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THE PLIGHT OF CHILDREN IN THE CHINGWIZI CAMP IN THE AFTERMATH OF THE TOKWE MUKORSI FLOOD DISASTER.

Submitted by
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THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

Introduction

A growing number of development approaches that focus on reducing the risk of disasters tend to treat children as passive victims with a limited role to play in communicating risks or preventing and responding to disasters (Mitchell and Tanner 2009). It follows that the subject of children’s rights in disaster management has not been given much attention. Children are a vulnerable group that usually constitutes the biggest number in terms of population. The vulnerability of children in disaster situations results in children being affected more as compared to adults who cope better and quickly. Government actors responding to disasters in most cases do not put a lot of effort in ensuring that children are accorded their rights in disaster situations to ensure their wellbeing. Disaster management has been dominated by top-down relief efforts targeted at adults, who are assumed to be attuned to the needs of their families and the wider community. They act harmoniously to protect their immediate and long-term interests. Excluding children from participating in the disaster response process threatens their safety and wellbeing and ignores a valuable resource for risk communication, education, advocacy, and help with practical risk reduction.

This study examines the extent to which children are affected by disaster situations and how difficult it is for them to access their rights in emergency situations. These rights include the right to education, shelter, health, food and participation. The study is carried out in Mwenezi District’s Chingwizi Holding Camp of Masvingo in Zimbabwe in the aftermath of the Tokwe Mukorsi flood disaster. This chapter highlights the features of the research, that is,
background to the study, statement of the problem, research objectives, and research questions. It goes on to look at the significance of the study, delimitation of study, conceptual framework, research limitations and definition of key terms.

**Background to the Study**

A flood disaster that occurred in Masvingo Province on February 3, 2014 resulted in the destruction of part of the Tokwe Mukorsi Dam. According to OCHA (2014), Masvingo Province received above average rainfall which resulted in river levels in the catchment area of the Tokwe Mukorsi Dam to rise rapidly. It was not foreseen that river levels would rise so quickly as Masvingo is a generally dry area. At the start of the floods in early February 2014, only 611 households had been relocated. Due to the magnitude of the disaster, the President, Cde R.G. Mugabe, immediately declared a state of disaster and subsequently, the issuing of a Government Appeal, which estimated that 20,000 people were at a high risk of flooding in the basin area upstream from the dam.

The Government had, as part of the dam construction project, planned a phased relocation plan which intended to resettle a total of 6,393 households (about 32,000 people) and their 18,764 cattle in three phases as follows: phase 1: 1,247 households from areas at risk to 660 m above sea level by October 2013; phase 2: 1,878 households who would be affected when the dam was expected to fill up in October 2014; and phase 3: 3,268 households in the buffer zone, who should be removed to protect the dam by October 2015. As a result of the flood disaster, there was an urgent need for the affected population to be relocated to the designated
resettlement camp at the Chingwizi section of Nuanetsi ranch about 120 km away. (OCHA Bullet 1, 2014)

The world over, disasters have been in existence since time immemorial not only in Zimbabwe but also in other African countries and the other continents. According to Eikenberg (2000) a number of well documented studies show that there has been a significant increase in natural disasters over the last decade. According to the Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters (CRED) (2010):

A disaster is a situation or event [which] overwhelms local capacity, necessitating a request to a national or international level for external assistance; an unforeseen and often sudden event that causes great damage, destruction and human suffering.

Disasters can be classified under three broad categories namely natural, natural hazards increased by humans and manmade. Natural disasters originate from forces of nature. The list of natural disasters include weather phenomena such as tropical storms, extreme heat or extreme cold, winds, floods, earthquakes, landslides and volcanic eruptions. According to Journalisten (2000) natural hazards increased by man are as a result of people who are increasingly responsible, directly or indirectly, for the consequences of events previously ascribed to forces beyond their control. These include deforestation for firewood or building materials which has resulted in landslides during heavy rainfall in Central and South America. Overgrazing of cattle has allowed desertification in the Sahel and uncontrolled housing construction close to beaches increases risks from tsunamis and storms. Manmade disasters are entirely as a result of human actions and these include road accidents, political unrests and armed conflicts. There is no single measure of a disaster that can capture the full
scope of a disaster (UNDP, 2009). A common measure is the number of people killed or affected.

Flood disasters are categorised under hydrological, that is, events caused by deviations in the normal water cycle and/or overflow of bodies of water caused by wind set-up. (Anonymous 2001) Flooding is the unusual presence of water on land to a depth which affects normal activities. Flooding can arise from overflowing rivers, heavy rainfall over a short duration referred to as flash floods, or an unusual inflow of sea water onto land which is ocean flooding. Ocean flooding can be caused by storms such as hurricanes, high tides, seismic events referred to as tsunami. Examples of flooding disasters and the extent of damage are highlighted below:

The three-months of flooding in Bangladesh and India in the summer of 1998 left more than 4,700 dead and 66 million homeless, destroyed 1.2 million buildings and indirectly caused several hundred deaths due to Epidemics (World Disaster report 2001).

Heavy rains in Venezuela in December 1999 caused floods and landslides that destroyed more than 23,000 houses. This disaster caused the death of about 30,000 people. (World Disaster Report, 2001).

At the beginning of 2000, over 650,000 people were made homeless by 2 cyclones and flooding in Southern Africa. Mozambique was particularly hard hit by this disaster. Over 2 million people in this country suffered in the aftermath (World Disaster report 2001).

It is interesting to note in the three case studies highlighted above that children are the greatest casualties in disaster situations as they are more vulnerable in any part of the world.
UNICEF Report, 2014). However, in these studies above, children were lumped together with adults and also statistical categories for them were not created. This therefore goes on to show that children are not given prominence in disasters.

Zimbabwe, as a country, has a history of flood disasters. According to the Civil Protection Report (2009) the Mzarabani and Guruve districts are some of the most vulnerable areas to flooding. The term Mzarabani in the local Shona language means flood plain or an area that is frequently flooded. The two districts are located in the Northern part of Zimbabwe, in the Zambezi Basin and Mozambique. The area is about 8,000km² and the population is estimated at 300,000 of which about 180,000 are women and children (INEE, 2010).

There are basically two types of floods affecting Muzarabani and Lower Guruve namely the seasonal flood which is frequent. This occurs in most years normally in January or February. This is at the peak of the rainfall season. This type of flood has put children in a more vulnerable condition which has resulted in children failing to attend school, some losing shelter, belongings and sometimes death by drowning year in year out.

In February 2000, Cyclone Eline hit the basin bringing with it intense storms. This cyclone induced flood is not frequent although it is becoming more common. In March 2003, the basin was again hit by Cyclone Japhet which also caused flooding in the area. Guruve and Mzarabani are affected by floods because of their location. The two are located downstream of Kariba Dam but upstream of Cabora Basa and at the confluence of Manyame and Msengezi Rivers. When the Kariba Dam rises to a certain level, water is released from the dam to avoid dam failure. Most releases are done between December and February. This
causes the discharge in the Zambezi to increase substantially. Manyame and Msengezi Rivers will thus not be able to discharge in the Zambezi and as a result, water begins to accumulate at the confluence of Manyame and Zambezi leading to flooding in the Guruve area. Further downstream, Cabora Basa Dam levels continue to rise and releases from the dam are exceeded by inflows due to releases from Kariba and Zambezi tributaries. The swelling of the Cabora Basa Dam leads to flooding in the area. This has led to loss of livestock and human life, crops and infrastructure have been destroyed leaving the rural folk, in general, poorer. The actual costs of the flood damages are not available as most of the assessments done so far are of a qualitative nature. (Mudavanhu, 2014; Red Cross, 2007; and IOM, 2007).

Women are the most affected since they are responsible for the day-to-day management of the families such as looking after the health of the child and securing food for the family (Save the Children, 2015). Disease outbreaks such as malaria and cholera have been quite common during this period. This therefore show the plight of children in flood disasters as universal as the Zimbabwean situation is similar to that in Africa and the world at large. The area under study is looking at the Tokwe Mukorsi flood disaster that took place in Masvingo in trying to bring out the plight of children in the aftermath of the disaster. This study thus aims at looking at how the Government upheld the rights of children in the aftermath of the flood disaster.

Statement of the problem

Zimbabwe is a signatory to the UNCRC which states that in article 3 State parties shall ensure that the institutions, services and facilities responsible for the care and protection of
children shall conform with the standards established by competent authorities, particularly in the areas of safety, health, in the number and suitability of their staff, as well as competent supervision. By ratifying the UNCRC, the Government of Zimbabwe committed itself to implement the provisions of this instrument (Munemo and Tom, 2013).

Children are a vulnerable group and have for a long time been marginalised, exploited, neglected and ignored (Cohen & Bradley, 2010). It follows that the lack of prioritization of child care and protection issues in disaster management has put the already vulnerable children at risk of abuse and exploitation (UNICEF, 2011). There is paucity in research with regards to the plight of children in emergency situations and how they lose their rights in disaster situations.

This paper will seek to fill the inherent gaps, add a dimension that will inform child protection actors of child care and protection response measures in terms of coordination and comprehensive responses. If this study is not done, the problem of the violation of children’s rights in disaster situations will continue unabated.

**Aim of the study**

This study seeks to unpack the problems faced by children affected by the Tokwe Mukorsi floods disaster in Mwenezi.

**Specific Objectives:**

i) To identify the problems that were encountered by children in Chingwizi Holding Camp.
ii) To analyze the challenges encountered in child protection responses.

iii) To establish measures that were put in place by the Government in trying to mitigate the plight of Children in Chingwizi Holding Camp.

iv) To proffer recommendations for effective child care and protection response mechanisms in disasters.

Research Questions

- What were the problems encountered by children in Chingwizi camp?

- Which children’s rights were violated in the Chingwizi holding camp?

- What were the challenges encountered in child protection response within Chingwizi Camp?

- What measures were put in place by Government in trying to mitigate the plight of children in Chingwizi Holding Camp?
Significance of the Study

It is hoped that the study will promote the prioritisation of children’s rights in emergencies from a policy perspective. Policy makers especially those that deal with children, children’s rights and child protection will craft relevant legislative measures. Influencing the study could influence policy makers so as to ensure that requisite legislative measures are put in place for future disaster responses in line with child protection. In terms of its contribution to knowledge, the research seeks to add to the existing body of literature on child protection during disasters and hopefully, could influence information for planning by providing information to stakeholders in the Child Protection Sector. This will also help government to plan and prioritise child protection in times of emergencies and those in academia. As an empirical study, information on Child protection response mechanisms in disaster situations will be provided so as to ensure that they are aware of the services in case of future emergencies. Therefore, children, their parents and caregiver’s will benefit.

Conceptual Framework

A lot of scholars have come up with different definitions with regards to disaster management. In terms of the conceptual framework, disaster management, disaster preparedness and civil protection are overarching concepts guiding the study. Disaster Management can be defined as the organization and management of resources and responsibilities for dealing with all humanitarian aspects of emergencies, in particular preparedness, response and recovery in order to lessen the impact of disasters (ICR, 2010). Disaster management is critical in disaster response as it is linked to disaster preparedness.
Preparedness is defined by DHS/FEMA (2011) as a continuous cycle of planning, organizing, training, equipping, exercising, evaluating, and taking corrective action in an effort to ensure effective coordination during incident response. Civil protection is an effort to protect the citizens of a state (generally non-combatants) from military attack. It uses the principles of emergency operations: prevention, mitigation, preparation, response, or emergency evacuation and recovery. This study will focus on the three key areas relating to Disasters that is disaster management, disaster preparedness and civil protection with a particular focus on children and their access to their rights.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Social Exclusion Theory

From the theoretical framework perspective, the Social Exclusion or Marginalization Theory is being used to guide the study. This theory was proposed by Townsend (1970) who argues that social exclusion is the process in which individuals or entire communities of people are systematically blocked from or denied full access to various rights, opportunities and resources that are normally available to members of a different group. These are fundamental to social integration within that particular group for example housing, education, healthcare, civic engagement, participation, and due process. Alienation or disenfranchisement resulting from social exclusion is often connected to a person's social class, educational status, childhood relationships, living standards, or personal choices in fashion (Saunders, 2003).

Such exclusionary forms of discrimination may also apply to people with a disability, drug users Care Leavers "seniors", or young people especially children. Anyone who appears to
deviate in any way from the "perceived norm" of a population may thereby become subject to coarse or subtle forms of social exclusion. (Saunders, 2003). The outcome of social exclusion is that the affected individuals or communities are prevented from participating fully in the economic, social, and political life of the society in which they live (Social Exclusion Unit 2003).

Social exclusion is a multidimensional process of progressive social rupture, detaching groups and individuals from social relations and institutions and preventing them from full participation in the normal, normatively prescribed activities of the society in which they live (UNICEF, 2012). In an alternative conceptualization, UNESCO (2011) states that social exclusion theoretically emerges at the individual or group level on four correlated dimensions: insufficient access to social rights, material deprivation, limited social participation and a lack of normative integration. It is then regarded as the combined result of personal risk factors age, gender, race; macro-societal changes demographic, economic and labor market developments, technological innovation, the evolution of social norms; government legislation and social policy; and the actual behavior of businesses, administrative organisations and fellow citizens. Children are excluded from issues affecting their rights especially food, shelter, education, health and participation.

