



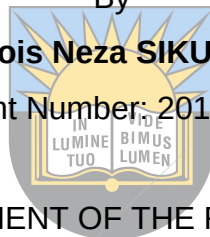
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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE MARGINALISATION AND EXCLUSIONARY
EFFECTS ON INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS (IDPs) IN THE DIVERSE
FORMS OF INTERNAL DISPLACEMENT IN ZIMBABWE

By

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THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT OF THE DEGREE
OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

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IN THE DEPARTMENT OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES, FACULTY OF
COMMERCE AND MANAGEMENT, AT THE UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE,
ALICE, SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: PROF ANDRIES BEZUIDENHOUT

30th November 2024

DECLARATION

I, **Alois Neza SIKUKA** hereby solemnly declare that to the best of my knowledge and belief that this thesis titled **“A Comparative Study of the Marginalisation and Exclusionary Effects on Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) of Diverse Forms of Internal Displacement in Zimbabwe”** is my original work. The work has never been submitted, nor will it ever be submitted to another university for the award of a degree. In those instances, in which I have made use of either the published or unpublished works of other scholars, I have acknowledged the sources, both in the text and in the list of references appended to this thesis.

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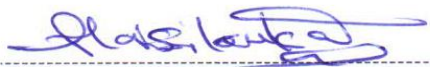


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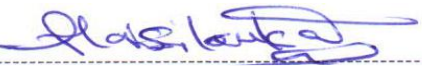
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ABSTRACT

Globally, states are expected to recognise and offer assistance to all its citizens including those internally displaced without any form of discrimination and segregation. In Zimbabwe, literature on internal displacement points to the state as being responsible for the IDPs, but at the same time is also responsible for ameliorating internally displaced person's effects. Subsequently, political recognition of the internally displaced individuals by the state builds restoration of sustainable livelihoods and capabilities of the displaced populations. Using an inductive method approach and drawing on capabilities, entitlement and sustainable livelihood approaches, the study investigates the marginalisation of internally displaced individuals in Zimbabwe and exclusionary effects on them with a comparative analysis of the three provinces. Data were collected from the internally displaced individuals, authorities, host communities and development partners. Content examination was applied to analyse qualitative data, supplemented with descriptive analyses of statistics assembled in this study. The research revealed massive marginalisation and exclusion of internally displaced groups in the three provinces under research in Zimbabwe. The non-recognition and exclusion IDPs point to the failure of the state to apply social justice, promotion and protection of human rights, constitutionality, of the IDPs. Furthermore, the study exposed a power struggle between the state and the development partners resulting in vulnerability of the internally displaced groups thereby reducing their capabilities to their entitlements to achieve durable solutions. Another significant observation of the study was the lack of possession of legal documents such as identification cards destroyed during the displacement cycle. In addition, lack of security of tenure has negatively affected accessing the basic social, economic, political and environmental services to enhance livelihoods and sustainable integration for the internally displaced individuals. The main conclusion reached in the study is that IDPs in Zimbabwe have not been recognised and are usually deprived of their human rights, capabilities, entitlements, human capital and livelihoods. Therefore, in order to recognise, protect and offer assistance to the IDPs, the international community through its various mandated instruments should act and ensure viable, integration interventions for internally displaced individuals are implemented by the state. This will in the long run promote sustainable integration, and improve livelihoods for the marginalized IDPs in Zimbabwe. The study posits that sustainable attainment of durable solutions for internally displaced persons depends on the functionality of the study's three recognition, empirical and exclusion dilemmas linking with concepts of capabilities, livelihoods and entitlements.

Key words: human rights, inclusivity, internally displaced persons, marginalisation exclusionary effects, *Ubuntu* philosophy, social justice.

DEDICATION

This doctoral study is dedicated to my beloved late father (Maxwell Joseph Sundano SIKUKA), wife (Musa ZONDO SIKUKA), daughter (Yolanda Wilani SIKUKA) and sisters (Possenta Mary NKOMO nee SIKUKA and Felistas SIKUKA). May their souls rest in peace (MTSRIIP). Dedications also go to my wife Glorlah and children Advocate Alois Sundano, Tariro Violet, “uNzekulu” Aishley Chinonso, “uNzekulu” Martin Mutendi Sundano, and the Ba “SIKUKA family”. Lastly, this doctoral study is dedicated to all academics like me who still value education. May the Lord be with you all?



