. In which case, the officer wondered as to whether Zambians would like to be subjected to the same kind of treatment were they too, one day, find themselves as refugees in some neighbouring countries.

Stige and Sveaass (2010) note that a particularly unsettling effect of the refugee presence has been the large increase in the incidence of violent crime in the areas around the camps, even though the violence has mostly been between refugees, and has not involved local people. The Tanzanian police have had to spend more time investigating incidents around the camps, and the Ngara prison has been holding five times the normal number of suspects. Indeed, in local and national government in general, there has been a diversion of managerial and administrative

resources away from normal activities to those associated with the relief programme. The arrival of the refugees has also led to increased volatility in the prices of basic commodities, with the prices of some products tripling or quadrupling in the months following the influx. However, although the prices of a number of commodities have risen sharply, others have fallen equally dramatically (notably maize, cooking oil and other “refugee” goods), and it is not clear whether, overall, the refugee presence and the associated relief operation has improved or worsened the local food security situation. In those rural areas where farmers traditionally produce for on-farm consumption, and little commercialization takes place, the changes in the prices of commodities will not have had a significant impact. Urban consumers, however, will be more severely affected, and anecdotal evidence exists to suggest that major dietary changes have taken place.

Costa (2006) notes that the economic activities of refugees and former refugees range from farming, running small businesses such as trading shops, artisans, animal husbandry to providing services through formal and informal employment. The refugees and former refugees are also employing Zambians – especially in urban areas.

Meyer (2008) explains that refugees and former refugees have the capacity to transfer skills to locals as evidenced by the new farming and consumption patterns of growing cassava and rice in the settlement areas as well as handcrafting clay roofing tiles that is commonly practiced by the Rwandans and Burundians in Zambia. Furthermore, skills on how to run small business used by Rwandans and Burundians in the Zambian urban markets is something that Zambians could learn from.

According to UNHCR (2014), the impact of the large refugee presence has been dramatic, with those living close to the transit routes and the refugee settlements having seen their local environments transformed. During the initial influx, crops were trampled or stolen from the fields, while doors, window frames and furniture were removed from schools and health posts along the transit routes and used as firewood. Subsequently, roads and airstrips have been damaged by relief traffic, and water sources over-burdened by refugees and their cattle.

Mehrab (2011) says that the most serious impact of the refugee presence on the local population in Ngara District has been the indiscriminate felling of trees near the camp, for use as firewood. By November 1994, tree resources within five km of Ngara had been completely depleted. Natural resources have been strained to the point where it is possible that they will no longer be adequate

for the local population afterwards, and currently all households are having to walk increasingly long distances to collect firewood. The most likely long-term problems may stem from the removal of the gallery forests along watercourses, since these protect both quality and quantity of water flows at normal times. Loss of tree cover over the steep hilly terrain will also cause much-increased soil erosion rates, and has led to a reduction in the availability of game.

Wahoush (2009) reveals that, with a total population of about 13 million, Zambia has approximately more than 51, 277 people of concern according to Government database as of 31 July 2018. About 1,930 asylum-seekers were pending status determination applications, the majority of these originating from the Great Lakes region. By country of origin: Burundi 3, 114, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) 20,159, Somalia 2,695, Rwanda 6,187, Angola 18,741 and Others 381 (Ministry of Home Affairs, 2015a). Most of these refugees live in urban areas of the capital city of Lusaka and the two refugee settlements of Meheba and Mayukwayukwa. The rest of the people of concern are scattered all over the country in the provinces.

Similar studies done in Tanzania by Stige and Sveaass (2010) indicate that it is important to note that there have been winners, as well as losers, as a result of the refugee influxes, notable among which have been the Tanzanian ports and railways. They have benefited from a huge surge of business activity associated with the emergency, with WFP transporting the bulk of the foodstuffs for the refugees in Goma and Bukavu, as well as for those in Ngara and Karagwe, through the port of Dar-es-Salaam, and then inland by rail. Other winners have been those with houses and warehouses near to the refugee settlements. They have been able to gain windfall profits from hiring out their premises to the international agencies involved in the relief operation. Many new jobs have been created as a result of the relief operation, either with the agencies themselves or in the business sector providing services to them. In addition, trading opportunities have grown up around the camps - the buying of excess food commodities from the refugees and the selling, in return, of cloth, soap, radio batteries, etc. However, it is also true that in some areas local businesses have suffered as a result of direct competition from newly-emerged refugee enterprises while in other areas local residents have had more difficulty in finding casual labour as a result of the presence of many refugees prepared to work for lower wages.

Sweet (2007) clarifies that a lack of solid data has meant that it has not been possible accurately to quantify the various gains and losses, and come up with any overall balance of either net gain or net loss. Even were this possible, the exercise would be largely academic, as redistribution

mechanisms do not exist whereby the gainers can recompense the losers. It is also important to be aware that many of the benefits will cease once the refugees go home, or once the relief programme winds down, while the costs, particularly environmental, will last well into the future. The losers have tended to be geographically fairly concentrated, with those closest to the refugee settlements and transit routes generally having lost the most. Some having lost land, livestock and crops, have been reduced to as precarious a state of survival as the refugees themselves. The geographical concentration of the majority of losers ought to have meant that mitigation efforts should have been relatively straight forward.

2.2. Challenges refugees face in their community.

According to Cornwell (2012), the majority of the refugees in Zambia have been processed for resettlement which mainly are mainly from the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC). However, UNHCR had also incorporated other nationalities, such as Rwandans and Burundese. With the current terrorist attacks witnessed in Paris brutal killings, and the recent Belgium airport attack refugees are in constant time and again viewed as a threat to national security of developed countries. This has spurred some tight entry measures at border posts and consequently resettlement is likely to be affected in these countries which directly affects the lives of refugees. Owing to their status refugees in Zambia are in hopeless situations, it is difficult for most to get enough food. They do not have the freedom of movement and therefore they cannot leave the camps and seek employment in town. Nor will they get a work permit, no rations inside the camps there are very few jobs.

Davidson and Carr (2010) lament that there are many challenges faced by refugees and asylum seekers. Some will have spent many years in refugee camps or have spent time in detention. Often they have had little or no healthcare access, either in their country of origin or in the country they subsequently fled to, an experience shown to have negative health outcomes. Many will have come from low-income countries, with high prevalence of diseases such as TB, HIV/AIDS and Hepatitis.

According to Pieper et. al., (2011) asylum seekers and refugees have also lost their housing, income and position in society, employment, social support systems, cultural norms, religious customs and language. Many will have suffered psychological trauma through the death or separation of family. They may not know the whereabouts of family or friends, or even if they are alive. Many will find it difficult to adjust to life in a new country after a prolonged period as a

refugee. They may also face hostility when trying to re-settle into new communities. Loneliness and grief are often key issues.

Swinkels et. al., (2011) note that high priority conditions for refugees and immigrants have been found to be abuse and domestic violence, anxiety and adjustment disorder, depression, diabetes, torture and PTSD, intestinal parasites, and dental caries. Some refugees are educated middle-class people, where higher rates of obesity, hypertension, coronary artery disease, diabetes and anaemia have been found.

According to Rauchfuss and Schmolze (2008) asylum seekers and /or refugees may therefore suffer from both long and short term health sequelae. This could be in the form of increased risk of mental illness, anxiety and depression or complicated grief. Psychological distress may also be increased if their immigration status is uncertain. Those who have been subjected to torture may also have ongoing medical conditions, disabilities and pain.

Implications for health professionals include acute illness and disease that may need to be addressed. There is likely to be a lack of medical history or records, and the health screening that occurs prior to arriving in Australia is focused on public health screening rather than individual risk factors and the harsh conditions of deprivation that many have been exposed to. During the determination process, access to Medicare and the PBS may be absent or restricted. The costs of medication in the community may therefore be an issue. Hospital and hospice admissions are covered (Cornwell 2012).

Bandeira et.al., (2010) explain that for health professionals there may also be a lack of familiarity with some of the health issues of refugees and asylum seekers and the diseases that they are presenting with. Across for instance, Australia, each state and territory has responded slightly differently to address the health needs of newly arrived refugees. In some states there are specialised primary health care refugee clinics performing comprehensive health checks on all newly arrived refugees, while in others they are referred directly to General Practitioners who may refer to specialists at public hospitals as appropriate. There are Medicare Benefits Schedule health assessment items for refugees and other humanitarian entrants.

According to Davidson and Carr (2010) language barriers create communication difficulties which may mean delays in diagnostics and in timely care. The use of interpreters is very important and cultural competency and sensitivity training can help in part to improve the needs of increasingly

diverse populations. In the longer term, there are health promotion and prevention implications. Monitoring of chronic diseases such as Hepatitis B may be required, and for those such as torture survivors, referral to a specialised mental health service may be needed for ongoing care. The literature demonstrates that those with a history of torture may continue to have pain or psychiatric disorders years or even decades following their migration to other countries.