**Delimitation**

The research focuses on the plight of children in Chingwizi camp in the aftermath of the Tokwe Mukorsi floods. Information is collected from children, parents, key informants and
residents in Chingwizi section in the Nuanetsi Ranch where victims of the Tokwe Mukorsi floods were resettled post disaster.

Limitations of the Study

The following are some of the potential limitations to the study by the researcher during the study. It was impossible to reach out to all the people residing in Chingwizi Camp because of the lack of systematic residing pattern compounded by no addresses and no linear pattern in terms of residential patterns. However, a few beneficiaries whose places of residence could be ascertained were selected to inform the study.

Some respondents, especially government employees (key informants) and community leaders may not be readily available for interviews due to work commitments. To minimise this limitation, appointments were made in advance so that interviews took place once the participants had confirmed their availability.

Some respondents were only willing to participate if they were incentivized in monetary terms or otherwise. To this end, participation will be elicited after carefully explaining to them the benefits associated with participating such as its significant contribution to future child protection response mechanisms.
Definition of Key Terms

Terms used in this proposal should be understood within the context below:

- **Child**: Every human being below the age of 18 years is a child.

- **Protection**: refers to preventing and responding to violence, exploitation and abuse against children— including commercial sexual exploitation, trafficking, child labour and harmful traditional practices, such as female genital mutilation/cutting and child marriage.

- **Children’s rights**: The core concept of a right is that of an agreement or ‘social contract’ which is established between the person(s) who holds a right (often referred to as a ‘rights-holder’) and the person(s) or institutions(s) which then have obligations and responsibilities in relation to the realisation of that right (often referred to as the ‘duty Bearer’) (Save the Children, 2005: 14).

- **Disaster**: a serious, damaging effect on human life, property or activity which results from the impact of a hazard that has exceeded its critical levels. A serious disruption of the functioning of a community or a society involving widespread human, material,
or environmental losses and impacts which exceeds the ability of the affected community to cope using only its own resources.”

- **Floods;** an unusually high stage of a river where the river channel becomes filled with water and above which it overflows its banks.

- **Disaster management;** It is the organization and management of resources and responsibilities for dealing with all humanitarian aspects of emergencies, in particular preparedness, response and recovery in order to lessen the impact of disasters.

- **Disaster Preparedness** is a continuous cycle of planning, organizing, training, equipping, exercising, evaluating, and taking corrective action in an effort to ensure effective coordination during incident response.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

The study will review literature related to child care and protection and disaster management responses particularly child protection interventions. Literature pertaining to the global responses towards child protection in disaster management shall be reviewed in order to have a contextual understanding of the efforts that have been put in place in previous disasters in the global context and Zimbabwe in particular. In addition, the historical background of the disaster management shall be apparent in the literature review and the theoretical discourses that have been propounded by various scholars will also be reviewed. Children’s rights under the UNCRC will be looked into to a greater length since Zimbabwe is a signatory to the Convention on the rights of children.
Child care and protection response is a human rights issue under the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) which outlines the fundamental rights of children including the right to be protected from economic exploitation and harmful work, from physical or mental violence, as well as ensuring that children will not be separated from their families against their will (UNICEF, 2011). These rights are further refined by two optional protocols, one on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography and the other on the involvement of children in armed conflict. This therefore means that, since Zimbabwe is a signatory to the UNCRC which was ratified in 1990, there is a need by the Government to ensure that always children protection mechanisms are in place so as to protect children in all situations including disasters.

This can be achieved through building a protective environment for children that will help prevent and respond to violence, abuse and exploitation. This involves eight essential component which include strengthening government commitment and capacity to fulfil children’s right to protection, promoting the establishment and enforcement of adequate legislation, addressing harmful attitudes, customs and practices, encouraging open discussion of child protection issues that include media and civil society partners, developing children’s life skills, knowledge and participation, building capacity of families and communities, providing essential services for prevention, recovery and reintegration, including basic health, education, protection, establishing and implementing ongoing programmes and effective monitoring, reporting and oversight. These strategies strengthen the protective environment for children.
Though few strides that have been made by some international actors in developing standards to be used in Child protection in emergencies, implementation of these standards has largely been haphazard. In this realm, it becomes imperative to assess the plight of children in situations of disaster. This study will focus on the challenges faced by children in the aftermath of the Tokwe Mukorsi flood disaster and particular attention will centre on the gaps and key actors in responding to children’s issues.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This segment confined itself to outlining the research design that the researcher used. This section explained a number of data mining tools that were used in gathering important responses from the sampled study informants. Sampling is an important aspect of any study; therefore, in that regard, this chapter captured the sampling strategy that was used by the researcher. Respondents are the backbone of any research and research being potentially harmful in numerous ways, this chapter delved on how the responses were protected throughout the course of the study. Challenges that affected the study are discussed in this section.

The researcher will use qualitative research in a bid to hear children’s voices in light of their plight in Chingwizi camp. Qualitative research is concerned with qualitative phenomenon, that is, phenomena relating to or involving quality or kind. This type of research aims at discovering the underlying motives and desires, using in depth interviews. Other techniques of such research are word association tests, sentence completion tests, story completion tests and similar other projective techniques. Attitude or opinion research, that is, research
designed to find out how people feel or what they think about a particular subject or institution is also qualitative research. Qualitative research is especially important in the behavioural sciences where the aim is to discover the underlying motives of human behaviour. Through such research we can analyse the various factors which motivate people to behave in a particular manner or which make people like or dislike a particular thing. It may be stated, however, that to apply qualitative research in this study is of paramount importance.

Research Design

Population

Polit and Hungler (1999:37) refer to the population as “an aggregate or totality of all the objects, subjects or members that conform to a set of specifications.” Therefore, in this study the population is made up of all the people displaced by the Tokwe Mukorsi flood including children and those who came to provide assistance from Civil Society and Government actors.

Sampling

Purposive sampling: A non random selection of participants on purpose will be utilized. The purposive sampling technique, also referred to as judgment sampling, is the deliberate choice of an informant due to the qualities the informant possesses. It is a nonrandom technique that does not need underlying theories or a set number of informants. Simply put, the researcher decides what needs to be known and sets out to find people who can and are willing to
provide the information by virtue of knowledge or experience (Bernard 2002, Lewis & Shepard 2006). Purposive sampling is especially exemplified through the key informant technique (Bernard 2002).

The variables to which the sample is drawn up are linked to the research question. Child protection stakeholders and the families who were residing at the Chingwizi camp will be selected for the study for convenience in order to assess the effectiveness of the response mechanisms that were put in place for children to be accorded their rights, cared for and protection. Increases credibility of research, as participants are involved in the research process.

The researcher used judgemental sampling to select the households that participated in the study in Chingwizi. This sampling method was used because it afforded the researcher to have direct control over elements to be included in the sample (Flick 1988). The participants that were interviewed using in-depth interviews and those that participated as key informants were selected based on their participation in different activities with Child protection actors within the camp. The Project Officers who were working in Chingwizi Camp were selected because of their knowledge of the Tokwe Mukorsi disaster and the response mechanism put in place. Community leaders were interviewed using in-depth because they played a critical role during the aftermath of the flood disaster. Furthermore, the community leaders are the custodians of local development. The use of judgemental sampling is justified on many fronts because it involves less costs and less time required to select sampling group members compared to other sampling methods but at the same time guaranteeing quality and quantum of data.
Data Collection Methods

In-Depth Interviews

In-depth interviews were used in the study to get a deeper and conspicuous understanding of the plight of children and what measures if any were put in place by the relevant stakeholders. Kothari (2006) argues that in depth interviews are those interviews that do not use already determined set of questions and answers. In -depths interviews afforded the researcher ample opportunity to probe stakeholders on their strategies to ensure Children are accorded their rights and enjoy them regardless of the disaster situation. In depth interviews afforded the researcher to find out personal and lived experiences on how the flood disaster has changed children’s lives. In depth interviews were conducted with 20 children and 4 stakeholder’s three of which were from the government and humanitarian workers that were working in Chingwizi camp.

Key Informant Interviews

Interviews will be conducted for key informants. The key informants will include the the Probation officer in the Department of Child Welfare and Probation Services Officer, the key stakeholders such as the District Administarator and the NGO’s that contributed towards responding to child care and protection in emergency situation the interview technique shall
enable the researcher to solicit information with regards to how the response was coordina ted.

An interview is a two person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research relevant information and focused by him on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction or explanation (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000: 24). This definition is supported by Best and Kahn (1993: 251), who define an interview as “an oral questionnaire.” Qualitative interviewing is a kind of guided conversation where the researcher carefully listens so as to understand the meaning of what is being conveyed. This allows the researcher to produce a rich and varied data set through a thorough examination of experiences; feelings and opinions that closed questions could never hope to capture. This makes interviews very appropriate for this study as they provide information that relates to people’s experiences, opinions, feelings and expectations. One of the advantages of the interview is that the researcher can explain more explicitly the purpose of the investigation and the kind of data he or she wants. However, there are some disadvantages associated with interviews, such as the interviewer’s presence that may make the respondents feel uncomfortable when sensitive issues are discussed. The interviewer’s bias towards race, social class or age group might also make respondents feel uncomfortable, or even influence the outcome of the interviewee response. To minimise the chances of biased responses, the researcher will emphasise the issue of confidentiality and will also conduct the interview in a relaxed atmosphere.

Observation

The researcher was also an insider since he was part of the response team that worked and stayed in the Chingwizi Camp. Therefore, the researcher also observed what was happening and recorded. Generally, insider-researchers are those who choose to study a group to which
they belong (Breen, 2007). Bonner and Tolhurst (2002) identify three key advantages of being an insider-researcher: (a) having a greater understanding of the culture being studied; (b) not altering the flow of social interaction unnaturally; and (c) having an established intimacy which promotes both the telling and the judging of truth. Further, insider-researchers generally know the politics of the institution, not only the formal hierarchy but also how it “really works”. They know how to best approach people. In general, they have a great deal of knowledge, which takes an outsider a long time to acquire (Smyth & Holian, 2008). The researcher interacted with the Chingwizi camp community on a day to day basis and managed to observe a lot in terms of the challenges that were being faced by children.

**Data Presentation and Analysis**

The study being qualitative in nature, data from key informant interviews, In depth interviews, and observations was first translated into English. A lot of reading and analysis followed to establish themes emerging from the data and these themes are chapterised.

**Ethical Considerations**

When conducting researches, participants have the right to safety. Hence it is proposed that rapport should be created where everyone concerned is assured of safety and is empowered to uphold safety. There is therefore need to avoid exposing participants to risk and protect vulnerable populations.
It is proposed that in this research, people have the right to access information concerning their involvement in the research so that they make informed decisions towards participation. Research will be conducted on a voluntary basis from the beginning and withdrawal at any stage and for any reason shall be allowed without fear of victimisation.

Confidentiality shall be key when handling personal and sensitive information from research participants. Since the area under study comprise of sensitive information about clients, most of which are Children fictitious names will be used. The participants will be assured that the outcome of the research will be kept confidential.

**BUDGET**

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CHAPTER 1:

TOKWE MUKORSI FLOOD DISASTER

FLOOD DISASTERS; A GENERAL OVERVIEW

There is no single measure of a disaster that can capture the full scope of a disaster. A common measure is the number of people killed or affected. The individual will consider the impact on his or her family and livelihood. Disaster managers will assess the speed and success of the disaster response. Economists will measure physical loss to houses and buildings and loss of production. Politicians will assess political damage from a poor response by state agencies. Health workers will consider the resources required to contain an outbreak of meningitis or Ebola. Others may focus on the nature of the hazard, the social consequences and the impact to specific elements of the infrastructure. To think seriously about a disaster means we must consider all affected and their losses both in the immediate and the longer term. Disasters can be categorized into three broad categories namely Natural Disasters, natural hazards increased by humans and Manmade disasters. (WHO 2011)

CONCEPTUALISATION OF DISASTERS

Disasters have been a part of human life since time immemorial. The disaster timeline lists some of the significant disasters that occurred in the world over the past century. There has been a lot of debate on the term disaster itself. Many scholars have diverse views on what really constitutes a disaster. Quarantelly, 1998; Quarantelly & Perry, 2005). Some link the
existence of a disaster to a specific amount of losses sustained in terms of people killed and those that are injured. Some look at the extent of the damage in terms of infrastructure destroyed, others look at its geographical extent and significance compared to normal conditions, while some express a disaster in terms of its monetary value in losses. A disaster has been defined as,

a sudden overwhelming and unforeseen event which can take place at different levels ranging from family to national or even regional level, (Quarantelly 1998).

According to the World Health organisation (2002) it defines a disaster as,

An occurrence disrupting the normal conditions of existence and causing a level of suffering that exceeds the capacity of adjustment of the affected community. Most disasters result in the inability of those affected to cope without outside assistance.

The two definitions are clear in that they bring a point that disasters are not planned and usually are unforeseen. These disasters occur in different contexts and have different magnitudes. The differences can be in terms of how many people have been killed or to what extent has property been destroyed. It should therefore be of importance to note that there can never be a consensus on the actual definition of a disaster as different parts of the world view disasters differently.
Disasters come in three broad categories namely natural disasters, natural hazards increased by humans and Manmade disasters.