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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I, Alois Neza SIKUKA would like to give gratitude and thank the following people for their assistance, support, advice and encouragement for this path which was not at all an easy one. Many individuals were involved and played a critical role in the generation and compilation of this study and thus the author is highly indebted to them all. May the Lord be with you all my brothers and sisters in Christ?

- Firstly, I would like to thank my two supervisors Professor Aminur Rahim and Professor Andries Bezuidenhout for their professional and academic guidance and support. Professor Aminur Rahim started with me and after his retirement from the University handed me over to Professor Andries Bezuidenhout who continued with the encouragement throughout the process of the study.
- Secondly, I would like to express my gratitude to the following: Government of Zimbabwe through the Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare and Ministry of Local Government and Public Works, Local Authorities, Development Partners and the communities including the internally displaced groups who made it possible and provided the data used to prepare this study that will go a long way in playing a role in the mitigation of marginalisation and exclusionary effects of the internally displaced persons.
- Thirdly, I would like to thank my special friend Dr Angelina M-Bazugba of the University of Juba (UoJ) who assisted me during the preliminary chapters of this study, while I was working in South Sudan. Dr Angelina, I will never forget you for the encouragement especially when you said, “Alois, you are capable, and you will do it”. Many thanks also go to Prof. Gaidzwanwa and Dr Mate of the University of Zimbabwe, Dr Udit of South Africa and Dr. B for their immerse support.
- Fourthly, I would not have done justice if I do not recognise and thank my mentor Dr Walkup, who started to encourage me to work on my Doctorate from 2012 and christened me “*Professor Neza*”.
- In addition, thanks go to my friends Patricia, Jolly-Joy, Petros, Daphine, Chipu and Tungamirai for their encouragement and support. You played a great role and enabled me to finish this academic study at the University of Fort Hare (UFH) you made it worthwhile and thank you all for that.

- I cannot finish the names of all persons who assisted, and I say *Twaluumba lokho moseni*. (Many thanks to all).
- Finally, I would like to thank my parents – the late Mr Maxwell Joseph Sundano SIKUKA and Mrs Benhilda SIKUKA, my wife Glorinah, son Advocate Alois, daughter-Tariro (TT) and the “BA SIKUKA” family, especially Mr Kizito Batanani “*Father Kadwiti*” SIKUKA for their untiring support they gave me. God bless you all, *Mwali ebenabwi mose makamu angu*. (God be with you all my family)



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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AU:	African Union
AUC/CIEFFA:	African Union Centre for Girls and Women's Education in Africa
AUM:	African Union Mission
CA:	Capability Approach
CAQDAS:	Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software
CAR:	Central African Republic
CCJPZ:	Catholic Commission for Justice and Peace in Zimbabwe
CI:	Community Integration
CoM:	Chief of Mission
CONCOURT:	Constitutional Court
CoZ:	Constitution of Zimbabwe
PAIDP:	Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons
CR:	Critical Realism
CRED:	Centre for Research and Epidemiology Disasters
CSO:	Central Statistics Office
CSO:	Civil Society Organisations
DA:	District Administrator
DDC:	District Development Coordinator
DFID:	Department for International Development
DIP:	Displaced in Place
DRC:	Democratic Republic of Congo
DS:	Durable Solutions
ESAP:	Economic Structural Adjustment Programme
FAO:	Food and Agricultural Organisation
FARC:	Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia
FGD:	Focus Group Discussion
FRELIMO:	Mozambique Liberation Front
FTLRP:	Fast Track Land Reform Programme
GBV:	Gender Based Violence
GoZ:	Government of Zimbabwe
GDP:	Growth Domestic Product
GNP:	Growth Net Product
GPID:	Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement
GRID:	Global Report on Internal Displacement
HDI:	Human Development Index
HDR:	Human Development Report
HC:	Host Communities
HRW:	Human Rights Watch
HRWF:	Human Rights without Frontiers
ICG:	International Crises Group
ICRC:	International Committee of the Red Cross
ID:	Identification Documents
IDMC:	Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre
IDPs:	Internally Displaced Persons
IFAD:	International Fund for Agriculture Development
IFRCRCS:	International Federation of Red Cross & Red Crescent Societies
IGO:	Inter-Governmental Organisation
IHL:	International Human Law

