FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF POLITICS AND PUBLIC MANAGEMENT

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

AN ANALYSIS OF THE IMPACT OF REFUGEES ON SECURITY:

THE CASE OF ZIMBABWE, 2012-2017

BY

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Master of Science in International Affairs degree

HARARE; ZIMBABWE

2018
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DEDICATIONS
This work is dedicated to my family, friends and work mates who were so supportive and inspirational throughout the course of my studies.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank God the creator for his mercies, grace and protecting me throughout the whole academic period. Secondly, let me extent my greatest appreciation to my supervisor Mrs F Mutasa for her undiminishing patience, guidance and advice in reading through my drafts and suggesting workable alternatives. My humble gratitude will also be forwarded to my family for they stood by me as a pillar of strength. Sincere gratitude to my colleagues and all others who assisted me with various productive and noble ideas, suggestions, advice and hard work in the compilation of the information to make up this piece of document.

I also wish to acknowledge the valuable contributions, selfless help and professional support provided to me by all the members from the UNHCR, IOM, Immigration, ZRP, Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare and Tongogara refugee camp administrators who were part of my respondents throughout the course of this research, irrespective of having other commitments and busy schedules they responded promptly and devotedly.

Last but not least, I am grateful to all my lecturers at Midlands State University from Politics and Public Management and other supporting departments, who assisted me directly or indirectly in any way since I embarked on this academic journey in 2017. Your support and guidance is greatly appreciated.
ABSTRACT
The increase in the number of refugees in Zimbabwe has seen many even the national assembly claiming that this is why there are cases of crimes, human trafficking, budget deficit and other socio-economic and political threats. The research was influenced by a high rise in influx of refugees into Zimbabwe who are migrating from war torn region the African Great Lakes Region (AGLR) in particular the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC). Refugees are viewed as a security threat in different facets; politically, socially, economically and militarily. The research sought to unravel the concept of refugees, analyse the effects on the influx of refugees on host countries, proffer scholarly and policy recommendations on sustainable measures to deal with refugee increase. The research was guided by the two theories; Neoclassical Theory of Migration (NTM) and New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM). The research was a case study approach, adopted descriptive research design and employed both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Study population was 590 and sample of 120 participants. Sampling techniques used were purposive and random sampling. Sources of data include a secondary source that is published scholarly material, reports, journals and newspapers. Primary data was gathered through questionnaires and interviews. The major findings from the study are that refugees were perceived as posing a range of threats to Zimbabwe, which were criminal, economic, political, terrorist and social in nature. For instance, in social terms, the biggest threats were perceived as affecting the health, followed by culture, ethnic identity and religion of the indigenous population. Moreso the country has poor capacities to deal with any security related problems emanating from refugee influx, including screening of refugees for security threat, knowing refugees’ real identities, tracing refugees’ identities back to their home countries for criminal and illegal activities, regulation of border entries to prevent illegal and criminal immigrants, and knowing the whereabouts of each refugee within the borders of Zimbabwe. As a way of potentially dealing with the security threats posed by the influx of refugees it is recommended that proper refugee screening at borders, reducing levels of border “jumping”, removing the refugee camp (i.e. Tongogara Refugee Camp) from the Border Town, providing police company to refugees on their way from the border to the refugee camp, providing a secure refugee camp, and imposing national refugee quotas per annum. The findings from this research will be used by policy makers in understanding security threat posed by the influx of refugees into Zimbabwe and how best to deal with the refugees situation without causing a diplomatic spat within the international arena.
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AGLR - African Great Lakes Region
DRC - Democratic Republic of Congo
EU - European Union
IDMC - Internally Displaced Monitoring Centre
IOM - International Organisation of Migrants
IRO - International Refugee Organisation
NELM - New Economics of Labour Migration Theory
NTM - Neoclassical Theory of Migration
OAU - Organisation of African Union
SSA - Sub Saharan Africa
UN - United Nations
UNHCR - United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNRWA - United Nations Reliefs and Works Agency
US - United States
ZRP - Zimbabwe Republic Police
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CHAPTER I

1.0 Introduction

Refugees are a national security concern in that they have capacity to compromise national security of the receiving state. This is because refugees and asylum seekers are usually a by-product of war and most governments are not able to adjust to refugee influx given that terrorist networks, human traffickers and illicit drug traffickers often exploit these vulnerabilities. The 2007 World Refugee Survey conducted by the US Committee for Refugees and Immigration estimated that, “there were two million nine hundred and thirty-two thousand (2 932 000) refugees and asylum seekers in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) at the end of 2006.” While United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) postulates that in 2012-2014, there were fifty-nine million refugees in the world and about twenty-five percent (25%) of these are in SSA.” The study focused on the research topic that is an analysis on the influx of refugees as an emerging security threat and Zimbabwe was employed as a case study during the research. Particular attention was made to the background information and the statement of the problem that drove the researcher to assess the influx of refugees, impacts and the threats. The researcher also touched on the research objectives, research questions, significance and justification of the study, delimitation, limitations of the study and the summary.

1.1 Background to the study

The wave of refugees across the globe as well as the resurgent refugee crisis has over time developed into major issues in international relations. The situation is complicated by socio economic, political, and security issues, especially for the recipient nations. The 21st Century has seen mankind faced with refugee problems of formidable dimensions despite the fact that refugees have always existed. The refugee problem is international in scope and character and the responsibility for the international protection of refugees rests with the international community. The refugee discourse is internationally cosseted by the following treaties and laws; 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1951 United Nations Conventions Relating to the Status of Refugees and the 1967 Protocol Relating to Refugees, 1969 OAU Convention on Refugees and Europe uses the Dublin System. The Dublin Regulation is a European Union (EU) law that determines the EU Member State responsible for examining an application for asylum
seekers seeking international protection under the Geneva Convention and the EU Qualification Directive, within the European Union. It is the cornerstone of the Dublin System, which consists of the Dublin Regulation and the EURODAC Regulation, which establishes a Europe-wide fingerprinting database for unauthorised entrance to the EU. The Dublin Regulation aims to "determine rapidly the Member State responsible for an asylum claim" and provides for the transfer of an asylum seeker to that Member State (UNHCR Global Trends, 2009). Usually, the responsible Member State will be the state through which the asylum seeker first entered the EU. However, on the international arena, United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) has been mandated to oversee refugee administration.

The above mentioned international laws presents the refugee discourse under humanitarian and human rights perspectives. The laws empower asylum seekers as soon as they declare themselves in the host territory and they become free from persecution in accordance to the Universal Declaration on Human Rights Article 14 (1). While on the other hand, the 1951 UN Convention provides non refoulment principle which oblige the host state not to deport or send back individuals to their countries in which they may risk persecution or tortured and other harm.

Refugees discipline in the world is not a new phenomenon but it is as old as human history. Internationally, the English wars right up to World War 1 and 2 transcending further to Cold War period where massive migration resulted into scores of people becoming refugees. Recent data by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) indicates that there are nearly nineteen million refugees in the world scattered around the globe some in Europe, Syria and Africa among other conflict regions (UNHCR Global Trends, 2015). The refugees are considered to have fled their home countries as a result of violence and ravaging famine. The asylum seekers as such have been forced to settle in environments where they are generally unwanted and as such left to fend for themselves. Large scale refugee immigrations have taken place elsewhere around the world and have lasted for years with no sight of hope coming to the fore.

According to the UNHCR, the number of forcibly displaced people worldwide reached 59.5 million at the end of 2014, the highest level since World War II, with a 40% increase taking place since 2011 (UNHCR, 2014). Of these 59.5 million, 19.5 million were refugees (14.4 million under UNHCR's mandate, plus 5.1 million Palestinian refugees under United Nations Reliefs and Works Agency's mandate (UNRWA), and 1.8 million were asylum-seekers. The rest
were persons displaced within their own countries, Internally Displaced Persons (IDP). The 14.4 million refugees under UNHCR’s mandate were around 2.7 million more than at the end of 2013 (+23%), the highest level since 1995. Among them, Syrian refugees became the largest refugee group in 2014 (3.9 million, 1.55 million more than the previous year), overtaking Afghan refugees (2.6 million), who had been the largest refugee group for three decades. Six of the ten largest countries of origin of refugees were African: Somalia, Sudan, South Sudan, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), the Central African Republic (CAR) and Eritrea (UNHCR Global Trends, 2014).

Developing countries hosted the largest share of refugees (86% by the end of 2014, the highest figure in more than two decades); the least developed countries alone provided asylum to 25% of refugees worldwide (UNHCR Global Trends, 2015) Even though most Syrian refugees were hosted by neighbouring countries such as Turkey, Lebanon and Jordan, the number of asylum applications lodged by Syrian refugees in Europe steadily increased between 2011 and 2015, totaling 813,599 in 37 European countries (including both EU members and non-members) as of November 2015; 57% of them applied for asylum in Germany or Serbia. The largest single recipient of new asylum seekers worldwide in 2014 was the Russian Federation, with 274,700 asylum requests, 99% of them lodged by Ukrainians fleeing from the war in Donbass.

While in Africa alone, Hamrell (1967) pointed that in 1964, there were approximately four hundred thousand (400 000) refugees in 1967 the number geometrically increased to seven hundred and fifty thousand (750 000). Towards the end of the 70s and 80s to early 90s the number grew to outrageous four million (4 000 000) due to proxy wars mooted during the Cold War period. However, the sharp increase was magnified by the outbreak of conflict in the Horn of Africa. This was followed by West Africa and Southern Africa during the colonial period. This amplified the number of refugees as the number continued to rise up to the start of the Millennium.

The magnitude of refugee influx in African countries in recent years has generated concern throughout the world. Widely perceived as an unprecedented crisis, these flows have produced a mixture of humanitarian concern of the millions of people forced into exile and fear for the potential threat to the social, economic and political stability of host states caused by streams of unwanted newcomers. Africa continues to produce a disproportionate number of the world’s
refugees in relation to its overall population; thus, in 1994, around 47 percent of the refugees recorded by UNHCR were to be found in Africa. By 1998, the proportion had dropped significantly, to its current level of 28 per cent. In absolute terms, the number of refugees in Africa fell by more than 50 per cent in the same period: from 6.75 million in 1994 to 3.2 million in 1998 (Crisp 2000).

The host states are therefore struggling to strike a proper balance between the need to maintain control over their borders and the need to protect refugees who seek asylum within their borders. In 2014, there were fifty-nine million five hundred thousand refugees (59.5 million) in the world of which a third are in Africa mainly in Sub-Sahara (UNHCR, 2014). There are also countries this research refers to as major refugee donor countries to Europe that is Syria, Eritrea, Afghanistan, and Iraq including Libya while in Africa there are countries which are hotspots like DRC, Rwanda, Burundi, Somalia, Mali and Eritrea among others.

The wave of refugees across international frontiers and borders has become major issues in international relations (Townsend 2015). It is accompanied by problems ranging from political, socio-economic to security issues, especially to receiving countries. Since the end of the Cold war globally people have been moving across borders and in Africa since the independence era, millions of people within the continent of Africa have been forced to move against their will within the context of forced or involuntary migration (Otunnu 1992). Africa has remained the number one producer of refugees in the world, especially the Horn of Africa and African Great Lakes Region (AGLR). This has resulted in security implications to other countries within the continent. However, refugees’ impact on national security has been to some extent neglected by both scholars and policy-makers yet it affects the daily existence of citizens in various ways.

The need by citizens to seek protection from their own countries has brought in some security dilemmas to receiving countries. Countries in Southern Africa, especially Zimbabwe have fallen victim to security threats, mainly due to the influx of refugees. According to Atim (2013), one of the major security challenge posed by refugees is the creation of a criminal hub where refugees become perpetrators of crimes. Hence, it has been acknowledged that refugees could be involved in drug trafficking, terrorism and general organised criminal networks. In addition, social grants, supported welfare and other benefits they receive from the government causes social security problems to receiving countries.
The overall context in Zimbabwe remains complex, although economic and humanitarian conditions have stabilized and improved markedly since 2009. Political tensions arising from the ongoing constitutional reform process create some uncertainty regarding the future trajectory of events in Zimbabwe refugee camp, and the remainder mostly in Harare. Almost 70 per cent originate from the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), followed by Burundi and Rwanda (Verwimp and Maystadt, 2015). Zimbabwe receives between 50 and 75 new asylum-seekers each month from the Great Lakes region, notably the DRC and there is little interest in voluntary repatriation (Tiyan, 2010). The refugee population is expected to increase, while resettlement will offer a solution for only a limited number of refugees. Refugees in Zimbabwe are recognized under the country’s 1983 Refugees Act, which is substantially in conformity with the provisions of the 1951 Refugee Convention and with the 1969 OAU Convention, to which Zimbabwe is a party. The Zimbabwe Refugee Committee decisions are based on provisions of this Act and the OAU Convention.

1.2 Statement of the problem
Violent conflict is more the norm than the exception in Africa. The recent challenges in political order of the world may have changed the influence on African countries and this has been demonstrated in the direction of Western countries taking on matters concerning African countries especially after the end of Cold War. Conflicts are waged at various levels: global, regional and local. These conflicts involve various actors: government, nationalists’ groups, religious groups and community or identity groups with significant backing from external forces. It is common for conflicts in the Sub-region to promptly acquire a sub-region dimension, thus transcending national borders by attracting kinsmen from across the border. The result is often a flow of refugees who destabilise economic and trade relations between neighbouring states and pose a security challenge to the Sub-region. Therefore, this study focused on the examination into the security challenges brought about by refugee flows from the conflict regions in Africa mainly focussing on refugees from the African Great Lakes Region into Southern Africa, a case of Zimbabwe period 2012 to 2015.