Marshall et.al., (2005) note that refugees and asylum seekers usually lack knowledge of the Australian health care system. They may have unrealistic expectations of the health system based on their previous experience. The effect of the migration determination process within one country and the uncertainties of this process may in itself have major psychological and psychiatric impact on well-being.

There may be issues of trust with people in authority, including health professionals, as they may have been involved in the administration of torture in their country. If they have been tortured or raped in the past they may not tolerate medical examinations or procedures.

2.3: Factors that enable or constrain refugees to participate in the community

Darwin (2005) reveals that in Zambia and many other countries, the Refugee Control Act 1970 under this act, all refugees must live in an area designated by the Zambian government unless they receive special permission to remain outside. Section 16 of the Act allows an authorized officer to arrest a refugee without a warrant if they are 'reasonably suspected' of attempting to commit, or committing an offence against the Refugee Control Act. Section 15 of the Act provides that breaches of the Act shall be punished with a period not exceeding three months imprisonment, in practice these periods are far longer

According to Sweet (2007) studies, on youth health and well-being are predominantly quantitative and expert-driven with less attention given to how youth understand what it means to be healthy themselves and the role of socio-cultural factors in shaping this. Knowledge on the perceptions and experiences of refugee youth is particularly lacking and notable given their unique stressors related to migratory, settlement and integration experiences. We contribute a better understanding of how refugee youth themselves define and contextualize health, with particular emphasis given to socio-cultural factors that enable or constrain health promotion efforts and individual health agency.

A research done by Darwin, (2005) in Kenya show refugees views, they note that the UNHCR should work with the Government to continues promote self-reliance activities targeting them. Key interventions include income generating activities such as fish farming, bee-keeping, farming and

livestock, as well as training in business and entrepreneurship skills. In an effort to increase their purchasing potential, the direct monthly food distribution provided to vulnerable refugees was replaced with cash assistance. The core purpose of the cash assistance is to enable them meet their minimum needs and in the process accord them dignity and freedom of choice (Ministry of Home Affairs, 2015a). In a much effort to build sustaining community structures the government has been keen in promoting community cohesion through mobilizing and supporting refugee to form cooperatives most notably agricultural cooperatives where refugees cooperate and take advantage of limited market opportunities in associations and not individually, this has been seen as helping limit market exploitations from small scale back door briefcase buyers flooding most refugee settlements (Gaventa, 2004).

Thus, a report of global consultations and listening to refugees shows involvement of Refugees. The International Conference on the Reception and Integration of Resettled Refugees (ICRIRR) was designed to provide an international forum for the exchange of ideas and means of supporting refugee resettlement among the 10 traditional and 8 emerging resettlement countries. Former refugees now in resettlement countries participated as speakers and delegates to ICRIRR. Issues discussed at the Conference are fed into the Global Consultations process. (UNHCR, 2014)

The Refugee Parliament in Paris, 16 June 2001 Some 500 refugees gathered on 16 June 2001 in the French National Assembly to commemorate the 50th anniversary of the 1951 Convention. This Refugee Parliament adopted a declaration (Paris Appeal) that, among others, reaffirms the importance of the 1951 Convention and its 1967 Protocol and calls upon States to respect refugee rights. The French National Assembly sent the Paris Appeal to the Presidents of Parliaments around the world. Dialogue with Refugee Women – Geneva: 20–22 June 2001 UNHCR in co-operation with the Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children organized Consultations with Refugee Women from 20-22 June 2001. The Consultations, held in Geneva, were part of a series of consultations with refugee women and other women of concern to UNHCR at the regional/country level (Gaventa, 2004).

Gaventa, (2004) reports that the Geneva meeting brought together some 50 women for a direct dialogue with UNHCR on a number of issues, some of them specifically linked to the Global Consultations, in order to ensure that refugee women's realities and perspectives are brought into the debate. The consultations provided important input for assessment of existing policy and practice, and will contribute to increase effectiveness and equity.

UN (2017) notes that it is increasingly recognised that the options for effective protection of refugees have not kept pace with the number of people who need protection. At the end of 2015, 65.3 million people were forcibly displaced worldwide, according to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). Of the 16.1 million refugees of concern to the UNHCR that year, less than one percent were admitted to third countries for resettlement. Many live in precarious conditions with limited legal rights in countries of first asylum and are unable to pursue livelihoods and rebuild their lives.

Traditional approaches to refugee protection have centred on one of three ‘durable solutions’ supported by the UNHCR: voluntary repatriation, local integration or resettlement. Increasingly, however, people are discussing alternative pathways for refugees to access safety and security, as well as expanding existing channels such as resettlement programs.

In the non-binding New York Declaration, adopted by the UN General Assembly at a summit on refugees and migrants in September 2016, states pledged to “expand the number and range of legal pathways available for refugees to be admitted to or resettled in third countries.”

A string of recent reports, including by the Australian Human Rights Commission (AHRC), the Migration Policy Institute (MPI), and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) have explored the potential of expanding access to protection-sensitive migration pathways to help people move on from countries of first asylum and begin rebuilding their lives (2012).

These non-humanitarian pathways are broadly divided into three main streams: labour, study and family migration.

Various organisations have noted that facilitating access to new and existing employment pathways for refugees could increase refugees’ self-reliance, allow people to contribute to their host countries and communities, and could lead to secure, permanent status in third countries.

According to Mehrab (2011) as the Migration Policy Institute notes while established employment-based immigration pathways may ostensibly be open to refugees, in reality, many “will not meet the high standards of entry. Migration Policy Institute argues that governments could reduce skill requirements for refugees or recognize refugees as a distinct category of qualified worker, develop ‘refugee skills passports’ as part of a system of accreditation, in cooperation with industry groups, to help potential employers assess skills and qualifications and

open migrant resource centres in camps or communities in order to help link people with potential employment opportunities, online recruitment portals and advice.

As Sweet (2007) notes however, questions arise over the level of protection refugees would be guaranteed under some immigration pathways where labour is seen as “temporary, self-sufficient, and ultimately removable.” As with the other options discussed below, MPI notes the importance of safeguarding the protections associated with refugee status and preventing exploitation

Another potential avenue is to expand access to education opportunities for refugees. This might help, for example, for some among the 5 million people who have fled conflict in Syria. When unrest first broke out there in 2011, some 350,000 students were enrolled in full-time tertiary education and around 8,000 staff were teaching at universities.

In a briefing note considering the potential for higher education opportunities for refugees, the UNHCR (2014) stated that such programs should “first and foremost consider the protection and safety of refugee students” and should lead to their “economic and social empowerment.”

The note considers that programs in third countries should provide for the full cost of study and potentially for the cost of living, accommodation and the possibility of family members joining the applicant. Such programs should clearly outline post-graduation options including the potential for legal employment and residency.

According to UNHCR (2012), organizations such as MPI have noted that enhancing opportunities for the family members of refugees to join them in a third country is a way to offer greater protection for displaced populations in need “without designing new channels of entry.” The right to family unity is also a fundamental principle of international law and facilitating family reunification for refugees is widely seen as crucial to assisting their integration in third countries. A number of countries pledged to broaden opportunities for family reunion at the UN High level Meeting on Syrian refugees in March 2016. However, in practice, some states, including in the European Union, have tightened restrictions on family visas in response to large refugee flows.

Costa (2006) notes that security risks can be a constraint on participatory processes, where access to the people affected by a crisis is limited or security conditions do not allow time to be spent (especially at night) in villages or camps. Engaging with specific groups can also affect perceptions of individual or agency impartiality, thus making you and/or the people you work with

potential targets. Security can also be a reason for using participatory techniques. The more a programme is seen as relevant and inclusive, based on mutual respect and trust, the more those who you seek to assist, and the structures with which you work, will be concerned with your welfare, and act to warn you when risks are heightened or threats are imminent. In some circumstances, relationships built up with stakeholder communities through participatory exercises may also allow you to continue to provide assistance when security deteriorates and certain areas become inaccessible to foreigners.

2.5: Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed relevant literature on the challenges and prospects of refugees in employment and community participation in Zambia taking a case of refugee's community in Meheba refugee settlement. Ironically, refugees are not accorded the opportunities to participate freely socially and economically. The next chapter will look at research methodology used.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0: Introduction

This chapter explored the essential constituents of the methodology in this study. These are: research design, study population, study sample, sampling procedure, data collection instruments and data analysis tools that have been used in this research.