IMF:	International Monetary Fund
IOM:	International Organisation for Migration
KC:	Kampala Convection
LA:	Local Authority
MoLG&PW:	Ministry of Local Government and Public Works
MoP&SE:	Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
MoPSL&SW:	Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare
MoHCW:	Ministry of Health and Child Welfare
MDC A:	Movement for Democratic Change Alliance
MNRM:	Mozambican National Resistance Movement
MVP:	Mobile and Vulnerable Population
NC:	Non-Citizen
NGO:	Non-Governmental Organisation
NLA:	National Liberation Army
NPRC:	National Reconciliation Peace Commission
NRC:	Norwegian Refugee Council
OAG:	Office of the Auditor General
OC:	Operation Chiyanda
OCHA:	Office for Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
OM:	Operation Murambatsvina
ORO:	Operation Restore Order
ORAP:	Organisation for Rural Association for Progress
PA:	Provincial Administrator
PDC:	Provincial Development Coordinator
PF ZAPU:	Patriotic Front Zimbabwe African People`s Union
PRA:	Participatory Rural Appraisal
RDC:	Rural District Council
RENAMO:	<i>Resistência Nacional Moçambicana</i>
SADC:	Southern African Development Community
SDGs:	Sustainable Development Goals
SDFG:	Sudan Democracy First Group
SGBV:	Sexual and Gender Based Violence
SLT:	Sustainable Livelihood Theory
SS:	South Sudan
SO:	Support Organisation
SPSS:	Statistical Package for the Social Science
POC:	Protection of Civilian Camps
PS:	Permanent Secretary
UDI:	Unilateral Declaration of Independence
UFH:	University of Fort Hare
UK:	United Kingdom
UN:	United Nations
UNDP:	United Nations Development Programme
UNHCR:	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF:	United Nations Children`s Fund
UNMISS:	United Nations Mission in South Sudan
USA:	United States of America
UZ:	University of Zimbabwe
VIDCO:	Village Development Committee
WB:	World Bank

WFP:	World Food Programme
ZANU (PF):	Zimbabwe African National Union (Patriotic Front)
ZCDT:	Zimbabwe Community Development Trust
ZLHR:	Zimbabwe Lawyers Human Rights
ZPA:	Zimbabwe Poverty Atlas
ZIMSTAT:	Zimbabwe Statistics Office
ZNA:	Zimbabwe National Army



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TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	i
DECLARATION ON PLAGIARISM	ii
DECLARATION ON RESEARCH ETHICS CLEARANCE	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
DEDICATION	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vi
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	viii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	xi
LIST OF TABLES	xvi
LIST OF FIGURES	xvii
CHAPTER ONE	1
THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING	1
1.0 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 THE STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	8
1.2 BACKGROUND INFORMATION TO THE STUDY	10
1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	13
1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH	16
1.5 PROPOSED RESEARCH QUESTIONS FOR THE STUDY	17
1.6 ASSUMPTIONS	18
1.7 LIMITATIONS	19
1.8 SCOPE OF THE STUDY	19
1.9 OVERVIEW OF THE PROCEDURE OF THE STUDY	20
1.10 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY	20
1.11 SUMMARY	22
CHAPTER TWO	25
CAPABILITIES, ENTITLEMENTS AND LIVELIHOODS: A FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSING THE MARGINALISATION OF INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS (IDPs)	25
2. 0 INTRODUCTION	25
2. 1 KEY CHARACTERISTICS OF INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS (IDPs)	27
2.2 APPROACHES APPLIED: CAPABILITY, ENTITLEMENT AND LIVELIHOOD	30
2.2.1 THE CAPABILITY APPROACH	30
2.2.2 THE ENTITLEMENT APPROACH	35
2.2.3 THE SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOOD APPROACH	39
2.2.4 LINKAGES OF THE APPROACHES	44
2.3 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE ON INTERNAL DISPLACEMENT	45
2.3.1 IDPs AND RECOGNITION DILLEMMA	45