**Natural disasters**

Natural disasters are those originating from forces of nature and are often referred to as’ acts of God’. These kinds of disasters can include weather phenomena such as tropical storms, extreme heat or extreme cold, winds, floods, earthquakes, landslides and volcanic eruptions. In simple terms these kinds of disasters are beyond humans as they do not have a role to play in their occurrence. According to anonymous (2008) Natural disasters can further be subdivided into Geophysical which looks at events originating from solid earth, meteorological that is events caused by short-lived/small to meso-scale atmospheric processes in the spectrum from minutes to days. Hydrological events caused by deviations in the normal water cycle and/or overflow of bodies of water caused by wind set-up, climatological which is caused by long-lived/meso- to macro-scale processes in the spectrum from intraseasonal to multi-decadal climate variability and finally Biological disaster caused by the exposure of living organisms to germs and toxic substances.

**Natural Hazards Increased by Humans**

There are natural hazards that occur only because human beings will have altered their natural state resulting in disasters. There is evidence to show that people are increasingly responsible, directly or indirectly, for the consequences of events previously ascribed to
forces beyond their control. Many disasters arising from natural hazards would not have occurred or would have had a smaller impact on communities had it not been for actions by people, for example, deforestation for firewood or building materials has resulted in landslides during heavy rainfall in Central and South America; overgrazing of cattle has allowed desertification in the Sahel; uncontrolled housing construction close to beaches increases risks from tsunamis and storms; removal of wetlands has eliminated a natural mitigating factor for the damage caused by tropical storms; political systems have turned droughts into famine, particularly in Africa. (UNISDR 2009)

Disasters Caused by Humans

Though weather and geologically related disasters are considered to have generated the greatest number of deaths and economic loss, disasters generated by humans are increasing in importance. These are referred to as the works of humans meaning that they are manmade disasters. These are transportation accidents, industrial accidents, release of hazardous materials and the collapse of buildings. A popular example of a manmade disaster is that of the September 11 world trade Centre that destroyed the twin towers in America which was as a result of a plane that crashed into the twin towers. Rapidly increasing transport of people and commodities across continents means that transportation disasters pose increasing Threats to millions. Armed conflicts such as the war in Iraq, the democratic republic of Congo and South Sudan have resulted in a humanitarian catastrophe.
Historical view of Disasters

Disasters have occurred long before recorded history across the globe. For example, in approximately 1500 B.C., the Mediterranean Stroggli Island blew up after a tsunami nearly eradicated the Minoan civilization. The area is now called Santorini, and Plato referred to it as the site where the city of Atlantis disappeared under the waves (Crossley, 2005). In 3000 B.C., a major global paleo-climate event, of which little is known, appears to have affected sea-level vegetation and surface chemistry. It is speculated that this disaster may have been the flood recorded in the Old Testament of the Bible. About 65 million years ago, a space rock hit the Earth and wiped out dinosaurs and countless other animal species.

Many other natural disasters occurred globally prior to Hurricane Katrina. Similar to Hurricane Katrina, they were cataclysmic events that reshaped government policy and captured the nation’s empathy for generations. The disaster timeline lists some of the significant disasters that occurred in the world over the past century. The lessons learned paved the way for major changes in the delivery of disaster and crisis services as we know it today. These disasters are reviewed because of the impact they had in terms of loss of life and property damages, as well as the contribution they made in the development of the crisis and disaster field.

In terms of how people reacted and responded to these disasters varies and as we moved towards the 21st Century more advances in technology have resulted in early warning systems which help in mitigating the damage.

The UNISDR goes on to indicate: “Disasters are often described as a result of the combination of: the exposure to a hazard; the conditions of vulnerability that are present; and
insufficient capacity or measures to reduce or cope with the potential negative consequences. Disaster impacts may include loss of life, injury, disease and other negative effects on human physical, mental and social well-being, together with damage to property, destruction of assets, loss of services, social and economic disruption and environmental degradation.”

**DISASTERS – A GLOBAL VIEW**

Since 1999 alone the world has witnessed volcanic eruptions in Japan, the Philippines’ and Nicaragua, earthquakes in Iran, Guatemala, Costa Rica and Turkey. Devastating floods in China, a cyclone in Bangladesh, tidal wave in Nicaragua. The US has had a devastating hurricane Andrew. Such events are on the increase. In terms of natural disaster related death developed countries suffered only 3% of the world’s major disasters but death rates in the less developed nations were about 100 times greater (World Disaster Report 2014).

The Table below shows that disasters that occur in third world countries especially in African countries have had the highest causalities with Ethiopia and Sudan recording deaths totaling to 450-000 when the two countries were hit by a drought. The challenge with disaster statistics is that they do not separate children from adults when reporting thereby making it very difficult to know the exact numbers in terms of children who are affected by disasters the world over. This supports the notion that children are indeed marginalized in disaster situations even in terms of reporting.
**Table 2**

Disaster Database

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Hazard</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number killed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>Earthquake</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>10-000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>Earthquake</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>242-000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>Earthquake</td>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>23-000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>Cyclone</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>14-204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>Earthquake</td>
<td>Iran</td>
<td>25-000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>Drought</td>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>100-00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>Drought</td>
<td>Ethiopia And Sudan</td>
<td>450-000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>Volcano</td>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>21-800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>Cyclone</td>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>10-000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>Cyclone</td>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>10-000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>Earthquake</td>
<td>Soviet Union</td>
<td>25-000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>Earthquake</td>
<td>Iran</td>
<td>40-000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>Cyclone</td>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>138-886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>Hurricane</td>
<td>Hondorus</td>
<td>14-600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Flood</td>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>30-000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Earthquake</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>17-127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Earthquake</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>20-005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Earthquake</td>
<td>Iran</td>
<td>26-796</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Heat wave</td>
<td>France; Italy</td>
<td>34-947</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Tsunami</td>
<td>Indian Ocean</td>
<td>226-404</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Earthquake</td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>73,338</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data Source: EM-DAT OFDA/CRED International
Disasters have affected all parts of the world including Africa, particularly Southern Africa. However, the management of disasters and the risk associated with disasters in most Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries becomes the responsibility of Government. The number of disasters reported in Africa has increased significantly since the 1970s (EMDAT, 2009). Over the last four decades, Sub-Saharan Africa has experienced more than 1000 disasters, with 300 disasters in the last five years alone. Since then more than 330 million people were affected by droughts, floods, cyclones, earthquakes and volcanoes in Africa most of which were children (EMDAT, 2010). Disasters in Sub-Saharan Africa are predominately hydro-meteorological and climatological, and comprise cyclones and storms, floods, landslides, extreme temperatures, wild fires and droughts. Geological disasters, such as earthquakes and volcanoes, occur to a lesser extent. Droughts affect the most number of people on the continent, followed by floods and storms. Drought and floods together account for 80 percent of loss of life and 70 percent of economic losses linked to natural hazards in Sub-Saharan Africa (African Union et al., 2008). The EMDAT database classifies a “disaster” when one or more of the following criteria are met: 10 or more people reported killed through a disaster event; 100 or more people reported affected through a disaster event, declaration of state of emergency, and call for international assistance. Total people affected, Sum of affected, homeless, injured. (EMDAT 2012)

Drought has been a perennial feature in most parts of the region since the early 1980s. SSA was affected by serious drought episodes in 1965-66, 1972-74, 1981-84, 1986-78, 1991-92 and 1994-95. The aggregate impact of drought on the economies of Africa can be large: 8-9

Floods are among the most devastating natural hazards in Africa, including flash floods caused by tropical cyclones and severe storms. Devastating floods have been reported in major cities across the region. The 2000 floods in Mozambique cost an estimated $550 million and lowered GDP growth rate to 1.5 percent (Mozambique’s growth averaged 7.5 percent annually during 1994-2003). (World Bank 2005)

Epidemics and famine, the next most significant causes of loss of life in SSA, are strongly linked to meteorological and hydrological conditions. The ongoing climate change process will result in increased intensity, frequency and variability in the patterns of hydro-meteorological hazards. In response to growing risks, a number of major efforts are underway at the regional, sub-regional, and national levels to reduce vulnerability.

FLOOD DISASTERS –SOUTHERN AFRICA

The effects of climate change are being faced in Southern Africa due to heavy seasonal rainfall causing flooding. As of 16 Jan 2015, 135,000 people had been affected in Malawi, Mozambique, Madagascar and Zimbabwe. (OCHA, 16 Jan 2015)

The Southern Region of Malawi received 400% higher rains than usual ac compared to the Long Term Mean) causing the Shire River to reach its highest level in 30 years. Heavy rains experienced in the first quarter of 2015 caused flooding in 15 of the 28 districts in Malawi, most of which are located in the southern part of the country. The President declared a state
of disaster on 13 January 2015. (IFRC, 17 July 2015) An outbreak of cholera was confirmed with the first cases crossing the border from Mozambique in February 2015. As of 23 June 2015 there had been 693 reported cases and 11 deaths.

In the 2014-2015 rain season, Mozambique was hard-hit by heavy rains and floods particularly in the second half of the season - January to March 2015 in the Central and North of the country. Due to the significant reduction on rainfall occurrence in the country and region as well as all the river basins standing currently below alert level, the CTGC has downgraded on 10 April 2015 the institutional Orange alert to Green alert, marking the end of emergency response actions and focusing more on recovery and prevention actions, UN RC, 24 Apr 2015. The floods also exacerbated a Cholera outbreak.

Zimbabwe experienced widespread flooding across the country, with the worst affected provinces including Manicaland, Mashonaland Central, Mashonaland East, Mashonaland West and Midlands. According to preliminary assessments, approximately 6,000 people (1,200 households) have been affected, of which 2,500 people (500 households) are in urgent need of assistance. The flood-affected population has moved to higher ground, with some seeking refuge in schools. (IFRC, 13 Jan 2015)

In Madagascar, weeks of heavy rainfall had already caused high river levels and soil saturation when Tropical Storm Chedza crossed the island on 16 Jan. continuing rainfall not only exacerbated the impact of Chedza, but also caused flood conditions over the north of the country. (OCHA, 21 Jan 2015) Following the breakdown of the Sisaony dam, the flooding in the greater Antananarivo worsened, and on 27 February 2015, a Red Alert (danger) was declared. By 9 March 2015, it was reported that 93,000 people were affected, and 40,000
displaced (BNGRC). Around 13,100 hectares of rice fields flooded, and many schools were closed while being used as temporary accommodation centers. (IFRC, 23 Mar 2015)

**Tokwe Mukorsi Flood Disaster**

**History of the Tokwe Mukorsi Dam**

The idea of the Tokwe Mukorsi Dam was mooted in 1955 when the then Rhodesian government embarked on a “Green Revolution” which saw them built dams like Lake Kyle (Now Mutirikwi), McIlwaine (Chivero) after the completion of Lake Kariba. Tokwe Mukorsi sited on the confluence of Tugwi and Mukosi River’s was meant to be life changing as it was to be the biggest inland water reservoir in Zimbabwe. Its construction was however affected by the then unilateral declaration of Independence by Ian Smith which resulted in a liberation struggle that led to the 1980 Independence that gave birth to Zimbabwe. Secondly the fall of the Zimbabwean dollar on the 14th of November 1997 which is famously referred to as the “Black Friday” also meant the postponement of the construction of the dam. The multi currency regime led to the resumption of the dam construction which now sits at 90% completion. (Sunday mail 28/02/15). Development meets disaster can best explain the situation around the Tokwe Mukorsi dam as the dam construction is for the development of an area that receive very few rainfall that resulted in more than 20,000 people homeless.

Heavy rains due to climate change in late January and early February 2014 resulted in flooding around Tokwe Mukorsi Dam with displacement of people, coupled with destruction of livestock and property. According to the Ministry of Local Government, public works and national housing there were plans to relocate the families in three phases. However the
government plans were disrupted because of the heavy rains and flooding which had not been anticipated. A National disaster was declared by the President on the 9th of February in order to mobilise more resources to assist affected families (Herald newspaper 9 February 2015).

Before the flooding from 5 February 2014, a total of 611 families had been relocated and integrated within communities in Masangula and Chisase sections of Nuanetsi ranch. According to the District Administrator for Mwenezi a total of 3,338 households with an estimated 15910 people are living in Chingwizi Holding camp, most of which are children below the age of 18 years (OCHA 2014).

The occurrence of a disaster of this magnitude resulted in a state of disaster being declared. When a government declares a state of emergency—or does not make such a declaration—this decision determines the legal and operational resources available to respond to an emergency and has implications for governments, the private sector, and the public. In Most cases for the international community to be able to intervene the state of emergency should have been declared followed by an appeal for assistance. When the leadership of a country declares a state of emergency the disaster response is intensified. In the Zimbabwean case there is the Department of civil protection Unit which falls under the Ministry of Local Government Public Works and National Housing which is chaired by the Provincial Administrator and District Administrator at District level. The Civil protection Unit has been criticised by the media on a number of occasion for its lack of preparedness in cases of disasters. The Zimbabwe Independence Newspaper of February 21 2014 ran a story titled “Tokwe-Mukorsi disaster: CPU exposed” highlighting the lack of preparedness by the department leading to a massive disaster that was avoidable. Another daily Zimbabwean paper Newsday dated 28 October 2014 had a headline titled “Only 7 Civil Protection Unit
employees to serve Zimbabwe”. This article was arguing how understaffed the CPU was as it only had 7 employees for the whole country. Their argument was there was no way this department would respond on time as they were not many. Finally the state run Herald (23 October 2015) had a title “C.P.U sleeping on the Job”. Here they were analysis the CPU response on a number of flood disasters that had occurred across the country.