3.1: Research design

The research design used in this study is a mixed method involving a case study. Case studies was used so as to have a deeper understanding of the challenges and prospects of refugees in participation in Maheba community. Creswell (2003), indicated that “to take a qualitative approach is one in which the inquirer often makes knowledge claims based primarily on constructivist perspectives that is. the multiple meanings of individual experiences, meanings socially and historically constructed, with an intent of developing a theory or pattern. As a result, a case study is significant for such a study.

3.2: Target population

The study was conducted in Meheba in North Western Province in Zambia. Maheba was selected for this study based on knowledge and accessability to the community which is reasonable enough to take as a case study and bearing in mind that it is one of the biggest refugee camps. Refugees at maheba constituted the populaion.

3.3: Study sample

Table 1: Study sample

S/No.	Participants	Number
01	Refugees	29
02	Informants	10
	Total	39

3.4: Sampling technique

Simple random sampling procedure was used to select the refugees while purposive sampling was used to choose the key informants. An equal number of refugees was randomly selected to avoid over representation of the sample and therefore leading to erroneous interpretation of data. According to Frerichs on Rapid Surveys (2008) “subjects in the population are sampled by a random process, using either a random number generator or a random number table, so that each person remaining in the population has the same probability of being selected for the sample”.

3.5: Data Collection Procedures

The study used both primary and secondary sources of data. Secondary data was mainly used to collect documented information and to gain a broader understanding of the issue at hand. The secondary data was collected from, non-published and published data through the internet and other organization such the United Nations. Primary data was collected in Maheba of North Western. Primary data was collected by means of administering structured and pretested interview guides. As Creswell (2003) notes, the researcher collects data using open-ended instruments as a way of emerging data with the primary intent of developing themes from the data.

3.6: Data collection instruments

Instruments in research are basically tool that the research relies upon, on the collection of the much needed data. (Lee, 1992). In this study, two instruments were used to collect data. Out of these instruments, the interviews was based on all key informants. The focus group discussions were held with the refugees.

3.6.1: Interviews

A central objective of the interviews was to collect information about refugees’ views on the challenges and prospects they have concerning employment in Zambia. Another aspect will be to ascertain which dimension of group identity – group or linguistic – provides the lens through which inter-group political competition is viewed. The interest is in peoples' identifications, perceptions and attitudes in the context of the group orientations that lead to post electoral tensions and the role of politicians, the researcher seeks to provide a uniform and expressly political context for each respondent that would “prompt” this situation.

3.6.2: Focus group discussion

This was used to collect data in a natural environment as it made it possible for the refugees to discuss issues freely. Refugees were divided into groups of 5s with the last group having 4 members.

3.7: Data collection

According to Kasonde, (2013), Data collection refers to the gathering of information to answer research questions. With regards to this research, data was from Meheba. All the instruments were personally administered by the researcher.

3.8: Data Analysis

Both quantitative and qualitative methods of data analysis were employed in this study. The quantitative data from questionnaires were analysed manually and presented using in the form of tables. Qualitative data which was obtained through interviews and focus group was analysed by coding and grouping the emerging themes and presented in descriptive form.

3.9: Ethical Considerations

To start with, permission was sort from the University of Zambia to carry out this study. It is important to protect participants who willingly present themselves for the purpose of collecting data for the research. Therefore, a strict set of guidelines and code of conduct was adopted and adhered to. Confidentiality was an important aspect in this study and hence, all the names of the participants were not mentioned. The researcher ensured that participant's consent to participate in the research was voluntary by making them sign a consent form, free of any coercion or promises of benefits as a result of participation as. Since the study was to investigate the challenges and prospects of refugees in employment and community participation in Zambia, the researcher ensured that the participants receive a full disclosure of the nature of the study, expected benefits to the participants and society with an extended opportunity to ask questions, including the fact that they could choose to withdraw their participation even in the middle of the research.

3.10: Conclusion

This chapter has outlined aspects of the methodology in this study. These include; the research design, study population, study sample, sampling procedure, data collection instruments and data

analysis and ethical considerations. The next chapter will dwell on presentation of findings of field data after a thorough analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.0: Introduction

The chapter presents the findings of the study. It begins with the demographic characteristics of the participants. It then presents the general findings of the study using the objectives advanced in the study.

4.1: Demographic characteristics of participants

4.1.1 Age Distribution of the participants

Table 2: Age of participants

S/No.	Age	Participants	Percentage
01	10-20	07	17.9
02	21-30	17	43.6
03	31-40	12	30.8
04	Above 40	03	7.7
Total		39	100

Table 2 shows that 7 participants representing 17.9% were aged between 10-20 years, 17 participants representing 43.6% were aged between 21-30years, 12 participants representing 30.8% were aged between 31- 40years, while 3 participants representing 7.7% were aged above 40 years.

4.1.2: Sex of participants

Table 3: Sex of participants

S/No.	Sex	Number	Percentage
01	Male	25	64.1%
02	Female	14	35.9%
Total		39	100

Figure 2 shows that there were 25 male participants representing 64.1%, and 14 participants representing 35.9%, making a total of 39 participants.

4.1.3: Level of education

Figure 2: Level of education of the participants

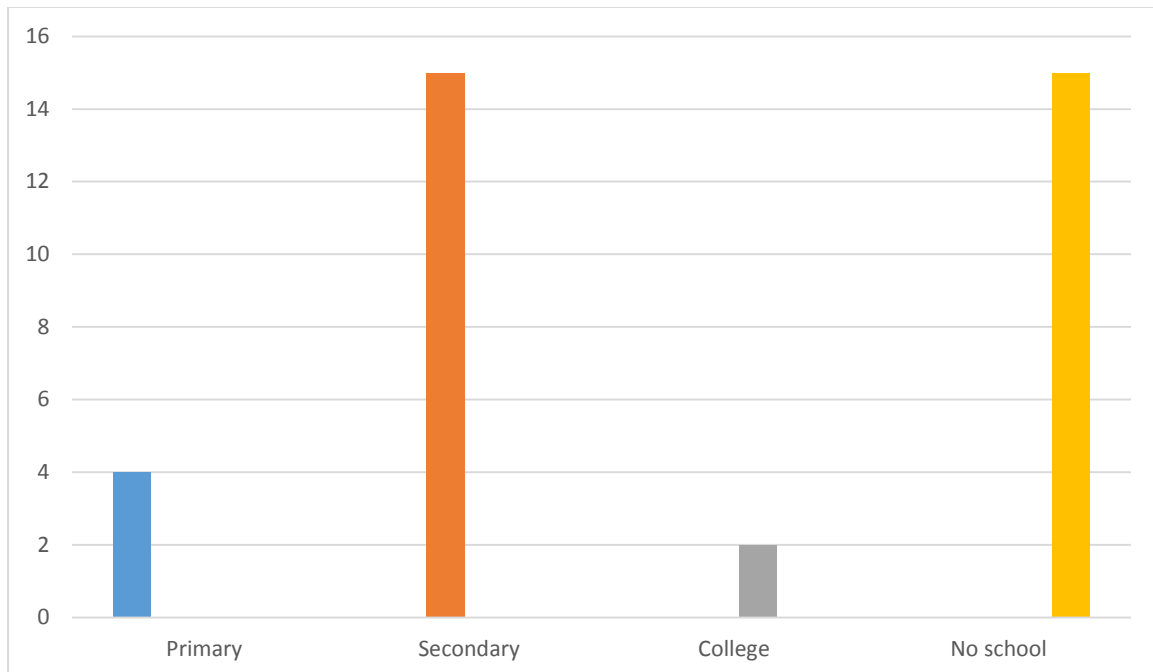


Figure 3 shows that 8 refugees representing 27.6% had never been to school, while 4 refugees representing 13.8% had been to primary school, 15 refugees representing 51.7% had been to secondary and 2 refugees representing 6.9% have been to college.

4.1.4: Participation of refugee in social and economic activities.

Table 4: Participation of refugees socially and economically in Zambia.

S/No	Response	Number	Percentage
01	Much	10	25.6
02	Not Much	21	53.8
03	Not at all	08	20.5
Total			100

Table 5 above shows that 25.6 % of refugees do participate, while 53.8% do not participate much and 20.5% do not participate at all in Zambia either socially or economically.



Fig. 4 above shows refugee women and girls selling roasted maize along Mutanda- Mwinilunga road to earn some income.

4.2.2: Challenges refugees face in their community

Among the challenges that refugees face after being interviewed in Maheba are the difficulty in speaking and learning English. Most of them are unable to speak English. Try getting a job, making friends, or even completing basic tasks like buying food or filling out forms.