2.3.2 IDPs AND EMPIRICAL DILEMMA	48
2.3.3 IDPs AND EXCLUSION DILEMMA.....	51
2.4.4 THE DURABLE SOLUTION CONCEPT	66
2.5 DEFINITION OF OPERATIONAL TERMS	69
2.6 SUMMARY	73
CHAPTER THREE.....	75
THE HISTORY OF INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS	75
3.0 INTRODUCTION.....	75
3.1 GLOBAL STATISTICS OF INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS (IDPs)	76
3.2 CAUSES OF DISPLACEMENTS IN AFRICA CONTINENT OR AND BEYOND	78
3.2.1 THE IMPACT OF ARMED CONFLICT	78
3.2.2 SITUATIONS OF GENERALISED VIOLENCE AND ITS IMPACT	81
3.2.3 VIOLATIONS OF HUMAN RIGHTS AND ITS IMPACT.....	82
3.2.4 MAN-MADE DISASTER AND ITS IMPACT	85
3.2.5 NATURAL DISASTERS AND ITS IMPACT	86
3.2.6 HISTORICAL LAND CONFLICTS IN SADC AND ITS IMPACT	87
3.3 CAUSES OF INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS IN ZIMBABWE	89
3.3.1 WAR OF LIBERATION AND BEYOND DISPLACEMENTS AND ITS IMPACT	89
3.3.2 THE GUKURAHUNDI ACTROCITIES AND ITS IMPACT	91
3.3.3 FAST TRACK LAND REFORM PROGRAMME AND ITS IMPACT.....	93
3.3.4 OPERATION RESTORE ORDER/OPERATION MURAMBATSVINA AND ITS IMPACT.....	96
3.3.5 POLITICALLY LINKED VIOLENCE AND ITS IMPACT	101
3.3.6 LINKAGES OF APPROACHES, DILEMMAS AND CAUSES OF INTERNAL DISPLACEMENT	102
3.3.7 CAUSES OF INTERNAL DISPLACEMENT AND THE SELECTED SITES ..	106
3.5 POSITIONALITY OF THE RESEARCHER	109
3.6 SUMMARY	110
CHAPTER FOUR.....	112
METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS	112
4.0 INTRODUCTION.....	112
4.1 RESEARCH PARADIGM	113
4.2 THE RESEARCH DESIGN	121
4.3 POPULATION AND SAMPLING	124
4.4 INSTRUMENTS OF DATA COLLECTION	129
4.4.1 Questionnaires	130

4.4.2 In-depth interviews	133
4.4.3 Focus Group Discussions (FGDs).....	135
4.4.4 Observations	137
4.5 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY	140
4.6 DATA ANALYSIS	141
4.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	144
4.8 SUMMARY	149
CHAPTER FIVE.....	151
RECOGNITION DILEMMA: ANALYSIS OF THE DATA	151
5.0 INTRODUCTION.....	151
5.1 RECOGNITION DILEMMA.....	152
5.1.1 Are you originally from this area.....	152
5.1.2 Reasons for displacement.....	154
5.1.3 Timing of displacements.....	160
5.1.4 Conflict between IDPs and host communities	164
5.1.5 Security and safety.....	168
5.1.6 Lack of Identification Documents.....	172
5.1.7 Benefits from other Programmes.....	175
5.2 SUMMARY	180
CHAPTER SIX	183
EMPIRICAL DILEMMA: ANALYSIS OF THE DATA.....	183
6.0 INTRODUCTION..... <i>Together in Excellence</i>	183
6.1 PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS.....	184
6.2 EMPIRICAL DILEMMA.....	185
6.2.1 Gender Analysis.....	185
6.2.2 Age Groups	187
6.2.3 Marital Status	190
6.2.4 Level of Education.....	192
6.2.5 Employment Status	194
6.3 SUMMARY	199
CHAPTER SEVEN.....	201
EXCLUSION DILEMMA: ANALYSIS OF THE DATA	201
7.0 INTRODUCTION.....	201
7.1 EXCLUSION DILEMMA	202
7.1.1 Permission to settle?	202
7.1.2 Who gives Land?.....	205