1.3 Hypothesis
Influx of refugees into Zimbabwe is a security threat.
1.4 Research Objectives
The general objective of the study is to find out the relationship between refugee influx and insecurity with a case of Zimbabwe’s experiences, 2012 to 2017. The study specifically aims to:

1. To examine the concept of refugees.
2. To analyse the effects of the influx of refugees as an emerging security threat in Zimbabwe.
3. To examine the dynamics surrounding the influx of refugees.
4. To proffer scholarly and policy recommendations on sustainable measures to deal with influx of refugees as an emerging security threat.

1.5 Research Questions
The research questions of this study are as follows:

1. What is the concept of refugees?
2. What are the effects of the influx of refugees as an emerging security threat?
3. What are the dynamics surrounding the influx of refugees as an emerging security threat?
4. What are the sustainable measures to deal with the influx of refugees?

1.6 Significance and Justification of the study
This research study seeks to explore on the influx of refugees as an emerging security threat to Africa and Zimbabwe in particular. This is going to give an insight to the policy makers and security organisations during policy formulation on the best practices and strategies to deal with the influx of refugees. The study will assist national and regional institutions responsible for refugees management which include the Department of Immigration, Police, Ministry of Labour and Social Services, Ministry of Foreign Affairs and International Trade, Interpol, IOM and UNHCR in devising appropriate refugee management policies. Furthermore the study also creates and adds value to the new knowledge generation, policy and practices. The study is also going to assist researchers of International Relations who might find it valuable in the interpretation and understanding of security challenges posed as a result of the influx of refugees.
1.7 Limitations
Access to information and reports relevant to this research was a challenge due to the sensitivity of the subject. Organisations dealing with refugees were not at liberty to release information. Due to this the researcher had to compliment through desk research in a bid to gather more information relating to the subject.

1.8 Delimitations
The SADC region comprises 15 member states, all of which enjoy national sovereignty and territorial integrity. Whilst refugees are a global phenomenon, it is not an issue that affects each country in the same manner. The magnitude of refugees is more pronounced in some states than others. The effects are equally more severe in some countries than others. South Africa is the major destination by virtue of its developed economy. The study will therefore be confined to the refugees from the African Great Lakes region, their movement into Zimbabwe and the impacts on national security and the study will cover the period 2012-2017.

1.9 Summary
The first chapter serves as the introductory chapter and has managed to give an introduction of the research. It outlined the background of the study that is the basis for the research and the background of the refugee’s crisis was also discussed. Statement of the problem which specifies the problems identified by the researcher that is the essence of the study was also outlined as well as the research objectives, research questions, significance of the study. Moreso the delimitation of the study was outlined as well as the limitations. The following chapter is based on literature review that is it looks on what other scholars wrote in relation to the study topic.
CHAPTER II
2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
The first chapter saved as the introduction of the study area and it touched on the background of
the study, statement of the problem, hypothesis, research objectives and questions, significance
of the study, delimitation and limitations. This chapter looks on the available literature that is
what different scholars wrote relating to refugees crisis. The main purpose of literature review is
to navigate through the already existing literature on the problem to be researched and possibly
identify the gaps that previous works have left. Melville and Goddard (1996) states that literature
review is the process of finding about previous work from range of sources. Blaike (2003) also
added that literature review involves the selection of available documents both published and
unpublished on the topic which contain information, ideas, data and evidence within from a
particular standpoint to fulfil certain aims or express certain views on the nature of the topic and
how it is investigated. Greater emphasis will be placed on the theoretical underpinnings guiding
refugee crisis, the dynamism of the refugee concept in the 21st century, World refugee crisis/
Global refugee crisis, Africa refugee crisis, the Sub Saharan refugee crisis, Zimbabwean refugee
crisis, triggers of refugee influx, effects of refugees on host countries, the dynamics surrounding
the African Great Lakes Region conflict, International Law and refugee protection, the security
paradigm, the nexus between refugees crisis and national security. Where appropriate the
researcher is going to give empirical evidence in order to cement the study. The sources of data
to be used are secondary sources that include published scholarly material, reports, journals,
newsletters and other documents relating to refugees. Primary sources of data will also be used
that include one on one and telephone interviews with personnel from institutions that deal with
refugees and academias who are into International relations.

2.2 Theoretical Framework
The study will be informed by two theories namely the Neoclassical Theory of Migration (NTM)
and the New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) theory. Basically the NTM explains the
motivation for migration, which is mainly premised on economic development considerations.
As argued by Hagen-Zanker (2008) migration on its own is part of economic development,
migrants make choices that are influenced by ‘push and pull’ factors. Prominent in the factors are
those of an economic nature. Notwithstanding the importance of other factors that include political, societal and environmental, what comes out prominently is the economic consideration, which in any case is closely related to all the other factors. Migrants make choices based on the differences between regions and countries of origin and the destination ones. For economic migrants, Ketso (1991) argues that rational choices of individual migrants would be based on observed employment and income differentials. The underlying factor that influences migration is that of economic benefits (Da Vanzo 1981).

The neoclassical theory of migration is premised on the ‘push and pull’ factors that influence the direction of migration (Castles and Miller, 2009, Brettell and Hollifield, 2008). Push factors will be associated with unfavourable conditions in the country or region of origin while pull factors would be those conditions that attract migrants to move over. Generally pull factors include good conditions of service that entail good salaries, good living standards and social and political stability. Push factors would ordinarily be the opposite, which factors migrants detest and wish to be away from. Physical security, which is normally disturbed by civil strife and armed conflict, is a major issue that would push people to migrate to safer areas. Most of the intra-regional migration was motivated by socio-economic factors whilst inter-regional migration was for the purpose of fleeing conflict from such places as Somalia, Sudan, Nigeria, DRC, and some Asian countries. In this study the push factors are the major determinants that result in migrants or refugees to flee from the war ravaged regions of DRC the North and South Kivu provinces to a safer haven that is Zimbabwe through Nyamapanda, Chirundu, Plumtree and Mukumbura border posts.

The NELM theory focuses on a collective decision to migrate that is made, not just by an individual but, by a group. The group may be families or communities, which for reasons additional to those outlined above may decide to migrate. Income is however the underlying factor. Castles and Miller (2009) posit that salaries in the destination country may not necessarily have to be higher but the objective would be to diversify income sources in order to get capital for investment in already existing business ventures back home and also to support their families improve their living standards. The migrant workers will therefore remit money back home to meet their investment and basic needs. Having looked at the theoretical underpinnings it is pertinent to understand the concept of refugees.
2.3 Dynamism of the refugee concept in the 21st century

The 1951 United Nations (UN) Convention on the Status of Refugee, defines a refugee as person “who owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reason of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion and that such a person is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or owing to such fear, unwilling to avail himself of the protection of the country”. Regional instruments in refugees expanded the UN definition (Atim, 2013) For example, the convention governing the specific aspect of refugees problems in Africa, a relational instrument adopted by the Organization of African Unity (O.A.U) now AU (African Union) in 1969, besides adopting the UN definition expanded it to include; people fleeing from external aggression, internal civil strife, or events seriously disturbing public order in African countries. The definition of who a refugee therefore may vary in scope although the 1951 UN Convention definition is normally taken as the standard for “genuine” refugee status. Before a refugee acquires refugee status in the country they have fled to, they are normally called asylum seekers. After their request has been considered genuine they are registered and given the refugee status. This is when they are now officially handed over to UNHCR as mandate refugees. (UNHCR, 2010).

The 21st Century has seen mankind faced with refugee problems of formidable dimensions despite the fact that refugees have always existed. The refugee problem is international in scope and character and the responsibility for the international protection of refugees rests with the international community. Attempts have been made to produce a legal definition of the word refugee. Between the Second World War’s international instruments on refugees contained an ad hoc generalized definition of the term. Marrus and Branwell (1988) states that the important criterion was that a refugee came from a certain state or the nationality implicitly. It was indicated that political events in the named country forced the person to escape. In 1936, the provisional agreement concerning the status of refugees coming from Germany was adopted, the same course was followed, and the term refugee covered all persons coming from Germany (Deegan, 2009).

The refugee problem became a subject of constant concern for the allied powers during the Second World War. At the Bermuda conference in 1943, it was decided that protection should be
given to persons who as a result of events in Europe had to leave or had left their countries of residence because of the danger to their lives or liberties on account of their race, religious or political beliefs, (Mogire, 2011) A similar definition is also contained in the 1969 OAU Convention governing specific aspects of the refugee problems in Africa as that in 1951 refugee convention and 1967 Refugee Protocol. In 1948, the International Refugee Organization (IRO) attempted to find permanent solutions for the 1.5 million refugees remaining on the continent. It was hampered by the Cold War, as the IRO was unable to operate in the Soviet zone of Germany. In 1951 the UN therefore created another temporary organization to deal with the remaining refugees in Europe and in the same year the universal definition of a refugee was provided. The UN convention on the status of refugees along with the institution of the UNHCR, an agency of the United Nations, was to provide the foundations for dealing with international refugee problems. The convention is still the standard benchmark for establishing refugee status.

The 1951 convention was modified in 1967 by the Bellagio protocol, which retained the definition of a refugee but removed the time and geographical limitation, (Marrus and Bramwell, 1988) however the refugee concept has “evolved”. Traditionally, refugees were primarily viewed as victims of insecurity but scholars today view them as a core security problem. They are seen as threat to security rather than a humanitarian issue, (Mogire, 2011). To fully understand how refugee issues have become security issues, we employ the “securitization theory” developed by Copenhagen. Securitization theory tries to elaborate the insight that no issue is a menace and this insight is characterised in several ways (Balzacq, 2011).

A refugee is a person who has fled his/her own country because there is a risk of serious human rights violations (Bacaian 2011). Because their own government can't protect or will not protect them, they are forced to seek international protection. It is further defined by Bacaian (2011) as someone who is unable or unwilling to return to their country of origin owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group, or political opinion.

Refugees discipline in the world is not a new phenomenon but it is as old as human history. Internationally, the English wars right up to World War 1 and 2 transcending further to Cold War period where massive migration resulted into scores of people becoming refugees. While in
Africa alone, Hamrell (1967) pointed that in 1964, there were approximately four hundred thousand (400 000) refugees in 1967 the number geometrically increased to seven hundred and fifty thousand (750 000). Towards the end of the 70s and 80s to early 90s the number grew to outrageous four million (4 000 000) due to proxy wars mooted during the Cold War period. However, the sharp increase was magnified by the outbreak of conflict in the Horn of Africa. This was followed by West Africa and Southern Africa during the colonial period. This amplified the number of refugees as the number continued buoyant up to the start of the Millennium. In 2014, there were fifty-nine million five hundred thousand refugees (59.5 million) in the world of which a third are in Africa mainly in Sub-Sahara (UNHCR, 2014). There are also countries this research refers to as major refugee donor countries to Europe that is Syria, Eritrea, Afghanistan, and Iraq including Libya while in Africa there are countries which are hotspots like DRC, Rwanda, Burundi, Somalia, Mali and Eritrea among others.

This is cognisant of the fact that, the gigantic and unwanted inflows of asylum seekers though inevitable due to various factors referred mainly as push and pull factors is occupied by a plethora of national security implications especially to the receiving states.. However, the refugee discourse this research seeks to discuss is the one entrenched in push factors that is mainly against one’s will. Therefore, the researcher is on the presupposition that the refugee discourse is a threat to national security of receiving states and at the same time rejecting the humanitarian and human rights perspectives that has often overwhelmed the discipline. Now after having scrutinised the refugee concept it is critical to have a look at the refugee situation globally.

2.3.1 Refugees situation in the world

Recent data by the US Commission for Refugees shows that there are nearly 6 million refugees in the globe. The refugees are considered to have fled their home countries as a result of violence and ravaging famine. The asylum seekers as such have been forced to settle in environments where they are generally unwanted and as such left to fend for themselves. Large scale refugee immigrations have taken place elsewhere around the globe and have lasted for years with no sight of hope coming to the fore. The wave of refugees across the globe as well as the resurgent refugee crisis have over time developed into major issues in international relations. The situation
is complicated by socio-economic, political, and security issues, especially for the recipient nations.

The global refugee situation further remains another area of concern with regards to security as articulated by the crisis that is now prevalent in the “age of migration.” It’s worth noting that the vast majority of the population in the world is either composed of immigrants or the offspring of their immigrant parents. Over the years, refugees’ issues and migration have become inescapable and politically controversial in many nations where the citizens are fearful of having foreigners as their next door neighbours. There exists numerous reasons behind the mass migration of persons raging from poverty, political conflicts, persecution, civil wars and deprivation. Other causes not well understood by many range from resource scarcity, climate change, environmental degradation as well as man-made and natural disasters. All these have to a great extent contributed to an escalation in numbers of people forcibly displaced around the globe, including refugees. It is important to have an appreciation of refugee situation at continental level.

2.3.2 Refugees situation in Africa

The magnitude of refugee influx in African countries in recent years has generated concern throughout the world. Widely perceived as an unprecedented crisis, these flows have produced a mixture of humanitarian concern of the millions of people forced into exile and fear for the potential threat to the social, economic and political stability of host states caused by streams of unwanted newcomers. Africa continues to produce a disproportionate number of the world’s refugees in relation to its overall population; thus, in 1994, around 47 percent of the refugees recorded by UNHCR were to be found in Africa. By 1998, the proportion had dropped significantly, to its current level of 28 per cent. In absolute terms, the number of refugees in Africa fell by more than 50 per cent in the same period: from 6.75 million in 1994 to 3.2 million in 1998 (Crisp 2000). The host states are therefore struggling to strike a proper balance between the need to maintain control over their borders and the need to protect refugees who seek asylum within their borders. According to Albert (2012) Social conflict is the most central subject-matter of history. For example, issues relating to the founding/collapse of kingdoms or empires; migration of peoples resulting from natural or man-made factors; colonialism, racism, ethnocentrism, wars and peace all border on social conflict. Africa in the world is host to the largest number of both internally displaced persons (IDPs) and refugees. This includes persons of
concern to the UNHCR. It’s worth noting that an increase in the numbers of both refugees and IDPs have been the two major sources of conflict in the continent. Statistics show that 38 per cent of the globe’s armed conflicts are taking place. In 2006, approximately 50 per cent of all high intensity conflicts in the world occurred in Africa. Civil disorder, wars, ethnic hatred, and violence have brought about the existence of refugees and IDPs much more than natural disasters, for instance famine, floods, and drought have done. Countries in the Horn of Africa being, Somalia, Eritrea Chad, Rwanda, Sudan, Ethiopia, Uganda, Central Africa, Guinea, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Angola, Togo, and Burundi are the main conflicts producing refugees by region and country. The presence of the so-called economic refugees has to a great extent intensified and complicated the problem of refugees in these areas. Majority of the immigration systems further tend to split migrants into three main categories, being ordinary migrants, economic migrants and political refugees. It’s therefore no doubt some economic migrants masquerade as asylum seekers to gain entry into rich countries.