One of the refugees that was interviewed indicated that:

Securing work is another challenge indicated. While most refugees are happy to take whatever means of feeding themselves is available when they first enter the country, finding a job, and slowly moving up the ladder, is incredibly difficult. Even if they ignore undocumented refugees who face additional challenges securing work, trouble speaking English is a major problem in positions one might not expect like labor. Refugees who are educated and who formerly had strong jobs back home, find it frustrating that they cannot obtain the same jobs here.

Additionally, refugees are easy victims for discrimination and exploitation. Some people recognize the sense of urgency and desperation among these groups, so they will have them take the less desirable and even dangerous roles. And also securing housing of their own is a challenge also and close to not possible.

Further, accessing services is another challenge in that refugees face difficult time accessing services, largely because they are afraid of being deported and the Zambian act does not allow them to move out of the camps. Accessing mental health issues is especially problematic. Many times, refugees have been exposed to violence, rape, even torture- but they may not know how to seek help.

A refugee woman also said that:

Transportation is also an issue, like language barriers, trouble with transportation is an issue that affects nearly every aspect of life for refugees. And cultural barriers, again, just like transportation and trouble speaking English, cultural barriers transcend each and every aspect of life for refugees.



Figure 5 above shows a researcher posing for a photo in Maheba at the station where the major mode of transport is motorbikes and bicycles.

Information gotten from the key informants shows that 6 out of 10 of the key informants said that refugees are safe and do not face challenges that need urgent attention, while 4 out of 10 said that refugees need proper attention thus there are various challenges they face that need intervention. 85% of the key informants also said that the government needs to amend its policies that can allow refugees to be included when awarding employment opportunities and that can allow them to have a voice in their community and in the country as a whole. Further, suggestions also indicate that the refugees should be accounted for our education system seeing that some of them were pursuing an education in their home country, thus calls for inclusion in our national budget.

The key informants also note that refugees cannot easily access a job because they are bound to stay in their community, and that their social interaction is limited due to the same. The problem calls for not having a stable source of income, and not being free to participate in the country's social-economic trends.

Refugees were very keen to seeing that these challenges are addressed. One refugee clearly come out to say:

To address this, many refugees and immigrants are supposed to take classes for language which they do not. They find difficulty to raising children and helping them succeed in school. One of the biggest obstacles refugee parents report is raising their children in a new, unfamiliar culture. Parents often find that their children quickly adapt which may be at odds with their own culture. Additionally, kids tend to pick up English much faster than their parents. This throws off the parent-child dynamic, and it is known that kids, especially teens, are going to use this to their advantage.

4.2.3: Refugees views on socio-economic participation

Refugees after being interviewed had a number of views. One refugee indicated that:

They are not politically engaged. Article 25(b) of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights recognizes the right of every citizen to vote and be elected in genuine periodic elections by universal and equal suffrage, but this right applies only to citizens, and the criteria for the acquisition of citizenship through naturalization are left to the discretion of signatory states. They do not have a voice in country related matters. They can't explore outside their community and participate in other things. They cannot go to any school of their choice

It seems that the obvious and most direct way for refugees to participate formally in the political life of their host countries is through voting. While reports show that approximately 45 countries worldwide have legislation granting the right to vote, mainly in local elections, to all or specific categories of resident aliens (Pedroza 2014; Earnest 2015), in the vast majority of countries the local or national franchise is still the prerogative of citizens. As a result, refugees must first naturalize before they are able to cast a ballot in their host country.

4.2.4: Factors that determine refugee's participation in the community

Most of the refugees who were interviewed indicated a number of factors that mostly constrain them from participating in the community socially and economically. This ranged from language barriers, transport challenges, cultural dynamics and financial difficulties among other things.

One old female refugee explained that:

You see, even if we are allowed to go into the community, we normally fail to mingle with our colleagues because of language problems. They do not get what we speak and we cannot get what they say. This makes it so difficult for us even to ask for help when we are in need because of language barrier and communication breakdown. In addition to that, we normally have different cultures, so it is not so easy to fit into the other culture so easily. Traditions differ across cultures inclusive of behaviour patterns, food, dressings and mannerism. Sometimes Zambians make fun of what we eat like 'Masende' (White soil boring insects) and yet they are a delicacy to us. As such, we feel embarrassed hence withdrawing.

Another Male refugee lamented that:

The Ongoing mental health issues due to trauma, including survivor guilt has a lot of bearing on our involvement in the community. We are ever feeling guilty of what we did where we came from and think everyone is looking for us. So we are not really free to mix anyhow, especially some of us who were in the military groups; just feel we cannot join the civilians anyhow. Additionally, we have financial constraints to start any business and we have no access to loans because of our status. Changes in roles and family status is also an issue. Sometimes we are forced to look for Zambian women to marry in order to find relief, but we are never still free because we feel like we are just dependants to their extended families, couple with us remembering our family members we have left. So there is no total concentration in the community involvement.

4.3: Conclusion

In this chapter, findings of the study on the challenges and prospects of refugees in employment and community participation in Zambia have been presented. These findings have been presented according to the four objectives enshrined in chapter one. The thematic approach to present qualitative results was represented thematically while tables were used to present descriptive statistics. The chapter that follows will dwell on discussion of the findings of this research study.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

5.0: Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings on the challenges and prospects of refugees in employment and community participation in Zambia. This have been based on the research questions that guide this research study and these are:

- Do refugees participate socially and economically in Zambia?
- What are the challenges refugees' face in their community in Zambia?
- What are the factors that enable or constrain refugees' to participate socially and economically in Zambia?

5.1: Participation of refugees socially and economically in Zambia

From the findings of the study, there is an international debate on the common characterization and perception of refugees being a burden on host nations. This may be the case at the start of refugees' arrivals when host nations are not prepared and ready for their arrival. However, once such refugees have been helped to settle and get on with their lives in their new found homes, global experiences suggest that they can contribute positively to the host nations. In this section, there will be a presentation of empirical evidence on whether refugees' livelihoods make positive contributions to the Zambian economy even in conditions where their freedom of movement is severely restricted and are, by law, prevented from employed as employees or own-account workers. Findings of the study do indicate that refugees provide a sizable market for Zambian owned businesses in the two rural settlements where they conduct their livelihoods and purchase their stock-in-trade goods and services in Zambia. This is in agreement with (Betts et al, 2014) whose findings reveal that refugees' livelihoods are in fact creators of employment and human capital. The case made is that if the current strict regulations on freedom of movement is eased and some consideration made to allow refugees to participate slightly freely in designated economic activities that represent their "comparative advantages" the likelihood of refugees' expansive contribution to the national economy can be enhanced further.

Findings of this study further revealed that more fundamentally, the restriction on refugees' freedom of movement and employment creates a rich avenue for rent seeking behaviour among some refugees regulatory and enforcement agencies who may enrich themselves through bribes at

the cost of the Zambian state that could benefit from increased fiscal revenues arising from increased refugees' economic intermediation. This is in support with Mehrab (2011) who says that economic theory posits that the demand for labour is derived from the demand for goods and services that employers produce by combining labour with other factors of production (capital, land and entrepreneurship) to produce outputs that are in turn sold to consumers. In that sense, the purchase by refugees' primary livelihood persons of the various stock-in trade items and services that they use in their respective primary livelihood activities and for household consumption contribute to the Zambian economy's capacity to create extra jobs to meet this demand. The rural based livelihood activities tend to be on a much smaller and micro scale when compared to small and medium enterprises (SMEs) for urban based refugees. Findings showed that rural settlement primary livelihood activities on average employ just one person from outside the household.

The number of rural settlements livelihoods activities employing more than one person reduce dramatically as the level of employment increases towards 6 and more. On the other hand, the urban based refugees' businesses employment of individuals from outside their households is much more concentrated on those who employ either two or three people. This is in line with UNHCR (2012) which reports that at all levels of employment greater than one employee, urban refugees' businesses employ more than the rural ones in the ratio that ranges from 1.5 times to 8 times, respectively. More interestingly, the greatest majority of employees in primary refugees' livelihoods activities in Lusaka urban are Zambians and not fellow nationals of those refugees nor other refugees from other countries – that is, the greatest beneficiaries from urban refugees primary livelihood activities in terms of employment are Zambians.

As would be expected, given the strict regulations imposed on refugees' livelihood activities, the dominant form of employment is self-employment which, according to the provisions of the immigration regulations is an illegal activity as all refugees are expected to have employment permits for them to engage in both informal and formal forms of employment. Most refugees complained of the strict specificity nature of the work permits – if such a permit is granted to a church minister, he would be committing an offence if he engages in any other forms of earning a livelihood that is outside the church ministry. As Costa (2006) clarifies, another frequent example they cited is the running of grocery stores whereby if the permit is granted to the husband, the wife would be committing an offence to stand behind the counter and sell goods to customers. Consequently, many refugees and some key informant participants feel expressed some concerns in relation to the human rights of refugees and former refugees. One government official warned that being a refugee is not by choice but is forced upon the many who find themselves in such a

situation. In which case, the officer wondered as to whether Zambians would like to be subjected to the same kind of treatment were they too, one day, find themselves as refugees in some neighbouring countries.