7.1.3 Access to farming	207
7.1.4 Access to health services	209
7.1.5 Access to education	213
7.2 SUMMARY	219
CHAPTER EIGHT	222
DURABLE SOLUTION CONCEPT: ANALYSIS OF THE DATA	222
8.0 INTRODUCTION	222
8.1 DURABLE SOLUTIONS	223
8.2 DURABLE SOLUTION BENCH MARK	226
8.3 COMMENT ON THE IDPs MARGINALISATION AND EXCLUSION PROCESS?	231
8.4 CRITICAL OBSERVATION OF THE STUDY	232
8.5 IMPACT OF PROGRAMMES FOR THE INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS (IDPs)	233
8.6 GOVERNMENTS POLICY ON INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS	234
8.7 GOVERNMENT'S COMMENTS	239
8.8 DEVELOPMENT PARTNERS COMMENTS	242
8.9 ANALYSIS OF THE AGENTS/AGENCIES INVOLVED IN EXCLUSION	243
8.10 SUMMARY	243
CHAPTER NINE	246
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY OPTIONS	246
9.0 INTRODUCTION	246
9.1 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY	247
9.2 OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND FINDINGS	249
9.3 MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY	250
9.3.1 Major findings on recognition dilemma (Objective 1)	250
9.3.2 Major findings on empirical dilemma (Objective 2)	254
9.3.3 Major findings on exclusion dilemma (Objective 3)	256
9.3.4 Major findings on durable solution concept (Objectives 1-4)	262
9.4 POLICY OPTIONS	264
9.5 THE STUDYS CONTRIBUTIONS	266
9.6 IMPLICATIONS	267
9.7 AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	268
LIST OF REFERENCES	269
ANNEXURE 1: LETTERS OF PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH	299
ANNEXURE 2: LETTER OF APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH	311
ANNEXURE 3: HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDEX FOR ZIMBABWE FROM 1990	314

ANNEXURE 4: CONDITIONS FOR DURABLE SOLUTIONS ACCORDING IASC FRAMEWORK ON DURABLE SOLUTION (DS).....	316
ANNEXURE 5: QUESTIONNAIRE - INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS (IDP`S) / HOSTS COMMUNITIES	319
ANNEXURE 6: INTERVIEW QUESTION GUIDE - OFFICIALS	322
ANNEXURE 7: QUESTION GUIDE – FOCUS GROUP	323



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LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 : Connection of the approaches and the dilemmas:	68
Table 2 : Linkages of approaches, dilemmas and causes of displacement.....	103
Table 3 : The relationships between study sites and causes of Internal Displacements.....	106
Table 4 : shows the sampling methods applied in relations to the group of respondents.	127
Table 5 : link between objectives and methods.....	139
Table 6 : Contextualisation table of events.....	160
Table 7 : Findings from the field assessment	178
Table 8 : Findings from the field assessment	198
Table 9 : Findings from the field assessments	217
Table 10 : Research Findings against the durable Solutions bench mark.....	227



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LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 : Map showing the ten provinces of Zimbabwe	11
Figure 2 : Reasons and types of movements (Source IOM, Zimbabwe)	12
Figure 3 : Capability approach of nutrition and education as evaluative spaces	32
Figure 4 : Triangulation process.....	140
Figure 5 : Ethical procedures by Du Plooy (2010, p. 45)	149
Figure 6 : Are you originally from this area.....	153
Figure 7 : Reasons for displacement.....	155
Figure 8 : Timing of displacements.....	161
Figure 9 : Sources of conflicts	164
Figure 10 : Safe and security status	169
Figure 11 : Identification Documents (IDs)	172
Figure 12 : Benefits from other programmes.....	176
Figure 13 : Gender Analysis	185
Figure 14 : Age Groups	189
Figure 15 : Marital Status	191
Figure 16 : Level of Education.....	193
Figure 17 : Employment Status	195
Figure 18 : Authority to settle	203
Figure 19 : Who gives Land	205
Figure 20 : Access to land for Farming.....	208
Figure 21 : Access to Health Services.....	210
Figure 22 : Access to Education.....	213
Figure 23 : IDP`s Durable Solution options.....	224
Figure 24 : War veterans/ZANU PF youths during the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme	232
Figure 25 : A displaced boy during Operation Murambatsvina.....	233