A majority of these economic refugees who are principally illegal migrants do not meet the African Union, and United Nations Conventions on Refugees requirements. This is in consideration of the fact that migration incorporates a host of security issues and challenges owing to the fact that people move both within and across national boundaries. Migration security and insecurity are also to a certain extent linked. This is in views of issues such as a human and narcotics trafficking, and associated international criminality. Refugees can also in various ways be a threat to social stability through problematisation of indigenous cultures that leads to forms of xenophobia, demographic and economic changes. Moreover, religious, cultural and ethnic identity can all be sources of conflicts and security related problems in recipient countries. However a look at situation of refugees at regional level would be very critical.

2.3.3 Refugees situation in Sub Saharan Africa
The massive inflow of refugees that the EU witnessed in 2015/2016 hit many countries by surprise. In particular, countries such as Austria, Sweden and Germany, which took in the highest numbers compared to their population, faced severe challenges. However, from a global perspective the situation in Europe only constitutes the “tip of the iceberg”. The overwhelming majority of displaced people are hosted in developing countries, either as Internally Displaced People or as refugees in countries neighbouring conflict zones. UNHCR Global Trends (2015)
highlights that developing countries host 13.9 million refugees under UNHCR mandate or about 86 percent of the world’s refugees. So contrary to what has been sometimes claimed in popular media, refugees are not “invading” the higher-income countries. One region that has been dealing with particularly high numbers of refugees for a long time is Sub-Saharan Africa. Around 30 percent of global refugees are hosted by this region. Most refugees from these countries remain within the region. In fact, Sub-Saharan Africa has been hosting more refugees than sending them since 1990. At the same time, Sub-Saharan Africans, who come to Europe, are commonly portrayed as “destitute” or “desperate”. However, they are often relatively well educated and from moderate socio-economic backgrounds. They move because of a general lack of opportunities, fear of persecution and violence, or a combination of both.

In 2015, around 86 percent of the world’s refugees under UNHCR mandate, meaning 13.9 million people, were hosted by developing countries (UNHCR Global Trends, 2015). With 4.4 million individuals, Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) was the region with the largest number of refugees. They originated mainly from five countries: Somalia, South Sudan, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Sudan, and the Central African Republic. Altogether, they accounted for 3.5 million (80%) of the total refugee population residing in this region by the end of 2015. Even though, the lack of systematic bilateral data for refugees in SSA limits the possibility to concretely depict flows within the region, research shows that refugees in SSA mainly remain in Africa and are not coming to Europe or other continents. The largest share stays within the SSA countries themselves. Beyond that, there are flows from SSA to North Africa and the Middle East, but also vice versa.4 Actually, SSA has hosted more refugees than sent since 1990. In particular, the uprisings that spread across several Arab countries from 2011 onwards (Egypt, Libya, Syria, Tunisia and Yemen) and in 2013 with large outflows of refugees from Iraq, Syria and Yemen have put pressure on the region. Additionally to these refugees, the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) estimates that there were 12.5 million Internally Displaced People (IDPs) in the 21 SSA countries that IDMC monitors at the end of 2013. This also represents more than a third of the global total. The largest populations of IDPs are living in Nigeria, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Sudan (IDMC Global Review, 2014).

The highest numbers of refugees in SSA were registered in 1994. At that time, the conflicts in Central Africa and the Great Lakes as well as the Rwandan genocide caused millions of people
to flee from their countries. When the situation calmed down in these countries, Eastern Africa and the Horn of Africa became the main source of refugees. They were also driving the increase over recent years. In particular, increased violence combined with extreme weather events in Somalia and North and South Sudan, caused many people from the region to leave their countries (Vermimp and Maystadt, 2015). Detailed numbers are missing with regard to IDPs. However, the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre estimates that there are four countries in SSA with more than one million IDPs: the Democratic Republic of the Congo (3 million), Nigeria (3.3 million), North Sudan (2.4 million) and Somalia (1 million), (IDMC Global Review, 2014). Positive developments can be seen in Southern and Western Africa, where both the numbers of refugees as well as those of IDPs have strongly decreased since conflicts occurring in Angola, Sierra Leone, Liberia and Mozambique at the beginning of the 1990s have been settled or have significantly decreased in intensity. Having looked at the regional refugee dynamics it is pertinent to have an outline of refugee crisis at national level.

2.3.4 Refugee situation in Zimbabwe

The overall context in Zimbabwe remains complex, although economic and humanitarian conditions have stabilized and improved markedly since 2009. Political tensions arising from the ongoing constitutional reform process create some uncertainty regarding the future trajectory of events in Zimbabwe refugee camp, and the remainder mostly in Harare. Almost 70 per cent originate from the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), followed by Burundi and Rwanda (Verwimp and Maystadt, 2015). Zimbabwe receives between 50 and 75 new asylum-seekers each month from the Great Lakes region, notably the DRC and there is little interest in voluntary repatriation (Tiyan, 2010) The refugee population is expected to increase, while resettlement will offer a solution for only a limited number of refugees.

Refugees in Zimbabwe are recognized under the country’s 1983 Refugees Act, which is substantially in conformity with the provisions of the 1951 Refugee Convention and with the 1969 OAU Convention, to which Zimbabwe is a party. The Zimbabwe Refugee Committee decisions are based on provisions of this Act and the OAU Convention. Refugees in Zimbabwe require full care and maintenance support owing to the encampment policy and lack of self-reliance opportunities. The facilities and services available at Tongogara refugee camp need
improvement. UNHCR is pursuing durable solutions, including resettlement, for Congolese refugees from areas of the DRC that remain affected by conflict, in cases where return is not a viable option (UNHCR, 2014). Solutions are also needed for Burundian and Rwandan refugees, within the framework of comprehensive strategies and the roadmaps leading to cessation of status for these refugees. Interest in voluntary repatriation is very limited and prospects for local integration are unclear. The challenging economic and political environment places constraints on the implementation of humanitarian programmes in Zimbabwe.

With most refugees restricted to Tongogara camp, the possibilities for moving away from dependence on humanitarian assistance and towards self-reliance are limited. The Government has made land available for cultivation, but the lack of irrigation prevents their full utilization. Ongoing conflict in the region, especially in eastern DRC and Somalia, will likely continue to generate asylum-seekers, which might strain the capacity of the Government and UNHCR to fully address their needs. According to Mushonga (2017), Zimbabwe host approximately 10 000 refugees and asylum-seekers at Tongogara refugee camp. The Zimbabwean government confirmed more than at least 3 500 Congolese refugees were now accommodated as refugees. Most of the refugees from DRC and Mozambican are sheltered at the Tongogara refugee camp in Manicaland, where the country also caters for a smaller number of refugees from Burundi, Rwanda, Somalia and Ethiopia. Having got an appreciation of refugee crisis in Zimbabwe a look at the causes of their movement answers a lot of hidden questions.

2.4 Triggers of refugee influx

There are several reasons why Africa and even Europe has witnessed colossal inflows of asylum seekers. To understand this, (Otununu 1992, Nicholson 1985, Locfchie 1975, Timberlake 1988, Mamdani 1985 and Hamrell 1967) the reasons stretches from environmental degradation, overpopulation, droughts and famines, debt crisis, political and social instability and economic marginalisation. Also to take note of is the insusciable appetite for wars during the colonial and post-colonial period in Africa. What comes to mind are the wars wagged between the Frethe de Libertacao de Mozambique (FRELIMO) and Mozambique National Resistance (RENAMO) in the 1990s and reemerged in 2012 to date, Angolan war, Darfur regions wars, Chad war, Sierra Leone war, several wars in Uganda, Rwanda, Burundi and Zaire war up to the current ethnic war
in North and South Kivu provinces. Describing the inevitable conflicts in Africa, Kibreab (1991:23) once asserted that “the refugee problem in Africa is a result of inter-play of political, social, economic and environmental factors. It is not easy therefore, to isolate one factor to the neglect of others and to state the real cause of certainty.” While in the Middle East one can agree that the Syrian war alone has displaced over a million asylum seekers in Europe in 2015 (Geneva International Organisation for Migration) let alone the debilitating 2010-2011 Arab Spring in Tunisia, Egypt, Libya, Bahrain, Yemen, Saudi Arabia and Jordan which saw thousands migrating to Europe.

This research is focusing on refugees from the GLR and specifically those hailing from DRC North and South Kivu provinces to Tongogara Refugee Camp in Zimbabwe. The major driver is war and according to Carayannis (2013), “armed groups, both foreign and domestic continue to operate with impunity in the eastern DRC.” This study provides that it leads to militarisation of societies thereby translating to vigilance leaving trail of bloodshed. The nationals have been both internally and externally displaced. Externally displaced people have mainly spread to Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Tanzania and Malawi Refugee Camps. This has exacerbated refugee crisis and the host government’s ability to protect its citizens being diminished, thereby it is necessary to understand the effects of refugees on host countries.

2.5 Effects of refugees on host countries

Several authors have asserted that refugees tend to impact adversely on the safety of various nation states. Recent work confirms the intuition that political violence and persecution are significant determinants of flight (Davenport, Moore, Poe 2003; Melander and Oberg 2006; Moore and Shellman 2004). Yet, refugees are not simply the unfortunate by-products of war, but may serve as catalysts for conflicts, including conflict between states. Scholars have suggested that refugee migration can provoke international hostilities between states, including military action (Dowty and Loescher 1996; Posen 1996), although this claim has not been rigorously tested. For instance, it is argued that Rwanda invasion of Zaire in 1996 was largely motivated by the desire to clear refugee camps that harbored militant factions.
Refugee crises do not only bring about humanitarian disasters but also create serious implications for Border States and host communities. According to Bobbin, and Garrett (2006), the terms internal or domestic and civil conflict imply violent interactions between states and dissidents, and the negative consequences of war and human rights violations, contained within the states. Rather than treating states as independent units, it may be more appropriate to view them interconnected in dense networks of social interactions where process within one state have significant repercussions for other states in the region and elsewhere. The human costs of civil war and state persecution may not be entirely borne by the warring country only, but may create significant externalities, or spill over effects, for other countries/communities. The problems associated with refugees may not be restricted to a particular border area but may have spill over effects on the internal security situation of a region. As posited by Martin (2005), refugee migration can inflict a significant economic burden on host countries or communities. This may be so not minding the availability of international aid, which at time may be from the world’s poorest nation who may often bear much of the cost of maintaining them. Refugees require humanitarian assistance and public service supplied by their hosts, and may compete with locals for jobs and scarce resources, bringing them into conflict with domestic actors.

In the same line, Cortes (2004), has said that compared to voluntary labour migrants, refugees are also less likely to contribute to productive economic activity in their hosts. This sterns from the fact that unlike economic migrants, refugees are not selected for their skills, may have suffered war trauma making employment difficult, and may have lost their assets prior to fight. In a related study, Murdoch and Sangler (2004) have revealed that civil wars in one country have a significant negative impact on GDP growth in neighboring states; they propose population migration as a potential causal factor, but do not test this explicitly.

Also, refugees can be a source of negative public health with adverse consequences for their host countries. Refugees camps are often crowded and unsanitary, creating conditions ripe for infectious diseases; refugee inflows stretch domestic medical resource thin; divert health resource away from normal care; and refugees may have specific health needs related to war trauma that overwhelm the host. To that effect, Ghobarah, Huth, and Russet (2003) and Igbal, (2006) in different research works revealed that civil wars significantly increase the rate of morbidity and mortality in the affected country itself as well as in neighboring states.
In the same line separate studies have also shown that refugees have contributed to the spread of diseases such as HIV/AIDS, Malaria, and diarrhea, among other infectious diseases (Collier et al 2003; Rowland and Noosten 2000; Toole and Waldman 1997). Further, Wiener (1992; 1978) assets that refugees may upset the ethnic balance in their host countries through what may be thought of as a demographic externality. Refugees and immigrants may be seen as unwelcome foreigners and cultural threat to the host community. Ethnic tensions may become especially pronounced when refugees possess ethnic ties with groups already present in the host society. In countries where ethnic cleavages are deeply entrenched, large, unexpected migrant inflows may tilt the delicate ethnic balance in the host society and spark inter-group conflict Brown, (1996) further attests that, “The sudden influx of refugees can aggravate ethnic problems and further complicate the picture by changing the domestic balance of power. Lake and Rothschild (1998) point to similar dynamics in their discussion of the diffusion of ethnic conflict across state.

Finally, refugee’s flows may directly affect the security and stability of the host country by contributing to organized armed conflict on the territory. Salehyan and Gleditsch (2006) have observed that refugee’s inflows from neighboring states significantly increase the risk of civil war. Along with the refugees themselves, foreign fighters, arms, and ideologies that contribute to violence may also stream across the border, refugees warrior communities as asserted by various scholars (including Lischer (2005); Salehyan (2007); Zolberg, Suhrike, and Aguayo (1989)) can expand rebel networks to encompass the host state when militants established bases on external territory and can form social ties with domestic opposition groups with a similar ethnic or political orientation. Therefore, at the extreme, refugee inflows may lead to violent turmoil on the host country’s territory. According to Andreas (2003); Herbst (1989); Jackson (1987); Zacher (2001), in the cases of refugee migrant, such flows threaten to extend violence and opposition activities across national boundaries.