A critical analysis of the three different articles has a universal theme which is ringing out the weaknesses of the CPU in disaster response in Zimbabwe. This does add to the plight of children in Zimbabwe during disaster situations. The number of people internally displaced was alarming especially in terms of the number of children and the elderly who are the most vulnerable. The next chapter looks at the challenges that were faced by children in Chingwizi camp in the aftermath of the Tokwe Mukorsi flood disaster.
CHAPTER 2
SOCIAL IMPACT OF FLOODS ON CHILDREN

The Government of Zimbabwe prior to the Tokwe-Mukorsi flood disaster at the outset of the dam construction had done an assessment that showed that 6,393 families living around Tokwe-Mukorsi would need to be relocated. It designated three relocation sites, with the following amenities: The first one being Chisase in Masvingo district which is about 50 kilometers from the dam would accommodate 126 families and they would construct one school, one clinic and 42 boreholes to service the community. The second resettlement site was Masangula in Mwenezi district about 150 kilometers from the dam where 485 families were to be resettled, three schools, two clinics and 42 boreholes would be made available. The third and final relocation site was Chingwizi in Mwenezi district which is 150 kilometers from the dam where 5782 families were to be resettled five schools, two clinics and 63 boreholes were to be provided. (OCHA 2014)

In 2011, the government promised that each displaced family would receive a 17-hectare Plot of land and each household would be compensated based solely on property evaluation that was done before the floods. Amounts due to families based solely on property evaluation, according to the Human Rights Watch (2014) the amounts ranged from as little as $217 to as much as $10,000. However, between 2012 and 2013, when some of the families were eventually relocated to Chisase, Masangula, and parts of Chingwizi, they only received four-hectare plots per family for building dwellings and planting crops under dry-land farming.8 Several people told Human Rights Watch that the authorities promised and in some cases gave an additional one hectare plot for each family for irrigation, making a total
of five hectares. By January 2014, partly due to resistance from families who wanted to be compensated before relocation, the government had relocated just 712 out of 6,393 families. The families who voluntarily resettled in Chisase and Masangula prior to the floods are able to grow crops to feed their families, and were not affected by government’s new plans that targeted flood victims at Chingwizi camp. It should therefore be noted that lack of compensation, access to aid and other human rights problems mostly affected the flood victims at Chingwizi camp.

After the flood, the government further scaled down the size of the plots on offer. In March 2014 it announced the new Chingwizi Resettlement Master Plan, which shrunk plot size to one hectare: 0.5 hectares for building a home and 0.5 hectares for domestic food production under irrigation. The new plan did not affect the Masangula and Chisase resettlement sites. About 4,900 hectares are slated for exclusive commercial sugar cane production under irrigation developed as a cluster model with the same families who received one-hectare plots for building dwellings being required to participate in the commercial scheme (Human Rights Watch 2014). Displaced families, the majority of which had not yet been financially compensated following property evaluations by the government prior to the floods were told the government would only financially compensate them based on property evaluations “as soon as resources are available,” at an undetermined time. Authorities, maintain the floods were a natural disaster resulting from climate change which resulted in record rainfalls in the country. (HRW 2014)
The Chingwizi transit camp was therefore formed by people who were waiting to be compensated so that they could move to the relocation sites to restart their lives. The makeshift camp was created in a plain field where they were no housing facilities, no schools, no roads, no toilets, clinics and boreholes. That is to say this was a lifeless place where people now had to start from scratch to ensure that they restart their lives after escaping death from their places of origin. These were people who had a social and economic life prior to the flood disaster; thus this sudden change in their way of life meant that their lives were affected more in the negative side. In this sudden and unforeseen change, adults can cope better due to the fact that they are more resilient, in all this suffering, children bore the greatest mark.

In all this suffering, children bore the greatest blunt as this situation presented above could make the lives of children unbearable due to the fact that children are more vulnerable. There are clear standards that have been developed such as the Humanitarian Charter and Minimum Standards in Humanitarian Response by the Sphere Project and the Minimum Standards for Child Protection in Humanitarian Action by the Global protection cluster. These international guidelines are clearly articulated and will be used to measure whether the extent to which the rights of children were met.

Under international standards, displaced persons have the right to an adequate standard of living; access to essential food and potable water, basic housing, clothing, and essential medical services and sanitation. Those living in camps have the right to freely seek opportunities for employment and to participate in economic activities; displaced children have the right to education; all humanitarian assistance must be provided without discrimination and should not be diverted for political reasons; and authorities must provide displaced persons with objective, accurate information, and include them in the decision-
making process that lead to their voluntary return or resettlement, or to remaining in the place where they sought refuge. In addition, governments should ensure that those evicted have the right to adequate compensation for any property affected; while all feasible alternatives to evictions must be explored in consultation with affected persons, with a view to avoiding, or at least minimizing use of force. (Humanitarian Charter 2011)

The treatment of those displaced by the Tokwe-Mukorsi dam also contravenes every Standard for dealing with internal displacement related to development projects. The UN, African Union (AU), the World Bank, and many other donors and humanitarian Organizations, have stressed that basic human rights must be respected at every stage of displacement and resettlement. UN agencies involved in humanitarian response in Zimbabwe have failed to publicly criticize the government for its failure to provide a long term solution for IDPs. Human Rights Watch calls on Zimbabwe’s government, in accordance with its domestic and international obligations, to ensure protection of the rights of Tokwe-Mukorsi flood victims. The good shelter, safe drinking water, access to sanitation and other basic aid, and should stop misusing humanitarian assistance and conditioning survival aid—an unconditional right—on resettlement. The government should compensate flood victims and allow them to choose their site of residence, according to the United Nations Guiding Principles on Internal Displacements.

According to UNICEF reports the total funding that they required to respond in Chingwizi camp for a 6 months period was US$1,718,800 and out of this total there only had received a mere 12%. The table below shows the appeal by UNICEF per sector
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appeal Sector</th>
<th>Requirements</th>
<th>Needs met</th>
<th>Funding gap</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Health &amp; Nutrition</td>
<td>859,400</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>859,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WASH</td>
<td>425,644</td>
<td>213,144</td>
<td>212,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child Protection</td>
<td>170,000</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>150,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>496,900</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>496,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,951,944</td>
<td>233,144</td>
<td>1,718,800</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A closer analysis of the table above can clearly show that the needs that were met were not even near the required and this simply translated to more social problems for children. The fact that the Government had not managed to compensate the victims of the Tokwe floods due to unavailability of funds from treasury due to the economy that is in doldrums meant that there was no money to respond to the disaster situation. This is the reason why soon after the President declared a state of emergency an emergency appeal for assistance to flood victims of the Tokwe Disaster was launched to the tune of 19,694,093.00 from the international community. This was a clear indicator to show that the Government had limited resources to respond to the disaster and for children in the Chingwizi camp this meant that their rights were going to be difficult to realise. The critical rights that will be analysed in greater detail are the Children’s right to shelter, food, education, protection and the right to participation.

**SHELTER**

Zimbabwe as a country subscribes to the United Nations treaties as a member of the UN. This therefore means that Zimbabwe is guided by UN treaties such the Humanitarian Charter and Minimum standards in Humanitarian Response which has developed minimum standards in disaster response. In any emergency situation that involves moving victims from the danger to safety one of the most critical areas to address is shelter since it’s founded on the principle of humanity to the protection and security. According to the Humanitarian Charter (2011) shelter is a complex sector with many implications for Children. Vulnerability for children can increase during and after a disaster. Everyone has the right to adequate housing according to the sphere standards. There need for sufficient space and protection from cold, damp, heat, rain, wind or other threats to health and abuse for children.
People that were moved from their original homes during the flood disaster were mostly air lifted to higher ground where 5 transit camps had been set up to house the victims before being transported by buses and lorries to the Chingwizi Camp. This means that people’s original shelter was completely destroyed and they had to start from scratch to rebuild their lives. In Chingwizi camp during the onset of the camp, out of the 3,125 affected families, only 300 families had received tarpaulins (sheet of waterproof material, specifically canvas coated or impregnated with a waterproofing compound, for spreading over something to protect it as from weather damage), leaving a balance of 2,825 families in need of assistance shelter. The International Organisations for Migration and the Red Cross were providing a single tarpaulin which could construct only a single room not big enough to accommodate a family if 4. These tarpaulins were given regardless of family size meaning that a father in a polygamous union with two wives and 10 children would just get one. The tarpaulins could be used for roofing or for walls. Although some families managed to transport some building materials from their flooded homes, these were inadequate for rebuilding their homes. The tarpaulins could not divide the single room into sections to probably separate Children and parents. The researcher during his routine night patrols within the camp observed that most children some as young as 6yrs would sleep out in the open without supervision from adults as the shelter provided was limited. The researcher also observed that some children had mosquito bites all over their faces. This was proof to the fact that children were exposed to mosquitoes that caused malaria as they were sleeping out in the open, to this end Zimbabwe was found wanting by failing to meet minimum standards as prescribed in the Sphere project (2011). The lack of adequate Shelter therefore puts Children at risk in terms of their health, thus bringing out the plight of Children within the Chingwizi camp. During a daily morning briefing meeting chaired by the DA an IOM representative reported that
"Tents are in short supply and the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) has ordered more from Europe, however the container was mistakenly diverted to Mexico and it was going to take more than a month to receive the shipment." (IOM representative)

During the same meeting a Nurse working at the camp clinic reported that;

“We have recorded 25 cases of malaria so far and most of the affected are Children.” (State registered female nurse)

This report gives a clear indication of the shelter challenges that were being faced by the Chingwizi camp victims which trickled down to children resulting in their right to health and adequate shelter being seriously violated. The following excepts clearly bring out the sentiments shared with regards to the shelter challenges;

“We arrived here from Gunikuni transit site 9 days ago and we are yet to receive a tent for us to sleep in, the government should have given us money long back before all this happened. What should I do with my 6 children?” (42 year old single mother)

“This one tent is not enough for us to sleep with our parents as we are older children and now we are ending up sleeping outside” (15 year old girl)
"We are afraid that if the rains come in this situation that we are in, our few possessions that we savaged from our flooded homes will be destroyed, the Government is not doing enough to alleviate our situation"(39 year old man)

According to the Human rights watch report seven camp leaders in Chingwizi, reported that some Shelter Box tents donated through the International Organization for Migration were wrongly allocated to some government officials and their relatives only to be recovered after IOM intervened. The report went on further to say that a senior Shelter Box Official confirmed the incident.

Such allegations in a time of crisis where victims and their families were sleeping out in the open due to a shortage of tents while shows the magnitude to which children were really affected by the lack of adequate shelter at the Chingwizi holding camp thereby justifying the study.

Several studies pertaining to the challenges children face during disaster situations show that children suffer a . Malawi is one example of a country that was devastated with floods that occurred in January 2015. According to a UNICEF representative Rescue workers tell of seeing children swept to their deaths and picking up floating backpacks only to discover
corpses attached. Nearly three weeks on, the death toll remains unclear and not everyone is accounted for. (The Guardian 30 January 2015).

The shelter situation in Malawi was different from the Chingwizi camp situation as the response in Malawi did not include tarpaulins for single households but rather 36 people were crammed in a single tent. (The Guardian 30 January 2015). This further put children in a more risky situation of abused in this dormitory setting resulting in children’s right to privacy being violated. However in Chingwizi tents for each household for constructing a single unit were provided even though it took a long time for others to get. In Chingwizi camp blankets were provided even though they were not enough for some households with larger family members as articulated by a father in a polygamous union with two wives and 11 children in the following excerpt;

Except 8

“We have been given 2 blankets and one duvet yet I have a big family, I need more for my two wives and for the Children as we lost all our blankets to the floods” (63 year old male in a polygamous union)

EDUCATION

Education in emergencies is a fundamental human right for all people. Education is especially critical for the tens of millions of children and youth affected by conflict and disasters, and
yet it is often significantly disrupted in emergency situations, denying learners the transformative effects of quality education. Education in emergencies comprises learning opportunities for all ages. It encompasses early childhood development, primary, secondary, non-formal, technical, vocational, higher and adult education. In emergency situations through to recovery, quality education provides physical, psychosocial and cognitive protection that can sustain and save lives. INEE Minimum Standards (2011).

The flooding of the Tokwe Mukorsi Dam destroyed 3 primary schools namely Zunge p, Zfunze and Cheuwe all in Chivi district and 2 secondary schools Kushinga and Neruvanga also in Chivi district to bring the total to five School. According to UNICEF bullet report (2014), the Provincial administrator reported that altogether 10,462 children comprising 8,167 primary and 2,295 secondary school pupils who were being relocated need access to education. Plan International and UNICEF report that at Mulali School in Chingwizi, three kilometers from the camp, as of the 24th of February had 1,096 primary school children of which 551 were girls who had been enrolled while 101 boys and 108 girls were registered for early child-hood development which was still sited within the Chingwizi camp premises. A closer analysis of the figures in terms of Children who had registered for school shows that some children did not move to Chingwizi as their parents sent them to stay with relatives and continue with their school work while other opted to seek for greener pastures.