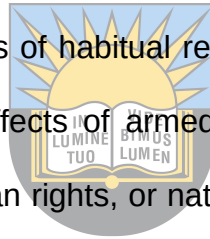
CHAPTER ONE

THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

1.0 INTRODUCTION

As a form of forced migration, internal displacement presents a significant challenge to nation states and the global village. There are numerous causes for internal displacement as a phenomenon, among them conflict, violence, and natural disasters. A United Nations (UN) document describes internally displaced persons (IDPs) as:

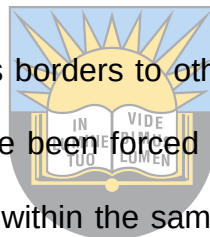
"persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalised violence, violations of human rights, or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognised border" (Simon, 2021, p.168).



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However, Kidane (2011, p.15) further posits that internal displacement is often a sign of poorly designed migration policies. Therefore, internal displacement is caused by a failure in human institutions rather than natural disasters. For example, the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) (2023) states that, end of 2023, there were 75.9 million internally displaced persons (IDPs) up from 71.1 million in 2022. Furthermore, 68.3 million IDPs and 7.7 Million as a result of conflict and violence and disasters respectively (<https://www.preventionweb.net/media/96253>).

Internal displacement have impacted both developed and developing countries. Images of IDPs and their surroundings have dominated print, broadcast, and social media, and this has led to research on IDPs being a topical issue globally and Zimbabwe is not an exception. Early research studies show that Zimbabwe has been in the past regarded as a failed state with negative consequences for the IDPs (Bratton et al. 2011), and four decades after its independence, the status quo persists. The relationship between state fragility and forced migration flows is not new but emanates from ill designed migration policies in the early 1980s who coined the root causes strategies. In this regard, it is likely that internal displacement is a result of state fragility (Brooks, 2005).



In contrast, to refugees who cross borders to other countries, IDPs are people who are full citizens of a state but have been forced to relocate from their hometown or state/province to another location within the same country (Skeldon, 2021). Internal displacement is associated with the state's own affairs rather than those outside the nation or those who have already crossed the border to another country. Accordingly, refugees are those individuals who cross an internationally recognised boundary (ibid).

The study focused on the impact of IDPs on the provision of social, security, and economic services for internal displacement in Masvingo, Matabeleland North, and Manicaland provinces in Zimbabwe. According to Zimbabwean local government regulations, provinces are comprised of districts, districts results from wards and wards are formed by the lowest planning entities that is the village where individuals exist (Provincial Councils and Administration Act, 1985, Chapter 29:11).

Furthermore, the research applied a comparative analysis of the provinces to find out the causes of displacement and how this has affected the provinces in question. Despite, the prevalence of internal displacement across Zimbabwe, the state does not recognise the IDPs (Tanyanyiwa, 2020). The non-acceptance of the existence of IDPs is indicative of challenges faced by the affected individuals from humanitarian, legal as well as, developmental perspectives.

Accordingly, Akokpari et al. (2008), support the foregoing that IDPs in Zimbabwe are a neglected vulnerable group with insignificant state support. The Failure to assist IDPs includes material and physical elements in the form of shelter and food and encompasses the emotional effects of displacement status and thereby rendered invisible. The purpose of this research is also to determine whether, IDPs in Masvingo, Matabeleland North, and Manicaland have access to social, security, economic, and housing services.



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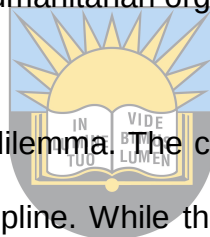
The central argument in this thesis is that the problem of IDPs in Zimbabwe raises a number of dilemmas. The first is the recognition dilemma. In terms of internal displacement in Zimbabwe and other countries, the causes of internal displacement arise from conflict, violence, and natural disasters. However, in Zimbabwe, internal displacement is largely as a result of political action and a gap in government policies that are silent on IDPs. In a recent study by Benhura et al. (2021), they highlighted that, in Zimbabwe, the state is both the cause and the primary agent with primary responsibility for resolving the problem of IDPs. The recognition dilemma is concerned with the fight and failure for the recognition of IDPs as a political category. Zimbabwe has failed to domesticate the Kampala Convention that was enacted in

2009 as required by the states parties. The Kampala Convention (2009) empowers the countries to defend and support displaced individuals residing within its boundaries and states that governments have the responsibility of aiding and protecting IDPs.