Migrants flee civil war and state persecution for safety in countries of asylum, and most of the world’s refugees flee to countries in close proximity to their country of origin. However, particularly when borders are porous, they are necessarily immune from continued attacks by the state. States may pursue their ethnic and or political rivals across the border, and such attacks necessarily violate the sovereignty and territorial integrity of others. States could object military incursions on their soil, particularly if local populations also become caught up in cross-border
attacks. No state welcomes foreign incursions and military violations of their sovereignty, even though the physical ability to firmly control border may be lacking. Of interest is the fact that refugees may not be passive actors, however, in many cases, while the vast majority of refugees never directly participate in violence rather than being unfortunate victims of violence, some refugees have mobilized into insurgent organizations and refugee camps often serve a double-purpose as sanctuaries for militant groups (Lischer 2005, Salehyan 2007a; Stedman and Tanner 2003; Zolberg, Suhrke, and Aguayo 1989). Recruitment into a rebel organization may provide refugees a better alternative to life in a camp and provide individuals a sense of purpose.

These refugee warrior communities sometimes form when their hosts are too weak to prevent the militarization of refugee camps; in other cases, host countries actively encourage and aid dissident activities as a way to undermine their international rivals. Thus, violence between the countries of origin and refugee communities may not be one-sided, but takes the form of transcontinental civil wars that span intercontinental boundaries (Salehyan 2007a; 2007b). Indeed, Gates (2002) argues that the sub-national level on the geography of civil conflict have confirmed that battles frequently take place in close proximity to international borders and refugee warrior groups are likely to be responsible for much of this find. Offending states may launch attacks on their neighbour’s territory in order to strike at external rebel bases and to clear refugee camp close to the border. As asserted by Bapat (2006), Salehyan (2007), and Schuktz (2007), bargaining and negotiations, may be difficult in these circumstances. Cross-border strikes against external rebel bases and „hot pursuit” raids may jeopardize bilateral relations, but the costs of confrontation with the host state may be seen as acceptable when compared with the tactical advantages to be gained over domestic rebel organizations.

Moreover, disputes about alleged host country support for rebel organization are difficult to resolve through bargaining because it may be difficult for the host state to credibly commit to reversing its policies. In many instances host countries deny supporting rebels despite home country allegation, and it is difficult to prove that the state is not engaging in a pernicious policy; it is hard to prove a negative fact. Verifying compliance with demands to discontinue rebels support is difficult since rebel assistance may continue covertly. Moreover, state supporting rebel organizations may find that the benefits of promoting instability in neighbours outweigh the risk of retaliatory strikes. Finally, refugee host state may find it difficult to comply with demands to
evict rebel organizations because they find it too costly and dangerous to forcibly move against such groups. Having looked at the effects of refugees to host countries it is important to outline the dynamics surrounding the African Great Lakes Region conflict that is fuelling movement of refugees from these nations into Zimbabwe.

### 2.6 The dynamics surrounding the African Great Lakes Region (AGLR) conflicts

Great Lakes Region countries, especially the DRC, Rwanda and Burundi partly differ in terms of their history, extent of war and levels of development, but they have some similarities that may explain their interconnected endemic violent conflicts. In terms of democracy and governance, they have been struggling to establish a consensual electoral system which would, inter alia, guarantee a peaceful transfer of power. They also seem to have failed to establish inclusive political institutions, thus resulting in unequal representation in decision-making and access to land and natural resources. They are polarised along identity and ethnic dimensions that are regionalised and manifest in political violence (Esty et al, 1995).

Transnational ethnic groups and porous boundaries facilitate the ‘inter-contamination’ of violent conflict. For example, the genocide in Rwanda increased cross-border ethnic affiliations between it, the DRC and regional ethnic-based rebel groups. It further resulted in a significant number of ‘warrior’ refugees, who destabilised Rwanda and the eastern part of the DRC at the same time. The instability in the eastern DRC then gave Burundian armed groups the opportunity and a rear base to attack their country. Furthermore, the availability of land and mineral resources in the DRC resulted in enormous economic interests for neighbouring and other countries, who benefit from the illegal trade of minerals during civil wars. Similarly, massive displacements and refugee flows across borders in each Great Lakes Region country also spreads the effects of the conflicts within and across neighbouring countries.

Finally, the analysis is incomplete in explaining all possible root causes and dynamics of conflicts in the Great Lakes Region. Although the factors that have been identified as root causes of conflicts are important and tap into broader processes generally recognised in conflict literature to be conflict-generating, others factors such as extreme poverty, climate change and historical and colonial legacy would also be major sources of conflict in the Great Lakes Region. However having looked at the dynamics of conflict in the AGLR one would ask about the International Law position in relation to refugee protection.
2.7 International Law and refugee protection

The refugee discourse is internationally cosseted by the following treaties and laws; 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1951 United Nations Conventions Relating to the Status of Refugees and the 1967 Protocol Relating to Refugees, 1969 OAU Convention on Refugees and Europe uses the Dublin System. However, on the international arena, UNHCR has been mandated to oversee refugee administration.

The above named international law presents the refugee discourse under humanitarian and human rights perspectives. The laws empower asylum seekers as soon as they declare themselves in the host territory and they become free from persecution in accordance to the Universal Declaration on Human Rights Article 14 (1). While on the other hand, the 1951 UN Convention provides non refoulment principle which oblige the host state not to deport or send back individuals to their countries in which they may risk persecution or tortured and other harm. However, this rule is biased towards human rights perspective and any disregard is in contravention to the International Law. This is a perspective the likes of Nzongola Ntalaja and Gillian MacFayden have been advocating for.

The Jesuit Refugee Service in Europe (2011) while commenting on the European Dublin System, a regulation that binds European countries in terms of refugee status determination, which offers quick identification of the member state responsible for examining a certain application and at preventing individuals from making multiple applications. However, the system has been abused as countries in the same Union pursue self interest and have different refugee system making the Dublin Regulations fail to effectively bind the countries together.

This researcher, having perused literature, identified knowledge gaps that exist in Africa with regards to refugee status determination. At that level, there is no efficient system that deals with refugee influx at any given time except the application of the 1951 UN Convention and its Protocol and the 1963 OAU Convention. The research points that such a system need to be advanced to cater for influx at the same time nipping in the bud trans-national crimes committed under the cover of asylum seeking to include terrorism, human trafficking, illicit drug trafficking and using host countries as a transit for resettlement. There is no such a system advanced even at
regional level except for UNHCR biometric system which is often flouted by refugees as they vacillate between countries resulting in secondary movements.

Further to that, it can be pointed undoubtedly that the 1951 UN Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees was enacted to solve the problem of European refugees following World War 2 and hence by providing the additional 1967 Protocol was to relate the former. The study therefore provides that, non refoulment principle has become outdated and is incompatible to the current refugee dynamics where a country like Turkey is forced to host over 1.6 million, Lebanon 1.4 million, Jordan 600 000 Syrian refugees (United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs 2015).

In Africa Kenya Dadaab refugee camps Ifo, Dagahaley and Hagadera accommodated over 300 000 refugees as opposed to its 90 000 carrying capacity as of 2009 while in 2012 the figures had ballooned to 470 000 refugees (Kirui and Mwaruvile, 2012). Given the economies in Africa, it is uncontested that, it’s a strain to both economic and natural resources of the states which are failing to feed their populations. Therefore, if one may ask, will Zimbabwe, Malawi, Zambia, Mozambique accommodate high numbers of refugees given their economies? If it happens that another war breaks in the region, what system will be used to accommodate such large numbers? In this case, the 1951 UN Convention rebukes states from turning away asylum seekers; it means it will result in unprecedented crisis. Though 1969 OAU Convention empowered member states to use their own means to grant status (Article (1) 1969), it will however not supersede the 1951 Convention.

The study however, points that there are deficiencies that are not addressed by the international law which this research addresses like outlining the movement of refugees from their origins and restrictions in terms of destination. This is open migration policy has led to manipulation of refugee vulnerabilities by traffickers and illicit dealers. Having looked at the International Law and refugee protection it is important to scrutinise the security paradigm.

2.8 The security paradigm
The concept of security has been viewed differently across times. There is the traditional view of security where the state is the referent object. This state-centric view persisted up to and during
the cold war in sync with the realism theory, which placed emphasis on state survival. The state was considered to be the major player in international relations. Traditional security in the Cold War period, according to Poku (2001:109) “was taken to mean national political and military security” and threats to state security were “primarily, if not exclusively, military in nature and usually required military response if the security of the target state was to be preserved”. Societal security and other categories of security during this time were underplayed. Poku (2001:110) argues that “such issues as inter-state and intra-state migration, environmental protection, food and water security and job security, to name but a few, were either not dealt with or dismissed as domestic political matters”. The post-Cold War period witnessed a paradigm shift in the manner security was viewed to accommodate the above mentioned and other domains. It took a human perspective and placed emphasis on human security. Poku (2001:110) states that, since the end of the Cold War the concept of security has been redefined (Mathews, 1989; Poku and Graham, 1998; Graham and Poku, 1999; Thomas and Wilkin, 1998; Baldwin, 1997), reconceptualized (Hakan, 1992), reshaped (Krause and Williams, 1996), retheorized (Wyn Jones, 1989; Booth, 1991), re-examined (Buzan, 1995) and revisioned (Lipschutz, 1995).

The shift in focus resulted in the introduction of a new concept of human security, which examined national and global concerns of the concept and equated security with people, and security with development rather than territories and arms respectively (Human Development Report, 1994). The UNDP Human Development Report (1994:24) states that, “The concept of security must thus change urgently in two basic ways: from an exclusive stress on territorial security to a much greater stress on people's security and from security through armaments to security through sustainable human development”.

The threats to human security are categorized into economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community and political security (ibid). Vietti and Scribner (2013:17) state that “human security offers a more effective approach to many of the underlying problems and threats associated with mass migration, than does the traditional state-security model”. Vietti and Scribner (2013:18) further argue that the human security model differs from the Westphalian state-centric paradigm in that it, adheres to a philosophy of svis pacem parapacem (if you want peace, prepare for peace), and consequently affirms that all measures should be taken at the national, regional, and international levels to ensure that humans are ‘born free and equal in
dignity and life’ and can lead their own lives accordingly (United Nations General Assembly 1948).”

The human security model is guided by the objectives of the UN Charter (1945), which are; “to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights and to maintain international peace and security”. The subsequent Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UN General Assembly, 1948) also helped lay a foundation for the human security model. Vietti and Scribner (2013:19) argue that whilst the Universal Declaration of Human Rights does not explicitly use the term human security, “it recognizes that respect for rights is intimately connected to the creation of a just social and international framework. It anticipates a human-centred approach to security based on the interdependence of peoples”.

The UN Commission on Human Security (2000) as cited in Vietti and Scribner (2013:22) states that, human security means protecting fundamental freedoms - freedoms that are the essence of life. It means protecting people from critical (severe) and pervasive (widespread) threats and situations. It means using processes that build on people’s strengths and aspirations. It means creating political, social, environmental, economic, military and cultural systems that together give people the building blocks of survival, livelihood and dignity (Commission on Human Security 2000).

It is apparent that the human security paradigm is all encompassing and includes non-traditional aspects of security which, over and above the political and military domains, include societal, economic, environmental and cultural spheres. Illegal immigrants threaten these security domains in that they bring a strain to bear on them thus impacting on national security. There are also positive aspects to it though. Critical understanding of the relationship between refugee influx and national security is very important.

2.9 The nexus between refugee’s influx and national security in Zimbabwe

Majority of the existing literature on refugee related issues pays little attention to the security aspects of refugee flows. It could be considered that art of the reason contributing to this is that refugee flows have in many cases been treated as both humanitarian and political issues. As such, the neglect of refugees’ related issues from the viewpoint of their repercussions on security has been at the centre of criticism nowadays directed to proponents of the Realist Theory of International Relations. The main problem attributed to this Realist School is that it places too
much emphasis on the importance of states and the arrangement of power among them. By this the school neglects other important actors, factors and areas in International Relations.

The continued negligence of refugee issues, especially from the perspective of its implications on security, complicates the problem of a lack of literature on the subject. Academicians have also been predominantly slow to respond to its importance and the work that has been carried out has for the most part only existed on the periphery rather than in the mainstream of academic enterprise. The issue of insufficient literature on the security characteristic of refugee flows, is also reflected in UN Convention on Refugees (1951); UNHCR annual reports (2008 -2009); Annual Report on Asylum statistics (DHA, 2007a); Zimbabwean Department of Home Affairs and the OAU Convention on Refugee Problems in Africa (1969). One more reason for the lack of more all-encompassing research on the security implications of refugee influx is the domination of Cold War definitions of national security which tended to stress external and precisely military threats. It is based on the conventional understanding of security and more so the security of the state. The efforts by some academicians to re-define threats to national security and security generally from a Third World perspective have over time been recognized and welcomed. This kind of standpoint is essential when observed against the backdrop of the reality that refugee crisis is to a large extent a Third World problem. Low levels of social organization and of nation and government legitimacy have to a far extent been termed as the source of internal insecurity in the Third World states.

The characteristics of Third World national security issues point to the domestic origins of insecurity, rather than external or military threats. The protection of refugees in Zimbabwe has over time changed from comparatively tolerant and friendly regimes of the 1970s and 1980s to open aggression and opposition to refugees in the post 1990s. With time, the spectacle has come to be viewed as a force of both national and regional insecurity and instability as well. It is as a result of these factors that refugee administrative structures and policies as well are developed to keep both refugees and asylum seekers out by closing borders, denying entry and asylum as well as sending them back which is at times done forcefully.