These statistics show that in Chingwizi Camp children urgently needed access to education because their right to education was in serious jeopardy. The researcher observed that it took time for support to set up emergency learning facilities to be available. There were no teachers within the camp except for 2 who were also victims to the disaster. There were also no tents to be used as temporary classrooms. The Ministry of primary and secondary
education eventually managed to deploy 5 trained teachers and volunteers from Red Cross were assisting with management of the school. (OCHA 2014)

Education in emergencies ensures dignity and sustains life by offering safe spaces for learning, where children and youth who need other assistance can be identified and supported. (INEE 2011) This was not the case in Chingwizi camp as it took time for a functional temporary school to be established and put in place. One of the major stumbling blocks to children’s right to education was the absence of teachers to run the school. The researcher due to his presence within the camp observed that they were only two teachers within the camp who were also victims of the flood disaster. The District education officer for Masvingo a key informant interviewee noted that

Except 9

“The challenge that we have is that Teachers who were from the schools that were affected by the flood disaster in Chivi have gone AWOL, they do not want to come and work here, we as the ministry will make sure that they are removed from the payroll as they are not reporting for duty thereby clearly showing the plight of children within the camp, furthermore we will charge them”.

This clearly shows that children’s access to education to a greater extent was a slow process as a school cannot be in existence without teachers to teach thereby making the lives of children a mess especially those that were in exam classes such as those in grade 7 and the form 4 students. The following excepts show the feelings that children had in terms of the lack of school,
“I am a grade seven pupil at Cheuke primary school, the floods have destroyed our School which was swept away, here there is no school, I do not know if I will be able to write my grade seven exams”

An O level student had this to say:

“We have been here for more than 3 weeks now and still there is no school for me and the other children here, still no school. I have lost hope and I am thinking of crossing the border to South Africa so that I can follow my friends. That’s the only option I have because there is no future for me here”

“Schools have opened elsewhere and children there are learning and preparing for exams while we are here waiting for food and water, I don’t see us writing exams because even our books remained in our flooded houses”.

The other reason that makes it difficult for the quick establishment of schools in disaster situations is the fact that for school to run there are a lot of resources that are supposed to be in place such as furniture, books to read and to write on, boards, teachers house’s etc. The Chingwizi situation was unique in that most donations that were coming were mainly for food, non-food items and not anything linked to the education side of things. This greatly affected the pace at which Schools within the camp were to be established and start functioning
These accepts clearly bring out the uncertainty and lack of confidence to continue with their education as they lost hope, thereby worsening their plight. According to education experts, quality education saves lives by providing physical protection from the dangers and exploitation of a crisis environment in disaster situations. When a learner is in a safe learning environment, he or she is less likely to be sexually or economically exploited or exposed to other risks, such as forced or early marriage, recruitment into armed forces and armed groups or organized crime.

In addition, education can convey life-saving information to strengthen critical survival skills and coping mechanisms. Examples include information on how to avoid landmines, how to protect oneself from sexual abuse, how to avoid HIV infection and how to access health care and food.

According to the INEE Education opportunities also mitigate the psychosocial impact of conflict and disasters by providing a sense of routine, stability, structure and hope for the future. By strengthening problem-solving and coping skills, education enables learners to make informed decisions about how to survive and care for themselves and others in dangerous environments. It can help people think critically about political messages or conflicting sources of information.

Schools and other learning spaces can act as an entry point for the provision of essential support beyond the education sector such as protection, nutrition, water and sanitation and health services.

One of the major challenges for the early childhood development ECD was lack of facilities for the children, lack of temporary shelter for teachers and learners, equipment, textbooks and
supplies. This affected turnout of children greatly as parents did not see the value of sending their children where there was no equipment and qualified teachers. Failure for children to be in school has a lot of negative effects for children as it can increase the risk of abuse as children will be idle. Several unconfirmed studies conducted in Africa in the aftermath of flood disasters have confirmed that school Children’s education suffer when such disasters occur. In the event of a disaster, children are the most affected, schooling systems are disrupted, therefore affecting a fundamental right of children, the right to education. Developmental gains in education are reversed with the damage or destruction of school facilities, the prolonged disruption of education, limited access to schooling, and decreased education quality. To effectively reduce disaster risks for communities, the United Nations Children’s Fund ‘UNICEF’ and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation ‘UNESCO’ recognise the important role education plays in reducing vulnerability and building resilience. Education can be instrumental in building the knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

FOOD

Food as a social aspect of living is a critical area that is affected by disaster situations especially flooding situations. The Tokwe Mukorsi disaster took place around a time when the victims were about to gravest their yield which was eventually destroyed before they could harvest. The food reserve that they might have had in their granaries was destroyed by the water, their livestock in the form of hens, goats and some cattle were swept away by the water thereby affecting food security. This was confirmed by a 32 year old woman who noted that
“Everything happened too fast, I only managed to get one 50kg bag of maize, the rest were swept away by the flood water.”

Another victim a 46 year old reiterated that

“I lost nine 50kg bags of maize and three bags of Sorghum, today I depend on food handouts.”

These losses being highlighted have a negative effect to the growth and wellbeing of children. The right to food is a critical area especially for children as lack of it can result in malnutrition leading to death. There was a big challenge in Chingwizi in terms of relish and each household would only receive 1 kg beans and 500grammes kapenta which was not enough to last for 4 days for an average family of 5. A 16 year old head of a child headed household had this to say

“We now mix sugar with water and serve with sadza as relish”

A widow who had 7 children reiterated that
“Since I arrived I have only been given 20kg mealie meal, 1kg dried beans, kapenta yet I have 7 children and myself. We have no other food, what we are receiving is not enough, at home we could eat mangoes, ground nuts and roasted maize in between meals but here there is nothing.”

According to the Humanitarian charter and minimum standards in humanitarian response handbook (2011) access to food and the maintenance of an adequate nutrition status are critical determinants of people’s survival in a disaster. It goes on to say that the people affected are often already chronically undernourished when disaster hits. In Children under nutrition is a serious public health problem and amongst the leading causes of death, whether directly or indirectly.

In Chingwizi camp several NGOs coordinated together with the Government and the private sector companies in providing food to the displaced. The type of foodstuffs provided ranged from mealie meal, cooking oil, flour, sugar, salt, kapenta, peas or beans and soya mince, and sometimes game meat. It is important to note that victims of the Tokwe Mukorsi flood disaster arrived at the camp at different times and this meant that there was no standard food ration for those arriving. The researcher observed that some families who arrived late at night would not be able to receive food rations during that particular night and for children this meant violation of their right to education thereby showing the plight of children in Chingwizi Camp in the aftermath of the flood disaster. Some children had this to say

Except 17

“We arrived here 2 days ago and we are yet to receive foodstuffs, we are hungry”

 Except 18
“Our pots and plates were washed away by the floods, we come here we are given food stuffs but how do we prepare food without the cooking utensils”

Another challenge that rocked Chingwizi holding Camp was the limited number of for the storage of donated food stuffs. The inadequacy of storage space for the donated foodstuffs resulted in rains destroying tonnes of mealie meal which was really needed .The DA reiterated that:

Except 19

“It is very unfortunate that the rains have once again put us in a miserable situation as we did not anticipate that it would rain. I am appealing to the corporate world for tents so that we create more secure storage facilities for the donations as we do not want to continue loosing foodstuffs”

The tonnes of maize meal destroyed meant that less food in the camp which translates to even less food to Children who constituted a greater number in terms of population thereby increasing on the plight of children in Chingwizi Camp as they faced hunger.

The Government through the Ministry of local government, housing and social amenities and the Police were responsible for the food distributions. This responsibility for the government presented a challenge as observed by the researcher since by nature the government machinery is slow. The bureaucratic nature of government systems meant that certain decisions were to be made in Masvingo at the Provincial Administrator’s office since all donations were being recorded in his office before being taken to the Chingwizi camp .This
arrangement resulted in a lot of bottlenecks which then translated to slow food distributions leading to a lot of children receiving food late thereby violating their right to education.

In Chingwizi camp there were reports of some Government officials tasked to distribute food aid to victims of the Tokwe-Mukorsi floods at Chingwizi transit camp in Masvingo have being accused of demanding sexual favors from teenage girls in exchange for goods. According to the Newsday reports (26 May 2014) Civil society groups and sources at the transit camp, which houses an estimated 3 000 families, said several young women and teenage girls had fallen for the trap to supplement their families’ food rations. In the following Excerpt a parent in the camp accused government officials stationed at the camp of promoting the vice. Fanon in his book the pedagogy of the oppressed says that in Disaster situation food is used as a weapon by those in power to gain favours from the victims as shown in the following excerpt:

Excerpt 20

“Some officials are demanding sex from women and children in exchange for food and other basics, we are really concerned and we appeal for intervention by relevant authorities” (a parent in the camp).

The report goes on to highlight that a government official at the site said he was aware of several colleagues involved in food-for-sex scandals and urged the Public Service Commission to investigate the matter and bring the culprits to book. The official said that
“They are taking advantage of desperate women and girls to solicit for sex in exchange for food, blankets, tents and other necessities. Women end up giving in to their demands to save their families from starving,” (Anonymous Government official).

A 43 year old man residing in the Camp confirmed that indeed some Government officials were indeed violating women and children in the following excerpt;

Excerpt 22

“Prostitution has suddenly risen here as some officials distributing food and other materials at the camp are abusing our wives and teenagers by demanding that they sleep with them and give them the commodities they distribute, particularly food.”

They were further reports against some Government officials who were said to be looting donations meant for the victim of the floods (Human rights watch report 2014). A mother of five children, whose youngest child was born at the camp in March 2014 had this to say;

Excerpt 23
“The police here are corrupt, distributing food unfairly, and often diverting
Donated food, International donor agencies and other well-wishers are not allowed
to distribute food, clothes, blankets, or other donated items directly to us. They are
required to hand over all donations to the office of the provincial government of
Masvingo. From there, much of the donations simply vanish” (43 year old mother of
5.)

These reports were however denied by the Masvingo provincial Minister about the
allegations of theft of donations, he said his officials had conducted three audits of all
donations and everything was accounted for. (Human Rights watch 2015). Issues theft of
donor aid is not unique to Zimbabwe but also in the African context for example in Malawi
there was the “cash gate” affair in which leading officials were arrested and accused of
exploiting a loophole in the government’s payment system to divert millions of donor funds
into their own pockets resulting in the 2013 decision to freeze direct aid to Malawi. (The
Guardian 30 January 2015). This issue of donor aid intended for victims of disasters being
looted is a problem in Africa especially where governments due to lack of accountability
misuse funds for personal gains, however donor agencies have a role to play in ensuring that
Governments are held accountable. Where there are food shortages Children and the elderly
tend to suffer because of their vulnerability.

HEALTH

The people who were displaced in Chivi and surrounding areas had lived there or a long time
having benefited from, development programmes targeting health, water and sanitation had
been implemented in these areas. The Red Cross managed to set up a makeshift clinics using a few tents, however during the onset of disaster there were a few nurses stationed. The DA made an appeal for more health practitioners during his presentation to the Ministers that had come on a fact finding mission at the camp.

Excerpt 24

“Honorable ministers our Clinic needs more nurses as we have a lot of people staying within the camp”

These sentiments by the DA clearly depict the plight of Children as their right to good health was in jeopardy due to the unavailability of adequate staff. There was the need for an ambulance also. The clinic in terms of equipment was not well equipped, thus the need for an ambulance in order to facilitate transfers to closer hospitals such as Chiredzi district hospital which was well equipped.

The Government with the support of WHO managed to set up a disease surveillance system to monitor the disease situation at the camp closely and reporting to district health officials so as to be able to quickly pick outbreaks. The Clinic infrastructure was later improved when WHO donated 2 tents, one for consultations and the other one as a labour ward. The plea by the DA was also answered by the Zimbabwe Prison Service who seconded 15 of the 20 nurses and 2 of the 4 health technicians thereby mitigating the plight of Children in Chingwizi camp.
One big challenge faced was that most people on ART had lost their medication which was mostly swept away by the flood water. This meant that adherence was affected and this had negative health implications for both adults and children. In terms of Anti-retroviral therapy registration of patients took place though at a slow pace as highlighted by a ZPCS nurse who gave feedback at one of the meetings:

Excerpt 25

“We have only registered a total of 155 ART patients, very few are children, we urge all parents with children who were on ART to visit the clinic as soon as possible.” (ZPCS male nurse)

This report is showing that in a camp of over 20 000 people the number of those registered was a very small section. The fact that they were few children who registered meant more problems in terms of consistence in drug adherence.

Unconfirmed reports within the Camp indicated that due to moral decay which had already spread in the camp it was reported that 100 teenage girls had fallen pregnant and cases of sexually transmitted diseases had also risen to alarming levels.

According to a health expert working at the Chingwizi camp;

Excerpt 26
“the number of STI cases reported at Chingwizi have shot up to 310 cases from the 200 cases reported last month, some of which are children aged 14 and below”

Health officials have attributed the increase in STI’s to the “food for sex” syndrome in which government officials at the holding camp are allegedly demanding sexual favors from victims in return for food. (Newsday 28 July 2014). These statistics were confirmed by Masvingo Provincial Medical Director, in the following excerpt:

“We are holding a series of healthy awareness campaigns in conjunction with other NGOs to ensure that we minimize the diseases, we are really worried by the increasing of STI cases at the camp,”

The disease surveillance system managed to pick an increase in cases of malaria in the camp from 20 cases to 58 cases in a space of 2 weeks (OCHA Bulletin 9). The other health challenge for children within the Camp was that the vaccination status of all children less than 5 years were not known as most of the parents lost the child health cards of their children during the relocation exercise meaning that some of the cards were swept away by the flood water. This presented a challenge for the health teams as they could not know vaccination stages that these children had gone through thereby showing the challenges that the flood disaster had brought to children and their wellbeing.