This therefore implies that the domestic laws of the country do not consider the provisions of the Kampala Convention, despite being signatory of this convention the Government of Zimbabwe's failure to live up to what it signed up for. Also, the Zimbabwe government has not designated an authority that is responsible for IDPs as required by the Kampala Convention under Article III (2) (b) (IDMC, 2019). In fact, forced displacement is an old phenomenon in Zimbabwe. The IDPs starts well before the 1970s but became more pronounced in the 2000s, due to state policies and actions. For instance, notable groups of IDPs, include former farm workers, that were affected by the Fast Track Land Reform Programme profoundly in many of the provinces including the three study provinces. The state implemented Operation Murambatsvina (Operation Restore Order) where displacement happened mostly in urban and peri urban set ups, while the Fast Track Land Reform Programme occurred in rural areas. In Matabeleland North province, the Gukurahundi atrocities produced IDPs. Zimbabwe's IDP situation varies widely depending on the causes for their forced displacement, which differ according to the selected three provinces (IDMC, 2020).

The study's second dilemma is the empirical dilemma and its primary focus is establishing the scale of the IDP problem. Here, since the state is part of the cause, there is no political will to collect the kinds of data that could inform policy and

interventions to ameliorate the situation. A lack of data on IDPs results in a failure to measure the scale and magnitude of the IDP phenomenon. In addition, internal displacement in Zimbabwe is not visible by means of showing displaced camps as evidenced in other states with similar problems, thus, the calamity is hidden (Gregor et al. 2020). The camp settlements are viewed as visible signs of forced displacement on a transitional path to durable solutions. However, United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) (2020) suggests that about 80% of IDPs are located outside IDP camps and notes that those who live outside the camp are usually overlooked by humanitarian and development organisations and are marginalised in the process. Thus, this study also sought to look at how IDPs are marginalised and overlooked by humanitarian organisations.



Finally, the third is the exclusion dilemma. The concept of exclusion is firmly rooted in development studies as a discipline. While this study is primarily situated in the discipline of development studies, it also draws from displacement and Zimbabwean studies, respectively. Individuals who are uprooted as a result of internal displacement have their livelihoods disrupted. These disruptions take place in the social, economic, political, environmental, and other facets of life where social exclusion can be witnessed. Zimbabwe is no exception to these internal displacements, which are largely political and have a contentious political history. The provinces of Manicaland, Masvingo, and Matabeleland North host a number of displaced persons that show multiple signs of social, economic, environmental, and political deprivations linked with IDPs (IOM, 2022).

Based on the aforementioned quandaries, how does one approach such a topical issue involving at the epicentre those in power, or the government? This study's main conceptual contribution is the framing of the problems posed by IDPs in Zimbabwe as a dilemma of recognition, of establishing an empirical base from which to formulate policy and interventions, and of understanding various forms of exclusion caused by displacement. These three study dilemmas form the analytical point of departure. However, at the theoretical level, the argument also draws on the capability approach, the entitlement approach, sustainable livelihood theory, and theories of social exclusion. The first three theories are firmly rooted in development studies as a discipline, while theories of social exclusion draw on a broader interdisciplinary field. Though, these are well connected to each other but are not identical, they however, provide a coherent, consistent, and reliable analysis. A combination of these theories will comprehensively tackle the provision of security, social, and economic services for internal displacement in Masvingo, Matabeleland North, and Manicaland provinces in Zimbabwe. This will be further highlighted in the subsequent chapters.



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The research gathered empirical data on the ground through a survey to clearly show how the IDPs are being stigmatised and socially excluded with no access to basic services like human capital (education), water, health, identification documents, food, and shelter. The survey results are merely descriptive, and accompanied by a comparative analysis on the three provinces. The results are not generalised, and thus the study does not use inferential statistics.

In this context, a massive campaign for the state to politically recognise IDPs as a political category of marginalised group is required. The strategy is to apply pressure from local, regional, and international civil societies. IDPs' recognition can enhance and exercise their human rights without discrimination and stigmatisation (IDMC, 2020). Non-recognition of IDPs erodes their resilience and weakens sustainability and inclusivity (Parish, 2015). The research argues that without political recognition, IDPs are likely to sink deeper into oblivion and face severe deprivation and stigmatisation.