It has to be noted that there has been a typical shift in refugee and security studies in many countries, which has enabled policymakers to observe refugees as a security threat, though still charged with the responsibility of treating them as asylum seekers and as people who need both
protection and shelter. Questions that arise with regards to this is; How has Zimbabwe been treating refugees; has it attained its international objective of protecting refugees in the wake of terrorism, or it has shifted the blame to the refugees as the sole perpetrators of violence and conflict? The in-flows of refugee are linked with other trans-boundary movements that include organized crime as well as trafficking and smuggling networks. These kinds of transnational networks whether positive or negative in their effects, can get their way into domestic politics by defining voting patterns. For instance in the Northern part of the country, Mozambican refugees were the main determinants of electoral outcomes as they were recruited and registered as voters for the incumbents.

A noteworthy part of literature on asylum seekers and International Relations, points to the fact that refugees are not only a consequence of insecurity and conflict but may also lead to conflicts and insecurity. An increasing acknowledgement is that crisis in refugee camps as well as other forms of insecurity occurring in refugee populated areas are likely to undermine political and public support for the establishment of asylum and the values of international protection. The presence of trained personnel in camps has been proven to aggravate tension between nations, thereby posing threats to regional stability. This is in addition to the fact that uncontrolled and irregular movements of persons across international borders brings about at a challenge to the sovereignty and steadiness of recipient countries. Moreover, what is emerging from the literature survey is a lack of adequate and up-to-date analysis on the security implications of the refugee question. This is to a certain extent is the case with regards the current situation Zimbabwe is facing, which is shielding increasing numbers of illegal migrants and refugees. This study aims to address some of these shortcomings with specific reference to refugees.

2.10 Summary of gaps in Literature Review

From the above literature review, it is apparent that the insecurity aspect brought about by an influx of refugee has not been sufficiently dealt with by previous researchers. This means that the literature review does not adequately fully answer the question on whether controlling the influx of refugees in a country can help in enhancing or decreasing security. To adequately address the security issue, it is important to take cognizance of the aspects of the issue that have traditionally captured the interest of scholars and researchers. First, humanitarian and human
rights perspectives have traditionally overwhelmed the study of the refugee issue. Second, there has existed and persisted a state-centric view which placed emphasis on state security, with an exclusive focus on national, political and military security, to the exclusion of societal/human security which include personal, health, social, economic, environmental, personal, community and political categories of security. From the perspective of the Neoclassical Theory of Migration, although the enormous and unwanted flows of refugees might be inevitable due to various factors referred to as push and pull factors, they can have a lot of national and human/societal security implications especially to the receiving states.

The human aspect of security incorporates, for example, criminological issues such as terrorism, human and narcotics trafficking, illicit drug trafficking, using host countries as a transit for resettlement, among other associated international criminality. Refugees can also in various ways be a threat to social stability through problematisation of indigenous cultures that leads to forms of demographic and economic changes, leading to xenophobia. Given the economies in Africa, particularly of fragile countries like Zimbabwe, it is uncontested that, unrestricted movement of refugees presents a strain to both economic and natural resources of the states which are failing to feed their populations. Moreover, religious, cultural and ethnic identity issues can all be sources of conflicts and security related problems in recipient countries. The host states are therefore struggling to strike a proper balance between the need to maintain control over their borders and the need to protect refugees who seek asylum within their borders. In short, the researcher is of the presupposition that the refugee problem is a threat to national and societal security of receiving while at the same time not rejecting the humanitarian and human rights perspectives that have traditionally characterised the issue.

In regards to international law and refugee protection, there is no efficient system that deals with refugee influx at any given time except the application of the 1951 UN Convention and its Protocol and the 1963 OAU Convention. The researcher is of the belief that there is dire need for such a system be revised to cater for influx at the same time nipping in the bud various side effects of mass migration of refugees such as trans-national crimes committed under the cover of asylum seeking. Besides, the open refugee migration policy enshrined in the above conventions has led to manipulation of refugee vulnerabilities by traffickers and illicit dealers. There is no system advanced presently to cater for influx of refugees and the associated adverse effects even
at regional level except for UNHCR biometric system which is often flouted by refugees as they vacillate between countries resulting in secondary movements. The study posits that there are deficiencies that are not addressed by the international law which this research is hoped to address. Focusing on refugees from the Great Lakes Region, and specifically those hailing from DRC North and South Kivu provinces to Tongogara Refugee Camp in Zimbabwe, this research will add to the body of knowledge on how Zimbabwe (and other nations) can deal with security threats posed by the influx of refugees.

2.11 Conclusion

In view of the literature review this study is based on two theories that is the Neoclassical Theory of Migration (NTM) and the New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) theory. The chapter looked into the literature in which the researcher highlighted what other scholars wrote pertaining the study topic. The literature review has thus brought out the concept of refugees, refugee situation in the World, refugee situation in Africa, refugee situation in Sub Saharian Africa, refugee crisis in Zimbabwe, triggers of refugees influx, effects of refugees on host countries, the dynamics of conflict in the DRC, International Law and refugee protection, the security paradigm, the nexus between refugee influx and national security. It is pertinent to note that the influx of refugees from the African Great Lakes Region in particular those from DRC; North and South Kivu provinces into Zimbabwe has been seen posing a great national security threat in the country. In the next chapter the researcher seeks to elaborate in more detail how the research data was gathered, presented and analysed which is the research methodology.
CHAPTER III

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The focus of this chapter is on the research design and methods employed during the study putting into consideration the merits and demerits on the content of this study. The chapter will be looking at the research design, target population, sample size, sampling techniques, and sources of data, data gathering instruments like questionnaires and interviews, ethical considerations, data analysis, tables. The research defined the scope and limitations of the research design. Methods used are outlined and the study will also justify why the methods were the most appropriate in making sure that reliable data was gathered. Limitations to the data gathering methods and the data collected will also be outlined.

3.2 Research Design

A research design ensures that the data meet the research objectives and most importantly the formal needs for decision making. Sekaram (2000) define a research design as a set of logical steps taken by the researcher to come up with a solution to the research problem. Raj (2005) defines research design as the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure. Research design can be taken as a blue print of the research which clearly lays down what the researcher intents to do. Oppenham (1998) is of the idea that research design is a basic strategy of the research and has a logical plan behind it. The plan makes the study possible and valid as to draw general and valid conclusions. It is a means by which the researcher executes the formulated research problems. He goes on to state that the objective of a research design is to plan, structure and execute the project concerned in such a way that validity of the findings is maximized. The research employed quantitative and qualitative research designs and the research used descriptive research design.

3.2.1 Descriptive research design

Thakur (2009) defines descriptive research design as a type of research method that aims to gain accurate description of the community, institutions or events in a manner that involves minimum
bias and is maximum reliable. James (1997) highlights that descriptive research is employed so as to get information about the current status of the phenomena to describe “what exists” with respect to variables or conditions in a situation.

Descriptive research involves gathering data that describe events and then organizes, tabulates, depicts and describes the data collection. Descriptive research design is preferred because it uses optical aids such as graphs and charts to support the researcher in understanding the data distribution since the human mind cannot source the full import of a large mass of raw data. Descriptive statistics are very crucial in minimizing the data manageable form and thus it is often referred to as statistical research and it uses both qualitative and quantitative research designs.

The limitation of descriptive research design is that the subjects that the research questions may not always be truthful instead will give answers that they feel that the researcher wants.

3.3 Qualitative Research
According to De Vos et al, (2011), qualitative research is an interdisciplinary, trans-disciplinary and in some cases counter-disciplinary field. It crosscuts the humanities, the social sciences and the physical sciences. Researchers and professionals who utilize the qualitative research methodology are delicate to the estimation of this approach. These researchers are for the most part dedicated to the naturalistic point of view and to the interpretive comprehension of human experience. In the meantime, the field is inalienably political and formed by various moral and political fidelities. Denzin and Lincoln (2000) are also of the idea that qualitative research grasps two pressures in the meantime. From one viewpoint, it is attracted to an expansive, interpretive, post-trial, postmodern, women's activist and basic sensibility and on the other, it is molded to all the more barely characterized positivist, post-positivist, humanistic and naturalistic originations of human experience and its examination.

Schurink (1998) notice that it is hard to depict qualitative research in a way which could fulfill everyone. In this research study, as in Schurink's qualitative research ought to be viewed as a multi-point of view way to deal with social collaboration meant for depicting and comprehending, deciphering or remaking, this communication in terms of the meaning the subject attaches to it. In the qualitative research approach for this study concentrate, the methodological measurement of research is basic in delineating the research course, recognizing
pertinent instruments to be utilized over the span of the research and in addition the research's objective. He goes on to state that the upside of utilizing qualitative techniques is that they produce rich, itemized information that leave the participant's viewpoint in place and give a setting to comprehension conduct.

3.4 Quantitative Research
Bell (1987) highlights that quantitative methodology involves tallying and measuring of occasions and performing factual investigation of an assortment of numerical information. It is utilized to assemble information from test that is illustrative of the populace space. Leedy(1980) additionally expressed that quantitative routines give particular factual based certainties to decision makers which can without much of a stretch be utilized to make exact and informed decisions. Cresswell (2004) likewise postulates that a quantitative methodology is one in which the research essentially uses post positive cases for creating knowledge that is cause and effect thinking, lessening to particular variable and speculations and inquiries, utilization of estimation and perception, and the test of theories, utilizes systems of request, for example, tries and studies and gather information on foreordained instruments that yield statistical data.

3.5 Study Population
Table 1: Sample size

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strata</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Sample%</th>
<th>Sampling Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UNHCR</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IOM</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of Immigration</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Labour and Social</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welfare</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZRP</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tongogara Refugee Camp</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admin</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Mumvuma (2000) defines study population as the hypothetically particular aggregation of study fundamentals from which the sample is selected. Mlobane (2005) states that population means any group of entity that has one or more characteristics in common. According to Wagenaar and Babbie (1983) research population refers to the aggregated individual units of analysis from which a survey sample will be reviewed. In this research study population consists of UNHCR, IOM, Zimbabwe Immigration, Ministry of Labour and Social Services, ZRP and Tongogara refugee camp administration. The researcher due to time, costs and distance came up with a sample from the targeted population defined after excluding some institutions through random and purposive sampling as resembled on table 3 above.

3.6 Justification of the population sample
In the context of the research, the study population was driven from various institutions which deals with the management and administration of refugees coming into Zimbabwe. The UNHCR was selected because it is the international body that deals with refugees in almost 130 countries across the globe, IOM manages the movement of asylum seekers to Tongogara refugee camp. Zimbabwe Immigration was selected because they are the ones who are involved in capturing data of asylum seekers as well as assisting in the screening of refugees, Ministry of Labour and Social welfare does the day to day social requirements of refugees, the ZRP is one of the security organisations charged with the mandate of screening refugees and Tongogara refugee administration is involved in the day to day care of refugees.

3.7 Sampling
Sampling is very important in research studies because in some cases it is practically impossible to study the whole population due to time and financial constraints. Mubvami (2001) defined a sample as a subject or subset of the whole population of the total population rather than itself. Sampling procedures can be divided into one of the two categories: (1) probability sampling: each element of the population has a known probability of being selected into the sample, (2) non probability sampling: each element of the population does not have a known probability of being selected into the sample. Examples of probability sampling include simple random sampling, stratified sampling, cluster sampling and multi-stage sampling, whereas examples of non-probability sampling include snowball sampling, quota sampling, purposive, expert and
convenience sampling. In this research stratified, purposive and random sampling were employed.

3.7 Sampling techniques

3.7.1 Stratified sampling

In order to ensure cross sectional representation in the sample the researcher used stratified sampling method. With stratified sampling, the researcher segments the population into discrete categories, then a probability sample is drawn from each group, called the stratum. The following groups or segments of society formed the strata - UNHCR officials, IOM, Immigration, Ministry of labour and social welfare, ZRP, Tongogara refugee camp administration and the refugees themselves. This was meant to ensure that every segment was given an opportunity to air their views. The sample had respondents and the distribution of the segments of the strata shall be indicated on a table.

3.7.1.2 Purposive Sampling

After coming up with 6 stratas, the researcher then used purposive sampling to come up with the sample to work with. Nachmicas (1996) defined purposive sampling as sampling in a deliberate way with some purpose or focus in mind. A purposive sample is one in which the researcher identifies certain respondents as being particularly able to provide significant data on the research subject. Saunders et al (2009) highlights that purposive sampling is select cases that will be enabling him/her to answer the research questions and to meet the research objectives. Degu and Yigzaw (2006) also in support postulates that purposive sampling is typically used when focusing on a limited number of informants whom one select strategically. So that their indepth information will give optima insights into an issue about which little is known. In this research study the researcher got information from the UNHCR, IOM, Immigration, ZRP, Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare and Tongogara refugee camp administration. These groups of participants were chosen because of their in depth knowledge in the area of study.

The merits of purposive sampling include the following;

i) The sample size is small and hence saves time because the members to be chosen for the research with the requisite knowledge are few.
ii) Come up with the exactly required information this is because the focus is on the employees who are well equipped with relevant information and they are the ones who actively participate in the aspects related to ethical issues.

### 3.7.1.3 Random sampling

The research also employed random sampling technique, Reddy (1994) defines random sampling as “Arranging of conditions in such a manner that every item of the whole universe from the sample shall have same chances of being selected.” The technique saves time as the researcher can quickly select a respondent who falls within the desired strata. The researcher employed the lottery method whereby pieces of paper were written “YES” and “NO” and put into a box for the respondents. Each respondent picked his or her paper and those who picked “YES” meant that they participate during the research and those who picked “NO” were left out.

The advantages of random sampling include the following:

i) The method is highly representative if all refugees participate in the selection process and that awards equal opportunity for every member to be chosen for the research.

ii) The results may be generalized for the sample, as the sample selected will be representing the Interests of other members.

iii) Provides every member an opportunity to be picked so as to participate in the research.