Water and sanitation is linked to health in so many way. Safe disposal of human excreta helps reduce disease transmission through direct and indirect routes. According to the Humanitarian Charter (2011) safe excreta disposal is therefore a major priority and in most disaster situations should be addressed with as much speed and effort as the provision of a
safe water supply. The inadequacy of latrines or the lack thereof clean water can result in disease outbreaks.

This was not the case in Chingwizi during the disaster period as the latrine /people ratio was 1/180 as opposed to 1/25 people. This meant that victims of the Tokwe Mukorsi floods especially Children were at risk of contracting diseases especially water borne diseases such as diarrhea, typhoid and cholera. The researcher observed that a lot of people visiting the clinic complained of diarrhea especially children.

Humanitarian agents tried to ensure that makeshift toilets were put in place within the camp, however the large number of people within the Chingwizi camp meant that toilets would be inadequate. A female resident within the camp had this to say in the following excerpt

Excerpt 27

“The toilets are inadequate, dirty and human waste is always on the floor since there are no lights at night in the toilets” (A 27 year old woman).

The research observed that the location of most of these toilets resulted in people not feeling comfortable in utilizing them as they were located in the centre. These toilets were made up of wood wrapped in black plastic and most women felt the small black plastic was not enough. One woman had this to say;

Excerpt 28
“The black plastic is sometimes blown away by the wind thereby denying us our privacy, that is why we still prefer using the bush when relieving ourselves” (34 year old woman).

Due to the limited toilets and their unfriendly location open defecation was rife. Children playing without shoes were exposed to the uncovered waste. (OCHA report 2014) In terms of Children’s access to the toilets it should be noted the research observed that they were not child friendly since they were mostly dirty, children would access them without shoes put them at a greater risk of diseases. One of the State registered nurses reported that there was an increase in the number of diarrhea cases recorded at the Clinic

Studies across Africa have shown that water borne diseases present challenges in disaster situations. Water-borne diseases represent a major burden on human health worldwide. Every year, 1.8 million people die from diarrheal diseases, of which 1.5 million are children under the age of 5 (WHO 2007). The main cause of death is dehydration. Most cases of diarrheal illness and death occur in developing countries because of unsafe water, poor sanitation, and insufficient hygiene.

CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

Societies the world over are grappling with ways of fending for children with special needs and in Chingwizi camp these were no exception. Article 23 Of the UNCRC (1989) looks at children who have any kind of disability have the right to special care and support, as well as all the rights in the Convention, so that they can live full and independent lives.
There are an estimated 1.4 million people living with disabilities in Zimbabwe, according to Progressio, an international charity working to eradicate poverty. The United Nations estimates that the total number of people with disabilities in Africa is approximately 80 million. (UN 2010) There is no consensus in the definition of the term special needs because a person with special needs can have a number of characteristics which can be racial, cultural, medication, physical, cognitive or a combination that separates them from others in terms of need. Children with special needs are defined as individuals with one or more disabilities. The term Disability is defined by the WHO as

"a physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one or more of the individual's major life activities, such as caring for one’s self, performing manual tasks, walking, seeing, hearing, speaking, breathing, learning, and working."

The flood disaster that took place in Masvingo province did not spare people living with disability including children living with disability who in most cases are marginalised and excluded from participating in issues that affect them. The researcher observed that they were children with special needs within the Chingwizi camp and they ranged from children with cerebral pulse, children living with disability, children with mental retardation, hard of hearing and the blind children.

In terms of access to their rights this group of children were marginalised because their special need were not factored in response interventions for the camp. There were no provision of education for children with disabilities within the Camp, as there were no books in braille, hard of hearing children had no means of communicating with teachers who cannot use sign language. Important information that was disseminated within the Chingwizi camp was not sensitive to the needs of children with disability for example information on Child abuse was available on posters which blind children could not read. According to UNICEF
(2012). “Children living with disabilities continue to be the most excluded among all groups of children in Africa, in most African cultures children with disabilities are looked down upon and kept indoors. This was the case in Chingwizi as the researcher observed as he was doing his routine home visits within the camp that they were some children with disabilities special needs who were not being looked after properly and were being kept in tents away from the outside world. These children were not even registered for school and one parent had this to say:

Excerpt 29

“There is no point in registering my son for school because even back home in Chivi he has not been attending school since the schools had no provision for his disability and headmasters refused to enrol him for school. It’s better for him to spend the day sleeping away from this chaos” (48 year old Single mother of a child with special needs).

This excerpt clearly brings out how children with special needs continue to be side lined to an extent that their parents and guardians are content with the violation of these children’s rights.
CHAPTER 3

CHILD PROTECTION RESPONSE MECHANISMS IN CHINGWIZI CAMP

Child protection response is a human rights issue under the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) which outlines the fundamental rights of children including the right to be protected from economic exploitation and harmful work, from physical or mental violence, as well as ensuring that children will not be separated from their families against their will. These rights are further refined by two optional protocols, one on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography and the other on the involvement of children in armed conflict (UNCRC 1989). This therefore means that since Zimbabwe is a signatory to the UNCRC which was ratified in 1990 there is a need by the Government to ensure that always child protection mechanisms are in place so as to protect children in all situations including disasters. This chapter critically looks at the child protection response mechanisms that were put in place so as to ensure that children within Chingwizi camp were protected from all forms of abuse and exploitation.
Child protection

Child protection has been defined as;

“Preventing and responding to violence, exploitation and abuse against children – including commercial sexual exploitation, trafficking, child labour and harmful traditional practices, such as female genital mutilation/cutting and child marriage.

This therefore means that any Government should be able to set up clear guidelines on what child abuse is and what should be done in the event that a child is abused.

Global View on Child Protection

The United Nations through its membership has come up with international legislation that guides child protection response interventions. It was in 1989 at the UN headquarters in New York, USA where world leaders met for UN children’s conference. They agreed on who a child was as defined in the UNCRC as,

“A person below the age of 18, unless the laws of a particular country set the legal age for adulthood younger”

Countries that have a legal age of majority set below 18 are encouraged to review the age of majority so as to increase the level of protection for all children under 18 years.

Zimbabwe is a signatory to the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), the most comprehensive international document pertaining to the rights of children. Only two
countries in the World namely the United States of America and Somalia have not ratified the UNCRC. World leaders set out a wide range of political, civil, cultural, economic and social rights for children. The Committee on the Rights of the Child has identified the following articles as general principles that are basic to implementation of all rights contained in the UNCRC.

The UNCRC emphasize four key principles which are, non-discrimination (article 2) which basically says that these rights are for all children regardless of their race, creed, language, gender, whether they have a disability or whether they are rich or poor. No child should be treated unfairly on any basis.

Best interests of the child (article 3), is giving a guide to adults in any action that affect children, adults should do what’s best for children. When adults make decisions, they should think about how their decisions will affect children especially for policy, budget and law makers.

Protection of rights (article 4), the Governments have a responsibility to take all available measures to make sure children’s rights are respected, protected and fulfilled. When countries ratify the Convention, they agree to review their laws relating to children. Zimbabwe as a country ratified the UNCRC in September 1990 and this involved assessing their social services, legal, health and educational systems, as well as levels of funding for these services. Governments are then obliged to take all necessary steps to ensure that the minimum standards set by the Convention in these areas are being met. They must help families protect children’s rights and create an environment where they can grow and reach their potential regardless of the situation they might be in such as situations of disaster.
some instances, this may involve changing existing laws or creating new ones. Such legislative changes are not imposed, but come about through the same process by which any law is created or reformed within a country. (CRC 1989). Governments are supposed to report to the UN on a five year regular basis highlighting the state of Children in its country.

The role of the Government as the custodian of Children and that of the family in caring for children are emphasised as the family has a responsibility to provide guidance and direction to children while for the State as supporting the family in this role rather than usurping this role.

Some of the rights that children have include protecting children from all forms of physical or mental violence, injury or abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation, including sexual abuse. Children without family should be protected by the State, Children have a right to the highest level of health possible which includes a right to health and medical services, with special emphasis on primary and preventive health care, public health education and the diminution of infant mortality. All children have the right to education, and this right should be achieved progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity. It is the State’s duty to ensure that primary education is free and compulsory. Children have the right to a standard of living that is good enough to meet their physical and mental needs. Governments should help families and guardians who cannot afford to provide this, particularly with regard to food, clothing and housing. (UNCRC 1989)

**African charter on the rights and welfare of the Child**

In 1990 African leaders decided to meet and deliberate more on Children’s rights. Zimbabwe is a signatory to the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child which it ratified
in 1995, the first regional child rights treaty, which came into force in 1999. The Charter defines a child as every human being below the age of 18 years and like the CRC covers civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights. The Preamble recognises that the child occupies a unique and privileged position in the African society, but also notes with concern the critical situation of most African children. Furthermore, the Charter puts special emphasis on the protection against harmful social and cultural practices and the responsibility of children towards parents and the wider community. This is a critical area that the African leaders agreed on to say for every right that an African child has, there is a responsibility that comes with it. It also stresses the importance of the family as the natural unit and basis of society and, like the UNCRC, emphasises the responsibility of the parents for the upbringing and development of the child. (NAP 2004)

**Zimbabwean Constitution**

Zimbabwe’s current Constitution was introduced on May 22 2013. This Constitution replaced the old Constitution popularly referred to as the Lancaster House Constitution which was amended so many times during the course of its 33 year lifetime. The Lancaster house constitution was criticised due to the absence the bill of rights something that is now in the current constitution. The Bill of Rights is embodied in Chapter 4 of the current Constitution. This Chapter is a formal declaration or outline of the legal and civil rights that are accorded to all citizens and residents (where applicable) of our State by virtue of them being humans. The bill of rights for children is a step in the domestication of the UNCRC and ensuring the protection of children even though not all rights are included in the bill.

The Bill of rights is the cornerstone of any democratic State, as it is a major source for rights since the rights protected in the Bill of Rights are justiciable meaning that an individual can approach the courts seeking the implementation, protection or promotion of those rights. This
means when children are deprived of their rights the Government should be answerable and can be sued by its citizens. There is a specific section on Children’s rights that clearly states’ rights that children have including Children being entitled to adequate protection by the courts, in particular by the High Court as their upper guardian. However a closer look at the children’s section on the bill of rights, the state has escaped being dragged to court for children not in school as they have a clause “as and when the government have resources” . This is an indicator which justify that even with the bill of rights in the constitution there is still marginalisation of children and their rights continue to be violated. This was the case in Chingwizi Camp as children were not accorded their rights as stated in the “law of the land” which is the Constitution of Zimbabwe.

**ACTS OF PARLIAMENT**

The new constitution of Zimbabwe provides a frame work that leads to the realignment of the different acts of Parliament so that it becomes law. The Children’s Act for example needs to be realigned so as to incorporate the children’s section on the bill of rights. The current Children’s act is not in tandem with the new constitution as it defines a child as anyone below the age of sixteen. This dilemma puts children at a greater risk of abuse.

Zimbabwe has two key national policies and a legal framework that support children. Legislation pertinent to children includes the Children’s Protection and Adoption Act and its Amendment, the Guardianship of Minors Act, the Maintenance Act, and the Child Abduction Act. Many other statutes are also relevant to OVC, such as those pertaining to birth, death,
and marriage registration, legal age of consent and majority, sexual offences and inheritance. National policies include the National Orphan Care Policy and the National AIDS Policy, both adopted in 1999. These policies were developed using a broad-based consultative approach, reflect Zimbabwe’s strengths in traditional ways of doing things, and promote collaboration between government and civil society. These policies also establish the government infrastructure to implement and coordinate services and benefits provided in the policies. (NAP 2004)

The Children’s Protection and Adoption Act provides categories of children who need care as including those who are destitute or have been abandoned, who are denied proper health care, whose parents are dead or cannot be traced, whose parents do not or are unfit to exercise proper care over them, and whose parents/guardians give them up in settlement of disputes or for cultural beliefs. An analysis of the categories of children highlighted in the children’s act above is silent on children in emergency situations such as flood disaster affected children as those in Chingwizi Camp. This brings out gaps within the legislation on children which marginalises children at the law and policy stage to the fact that children are not given the platform to participate in issues that affect them.

The Zimbabwe National Orphan Care Policy identifies opportunities to provide care and support for vulnerable children that are inherent in the country’s legislative framework, the cultural tradition of caring and the collaborative approach, which exists between government and the civic society. The partners collaborate and network in monitoring the situation of children, advocate on their behalf, and respond to children’s needs under consortiums now known as Child Protection Committees, which have been established at all tiers, from the village to the national level. It should be noted that within Chingwizi camp due to the displacements that had taken place these structures were not
revived at all thereby putting orphans within the camp in need of care and support. It recognises the traditional leaders’ role in the care of orphans and the support of their programmes however the researcher observed that traditional leaders were given specific tasks by the DA which did not include directly working with Children. There were child headed households within the Chingwizi camp who were in need of care and support.

The analysis of the child protection legislation is of paramount importance as a way of understanding the plight of children especially those in disaster situations. The discussion above can safely conclude by saying that there is need to craft relevant legislation that speaks specifically to the needs of children in disaster situations as in most cases these children are found wanting as their rights are violated left, right and centre as was the case in Chingwizi camp.