From the findings of the study, the restrictions on both freedom of movement and employment makes refugees vulnerable to abuse by both government officials and the Zambian populace. Some refugees, spoke of police and immigration officials' repeatedly harassing and detaining refugees for repeated violations of travelling without proper documentations and working without work permits. This was witnessed at first hand at the offices of the settlements' Refugees Officers that were always crowded by refugees throughout the day seeking gate passes to allow them to travel outside the settlements. This seems to be in support with the Refugees Control Act (1970), where refugees also need a certificate of registration of the business in Zambia or a certificate of incorporation. However, immigration officials key informant participants, when told of this pattern, stated that they find themselves in a very difficult position: they are employed to enforce the Immigration laws and regulations that require refugees to have proper documents and permits to travel and engage in various livelihood activities outside the designated settlement areas – even if the individuals concerned are repeated offenders or not. In conclusion, restrictions of movement and employment negatively affect the economics of refugees and their contribution to the economy of the nation.

Arising from the findings of the study, the empirical data on average monthly total household incomes from all livelihood activities shows that most refugees live at the bare minimum of survival. A study done by The Jesuits Centre for Theological Reflections (JCTR) estimates the basic need basket for a family of five for most provincial Centers in Zambia and the City of Lusaka. Lusaka, at K5, 005.14 for November 2016 was the highest followed by Solwezi at K4, 079.79 and the least was Kasama at K2, 966.39. Even if we set the basic needs basket for rural areas at a third of the lowest provincial center (in this case Kasama and K1,000.00), the study indicated that up to 92% of rural settlements refugees live below this subsistence threshold – a situation that contrasts with urban refugees where only 36% live below the K1,000/month threshold. (UNHCR, 2012). In conclusion, the household income of most refugees is very low and leaves much to be desired.

Findings of the study further indicated that the very low rural settlements income levels compared to the urban ones explains why the urban areas have strong pull factors for rural based refugees and also why the strict freedom of movement and employment of refugees regulations will, unless

modified, continue to be violated as refugees have to earn livelihoods whether within or outside the provisions of the laws governing their hosting in Zambia. The young refugees who have graduated from tertiary and other higher institutions of learning, while grateful to UNHCR (2012) and other sponsors, are seriously concerned about the restrictions placed on their employment prospects in Zambia. For some of them, they have been born and bred in Zambia and are at a loss to appreciate why the denial of some right to work and freedom of movement privileges. The case study of the Rwandan businessman in Lusaka and that of the Congolese trader in Mayukwayukwa shows refugees' resilience and determination to make a living in Zambia. Both case studies point to the refugees' restrictions as a major constraint to their livelihoods. In the case of the Rwandese businessman in Lusaka, it is quite clear that the man is an entrepreneur who's potential to contribute to Zambia's national output and employment could be enhanced if adequate supportive environment improves for people like him. That he currently employs 10 Zambians in his various businesses is a pointer to positive macroeconomic contributions refugees can make to the national economy.

The refugees' contribution to human capital as employees both within and outside settlements is more pronounced in the rural areas than in Lusaka urban. Refugees are a major source of labour for the nearby villages – with refugees from the same country of origin; refugees from different country of origin; and UNHCR/UNHCR IPs/NGOs as major employers each using services provided by about 16% of the refugees as supported by UNHCR (2014). For this category of employers, their levels of employment is much lower inside the settlements than outside the settlements areas. Zambians relatively employ more refugees inside the settlements than in the nearby villages. From refugees' accounts, the low employment rates among Zambians could arise from the mistrust refugees have about Zambian employers. The latter allegedly agree payment terms with refugees but refuse to honour their sides of the deal once the work has been completed and threaten to report refugees to authorities for working without work permits. As stated above, the Burundi refugees in Meheba have worked closely with host community (in the Mumena Chiefdom) to train and transfer intensive rice-growing skills to the latter. Such interactions have increased rice production in the Chiefdom and helped raise levels of incomes among the beneficiary farmers. It can be argued from this case that some relaxation of the refugees work permit regulations to enable refugees to relocate to other areas of high rice production potential (Western, Luapula, Northern, Muchinga, Central, Copperbelt and Eastern provinces) such human capital transfer schemes could result in positive and significant multiplier effects on rice

production. In this context, the refugees would act as innovators and change agents and thus positively contribute to the diversification of Zambia's agricultural sector.

In conclusion, Zambia has made reservations to Articles 17 (2) and 26 of the 1951 Convention which, respectively, limits refugee rights to paid employment and to freedom of movement within the country. In this regard, the employment of refugees as employees or own-account self-employees is placed on the same footing as other foreigners who are required to apply for a work permit, with a supporting letter from the Office of the Commissioner for Refugees. Under the Immigration and Refugees Control statutes, refugees who want to establish businesses have to apply for investor permits and should have an investment of about K120, 000.00. When you meet this threshold then you can apply for investors permit at a fee of K5, 000.00. That is simply beyond the reach of many refugees, most of whom left their countries as a matter of life or death and not as potential investors. We have, however, demonstrated that Zambia has not made any reservation to article 18 of the 1951 Convention that permits refugees to be given favourable treatment when compared to other foreigners and thus be allowed to set up own-account self-employment livelihood activities.

The highest refugee concentrations are in some of the poorest countries in the world. A large number of such movements are into Least Developed Countries (LDCs). Arising from the findings of this study, the presence of refugees compounds the already prevailing economic, and social and, at times, political difficulties in these countries. Often such refugee camps as the case of Maheba are confronted by a combination of these factors. Nearly always their impact is substantial. Moreover, in many refugee situations, problems are aggravated when refugees are a substantial proportion of the local, if not national population. Similarly, Davidson and Carr (2010) reveal that the presence of refugees, and demands on the already severely strained economy, services and infrastructure add to the extreme hardship affecting the local populations. In many instances, refugees become an added impediment to, or risk jeopardizing, the development efforts of the host country. Their negative aspects may be felt long after a refugee problem is solved; for example, the damage to environment is a process and does not end with the repatriation of refugees. While the international emergency aid in response to such an emergency does have some positive effects on the host society, this hardly compensates for the negative consequences of such large concentrations of refugees.

According to the findings, from the moment of arrival, refugees compete with the local citizens for scarce resources such as land, water, housing, food and medical services. Over time, their presence

leads to more substantial demands on natural resources, education and health facilities, energy, transportation, social services and employment. They may cause inflationary pressures on prices and depress wages. This is in line with Swinkels et.al., (2011) who revealed that in some instances, they can significantly alter the flow of goods and services within the society as a whole and their presence may have implications for the host country's balance of payment and undermine structural adjustment initiatives. One example of market disturbances would be the need to rent accommodation for office and residential purposes, not just for expatriates, but also for locally engaged staff, in response to a refugee situation. Increased construction activity results, but this is usually accompanied by increases in rent, benefiting those who are property owners, but adversely affecting the poor and those on fixed incomes, such as government officers. Purchase of large quantities of building material may make them scarce or unobtainable for local people, while also generating inflationary effects. In conclusion, likewise, increased demand for food and other commodities can lead to price rises in the market which will stimulate local economic activity, although, again, not benefiting the poorest.

The presence of a large refugee population in Maheba areas inevitably also means a strain on the local administration. Host country national and regional authorities divert considerable resources and manpower from the pressing demands of their own development to the urgent task of keeping refugees alive, alleviating their sufferings and ensuring the security of the whole community. While most host governments generally have demonstrated a willingness to bear many of these costs, they are understandably reluctant to pay, as a price for giving asylum, the cost of additional infrastructure that may be needed to accommodate refugees.

Host governments expect, at the very least, that the international community will help compensate for the costs incurred in providing asylum for the refugees. No government of a low income country is prepared to contract loans or reallocate its previous development funds to programmes designed for, or required because of, large numbers of refugees on their land. With reference to Malawi, a World Bank-sponsored study of uncompensated public expenditures arising from the refugee presence in Malawi recommended an emergency assistance programme in 1990-91 of up to \$ 25 million. (UNHCR, 2014). According to a systematic analysis of public expenditures, this was the amount, after deduction of international aid provided through UNHCR, invested in refugee related government assistance and administration during the preceding two years. Other refugee hosting countries could cite comparable experiences.