The disadvantages include that:

i) The selected participants may be spread over a large geographical area thus it becomes costly.

ii) Taking a simple random sample may result in misappropriate numbers of what the research Intents to achieve since there is limitation of participants.

### 3.8 Sources of data

The study employed both quantitative and qualitative research instruments and utilized both Secondary and Primary data sources. Quantitative instruments involved use of questionnaires whereas qualitative research involved use of indepth interviews. Primary data was original data
gathered through questionnaires and interviews and secondary data was collected through desk studies.

3.8.1 Primary Data

Primary data is data that the researcher extracts from the field in a raw state. Welman (2005) states that primary data is collected specifically for the purpose of the research. However it has to be noted that primary data is costly and time consuming. In this study the researcher employed interviews and questionnaires as primary data research instruments/collecting tools.

3.8.1.1 Questionnaires

Gilham (2008) states that a questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of a series of questions and other prompts for the purpose of gathering information from respondents. Foddy (1994) postulates that the aim of a questionnaire is to gather information for purposes of research for survey, analysis or even to collaborate other research findings. Standard questionnaire for the earlier mentioned respondents were designed in order to get information related to area of interest of the respondents. Gilham (2008) further highlights that standard questionnaire design is a set of questions with fixed alternatives and these could be dichotomous (having only yes/no). Smith (2001) assets that large amounts of information can be collected from a large number of people in a short period of time and in a relatively cost effective way.

Standard questionnaire can be scrutinized more scientifically and objectively than any other forms of research. Zina (2004) highlights that questionnaires are essentially descriptive tools, generating information on what people do, their view has thought of beliefs about certain issues. Questionnaires were distributed to the various institutions. All questions were written in simple English language with simple instructions to avoid ambiguity and answers provided were confidential.

The advantages of questionnaires include the following;

i) It is a cheaper way of surveying a large cross section of people

ii) There are high chances of obtaining credible responses as the respondents have enough time to think and provide information and also there is anonymity
iii) Questionnaires produce a better basis for comparison and measurement since every respondent attacked the same questions

iv) They are less time consuming a large amount of questions are administered simultaneously

The disadvantages of using questionnaires include the following;

i) There is no direct contact with the respondents therefore it becomes difficult to capture nonverbal responses/gestures

3.8.1.2 Interviews/structured interviews

Van dyk et al (2004) asserts that the term structured interview refers to a situation where the interview makes use of previously competed list of questions to obtain certain data from participants. In structured interviews the respondent is asked a series of pre-established questions with present response categories. These were used to gather data from UNHCR, IOM, Immigration officials and Tongogara refugee camp administrators.

3.8.1.3 Unstructured Interviews

The researcher also employed unstructured interviews during the research. Tripathi and Shukla (2003) defined an unstructured interview as a non-standardized, open ended and in depth interviews that is used to make an understanding of complex behavior of people without limiting them. The use of unstructured interview enables the respondent to come through rather than their beliefs, values and behaviors to be tightly filtered and boxed.

The advantages of Interviews include the following;

i) They have a high response rate.

ii) Non-verbal aspects of responses are observed in face to face interviews.

iii) There is enough room for any clarification of points and misunderstandings.

iv) Immediate data collection.

v) Interviews allows the researcher control over the line of questioning.

vi) Provision of historical information by the respondents.
The disadvantages include the following;

i) The presence of the researcher may result is biased response

ii) Time consuming.

3.8.2 Secondary data

The researcher collected data from secondary sources that consisted of published scholarly materials, reports, journals, newsletters and newspapers. The sources proved to be of great significance since they provided information that had some level of truth and bias was minimal.

Secondary data has its own advantage that is readily available, inexpensive to find, clarify research problems and hypothesis, and provide possible solution to a problem and also alternative to primary data collection. Gilham (2008) indicates that secondary data is data that exist within or outside the company; the data is collected and processed by others for a purpose other than the problem at hand. Wegner (1999) suggests that secondary data consists of data that has already been produced and can be contemporary or historical, qualitative and quantitative. Secondary data save time and money. They also provide information and access to historical data and may be used to offer general background information. Smith (2001) asserts that secondary data may be useful for putting the research context.

3.9 Data collection

It is imperative to note that the quality of the data is key to any given research exercise. It is in this notion that the quality in the research was ensured at all stages of the research process by putting in place appropriate quality control measures. After post checking the completed questionnaires the following mechanisms were effected; emphasizing the anonymity of the target respondents, double punching of data at the data processing stage to ensure maximum accuracy.

3.10 Administration of the Instruments

3.10.1 How the questionnaires were distributed

Questionnaires distribution and administering was by hand. Brief notes explaining how respondents should answer the questions accompanied the questionnaire. The notes also explained that all the information and access to it were restricted as it will be purely for academic
purpose only. Questionnaires were handed to officials from UNHCR, IOM, Immigration and Tongogara refugee camp administrators that deal with refugees.

### 3.10.2 How the interviews were conducted

Appointments were made with those who were to be interviewed; the responsible personnel at Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare and ZRP and were notified of the proposed research at their organizations. Responsible officials were also notified and appointments made. Each interview was timed to around ten minutes. The researcher interviewed all the divisional heads in order to collect data.

### 3.11 Ethical Considerations

As postulated by Cooper and Schinder (2003) ethics are norms or standards of behavior that guide moral choices about our behavior and relationship with others. The goal of ethics in social research is to ensure that no one is harmed or suffer adversely from the research activities. The researcher took all the possible steps to ensure that all participants were treated with care, sensitivity and respect for their status as human beings and every attempt was made to avoid belittling participants to the status of objects.

The following procedural principles guided this research in terms of ethics. The issue of informed consent was given prominence. This researcher placed upon the obligation to ensure that before participants agree to take part in the research they were made fully aware of the nature of the research and their role within it. He provided his prospective participants with a summary of the key aspects of the research since it was not feasible to explain all the research aspects due to time limitations. Yet another aspect that featured strongly in this research was the issue of confidentiality. This researcher assured his participants that their identity in relation to this research would remain anonymous. They are not going to be named in any way in connection with this research and the opinions they express will not be associated with them personally.

### 3.12 Data analysis

Data analysis is an integral part of any given research processes such that without an appropriate analytical procedure it is impossible to come up with meaningful findings. The data analysis was performed with the adoption of the statistical package for social scientists a leading desktop
statistical package. The package has a very comprehensive range of data manipulation tools as it enables the researcher to deduce vital qualitative and quantitative information and this result in the generation of graphs and charts with aids in the effective analysis of the results and to have meaningful deductions. In analyzing and presenting the data both quantitative and qualitative techniques were use. The gathered responses were analyzed through the use of graphs, tables and pie charts. The observational results was then used to present, describe, interpret and analyze the data.

3.12.1 Tables

According to Baxter (1996) a table is a systematic arrangement of data or information in a format that allows the reader to observe variations or trends to make comparisons. Justification of using tables is that it enabled the researcher to group similar data into one category for easy interpretation. It also helped the researcher to arrange data easily.

3.12.2 Pie charts

A pie chart is a circle divided into sections such that each section represents the percentages of total area of the circle associated with the variable. This will help in depicting propositions although there is a limit on the number of factors.

3.12.3 Bar Graphs

The researcher used bar graphs for further highlighting the result gathered from the respondents. Bar graphs gave a quick overall impression of research findings making it easy for the research to draw conclusions.

3.13 Conclusion

The focus of this chapter was on illustrating and explaining the methods that were employed in the collection of the needed data, the merits and the demerits of using both the primary and secondary sources of data were outlined. The research methodology was discussed under a number of headings that include the research design, research instruments, data collection and presentation and data analysis techniques. The methodologies preferred were thus based on the availability of resources, and time available. This information enabled the researcher to proceed
to the field to carry out his research and proceed to write the following chapter which will deal with data presentation, analysis and interpretation.
CHAPTER IV

4.0 DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction
This chapter will be looking at data analysis, presentation and interpretation. Discussion will be based on the data gathered from the interviews and questionnaires that were distributed to the target population. The research used both qualitative and quantitative analysis of data from questionnaires and interviews. The main focus of the study is to provide answers to the research questions in chapter one. The data will be presented in the form of graphs, tables, pie charts were necessary. The themes underpinning this chapter include the following; overall response rate, response rate for questionnaires, response rate for interviews, demographic details of sample, capacity to meet refugee needs and deal with entailing refugee problems, terrorist problems, economic challenges brought about by proliferation of refugees, criminal problems, political problems, social problems and possible remedial strategies. The data was analysed with the use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Graphs and charts that accompany the presentation of the data were done in Microsoft Excel.

4.2 Overall response rate
The respondents were from UNHCR, IOM, ZRP, Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, Immigration and Tongogara refugee camp administrators. Target population of 120 respondents that is 20% from UNHCR, 17% from IOM, 21% from Immigration, 22% Tongogara refugee camp administrators. Interviews were conducted with the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare and ZRP. A total of 80 questionnaires were distributed and a total of 08 interviews conducted. This is going to be presented on tables below.
4.2.1 Response rate for questionnaires

Table 2: Response rate for questionnaires

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strata</th>
<th>Target respondent</th>
<th>Actual respondent</th>
<th>Response percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UNHCR</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IOM</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tongogara refugee camp administrators</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immigration</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>94%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Research data, 2018

Table 4.0 highlights that the overall response rate to questionnaires was very fair, 75% of the questionnaires were returned so as to analyse the sample, 80 questionnaires were distributed, 75 were returned. The UNHCR had a response rate of 100%, IOM 100%, Tongogara refugee camp administrators 100% and Immigration 80% which was the least attributed to the busy schedules. The high percentage response rate can highlight that the researcher personally administered the questionnaires and the respondents were given more time to fill in, the questionnaires not returned by some of the respondents can be attributed to the fact that some members were busy with other tasks, unwillingness to disclose information, poor cooperation by some of the respondents.

4.2.2 Response rate for Interviews

Table 3: Interviews response rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strata</th>
<th>Target respondent</th>
<th>Actual respondent</th>
<th>Response percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZRP</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Research data, 2018
Table 4.1 indicates that response during the interviews was high with an overall percentage of 100%. Interviews were held with officials from Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare with response of 100% and the ZRP who had also response rate of 100%. The participation percentage was high because the researcher managed to book appointments well in time and also had the opportunity to explain the gray areas where necessary.

### 4.3 Demographic Details of the Sample

Table 4.2 presents the descriptive statistics pertaining to the demographic details of the sample used in the study. As shown in the table, the demographic variables that appeared on the questionnaire were age, gender, highest level of education, and years of being in service in an organization that deals with refugees.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variable</th>
<th>Level of Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>% Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td>38.05</td>
<td>14.59</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18-30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>75.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest Level of Education</td>
<td>Ordinary Level</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advanced Level</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Certificate</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Postgraduate</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4 National capacity to meet refugees needs to solve associated problems

Table 4.3 carries the mean ratings on dimensions related to the perceived capacity of Zimbabwe to host refugees, meet their needs and to solve any problems that emanate from refugee influx. The means are arranged in descending order, ranging from the highest (i.e. best) rating to the lowest (i.e. worst rating). As shown by the table, the country was rated best in terms of catering for interests of refugees and issuing them with identification documents. The next highest rating was on monitoring daily activities of the refugees. The country was rated below the scale midpoint (2.5) on all the other dimensions, including screening of refugees for security threat, knowing refugees’ real identities, tracing refugees’ identities back to their home countries for criminal and illegal activities, regulation of border entries to prevent illegal and criminal immigrants, with the lowest (i.e. poorest) rating being on knowing the whereabouts of each refugee within the borders of Zimbabwe.

Table 5: National capacity to meet refugees needs to solve associated problems

National Capacity to Meet Refugees’ Needs and to Solve Associated Problems

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cause of Congestion</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Catering for interests of refugees</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issuing refugees with documents</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitoring daily activities of the refugees.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not engaging in impermissible economic activities</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Screening of refugees for security threat | 5 | 1.83
---|---|---
Knowing refugees’ real identities | 6 | 1.58
Measures against errant refugees | 7 | 1.46
Tracing refugees’ identities back to their home countries for criminal and illegal activities. | 8 | 1.25
Regulation of border entries to prevent illegal and criminal immigrants | 9 | 1.20
Knowing the whereabouts of each refugee within the borders of Zimbabwe. | 10 | 1.17

4.5 The extent to which refugee influx in Zimbabwe has facilitated armed activities

In terms of terrorist/armed activities, Figure 4 shows that participants perceived refugee camps as possible safe havens for individuals who would have engaged in armed activities in their counties as the biggest threat (mean = 3.5), followed by living conditions in refugee camps providing a conducive environment for involvement in armed activities (Mean = 1.49). Smuggling of firearms which are used in armed activities was rated as the smallest threat, in terms of potential terrorist activities (Mean =1.14). This is supported by Salehyan and Gleditsch (2006) who observed that refugee’s inflows from neighboring states significantly increase the risk of civil war. Along with the refugees themselves, foreign fighters, arms, and ideologies that contribute to violence may also stream across the border, refugees warrior communities as asserted by various scholars (including Lischer (2005); Salehyan (2007); Zolberg, Suhrike, and Aguayo (1989) can expand rebel networks to encompass the host state when militants established bases on external territory and can form social ties with domestic opposition groups with a similar ethnic or political orientation. Therefore, at the extreme, refugee inflows may lead to violent turmoil on the host country’s territory.