**Protocol on the Multi Sectoral Management of Sexual Abuse and Violence in Zimbabwe**

The Government of Zimbabwe as a signatory to various national, regional and international declarations on the rights and protection of children has implemented a number of protective policies, legislative instruments and programmes to ensure the fulfilment of all children and women’s rights and specifically their right to protection from sexual violence and abuse. These initiatives resulted in the establishment of the Victim Friendly System (VFS) in 1997 through the amendment of the Criminal Procedure and Evidence Act that aimed at supporting survivors of sexual violence and abuse to pursue their right to access specialized health, justice, welfare and other services. The protocol emphasises coordination of all key stakeholders in child protection response.

The Protocol also applies to boys and men. The protection of children and adults from sexual violence and abuse is a responsibility that all individuals, groups and organisations must
share. The protection of children should be done in any situation including in times of disaster such as the Tokwe Mukorsi flood disaster. The Protocol promotes a coordinated and integrated approach to sexual violence and abuse. The Protocol reinforces this responsibility by outlining the principles that guide responses to sexual violence and abuse and setting out the roles and responsibilities of children and adults, professionals, communities and organisations involved. The Protocol will ensure that the necessary action and referrals are made where survivors have experienced physical and emotional abuse. (Protocol on Multi Sectoral management 2012)

The Victim Friendly System (VFS) in Zimbabwe is the set of measures designed to ensure the protection and active participation of survivors in the criminal justice system. The system was initiated by the Government and women and children’s rights activists in the early 1990’s. This resulted in a multi sectoral approach to offering welfare and judicial services to survivors of sexual violence and abuse. This resulted in the criminal code being amended so as to be able to address the needs of vulnerable witnesses especially children.

The VFC has closed circuit television that will be in the main court room and people will be able to see the child via the television. The child will have a support person during the course of the court. There are trained specialists interpreter referred to as an intermediary. This therefore means that the Government should have made provision for children who will gave been abused to access the VFS. The nearest VFC to Chingwizi camp is in Masvingo province more than 150 km away from the camp. This was not the case as there were no clear guidelines on case reporting within the camp. There might have been children who were abused sexually especially by people in authority such those at the food distribution points but could not report as there were no clear reporting structures that would protect the victims if they reported.
CHILD PARTICIPATION

Children the world over have the right to participate in issues that affect them regardless of the situation that they find themselves in. Several provisions in the Convention on the Rights of the Child reflect children’s right to participation. Participation is one of the guiding principles of the Convention, as well as one of its basic challenges. Article 12 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child states that children have the right to participate in decision-making processes that may be relevant in their lives and to influence decisions taken in their regard within the family, the school or the community. The principle affirms that children are full-fledged persons who have the right to express their views in all matters affecting them and requires that those views be heard and given due weight in accordance with the child's age and maturity. In as much as recognises the potential of children to enrich decision-making processes, to share perspectives and to participate as citizens and actors of change it is sad to note that in the African context children are still being marginalised to a greater extent as they are not really given the platform to express their views. This was the case in Chingwizi Camp as the researcher through discussions with children who pointed out they were not clear on all that was happening since the day they were air lifted to safety. No one had taken time to explain to them what was happening or to ask them about their views on the disaster response. This shows that Children in Zimbabwe are just supposed to be seen and not be heard. Had the Children participated, they would have talked about the friendly places for the pit latrines for children, or the ideal and safe location of the satellite schools. Children should have been asked to draw a risk assessment map highlighting the dangerous spots within the camp as they understand it, from their point of view so as to influence the decision makers.
The researcher during his time in the camp observed that Children were not a part of any planning meetings that took place every day in the morning, this might mean that some of the decisions that were made for or on behalf of Children were not in the best interest of the primary beneficiaries who are Children. A 10 year old boy had this to say in the following excerpt:

Excerpt 30

“No one has explained to me what is really going on, I have asked my mother whether we will go back home where we came from or this is now our new home”.

This clearly shows that most children were clueless on what was really happening since they were being marginalised and a disaster of this nature had happened for the first time. According to Roger Harts ladder of child participation there are eight stages in which children can participate in issues that affect them, the most ideal being rung 8 where children and adults share decisions. This theory like any other has received a fair share of criticism for being labelled Eurocentric in nature meaning that it is difficult to apply in an African context.

The practical meaning of children's right to participation must be considered in each and every matter concerning children. As a fundamental right of the child, the right to participation stands on its own; it requires a clear commitment and effective actions to become a living reality and therefore is much more than a simple strategy. It was for this reason that the Committee on the Rights of the Child identified the right to participation as one of the guiding principles of the Convention. Participation is an underlying value that needs to guide the way each individual right is ensured and respected; a criterion to assess progress in the implementation process of children's rights; and an additional dimension to the universally recognized freedom of expression, implying the right of the child to be heard.
and to have his or her views or opinions taken into account. Respecting children's views means that such views should not be ignored; it does not mean that children's opinions should be automatically endorsed. Expressing an opinion is not the same as taking a decision, but it implies the ability to influence decisions. A process of dialogue and exchange needs to be encouraged in which children assume increasing responsibilities and become active, tolerant and democratic. In such a process, adults must provide direction and guidance to children while considering their views in a manner consistent with the child's age and maturity. Through this process, the child will gain an understanding of why particular options are followed, or why decisions are taken that might differ from the one he or she favoured (UNICEF 2011).

According to Lansdowne & O'Kane, (2014) involving Children has the following advantages, child participation benefits children themselves as well as for society at large, at local, national, regional and international level. It is enriching, and a legal obligation for states who are parties to the CRC, also beneficial for Child development. Child participation impacts positively on children’s development. It increases self-esteem and self-belief; by being given the opportunity to express views, and having those views taken seriously, a child’s confidence is likely to grow. Through participating, children develop a greater sense of responsibility, which in turn can have a positive impact on their future behaviour and involvement, but also on the realisation of their other rights. Child participation also promotes pro-social behaviour and builds practical skills such as teamwork, problem solving. Child participation has better outcomes for children in all kinds of settings, as more groups are included in decision-making processes, social democratisation is encouraged as children will have been empowered thereby ensuring that children are not marginalised and excluded.
GENDER AND DISASTER

Gender determines what is expected, allowed and valued in a woman or a man in a given context. It determines opportunities, responsibilities and resources, as well as powers associated with being male and female. Gender also defines the relationships between women and men and girls and boys. (UNDP 2010) These attributes, opportunities and relationships are socially constructed and are learned through socialization processes. They are context- and time-specific, and changeable. During disaster situations although both men and women, boys and girls are affected, there is evidence to suggest that women and girls are affected more. According to an anonymous source Disasters lower women’s life expectancy more than men’s, according to data from 141 countries affected by disaster between 1981 and 2002. Women, boys and girls are 14 times more likely than men to die during a disaster. Most disasters place an undue burden on women and girls who are responsible for unpaid work such as providing care, water and food for households. Women are especially vulnerable to disasters such as floods because of changing roles of women usually from caregiver to head of household and less access to resources, social networks and decision-making.

This was the case in Chingwizi camp as based on the researchers observation. When the disaster struck in Masvingo rescue operations and evacuations were mainly targeting the human population as there were no adequate lorries to carry people together with their belongings including livestock such as cattle and goats, this therefore meant that some people had to remain behind looking after the livestock until such a time when transport to carry the livestock was availed. This resulted in many fathers and boys remaining behind in Chivi looking after the livestock and this changed the roles of women who now had to take up male roles within the camp including being the head of household. Women could be seen holding
axes going into the bushes to cut trees for poles to use for shelter, which is ideally a male’s job. Women had to make sure that they make shelter for the family from the poles and tent. These roles come on top of their usual roles of looking after children, cooking, fetching firewood. There was water rationing the Chingwizi camp and the researcher observed that at the water distribution sites women and girls were the ones that were ever present on the queue except for a few men and boys.

According to an anonymous source (2008) Women have less freedom and mobility to look for alternative sources of income, less access to relief and information in specific cultures. There is low visibility in society and sometimes limited understanding of women’s needs in post disaster situation. Identification and attention to their needs is most often inadequate. Reproductive and sexual health care are often neglected in an emergency. (OCHA 2011)

In terms of sexual and reproductive health issues in Chingwizi, the researcher observed that there were limited numbers in terms of sanitary wear and the distribution process was not well informed since the government officials who were distributing different stuff would just place a single pack of sanitary wear on every distribution pack. This would mean that families with women and girls would suffer while some families without females would get sanitary wear that they did not need. One woman said in the following excerpt

Except 31

“I have 3 daughters and we only received one packet of sanitary pads, it that really fair, there is no tuck shop for us to buy because this one packet is not enough for the four of us” (46 year old mother).
This clearly brings out the gender dynamics in disaster situations and the lack of sanitary wear will affect the work that women and girls carry out especially when they are on their monthly periods as this can restrict their movements.

In many communities, household cleaning is traditionally the role of women/girls, while men will go out and seek immediate livelihood opportunities. Being left behind to undertake household cleaning will make them more vulnerable to diseases brought about by the extra burden of coping with household level crisis and unsanitary conditions (Flash Appeal Philippines 2009). Although targeting women for relief distribution can have numerous advantages in certain contexts, there is a need to address women’s safety after departure from distribution sites, as well as the physical effort required by women to transport distributed relief (Haiti Revised Appeal 2010).
CHAPTER 4

The Plight of Children in Disaster Situations-A look into the future

This study managed to establish gaps in child care and protection in Chingwizi Camp in Mwenezi in the aftermath of the Tokwe Mukorsi flood disaster. The gaps and limitations are many but no way impossible to deal with. This chapter will first of all discuss the gaps in Child care and protection in disaster situations and suggests recommendations that can overcome the limitations.

This study has established that in Disaster situations children face many problems as they suffer in silent. They are affected in so many ways as they are not accorded their rights such as the survival rights and developmental rights. Adults do not take time to help children deal with disaster situations. The children’s voices are no heard as they are not given room to participate and suggest possible solutions to their problems. The traumatic experiences that children come across from the onset of disaster to being airlifted in an army helicopter to safety, to being transported to a crowded place where there is no school has a lot of psychological effects for children.

The research has managed to bring out the rights violations on the part of Children. The researcher focused on the right to shelter, food, education, health, participation and protection rights. In terms of shelter it was noted that each household received a single tent which was not enough for parents and their children to an extent that children were ending up sleeping out in the open, thereby exposing them to more harm. Children were exposed to mosquitoes that cause Malaria which is a well-known killer in Zimbabwe. They were exposed to abuse as
there was no parental care and supervision as they were outside. In situations like this children are at a greater risk of abuse.

In terms of food the research managed to identify a lot of gaps in food supplies as they were erratic and not fixed. The foodstuffs that were donated did not at all meet the balanced diet that children require for them to grow well. Cases of malnutrition were also recorded at Chingwizi Camp. There was a challenge in terms of relish within the camp and some families ended up stealing sugar cane from the nearby Tongaat Hullets sugar plantations which further put children at risk of being caught as it was an offence to steal from the plantations. There were cases recorded of children who were caught stealing sugarcane. The government officials who were soliciting for sexual favours in exchange for food also put a lot of women and girls in misery as they needed the food for their survival and that of children and siblings. This is a serious human right violation which should have had been investigated and the culprits brought to book.

In terms of access to education the research managed to bring out issues of delayed access to the right to education due to the unavailability of Teachers within the camp as most of the teachers were not willing to stay and work in the camp as there were no adequate teachers houses, electricity and no proper school facilities and resources to use. Children lost track and touch of their school work because it took long for a functional school to run. Children had lost their books that had been swept away and most donations that related to school such as books and pens were donated later when the makeshift school was eventually set up. In terms of early childhood development it was noted that there was lack of equipment for ECD children who spent a lot of their time exercising their right to play. There were no swings, seesaws and toys that children require at this stage. Lack of trained ECD teachers to handle this large and fragile group brought about a big gap in child care and protection as most parents
and guardians ended up not sending children to school. This resulted in children being idle and ending up getting lost as they could not identify their tents because they were of the same colour.

It is clear that in Chingwizi camp there were a lot of health related concerns that put children at a greater risk. The right to health was violated as evidenced by the number of diarrhoea related illnesses that were recorded in the camp. Children were stepping on human waste as there was a lot of open defecation due to the limited number of pit latrines within the camp. The water situation also increased health risks for children as the water trucking was failing to meet the demand within the camp. Children failing to wash their hands after using the toilets meant more health problems for them. Children living with HIV/AIDS were found wanting as initially there was problem of access of Anti-Retroviral Drugs within the camp and it took time for some of these children to gain courage to access their drugs as they had also lost their health card. The number of sexually transmitted infections that were recorded for children meant that awareness was lacking for the children. Access to information was lacking as they were other issues that were being prioritised. There was a need to address the sexual and reproduction health issues that were affecting children. For the under-fives the problem of immunisation was evident within the Camp as most parents had lost their documents including the important baby cards that tracks the child’s development and immunisation programme. It was difficult for the nurses to just immunise the children without knowing which diseases they had already been immunised against.

The research has managed to bring out how Children were marginalised and this can be traced from the onset of the flood disaster. Children were not given the platform to express their views on how they felt about the disaster and the situation at Chingwizi camp. Their
right to participate in issues that affected them was non existant. There was never a platform that was accorded to children within the camp a chance to air out their views and participate in developing durable solutions. The positioning of the school, locations of boreholes, issues of children with disability where issues that affected children and they had a stake in helping the responsible authorities in making informed decisions. The location of the borehole affects the children especially the girl child as they are the ones who are sent to fetch water, thus they need to be located in a safe area to avoid children being raped and violated whilst fetching water. Children with physical disability could not access toilets easily as they were no provisions for them, have they participated they would have suggested easy ways that work for them. Children were excluded as a group and this increased their plight in Chingwizi camp.