This stimulus takes place, inter alia, through the local purchase of food, non-food items, shelter materials by agencies supplying relief items, disbursements made by aid workers, the assets

brought by refugees themselves, as well as employment and income accrued to local population, directly or indirectly, through assistance projects for refugee areas. The presence of refugees also contributes to the creation of employment benefiting the local population, directly or indirectly. Moreover, relevant line departments involved in refugee work as counterparts to UNHCR (2012), both at central and local levels, also benefit from UNHCR assistance aimed at strengthening their coping and management capacities. Such assistance may include equipment supply, capacity building and related training components. In conclusion, the economic impact of refugees on host areas, however, is not necessarily negative. An economic stimulus may be generated by the presence of refugees and can lead to the opening and development of the host regions.

The presence of refugees, as a focus of attention, can also attract development agencies to the host areas. While infrastructure is developed in the initial stage primarily to facilitate the work of host governments, UNHCR and its implementing partners in the refugee affected regions, it can also serve as a catalyst to 'open up' the host region to development efforts that would otherwise never reach these 'marginal' areas. While it is recognized that there may be some "positive" aspects to the impact of a refugee influx on the economic life of a host country, the large-scale presence of refugees invariably constitutes a heavy burden for receiving countries, particularly LDCs.

Findings of this study also revealed social impact of refugees on the community. If refugees are from the same cultural and linguistic group as the local population, there is often identification with and sympathy for their situation. There are many examples of refugees being given shelter in local people's houses. Different ethnicity, however, can be a basis for problems. Traditional animosities may exist between groups. Even if it is not the case, failures in communication and understanding caused by language and/or culture can form serious barriers. In some cases, the presence of one (ethnic) group of refugees may affect ethnic balances within the local population and exacerbate conflicts.

There are commonly complaints that refugees have added to security problems in general and crime rates, theft, murder etc., in particular. Concomitantly, other social problems such as prostitution and alcoholism are also claimed to rise in the refugee areas. This is in agreement with Stige and Sveaass (2010) who note that a particularly unsettling effect of the refugee presence has been the large increase in the incidence of violent crime in the areas around the camps, even though the violence has mostly been between refugees, and has not involved local people. On the other hand, enforced idleness and poverty within a refugee camp may cause an escalation of such

tendencies, particularly if there are groups of young men who are not meaningfully occupied. On the other hand, refugees, as an “out” group, can be blamed for all untoward activities. Incidence of crime may rise no more than would be expected in a population group of the new size, but in a remote and previously quiet area, this would not go unnoticed. If the area has become a hub of economic activity, as the presence of large scale aid would indicate, it may have attracted a group of people who will profit from the current situation and may not be constrained by the social and legal safeguards of the region. In a border area, this could include cross border problems.

A common source of discontent for a local population, especially one that is poor, is to see refugees receiving services or entitlements which are not available to them. Refugees may have access to services such as education and health while local people do not, although UNHCR, as a matter of principle, strives to promote an integrated approach to human services which respect the local policies. For example, similar to the situation in Maheba is that of DRC; a review of the impact of refugee health services in eastern Kivu, DRC, identified several problems, not the least of which was a failure of agencies to consult and coordinate with local health authorities. The provision of free health services for refugees undermined the local cost recovery approach. Higher salaries offered by NGOs encouraged staff to leave local clinics. Ironically, some of these staff were former refugees who had contributed to the development of those very services.

On the other hand, findings indicate that refugees can bring assets to the hosting area. Refugees indeed bring skills and knowledge with them that can be utilized to the benefit of local people. These skills vary, but do often include those of the more educated group, such as health professionals and teachers, who, even in limited numbers, can make a significant contribution in remote areas. An additional range of skills that can be brought by refugees may include an enterprise culture which can stimulate the local economy or offer innovative agricultural techniques previously unknown to the host areas. For example, refugees have introduced swamp land rice and extensive growing of sweet potatoes in Maheba, making use of previously vacant land and introducing new agricultural techniques. Refugees in Maheba have introduced new techniques of cultivating cassava as well, an important cash crop in north western.

The response of the international community to the impact of large refugee populations on host countries has been uneven, and characterized by different conceptual underpinnings and motivations. Within the conceptual framework which UNHCR sought to organize a response there was a facet of broader thinking on the relationship of refugee aid and development assistance, and

their relationship, in turn, to durable solutions to refugee situations. As developments took place over time in relation to each of these three components, so did the emphasis on readdressing the impact of refugees on host countries also change. Starting in the 1980s, the response was through what has become known as the "refugee aid and development" strategy in support with UNHCR (2012). This approach stressed the need for relief to be development-oriented from the outset. The goal was to move refugees towards self-sufficiency and a durable solution to their situation. A durable solution often envisaged at the time was local integration. In addition, the strategy sought to compensate for some of the adverse economic and social impacts of refugees on the host country.

It is on the basis of these Principles that UNHCR elaborated its "refugee aid and development" strategy which Zambia has emulated. Similar studies by Sweet (2007) indicate that from 1984 on, the terminology "Refugee Aid and Development Projects" began to be commonly used. Multi-year 'refugee aid and development' projects aimed, in part, at addressing some of the damage generated by the refugee pressure on host areas, were launched in China, Pakistan, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Sudan, Malawi, Ethiopia, the United Republic of Tanzania, DRC, Uganda, Mexico and Nepal. These were undertaken on a collaborative basis, typically involving both bilateral and multilateral inputs from agencies such as the World Bank, IFAD and UNDP, from Governments, such as the German Government through BMZ, and from the European Commission. (UNHCR, 2014)

According to UNHCR (2012), in 1991, UNHCR undertook a review of its efforts to promote refugee related development type projects (Programme and Technical Support Service (PTSS) The Report concluded that success had been limited due to the lack of funds for implementation. The shortage of funds was attributed to a range of factors: differences of opinion as to the sources of funding for such projects, with host country governments expecting additional resources for refugee-related development projects, and donor governments expecting that these projects be incorporated into, and funded, as part of national development plans; political and economic conditions for funding; the nature of some projects; lack of absorption capacity in project areas/countries; lack of proper coordination and follow-up of initiatives. While UNHCR and its development partners would normally be able to address the last three of these factors, it was the first two conditions which proved to be determining when it came to the viability of a project.

The difficulties experienced in the refugee aid and development approach has more than just historical significance. It reveals some of the conflicts of interest which can arise in the search for solutions to refugee problems, as well as the specific difficulties associated with a strategy focused on countries of asylum. In conclusion, despite the apparent clarity of the refugee aid and development notion, the ultimate objective of this approach remained essentially ambiguous.

According to the findings, as far as most asylum countries were concerned, the latter objective took precedence. Their principal interest in the refugee aid and development approach was to be compensated more adequately for the costs they were incurring by admitting refugees onto their territory. The world's donor states, however, were much more interested in finding lasting solutions to refugee problems than they were in the notion of compensation. In line with the above, Mehrab (2011) feels that they felt that the refugee aid and development concept was being used as a means of mobilizing additional development funds for some hard-pressed countries, rather than as a genuine effort to find lasting solutions to refugee problems. This suspicion was reinforced by their perception of the somewhat grandiose scale of the projects which they were asked to finance and the limited capacity of the countries concerned to make effective use of such large resource allocations.

In the face of new opportunities for large-scale repatriations, UNHCR's attention focused on another strategy, not overtly dissimilar to that of "refugee aid and development" in Zambia especially Maheba, this has been a challenge. This was the strategy of "returnee aid and development". It revolved around the same three components of refugee aid, development assistance and solutions, except that now the focus was on returnee aid and the need to involve development assistance in support of reintegration programmes to anchor the durable solution of voluntary repatriation. The important difference for UNHCR with this strategy, in its dealings with national governments and development and financial institutions, was that the beneficiaries were nationals of the country where development initiatives were being promoted. The complicating factor, however, was that a large number of these returns were to countries which had only recently emerged or were emerging from long conflicts. While such returns lifted a burden from the countries which had hosted them, it still left largely unresolved the damage caused to the social, economic and environmental systems of those countries. It can therefore be concluded that the return movements themselves have often caused further economic disturbances to local economies in the host country.

In conclusion the heavy price that host countries have to pay in providing asylum to refugees is now widely recognized. The rhetoric of international solidarity, however, is not always matched by support in addressing the negative impacts that large scale refugee movements have on these countries. The obvious and desired approach is to prevent refugee situations from arising in the first place. When these do occur and asylum has been generously extended by a host country, it is the responsibility of the international community to mitigate, to the extent possible, the negative impact of such inflows and to redress damage caused as a consequence. Such action must recognize that the impact and legacy of hosting large numbers of refugees sets new and unforeseen challenges that have to be met largely by developmental, not emergency assistance, yet rarely fit within development aid cycles. For this reason, as well as to safeguard the institution of asylum, the support to host countries must be additional. Such a response would be a tangible expression of solidarity and burden-sharing aimed at alleviating the burden borne by States that have received large numbers of refugees, in particular developing countries with limited resources.