On elaborating some of the above points, the only theme that emerged was fear of armed attacks from across the border. While the majority of the participants did not give any elaboration of their answers, 23% of the staff at Tongogara camp were wary of a threat of Renamo bandit infiltration from Mozambique. One respondent pointed out that of about 5,000 refugees who had
fled armed conflict in Mozambique in 2017, 99% of them had been unwilling to be based at Tongogara Refugee Camp, where bandit infiltration would be conducted. Therefore, there were fears that Mozambique refugees at Tongogara Camp might be attacked by Renamo rebels due to the proximity of the camp to the Mozambican border. One participant actually pointed out that a Mozambican man who had fled the conflict had been abducted and killed back in Mozambique.

**Figure 1: The extent to which refugee influx in Zimbabwe has facilitated armed activities**

![Bar chart showing the extent to which refugee influx in Zimbabwe has facilitated armed activities.](image)

*Source: Research Data, 2018*

**4.6 Perception of economic threats from refugees**

Figure 4.1 shows that participants views the strain to natural and economic resources as the biggest economic threat to Zimbabwe (Mean = 3.95). Participants also thought that the local Zimbabweans view refugees as a threat to their economic wellbeing (Mean = 3.12). As such, it is also understandable that they viewed refugees as being in a “scramble” for resources with the local population (Mean = 2.94). Still high but slightly below the scale midpoint was the mean rating of financial backing of refugees by the international community making them being envied by host communities (Mean = 2.43) which supports the null hypothesis that refugees influx in Zimbabwe is a security threat. This is supported by Martin (2005) who stated that refugee migration can inflict a significant economic burden on host countries or communities. This may be so not minding the availability of international aid, which at time may be from the world’s poorest nation who may often bear much of the cost of maintaining them.
Refugees require humanitarian assistance and public service supplied by their hosts, and may compete with locals for jobs and scarce resources, bringing them into conflict with domestic actors. Moreso the results further goes along with the Neoclassical theory of Migration (NTM) that rests on the push and pull factors that influence the direction of migration. The push factors will be associated with the unfavourable conditions in a country.

**Figure 2: Perception of economic threats from refugee influx**

![Perception of Economic Threats from Refugee Influx](image_url)

*Source: Research Data, 2018*

Elaborating on economic threats, some participants, who constituted 17% of the sample, pointed out a specific threat to entrepreneurship activities of locals from some refugees who engage in business. Five percent of the sample stressed the issue of urban “refugees” who would have been reported at the border heading for the Tongogara Camp but instead sneak into urban areas, and venture into lucrative business like running commuter omnibuses, illegally competing with locals.

**4.7 Perception of criminal threats from refugees**

Figure 4.2 shows that respondents perceived the general involvement of refugees in criminal activities as the greatest criminological problem posed by the influx of refugees into the country (Mean = 3.59), followed by living conditions of refugees in camps as a catalyst for criminal activities (Mean = 2.61). Last, respondents thought that refugee camps were acting or could act as hideouts for individuals who would have committed crimes (Mean = 1.98).
Elaborating on criminal threats, 11% of the participants again stressed that Mozambican refugees were a particular threat. In terms of criminal threats, they had been previously involved in cattle rustling, and were also involved in the brewing, consumption and sale of an illicit “banana beer”.

**Figure 3: Perception of increase in crime as a result of refugee influx**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception of increase in crime as a result of refugee influx</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Criminal activities</td>
<td>3.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camps as criminals’ hideouts</td>
<td>1.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living conditions-leading to crime</td>
<td>2.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Research Data, 2018*

**4.8 Perception of political threats from refugees**

Figure 4.3 shows that refugees were also perceived as bringing political threats to the country, as indicated by Figure 4. The possibility of use of refugee camps as hideouts for refugees involved in political activities of Zimbabwe was perceived as the highest threat (Mean = 3.04), followed by involvement of refugees in political activities of Zimbabwe (Mean = 2.11). Last, respondents thought that the living conditions in the refugee camps could lead them into involvement in political activities of Zimbabwe (Mean = 1.23) which is a threat to the politics of Zimbabwe. This alone concurs with the hypothesis that an influx of refugees is a great security threat.

Fifteen percent of the staff at Tongogara Refugee Camp elaborated on political threats. The general point they made is that it had come to their attention through informal channels that some of the refugees at the camp were being clandestinely registered to vote in the forthcoming elections, hence bringing some unwarranted interference in the politics of Zimbabwe.
4.9 Perception of social threats from refugees

Figure 4.4 shows the social threats refugees were perceived as bringing into the country. In descending order, the biggest social threats were perceived as affecting the health (2.58), culture (2.53), ethnic identity (Mean = 2.15) and religion (Mean =1.52) of the indigenous population. These results greatly support the null hypothesis guiding the study that refugee’s influx in Zimbabwe is a great security threat. This is further supported by studies which have shown that refugees have contributed to the spread of diseases such as HIV/AIDS, Malaria, and diarrhea, among other infectious diseases (Collier et al 2003; Rowland and Noosten 2000; Toole and Waldman 1997). Further, Wiener (1992; 1978) assets that refugees may upset the ethnic balance in their host countries through what may be thought of as a demographic externality. Refugees and immigrants may be seen as unwelcome foreigners and cultural threat to the host community. Only five percent of the respondents elaborated on social threats, and they all focused on the health issue. They expressed fears that some refugees might bring Ebola from central Africa, as there were no robust methods to screen those carrying the disease.
4.10 Possible remedies Zimbabwe could effect to deal with security threats posed by the influx of refugees.

Participants were exposed to a stand-alone, open-ended item: Please recommend how best Zimbabwe can deal with security threats posed by the influx of Refugees? Figure 4.5 shows that proper refugee screening at borders was mentioned by the highest percentage of respondents (25%) as the most effective strategy to deal with security threats posed by the influx of refugees, followed closely by reducing levels of border “jumping (23.3%), then by removing the refugee camp (i.e. Tongogara Refugee Camp) from the Border Town Chipinge (20%), providing police company to refugees on their way from the border to the refugee camp (13.3%), providing a secure refugee camp (10%), and imposing national refugee quotas per annum (8.4%).
Figure 6: Remedies proposed by respondents to reduce security threats posed by refugee influx.

Source: Research Data, 2018

4.11 Discussion

Results reported in this chapter are both informative and instructive. The country was rated poorly on seven of the ten dimensions that were used to measure its capacity to meet the needs of refugees, and also to deal with any security-related problems emanating from refugee influx — including screening of refugees for security threat, knowing refugees’ real identities, tracing refugees’ identities back to their home countries for criminal and illegal activities, regulation of border entries to prevent illegal and criminal immigrants, and knowing the whereabouts of each refugee within the borders of Zimbabwe. It seems there are no effective systems in place at all to monitor and prevent security threats that may be posed by refugees once they are within the borders of the country. Once refugees are issued with identification documents at the border, it seems that the discretion is really left upon themselves to either proceed to the refugee camp, to go and settle among the rural or urban communities, or to re-cross the border into other countries. Furthermore, there seems to be no method in place to know the authenticity of the refugees’ identities, or tracing whether they would have been involved in some illegal or criminal activities in their countries of origin. Obviously, this laissez faire approach to migration creates loopholes in the security systems of the entire region. As the Chipinge South legislator aptly noted in an interview with the Daily News: “once a person flees from war or terror and is classified as a refugee and should be quarantined in a camp for safety and protection. Once let loose he might be a threat to others” (Daily News, 24 April, 2017). While recognizing that many of the people who seek asylum are indeed bona fide
refugees, it is important at the same time to guard against security threats can be promoted by ineffective refugee control systems. Overall, these results demonstrate that there is no system presently in Zimbabwe to cater for influx of refugees and the associated adverse effects even at regional level except for UNHCR biometric system which is often flouted by refugees as they vacillate between countries resulting in secondary movements. Much to its credit, however, Zimbabwe has managed to continue catering well for the needs of refugees, despite its severely ailing economy. This has largely been due to its relative safety and the unyielding help from international organisations such as the UNHCR and the IOM.

Refugees were perceived as posing a variety of threats to Zimbabwe, which were terrorist, criminal, economical, and social in nature. In terms of terrorist/armed activities, participants perceived refugee camps as possible hiding places for individuals who would have engaged in illegal armed activities in their counties as the biggest threat, followed by living conditions in refugee camps providing a conducive environment for involvement in armed activities. Smuggling of firearms which are used in armed activities was rated as the smallest threat, in terms of potential terrorist activities. It might indeed be true that some individuals fled their countries of origin after committing war crimes, and came to Zimbabwe masquerading as helpless refugees. Some commentators have, for instance, questioned why some Rwandan refugees have repeatedly turned down offers to go back to their country, despite that Rwanda is now a relatively much more peaceful and prosperous nation (e.g.) The answer could be that they are fugitives from justice, after having perpetrated war crimes during the Rwanda genocide. There was also a fear that the living conditions in refugee camps provide a conducive environment for involvement in armed activities. This sentiment seems to stem from fears that there could be armed insurgents from neighboring countries like Mozambique sneaking into the country to attack refugees in camp, as they are concentrated in a single place and thus easy to locate. It is not recorded in the history of Zimbabwe that refugees themselves have ever engaged in any armed activities. Likewise, smuggling of firearms which are used in armed activities was rated as a very minor threat, perhaps also because guns have not been known to proliferate into Zimbabwe in any significant scale from refugees. Most of the small number of illegal firearms in the country are known to originate from South Africa by way of mostly Zimbabwean criminals.

Respondents perceived the general involvement of refugees in criminal activities as the greatest criminological problem posed by the influx of refugees into the country, followed by living
conditions of refugees in camps as a catalyst for criminal activities. Last, respondents thought that refugee camps were acting or could act as hideouts for individuals who would have committed crimes. It is instructive that as in terrorist threats, Mozambican refugees were perceived as a particular threat, as they have been recorded in the local media to be involved in fatal armed attacks and other similar criminal acts like stock theft. The rather frequency recurrence of armed conflicts between the Mozambican Government and the Renamo Rebels may be largely responsible for facilitating the armed and criminal acts, albeit genuine Mozambican refugees are also likely to cross into Zimbabwe and other surrounding countries in times of war.

Economic threats perceived by respondents were topped by the strain to natural and economic resources. Participants also thought that the local Zimbabweans view refugees as a threat to their economic wellbeing. As such, it is also understandable that they viewed refugees as being in a “scramble” for resources with the local population. The financial backing of refugees by the international community making them being envied by host communities was also perceived as a threat. Given the particularly fragile economy of Zimbabwe, it is understandable that influxes of refugees into the country presents a strain to both economic and natural resources of the country. When the local population gets to the position of scrambling for meagre resources with refugees, who are usually perceived as undeserving outsiders, in economic terms, the results may include the rise of xenophobia, as occurs frequently in South Africa. Given that most of the local population are struggling to make ends meet, it is not surprising that the financial backing of refugees by the international community making them being envied by host communities was also perceived as a threat. The financial provision for refugees even during the worst economic periods of Zimbabwe by international non-governmental organisations has been rather excellent and lauded, such that in essence it should not be surprising if local people feel somewhat relatively deprived in comparison to the camped refugees.

In social terms, the biggest threats were perceived as affecting the health, followed by culture, ethnic identity and religion of the indigenous population. Only a very few respondents elaborated on social threats, and they all focused on the health issue. They expressed fears that some refugees might bring Ebola from central Africa, as there were no robust methods to screen those carrying the disease. These results dovetail with previous research, which has demonstrated that religious, cultural and ethnic identity issues can all be sources of conflicts and security
related problems in recipient countries. All in all, the research reported in this dissertation has demonstrated that mass migration of refugees can have a lot of national and human/societal security implications especially to the receiving states that could be political, social, or economic in nature. Traditionally, refugees were primarily viewed as victims of insecurity but this research and others underscore the view that they could also be a serious security problem (cf. Mogire, 2011). As a way of potentially dealing with the security threats posed by the influx of refugees, participants recommended proper refugee screening at borders, reducing levels of border “jumping”, removing the refugee camp (i.e. Tongogara Refugee Camp) from the Border Town, providing police company to refugees on their way from the border to the refugee camp, providing a secure refugee camp, and imposing national refugee quotas per annum. To adequately address the security issue, it is important to take cognizance of the fact that humanitarian and human rights perspectives have traditionally overwhelmed the study of the refugee issue. Second, has been at the centre of the refugee discourse, with an exclusive focus on its territorial security, to the exclusion of societal/human security which include personal, health, social, economic, environmental, personal, community and political categories of security. Adopting a non-traditional approach as the present research did is a step forward, as it is all-encompassing and includes non-traditional aspects of security which, over and above the political and military domains, include societal, economic, environmental and cultural spheres.

4.12 Conclusion
In conclusion with the hypothesis the findings have managed to highlight views from respondents on the influx of refugees as an emerging security threat in Zimbabwe. Data gathered is vital in answering the research questions and addressing the objectives highlighted in chapter one. The findings were presented in tables, graphs and pie charts. The research study has also managed to concur with the hypothesis in highlighting that the threats posed due to influx of refugees include terrorism, human trafficking, criminal, military, economic, social and political threats among others. Measures to curb some of the threats posed due to influx of refugees include refugee screening, secure refugee camp, reduce border jumpers, imposing refugee quotas, police to escort refugees to Tongogara refugee camp among others. The research also outlined that the country was rated best in terms of catering for the refugees interests. With the findings in place the researcher now makes recommendations and conclusions on how best can Zimbabwe deal with the influx of refugees which is said to be posing a great security threat.
Chapter five is going to highlight on the summary, conclusions and recommendations on the research study.
CHAPTER V

5.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction
This chapter summarizes all the chapters and it employs vital issues and findings of the research study so as to outline the summary, conclusions as well as the recommendations to the research problem. A summary of the major aspects of the study and its findings is presented. Recommendations are then made in relation to each of the four objectives that directed and steered the research. The scope of the conclusion is limited to the refugee crisis in Zimbabwe as an emerging security threat. Thus crudely applied to other grain countries, these conclusions may not bear correct assumptions. However, these conclusions can be relevant if viewed broadly and loosely to developing countries with similar socio-economic and political profiles in general.