In terms of Child Protection response mechanisms the research found out that it took a while for child protection response mechanisms to be put in place. There was no clear reporting structures in the event that a child was sexually abused. The Department of Child welfare and Probation services were not present in the camp for more than two months and in as much as the Police were present there were no Victim friendly Police officers. The Government Social Workers were only present in the camp after UNICEF had intervened by paying for their allowances to be in the camp. These are specifically trained to deal with child abuse and gender based violence issues. The makeshift Clinic was there but it was not victim friendly for a child who will have been abused as they are certain standards that were lacking. There is a level of confidentiality that is required. There were no post exposure prophylaxis tablets at the clinic during the initial days within the camp. Child friendly spaces are critical in all emergency situations as they provide children with protected environments in which they
participate in organised activities to play, socialise, learn and express themselves as they rebuild their lives.

CFSs are used by a growing number of agencies as a mechanism of protecting children from risk, as a means of promoting children’s psychosocial well-being, and as a foundation for strengthening capacities for community child protection capacity. This was not the case in Chingwizi camp as these spaces only came into existence after four months in the camp. Children ended up engaging in drug abuse and sexual activities to the absence of these safe spaces where they can discuss issues affecting them including sexual and reproduction issues. Child friendly spaces make it easy for abused children to be identified.

The role of the Government through the department of Civil protection Unit was scrutinised in the research and a lot of gaps were identified in terms of their mandate. The CPU did not prepare well for the threat of floods given early warnings of the consequences of heavy rains that lashed most parts of the country weeks before the Tokwe-Mukorsi Dam wall overflowed, leaving thousands of people marooned and hundreds of students out of school, the CPU was not in any way prepared for the disaster raising questions on the government’s disaster preparedness as shown by its failure to abate the impending humanitarian crisis caused by the floods. There was no disaster preparedness plan as shown by the lack of goods and services that were required by the displace population at Chingwizi camp. The Government has for a long time relied on civil society organisations in similar disasters especially in Muzarabani.

The lack thereof the Government to address the issue of durable solutions for the victims of the Tokwe Mukorsi flood disaster made it difficult for humanitarian agencies to plan well. A critical area was that of the land that was housing Chingwizi camp, the Nuanetsi ranch was said to be disputed land. This meant that Organisations that wanted to channel their funds to
durable solutions were not allowed to as the Government could not permanently relocate the flood victims at Chingwizi. Proper houses, clinic, school and even latrines could not be constructed using cement due to the land dispute. Senior Members of the Civil protection would be invited not to attend OCHA meetings but would not attend due to the fact that they were not in a position to respond to such questions.

In terms of abuse of victims and theft charges against Government officials there was no action that was taken against those that were abusing power within the camp, going against the secretary general’s bulletin on sexual exploitation of beneficiaries. This resulted in reports of more than 100 girls getting pregnant within Chingwizi camp. There were reports of donations being stolen and being sold in Chiredzi town a few km’s away from Chingwizi. This negatively affected donations to the camp as Shelter Box donated tents were recovered from some Government official’s residence and some at their relatives’ place after IOM intervened. There are no reports or records to show that investigations were carried out and those that were caught were reported to the Police or any internal discipline that took place.
RECOMMENDATIONS

Child right’s violations are punishable offences according to the Zimbabwean law and so they should be taken seriously. Zimbabwe being a signatory to the United Nations Convention on the rights of Children should be seen upholding these rights to a high standard regardless of the situation that children find themselves in. In disaster situation Government should ensure that children have access to education, food, health, protection from abuse, adequate shelter, participation rights that allow children to express themselves. The Government and humanitarian workers working in disaster areas should be on the forefront of ensuring that children are able to access basic services such as to ensure that a school is in place well in time so as not to disrupt children’s education. There should be funds set aside by government for schools to be there on time.

In terms of the right to food more needs to be done by the Government in setting up the disaster fund which can help alleviate the plight of Children in the event a disaster happens. Children need a balanced diet for their development and growth. Food if a basic human right and thus it should be made available every time. There should be farms that should be set aside for irrigation schemes specifically for food security in case of disaster situations. The distribution of food and non-food items should be well planned with the involvement of the selected representatives of the disaster victims as active members at the distribution sites so as to ensure checks and balances. The Government, Civil Society organisations and the disaster beneficiaries should be able to set up a food distribution committee which should continuously meet and update the food and non-food items register.
The Government should work with partners, NGOs, local women’s rights organizations and national authorities to implement a comprehensive strategic plan for preventing and responding to sexual violence in conflict and post-conflict settings, addressing such factors as, the prevalent problem of women and girls turning to prostitution to survive. It might be necessary to partner with the World Food Programme (WFP) to ensure that women are participating in food-for-work programmes and that food distribution systems reduce the dependency of women toward men by having women distribute food to women. Women heads of household should be given access to cash-for-work projects when these are implemented.

In so far as the right for Children to be protected from all forms of abuse and exploitation it is recommended that the Government through the Ministry of Public service Labour and Social Services take their leading role in coordinating all child protection issues as they should. DCWPS should always have a physical presence within the disaster areas. This is so because the department of Social services are the custodians of children and they have the mandate through administering the Children’s act. Non-Governmental Organisations have limitations in responding to children in need of care as the Government only has the mandate to provide places of safety for Children.

National Child protection programmes should not stop functioning in disaster situations, but they should be strengthened. The National case management system has been developed to ensure the scaling up of the case management model. The case management model centres on case care workers (CCWs), trusted community volunteers who often already assist vulnerable children through local child protection committees or other safety net structures. Under the case management model, case care workers receive skills to identify, reach and respond to vulnerable children who assistance. They need have a comprehensive understanding of
community services and methods to make and follow up on referrals sent to community and Government providers through DCWPS. They have an understanding of case reporting structures and protocols between the community, district and national structures.

Case care workers are paired with vulnerable children identified by communities, schools, churches, NGOs, etc., and help them access necessary support. Case care workers remain with children until they receive services. The CCW’s should be present in disaster situations and should link up with child protection committees. CPC are safety nets that are put in place by Government at different stages e.g. School, ward, village, district levels. The CPC members act as the eyes and ears who hear and report abuse as it occurs. In any situation of disaster that results in people being displaced, these structures should be strengthened. This can be done by civil society Organisations through DSS by continuously capacity building the cadres on Child protection response in Emergency situations.

Another recommendation is that of the quick establishment of the Child friendly spaces in any emergency situation Child Friendly Spaces are a child right’s programming approach that supports children’s well-being in the midst of emergencies. Used widely since 1999, CFS protect children by providing a safe space with supervised activities, by raising awareness of the risks to children, and mobilizing communities to begin the process of creating a Protective Environment. CFS can be defined as places designed and operated in a participatory manner, where children affected by natural disasters or armed conflict can be provided with a safe environment, where integrated programming including play, recreation, education, health, and psychosocial support can be delivered and information about services provided. Generally CFS refer to a relatively short to medium term programme response, and are very often operated from tents and/or temporary structures (i.e. in schools, under a tree or a vacant building). They are usually operated by NGOs or governments. UNICEF is involved.
in establishment and coordination, in addition to setting minimum standards for them. (UNICEF 2007)

Broadly, the purpose of CFSs is to support the resilience and well-being of children and young people through community organized, structured activities conducted in a safe, child friendly, and stimulating environment. The primary participants in and beneficiaries of CFSs are children. The specific objectives are to mobilize communities around the protection and well-being of all children, including highly vulnerable children such as children living with disability, provide opportunities for children to play, acquire contextually relevant skills, and receive social support; and offer inter-sectoral support for all children in the realization of their rights. Depending on the context, CFSs are also used for a variety of other purposes such as laying a foundation for restarting formal education and supporting national education systems, enabling wider work on issues such as child protection and early child development, stimulating efforts on disaster preparedness and disaster risk reduction. Some of these activities extent beyond the emergency context into the early recovery period or even into longer-term development. (UNICEF 2011).

Disasters affect children in so many ways as children are traumatised by unexplainable events that will have occurred such as being airlifted in a helicopter making a lot of noise. It is recommended that psychosocial support interventions are prioritised in the onset of disasters. The term psychosocial is used to emphasise the close connection between psychological aspects of the human experience and the wider social experience. Psychological effects are
those that affect different levels of functioning including cognitive which is perception and memory as a basis for thoughts and learning, affective emotions, and behavioural. Social effects concern relationships, family and community networks, cultural traditions and economic status, including life tasks such as school or work.

The use of the term psychosocial is based on the idea that a combination of factors are responsible for the psychosocial wellbeing of children, and that these biological, emotional, spiritual, cultural, social, mental and material aspects of experience cannot necessarily be separated from one another. (UNICEF 2012) The term directs attention towards the totality of children’s experience rather than focusing exclusively on the physical or psychological aspects of health and wellbeing, and emphasises the need to view these issues within the interpersonal contexts of wider family and community networks in which they are located. These two aspects are closely intertwined in the context of complex emergencies. In Chingwizi camp the PSS activities did not reach many children. Organisations that provide PSS to Children such as Childline should be funded so as to enable them to carry out their duty of ensuring that the social and the mind are in harmony. It is a sad reality that up to now more than a year since the Tokwe Mukorsi flood disaster most children are yet to receive PSS. One of the foundations of psychosocial wellbeing is access to basic needs (food, shelter, livelihood, healthcare, education services) together with a sense of security that comes from living in a safe and supportive environment. The benefits of psychosocial support interventions should result in a positive impact on children’s wellbeing, and address the basic psychological needs of competence and relatedness. (UNICEF 2011)
The role of the civil protection unit which is an arm of the Government which falls under the Ministry of Local Government needs to be revamped. The department needs to develop and maintain a disaster risk management framework in line with international best practice, to strengthen coping capacities of the general public in relation to the country’s risk profile to develop a national strategic disaster risk management framework and a mechanism for implementation of same. To design early warning mechanism at all levels. To promote indigenous knowledge systems and documentation of same for posterity. To ensure communities are equipped with basic knowledge and skills to manage prevailing hazards. To develop preparedness plans at national, provincial, district, local authority, community and strategic institutional level. To conduct training exercises and lessons learnt reviews.

The Government should invest in technical capacity for quick and accurate assessments of disaster situations and a rapid mechanism to activate support from the international community, because it is standard practice that international aid agencies will not offer support unless government declares a disaster situation and formally asks for assistance. In the case of the Tokwe Mukorsi disaster a state of emergency was only declared a week after disaster had struck thereby delaying the response of the international community.

However the Government through the Ministry of Finance should channel funds to this important department so as to enable it to carry its mandate. There is evidence to show that the CPU has on a number of occasions been let down in terms of financial support and this has greatly affected their work. The CPU staff should not wait for a disaster to occur for them to be visible. They should be a part of the different committees where they are supposed to continuously capacity built their clients who are the public, at risk communities/institutions, people affected by disaster, public and private sector, parastatals, industry, local authorities, uniformed forces, tertiary and research institutions, civic society, insurance, tele
Conclusion

Based on the finding of this study, a number of conclusions can be drawn. Nonetheless, the main conclusion drawn from the findings of this study is that Children in disaster situations face many challenges as their rights are either violated or delayed. All participants in this study including children, parents, caregivers, Government officials and civil society organisations, agreed that the Zimbabwe disaster response in terms of children’s needs is still in its infancy. Results of the Key informant interviews confirmed the fact that the Government is facing financial constraints due to the economic situation grappling the country thereby affecting its response in disaster situations. It was evident from the findings that the civil protection Unit needs to be revamped also as to be able to take heed of early warning systems so as to avert disaster situations. However it was perceived by some study participants that it is important to introduce civil education in the national education curriculum. From these findings the researcher concludes that the Zimbabwean populous need to be thoroughly prepared in disaster management and disaster response in order to build their capacities in the event of a disaster such as the flood disasters.

In addition, this research provided evidence that the Civil protection units needs to financial support for it to carry out its mandate effectively. For instance when asked about the
possibilities of responding to early warning systems, many participants indicated that a lot of disasters could be avoided. The participant’s responses it was evident that concerted efforts have to be made to compensate and relocate the flood victims so as to ensure that they restart their lives. There is a need to ensure that child protection is mainstreamed in all sectors during disaster response.

Findings also led to the conclusion that children are still being excluded in issues that affect them and that most decisions that are made are not in their best interest resulting in them suffering in situations of disaster. The children have coined a term “Anything for us without us is not for us”. This clearly is an expression of how children feel in terms how adults treat them. Therefore the expected roles and responsibilities of the different stakeholders including the children in disaster situations need to be clarified so as to ensure that Children’s rights are respected.
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APPENDIX 1

Interview Guide (Parents, Caregivers and Children in Chingwizi Camp)

- In what ways has this flood disaster affected your life?
- Explain to what extent the flood have destroyed your livelihood?
- How has your education been affected by the disaster?
- To what extent has your rights been violated after the disaster?
- Explain how you think the government should have done to avoid the disaster?
APPENDIX 2

Interview guide (Community Leaders and Key Informants from DA; s Office, DEO, DSS Office)

- What are the challenges that you faced as government in responding to Tokwe Mukorsi Floods Disaster?

- Describe the work that the Government has done to ensure that children are protected?

- What are the problems that children faced in Chingwizi?

- Explain to what extent can you say children in Chingwizi were accorded their rights?