5.2: Challenges refugees face in their community.

Findings of this study unveiled a number of challenges refugees face. Refugees, and immigrants especially, are faced with many barriers once they arrive in Zambia. One of the challenges is difficulty speaking and learning English and other local languages and this is in line with Davidson and Carr (2010) who indicate that language barriers create communication difficulties which may mean delays in diagnostics and in timely care. So one could imagine arriving in Zambia, unable to speak English or any other language. Try getting a job, making friends, or even completing basic tasks like buying food or filling out forms. To address this, many refugees and immigrants take English classes, but finding the time between jobs and caring for kids can be difficult. Especially difficult if you weren't literate in your native tongue to begin with. In conclusion, the use of interpreters is very important and cultural competency and sensitivity training can help in part to improve the needs of increasingly diverse populations.

The other challenge is raising children and helping them succeed in school. One of the biggest obstacles refugees and immigrant parents report is raising their children in a new, unfamiliar culture. Parents often find that their children are quickly 'Zambianised', which may be at odds with their own culture. Additionally, kids tend to pick up English much faster than their parents. This throws off the parent-child dynamic, and you know that kids, especially teens, are going to use this to their advantage. Similar to this, Costa (2006) reports that with regards to school, parents often feel disappointed to see their children struggling to keep up in class, and many parents report

bullying and discrimination as a result of cultural differences. Kids are often placed by their age rather than by their ability, and for those who are unable to speak English, it's virtually impossible to keep up. To add further insult to injury, parents may not have the education or language skills to assist their children, and they may not be able to communicate with faculty to address the problem.

Securing work is also another challenge faced by refugees. While most refugees and immigrants are happy to take whatever job is available when they first enter the country, finding a job, and slowly moving up the ladder, is incredibly difficult. Even if you ignore undocumented immigrants who face additional challenges securing work, trouble speaking English is a major problem in positions you might not expect like labour. Refugees and immigrants who are educated and who formerly had strong jobs back home, find it frustrating that they can't obtain the same jobs here. This is in line with Stige and Sveaass (2010) who report that employers typically prefer work experience within Zambia, and certifications outside of the Zambia usually do not transfer.

Additionally, refugees and immigrants are easy victims for discrimination and exploitation in the workplace. Some employers recognize the sense of urgency and desperation among these groups to keep their jobs, so they will have them take the less desirable and even dangerous roles. Undocumented immigrants, particularly, assume they have no rights, and workers who can't speak English are easy targets.

Securing housing is yet another hustle for refugees. One does not have to tell the other that safe, affordable housing is expensive. So imagine trying to obtain that with low-paying jobs. For that reason, large families often choose to live together, creating stressful, noisy environments that are hardly conducive to studying or resting. Again, refugees and immigrants fall victim to exploitation, this time from their landlords. In Meheba, for instance, some refugees were forced to live in apartments known by the landlord to have bedbugs. Once, one of those buggers was spotted, the families would be forced to pay an expensive fee to have them removed, and the landlord would attempt to charge them additional fees or threaten to evict them. Unable to speak English and unfamiliar with our laws, many of the families complied- even though it was clearly a scam.

Accessing services is difficult for refugees. Undocumented immigrants have an especially difficult time accessing services, largely because they are afraid of being deported. Consequently, people will avoid seeing the doctor or reaching out for services like legal guidance when they're badly needed. Those who are here legally aren't necessarily in the clear, though. Difficulty speaking

English, trouble taking off work, and limited transportation are all very real issues. Accessing mental health issues is especially problematic. Many times, refugees and immigrants have been exposed to violence, rape, even torture- but they may not know how to seek help, as a similar case studies done by with Swinkels et. al., (2011). Furthermore, mental health issues are taboo in many cultures, creating an additional barrier for those in need. For those who are able to successfully obtain the services they need, the experience is usually negative. In Maheba, there were stories about law enforcement professionals misunderstanding a victim's statement due to language barriers, and doctors misdiagnosing sick patients for the same reason.

Transportation is a problem as well. Like language barriers, trouble with transportation is an issue that affects nearly every aspect of life for refugees and immigrants. Obtaining a driver's license, whether documented or not, is extremely difficult for a variety of reasons. For those who don't speak English, a translator is needed, and they aren't easy to come by. Also, the driver must be literate in order to pass the written exam. With some luck, families will have one car to share among them, but getting kids to and from school, as well as getting adults to and from work can be challenging. As the case is in Maheba, many times, the men will keep the car, leaving it up to the women to find their own rides from friends or co-workers. As you can imagine, having so many people rely on one car makes it incredibly difficult to fit in additional commitments like English classes and medical appointments. While many refugees and immigrants do rely on public transportation to get around, it can be incredibly frightening for some.

Again, just like transportation and trouble in speaking English, cultural barriers transcend each and every aspect of life for refugees and immigrants. In Maheba for example, a group of refugees Saints were organizing a week long hike for youth in the bush. Some of the organizers thought it might be a nice idea to include some of the refugee youth, as a way in integrate them into the community and help them make friends with some of the local kids. I remember hearing about this and thinking it was such a wonderful idea. But, less than a day into the hike, some of the refugee kids became very upset. The hike, it turned out, had reminded them of the time when they were forced to flee their homes. In line with the above, Marshall et.al., (2005) argues that, despite the group's kindest intentions, these kids were being retraumatized. This just goes to show how easy it is for these kinds of cultural misunderstandings to take place.

In conclusion, understanding efforts to protect refugees around the world depends on grasping many issues, from the meaning of "protection," to the complexities of aid distribution. This understanding requires thinking through the actions and motivations of governments, aid workers,

academics, and the media. Complicated as they are, attempts to shed light on all of these topics are vital-to the hands-on work ahead, to achieving public understanding of these problems, and to formulating better policies.

5.3: Factors which enable or constrain refugees' to participate socially and economically.

It is noticeable that refugees do not participate much in Zambia. They are not given a platform to be heard, however, in Meheba community they reside, the Zambian government tried in all means to assist them and make all the necessary things available unlike leaving them in a vulnerable state. Thus, refugees views on the challenges they face are that they find difficulty in speaking and learning English. Most of them are unable to speak English. Try getting a job, making friends, or even completing basic tasks like buying food or filling out forms. To address this, many refugees and immigrants are supposed to take classes for language which they do not. Actually, to support this, Davidson and Carr (2010) reveal that refugees find difficulty to raising children and helping them succeed in school. One of the biggest obstacles refugee parents report is raising their children in a new, unfamiliar culture. Parents often find that their children quickly adapt which may be at odds with their own culture. Additionally, kids tend to pick up English much faster than their parents. This throws off the parent-child dynamic, and it is known that kids, especially teens, are going to use this to their advantage.

Furthermore, securing work is another factor to be considered so as to be sure of a steady income. While most refugees are happy to take whatever means of feeding themselves is available when they first enter the country, finding a job, and slowly moving up the ladder, is incredibly difficult. Even if they ignore undocumented refugees who face additional challenges securing work, trouble speaking English is a major problem in positions one might not expect like labor. Refugees who are educated and who formerly had strong jobs back home, find it frustrating that they cannot obtain the same jobs here. For instance, in line with the above, Rauchfuss and Schmolze (2008) explain that, refugees are easy victims for discrimination and exploitation. Some people recognize the sense of urgency and desperation among these groups, so they will have them take the less desirable and even dangerous roles. And also securing housing of their own is a challenge also and close to not possible. More, accessing services is another challenge in that refugees face difficult time accessing services, largely because they are afraid of being deported and the Zambian act does not allow them to move out of the camps

Information arising from the findings of the study indicate that accessing mental health help is especially problematic. Many times, refugees have been exposed to violence, rape, even torture-

but they may not know how to seek help. Transportation is also an issue, like language barriers, trouble with transportation is an issue that affects nearly every aspect of life for refugees. And cultural barriers, again, just like transportation and trouble speaking English, cultural barriers transcend each and every aspect of life for refugees. It seems that the obvious and most direct way for refugees to participate formally in the political life of their host countries is through voting. While reports show that approximately 45 countries worldwide have legislation granting the right to vote, mainly in local elections, to all or specific categories of resident aliens (Pedroza 2014; Earnest 2015), in the vast majority of countries the local or national franchise is still the prerogative of citizens. In conclusion, as a result, refugees must first naturalize before they are able to cast a ballot in their host country.