5.2 Summary of the research
This research sought to investigate the influx of refugees as an emerging security threat in Zimbabwe. The study was prompted by the realisation that the insecurity aspect brought about by an influx of refugee has not been sufficiently dealt with by previous researchers working in the Zimbabwean context. The literature review thus focused on the nexus between the influx of refugees and security threat. The research was in the form of a case study, on Zimbabwe. It used the descriptive research design, which involved administration of semi-structured questionnaires to a sample of 120 participants working for the ZRP, IOM, Zimbabwe immigration, Tongogara Refugee Camp Administration and UNHCR. Just to recap, the study had the following objectives:

- To examine the concept of refugees.
- To analyse the effects of the influx of refugees as an emerging security threat.
- To determine the strength of the Zimbabwean structures in dealing with potential insecurity that comes with refugee influx.
- To explore sustainable measures to deal with the influx of refugees.

The first chapter served as the introductory chapter and managed to give an introduction of the research. It outlined the background of the study that is the basis for the research and the
background of the refugee’s crisis was also discussed. Statement of the problem which specifies the problems identified by the researcher that is the essence of the study was also outlined as well as the research objectives, research questions, significance of the study. Moreso the delimitation of the study was outlined as well as the limitations.

Chapter two dealt with literature review and the study was based on two theories that is the Neoclassical Theory of Migration (NTM) and the New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) theory. The chapter looked into the literature in which the researcher highlighted what other scholars wrote pertaining the study topic. The literature review has thus brought out the concept of refugees, refugee situation in the World, refugee situation in Africa, refugee situation in Sub Saharan Africa, refugee crisis in Zimbabwe, triggers of refugees influx, effects of refugees on host countries, the dynamics of conflict in the DRC, International Law and refugee protection, the security paradigm, the nexus between refugee influx and national security. It is pertinent to note that the influx of refugees from the African Great Lakes Region in particular those from DRC; North and South Kivu provinces into Zimbabwe has been seen posing a great national security threat in the country.

Chapter three illustrated and explained the methods that were employed in the collection of the needed data, the merits and the demerits of using both the primary and secondary sources of data were outlined. The research methodology was discussed under a number of headings that include the research design, research instruments, data collection and presentation and data analysis techniques. The methodologies preferred were thus based on the availability of resources, and time available. This information enabled the researcher to proceed to the field to carry out his research.

Chapter four managed to highlight views from respondents on the influx of refugees as an emerging security threat in Zimbabwe. Data gathered is vital in answering the research questions and addressing the objectives highlighted in chapter one. The findings were presented in tables, graphs and pie charts. The research study has also managed to highlight that the threats posed due to influx of refugees include terrorism, human trafficking, criminal, health, military, economic, social and political threats among others. Measures to curb some of the threats posed due to influx of refugees include refugee screening, secure refugee camp, reduce border jumpers, imposing refugee quotas, police to escort refugees to Tongogara refugee camp among others.
The research also outlined that the country was rated best in terms of catering for the refugees' interests. With the findings in place, the researcher now makes recommendations and conclusions on how best can Zimbabwe deal with the influx of refugees which is said to be posing a great security threat.

5.3 Summary of findings

Below is listed the major findings which emerged from the study results. First, the study determined that the country has poor capacities to deal with any security-related problems emanating from refugee influx, including screening of refugees for security threat, knowing refugees’ real identities, tracing refugees’ identities back to their home countries for criminal and illegal activities, regulation of border entries to prevent illegal and criminal immigrants, and knowing the whereabouts of each refugee within the borders of Zimbabwe. However, Zimbabwe seems to have managed to continue catering well for the needs of refugees, despite its very bad economy and was also rated as very good on its ability to issue refugees with identification documents. Refugees were perceived as posing a range of threats to Zimbabwe, which were terrorist, criminal, economical, and social in nature. For instance, in social terms, the biggest threats were perceived as affecting the health, followed by culture, ethnic identity and religion of the indigenous population.

As a way of potentially dealing with the security threats posed by the influx of refugees, participants recommended proper refugee screening at borders, reducing levels of border “jumping”, removing the refugee camp (i.e. Tongogara Refugee Camp) from the Border Town, providing police company to refugees on their way from the border to the refugee camp, providing a secure refugee camp, and imposing national refugee quotas per annum.

5.4 Conclusions

The following conclusions were made basing on the findings of the research study; The research findings led to the general conclusion that Zimbabwe is currently lacking the capacities necessary to deal with any security risks posed by influxes of refugees, although it seems well equipped to cater for the needs of refugees. As such, refugees are perceived to be posing a variety of security threats, which are terrorist, political, social, and economic in nature. It is thus recommended that Zimbabwe effect some strategies to deal with the security threats, which include proper refugee screening at borders, reducing levels of border “jumping”, removing the
refugee camp (i.e. Tongogara Refugee Camp) from the Border Town, providing police company to refugees on their way from the border to the refugee camp, providing a secure refugee camp, and imposing national refugee quotas per annum. The researcher however managed to outline some of the recommendations that will go a long way in ensuring that refugees are managed well and they do not pose a great security threat whilst maintaining good diplomatic relations with other states and abiding to the International Law.

5.5 Recommendations

Having looked at the conclusions, the researcher managed to come up with recommendations in a bid to ensure that the influx of refugees does not pose a great security to Zimbabwe;

In tandem with each of the four objectives of the study, the following recommendations are made. In relation to objective 1, it is recommended that Zimbabwe reduces its refugee intake to sustainable levels that are in line with its current capacities until they are upgraded. In the meantime the country can continue to work on improving its structures with the help of the international community so that it is in a good position to deal with any emerging security threats, and also be able to meet its obligations in regards to the refugee crisis that is endemic in Africa. In line with objective 2, it is recommended that organisations that deal with refugees in the country play have their staff thoroughly educated on the human/societal threats that can emerge with refugee influxes, so that they may put proper structures to nip them in the bud or deal with them effectively if and when they arise. The country can also work in conjunction with the countries of refugee origin as well as other host countries in the region and on the continent with the goal of noticing where and how such threats emerge and how they play out transnationally so that effective strategies can be put in place to monitor and curtail them.

In line with objective 3, it is recommended that the strategies suggested by the participants (which are proper refugee screening at borders, reducing levels of border “jumping, removing the refugee camp [i.e. Tongogara Refugee Camp] from the Border Town, providing police company to refugees on their way from the border to the refugee camp, providing a secure refugee camp, and imposing national refugee quotas per annum) be considered by the organisations that deal with refugees in Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe can even set up its own framework besides the UNHCR biometric system to deal with refugee issues and problems that arise locally, that can guide its refugee intake, resettlement, and return.
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

QUESTIONNAIRE 1

Introduction

My name is Herbson Marongere (Student no. R121296P), a student at Midlands State University, pursuing a Master of Science Degree in International Affairs. As required by the degree program, I am carrying out a research project with a topic that reads: **AN ANALYSIS OF THE IMPACT OF REFUGEES ON SECURITY: THE CASE OF ZIMBABWE.** You are kindly requested to participate in this research by completing this questionnaire. Please note that your participation in this study is very confidential and your name should not appear in any part of this questionnaire. This research is purely for academic purposes only and your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Questionnaire details

**N.B Do not write your name on the questionnaire**

If yes just tick or put an **X**

**Section A: Demographic Profile**

Age

18-30 years [  ]

Between 31-40 years [  ]

41-50 years [  ]

50+ [  ]

Gender

Male [  ]

female [  ]
Highest educational qualification

Ordinary Level [ ] Advanced Level [ ]
Certificate [ ] Diploma [ ]
Degree [ ] Postgraduate [ ]

The organisation you work for: __________________________.

Period of service working in your current organisation (in years):

Less than 1 year [ ]
1-5 years [ ]
6-10 years [ ]
11-15 years [ ]
16 and above [ ]

Section B (1): Please rate the capacity of Zimbabwe as a nation to deal with the following issues in regards to the movement of refugees and asylum seekers into the country over the past 5 years: 1 indicates not good at all and 5 indicates very good.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>Not Good at all</th>
<th>Slightly Good</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Very Good</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regulation of border entries to prevent illegal and criminal immigrants</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measures against errant refugees.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Tracing refugees’ identities back to their home countries for criminal and illegal activities.

Monitoring daily activities of the refugees.

Catering for the interests of both refugees and host communities.

Issuing refugees with documents.

Getting to know the real identity of each and every refugee.

Making sure refugees do not engage in impermissible economic activities.

Knowing the whereabouts of each refugee within the borders of Zimbabwe.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The involvement of refugees in smuggling arms which are used in armed activities.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The use of refugee camps to provide hideouts for individuals who have engaged or can engage in armed activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>The living conditions in the refugee camps and involvement in armed activities</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Section C (1): Please indicate the extent to which, in your opinion, the entry of refugees and asylum seekers into Zimbabwe over the past 5 years has led to an increase in the following issues: 1 indicates very little extent and 5 indicate very great extent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>very little extent</th>
<th>Little extent</th>
<th>Average extent</th>
<th>Great extent</th>
<th>very great extent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The involvement of refugees in smuggling arms which are used in armed activities.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of refugee camps to provide hideouts for individuals who have engaged or can engage in armed activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>The living conditions in the refugee camps and involvement in armed activities</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please elaborate on any of the above issues here.
In which other ways are refugees associated with armed activities?

**Section C (2):** Please also indicate the extent to which, in your opinion, the entry of refugees and asylum seekers into Zimbabwe over the past 5 years has led to an increase in the following issues: 1 indicates very little extent and 5 indicates very great extent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A strain to economic and natural resources of Zimbabwe</td>
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<tr>
<td>The scramble for available resources between refugees and host communities.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The local people’s view of refugees as a threat to their economic wellbeing.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The financial backing of refugees by the international community making them being envied by host communities.</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please elaborate on any of the above issues here.
Which other ways do the social economic status of refugees lead to insecurity of host communities?

**Section C (3):** Please also indicate the extent to which, in your opinion, the entry of refugees and asylum seekers into Zimbabwe over the past 5 years has led to an increase in the following issues: 1 indicates very little extent and 5 indicates very great extent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>Very little extent</th>
<th>Little Extent</th>
<th>Average Extent</th>
<th>Great Extent</th>
<th>Very great extent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The involvement of refugees in criminal activities.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of refugee camps to provide hideouts for criminals.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The living conditions in the refugee camps and</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
involvement in criminal activity.

Please elaborate on any of the above issues here.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very little extent</th>
<th>Little extent</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Great Extent</th>
<th>Very great extent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Section C (4):** Please also indicate the extent to which, in your opinion, the entry of refugees and asylum seekers into Zimbabwe over the past 5 years has led to an increase in the following issues: 1 indicates very little extent and 5 indicate very great extent.

- The involvement of refugees in political activities of Zimbabwe.
- The use of refugee camps to provide hideouts for refugees involved in political activities of Zimbabwe.
- The living conditions in the refugee camps them into involvement in political activities of Zimbabwe
Please elaborate on any of the above issues here.

In which other ways are refugees associated with political activities of Zimbabwe?

**Section C (5):** Please also indicate the extent to which, in your opinion, the entry of refugees and asylum seekers into Zimbabwe over the past 5 years has led to an increase in the following issues: 1 indicates very little extent and 5 indicate very great extent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues</th>
<th>Very little extent</th>
<th>Little Extent</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Great Extent</th>
<th>Very great extent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Refugees being a religious sources of social problems and conflicts.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refugees being a cultural source of social problems and conflicts.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Refugees being a source of health problems.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refugees being a source of problems and conflicts in matters related to ethnic identity.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Please elaborate on any of the above issues here.

Which other ways do refugees lead to social insecurity of host communities?

Section D: Please recommend how best Zimbabwe can deal with security threats posed by the influx of Refugees?

The End, Thank you for participating in this study!
APPENDIX 2
INTERVIEW GUIDELINES

Key informant: ZRP

Section A: Zimbabwe’s Open Door Policy

1. Briefly discuss the following areas in Zimbabwe’s open door policy and national security
   a) Screening of refugees for security threat
   b) Post conflict reconciliation
   c) Legal actions against law enforcement agencies, especially the police, who collaborate with refugees in trafficking arms
   d) Regulation of border entries to prevent illegal and criminal immigrants
   e) Zimbabwe’s obligation to host refugees regardless of the insecurity that they pose
   f) Measures against errant refugees
   g) Monitoring daily activities of the refugees
   h) Catering for the interests of both refugees and host communities
   i) In which other ways does Zimbabwe’s open door policy on refugees contribute to national security?

Section B: The Association of Refugees with Terror Activities

Discuss the following statements regarding the association of refugees with terror activities

1. The recruitment of refugees into terror organizations through extreme religious doctrines
2. The involvement of refugees in smuggling arms which are used in terror activities.
3. The use of refugee camps to provide hideouts for terrorists
4. The living conditions in the refugee camps and involvement in terrorism
5. In which other ways are refugees associated with terror activities?
Section C: Recommendation

1. Recommend how best Zimbabwe can deal with security threats posed by the influx of refugees.
APPENDIX 3
INTERVIEW GUIDELINES

Key informant: MINISTRY OF LABOUR AND SOCIAL WELFARE

Section A: Socio-Economic Differences between Refugees and Host Communities

1. How do refugees integrate into the host community and does it lead to conflicts?

2. Do host communities view refugees as a threat to their economic wellbeing leading to conflicts?

3. Does the economic gap between refugees and host communities leave them at logger heads with each other?

4. Does the scramble for available resources between refugees and host communities leads to conflicts?

5. Does the financial backing of refugees by the international community makes them envied by host communities?

6. Are refugees side-lined by the local government when it comes to access of services and social amenities?

7. In which other ways do the differences in social economic status between refugees and host communities lead to insecurity

Section B: Recommendation

1. Recommend how best Zimbabwe can deal with security threats posed by the influx of refugees