When certain members of a specific group are unable to participate, it is always possible to consider involving others and to gradually broaden that involvement as appropriate. A project that gradually increases the involvement of those who are affected by the crisis or disaster needs to be planned in a particular way or it will simply continue as it was during the initial phase. As in line with IRMA (1992), participation has proved to be a useful way of speeding up the pace of interventions, particularly because it brings to light methods, resources and ideas that otherwise would not have been identified. Participation does inevitably require a commitment from all stakeholders in terms of time, but this is easily made up through improved programme quality, increased impact and enhanced security. Participation requires confidence and trust. The amount of time needed to establish this largely depends on attitude, skills and the way in which project teams and aid organisations are perceived. Although time is often seen as being crucial in building confidence, the ability to listen and hear what people are saying, and keeping an open mind, have proven to be excellent ‘door openers’. Finding the right intermediary with the affected population is also more important than time.

Participatory processes also require a commitment in terms of time from the affected population. This factor can be especially important when populations are under severe economic or other forms of stress as is the case with refugees in Maheba. Actually IRMA (1992) laments that by giving up their time, they may allow opportunities to pass - time spent in meetings with you is time not spent earning a living, collecting water or foraging for food, and so on. Successful participation activities take into account participants’ own schedules and obligations, and successful participatory project teams demonstrate awareness of, and gratitude for, the time that people give to the project.

Effective participation will leave participants feeling that the time they invest in the process is worthwhile. People make active choices and their willingness to engage in participatory projects is likely to be influenced by perceptions of the potential impact on their well-being and survival. A lack of support can sometimes be attributed to a lack of confidence in the ability of aid agencies to make a difference. If power and decision making remain solely in the domain of humanitarian actors, there may be no perceived value in participating in a 'pre-determined' process. This is in line with UNHCR (2012) that reports that in crisis contexts, both affected populations and aid workers can be at risk. Conflict situations clearly present a range of security and protection risks, but even after natural disasters normal social protection mechanisms and the rule of law may break down, putting people at risk. The security of humanitarian personnel and the protection of affected populations are two facets of the same reality.

In conflict situations, it may seem like a good idea to question women and girls about their experiences of sexual violence to ensure that appropriate health and support facilities are provided. But, unless confidentiality and discretion are assured, it may put women and girls in danger of further victimization from within their own communities or from the original perpetrators. Such sensitive information should only be collected from individuals if really necessary. It may be more appropriate to ask about general trends of sexual violence rather than individual incidents unless there is a compelling reason for women and girls to describe their individual attacks.

As trust between your organisation and the affected population is built up through a participatory process, there may be a time when people will be more prepared to speak out about what is happening to them. The responsibility then falls on you to manage the information so as not to endanger the lives of informants, for example by numbering information sources rather than using names or details that will identify individuals etc.

Engagement with aid agencies such as participation in focus groups; armed factions may be suspicious of the motives of those who talk with aid agencies, particularly where such groups have accumulated (and presumably will continue to accumulate) political and economic benefit from conflict and disasters. In some situations having any kind of contact with aid agencies is considered subversive and puts people at risk of physical violence.(IRMA, 1992). Therefore, Provision of resources: Computers, money, vehicles provided to support the participation of a local committee or NGO in community consultations can become a target for looters or armed factions.

Findings from the study showed that risk to women; in communities where women are expected to remain within the home and not to participate in 'public' activities, women and girls participating

in discussion fora and project implementation may face condemnation from within their own communities for stepping outside of culturally and socially-approved gender roles. NGOs need to be aware of this, and provide support to women who may be at risk of violence and intimidation, and also need to make sure that men within the community understand why women are being included in the participatory process. Therefore, women refugees are at greater risk and this hinders them to participate freely.

Cultural access' concerns the difficulty that outsiders may have in relating to a local community as a result of linguistic, behavioural and other cultural barriers. This is of particular importance for expatriate personnel and international aid organisations, but it is also relevant when national aid organisations come from a different area or social group than the affected population. Differences in social background, education, language and accent, for instance, can all serve to create distance between aid workers and members of the affected population. It is essential, therefore, to work with one or more individuals who can not only act as translators, but also help you to interpret various signs and build 'cultural bridges', as in line with Sweet (2007) who notes that, questions arise over the level of protection refugees would be guaranteed under some immigration pathways where labour is seen as "temporary, self-sufficient, and ultimately removable. It is important to have a good intermediary within the affected population who can assist in contacting key stakeholders and groups. This can be a colleague from the particular social group, the representative of an appropriate aid organisation or a respected elder. Therefore, it should be born in mind, though, that such intermediaries are often men or women of high social status, and while they may think that they can speak for the whole community, they may be unaware of the particular needs, interests and skills of marginalised groups within the community.

5.5: Conclusion

This chapter provided a discussion on the research findings by looking at each one of the research objectives. The objectives were to; examine the extent to which refugees' can participate in employment levels in Zambia, examine the extent to which refugees' can participate in their community in Zambia, to identify the challenges refugees face in their community and explore the factors which enable or constrain refugees' to participate socially and economically. The chapter that follows wraps up the whole study.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0: Introduction

This chapter provide a conclusion of the whole study. The main purpose of this research was to examine challenges and prospects of refugees in employment and community participation in Zambia taking a case of refugee's community in Meheba refugee settlement. To conclude the study, recommendations and a suggestion for further research have been provided basing on the main findings.

6.1: Conclusion

The economic contribution of refugees to host economies has some controversies. Some scholars posit refugee settlements and camps as housing people who are helpless and dependent on humanitarian assistance. Others disagree and argue that refugee populations are actively engaged with and contribute positively to host-country economies – especially in the recent past when humanitarian budgets to protracted refugee areas The study also highlights a number of challenges that hinders refugees and former refugees to flourish economically and fully contribute to Zambia's economy. These include Zambia's reservations to 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees (right to work and freedom of movement) and some regulations of the 1970 Refugee Act (encampment of refugees). Refugees are also treated like other foreigners – who can only be granted work permits if no qualified Zambian is able to fill a vacancy. The fees of investment and business permits as well as work permits, also available for refugees, are often just too high. The study recommends removing several reservations that Zambia has made to the 1951 Convention to facilitate the full integration of refugees and to promote the full potential of refugees to contribute positively to Zambia's economy

6.2: Recommendations

Based on the main findings of this study, the following recommendations were made:

6.2.1: To the UNHCR

- The UNHCR should be operating on the grassroots direct with the refugees themselves. Having implementing partners is not logical or justifiable but the fact that mixing agendas with several organization to form one becomes a major challenge.
- The UNHCR through government institutions should ensure that state ministries to carry out their many initiated activities in a most prudent and efficient manner, however issues of red tape come on play and these deter effective participation.

6.2.2: To the humanitarian

- The humanitarian agencies should opt to operate from the top then at least there is a need to decentralize their decisions, let decisions be locally generated. Knowledge is situated, generalizing of programs based on proposed ideas working in one area to the other is the wrong way of assisting the victims.

6.2.3: To GRZ

- The GRZ should put in place a detailed screening process of refugees to determine those who were military combatants and non-military combatants so as to devise better practices in terms of social and economic participation of refugees in the community and to enhance the security of the nation as some of the refugees if let freely may be engaged into militia activities within the community. This will also enable refugees with skills and expertise to have access to gainful employment.
- Government institutions should put in strict adherence to rules, customs and norms of conducts by officers occupying these managerial positions who ought to be taken into ultimate consideration. The powers vested in some staffs are way too much, to take in Meheba for instance under MCDMCH, the overall project coordinator has the right and power to alter the vulnerability list, this is however not written down in any of the state regulations but it is just the working culture that is dominant in the area. No one has the capacity to alter or go against whatever the project coordinator decides on. Changing this, is however, far reached but alterations need to be put in place as this deters practices of effective participation among refugees.
- Tight measures should be considered on accountability, for development to be balanced in the area.

- The government should also allow the refugees to stand up for their rights. It is something hard to achieve but through unity they can definitely achieve something. As a refugee acknowledging and accepting the new status one has come in term with is one important gateway to escape the sense of self-pity. As such a feeling is likely to hinder the spirit of progress and always be dependent on others for one's survival. There are the ones in the best capacity to change their own predicament.

6.3: Suggestion for further research

In future, research is needed to be undertaken to establish why Zambia is attracting a lot of refugee settlement in the Southern region as compared to other countries.

6.4: Conclusion

This chapter has offered the conclusion of the study according to the objectives outlined in earlier chapters. Recommendations have also been provided. The recommendations have been provided based on the findings. A suggestion for future research has also be given to mark the end of this study.

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