This study contends that the state's refusal to recognise the politically-aligned group of internal displacement is due to a number of factors including, but not limited to, farm evasions, clean ups, and massacres a serious violation of Article 5 (2) of the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement (GPID)¹ of 1998 and the Kampala Convention adopted in 2009. The GPID (UN, 1998) were UN initiated in Geneva in 1998 and subsequently, the Kampala Convention (2009), state that governments have the responsibility of aiding and protecting IDPs.

As voiced out by Benhura et al. (2019), theoretically, the state's non-participation in internal displacements automatically shifts the responsibility to international bodies to warrant and protect the human rights of IDPs and thereby retain their capabilities in the process. From literature, the position of government on non - recognition of IDPs has not changed since independence to date. In the context of this research, the main actors interviewed were the IDPs, local authorities, host communities, and development partners.

¹ (GPID 1998).

This study highlights the challenges that local, regional, and international civil societies face in attempting to implement the massive campaign drive to encourage the Zimbabwean state to politically acknowledge and recognise IDPs as a political category of marginalised group of internal displacement in Zimbabwe. This chapter focuses on the background information on marginalisation and the exclusionary effects of internal displacement in Zimbabwe, the problem statement, the research objectives and questions, the significance of the study, and the different theoretical approaches to the research. The range of the research also discussed the overview procedures of the study and laid out the structure of the research.

1.1 THE STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Internal displacement that is gendered is increasing in Zimbabwe (Idemudia, 2014). Essentials such as security, human capital (education), health, shelter, food, and community development are typically lacking and deprived as demonstrated in many internal displacement communities in Masvingo, Matabeleland North, and Manicaland provinces (Tanyanyiwa, 2020; Mapiko et al. (2013). In fact, Bratton (2016, p.440) posits that most IDPs are viewed as opponents and are politically persecuted.

To buttress this problem statement position, the study contends with the recognition, empirical, and exclusion dilemmas that are adversely affecting internal displacement. In Zimbabwe, problem of recognition by the state is the denial of the existence of the IDPs. While the empirical quandary highlights the country's lack of a data base or exact numbers of internal displacement in the country. Lastly, the extant literature

shows that the attitude displayed by the Zimbabwean state towards the IDPs on the provision of social services and their general treatment significantly differs from other citizens, yet IDPs are subjects that ought to be protected by the host government. The intensity of insecurity and marginalisation is creating helplessness for IDPs. The idea of being an IDP is frightening, and the experience is traumatic for the affected individuals and their relatives (Fontein, 2009). This social phenomenon is affecting the psyche and creating a problem for the human capacity development of IDPs (ibid). The study seeks to address the plight of IDPs in Zimbabwe whose government is the main actor in the discourse that causes the displacement but is not taking any action towards addressing the IDPs' discourse. Thus, concerns have been raised that lack of policies that talk to and address IDPs as well as failure by Government of Zimbabwe to domesticate the Kampala Convention and the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement as a country is the reason why the IDPs remain excluded, invisible and do not have a sense of belonging. Moreover, concerns have been raised in various platforms as well as through research scholarship that the level of awareness among government officials and civil society organisations in Manicaland, Matabeleland North, and Masvingo provinces regarding IDPs and the state responsibility remains limited. Further to this failure/refusal to recognise the IDPs in Zimbabwe has over the years created a problem of assessing their needs and exploring various forms of exclusion such as provision of security, social, and economic services for IDPs in Masvingo, Matabeleland North, and Manicaland provinces. Thus, it is against this background that this study sought to find out the politics of recognition, the extent of internal displacement, and the effects of internal displacement on exclusionary effects and human capabilities in the Zimbabwean provinces of Masvingo, Matabeleland North, and Manicaland respectively.

1.2 BACKGROUND INFORMATION TO THE STUDY

Geographically, Zimbabwe is a landlocked state situated in southern Africa, between the two major rivers, the Limpopo in the south and the Zambezi in the north, respectively. The original Tonga name for Zambezi is "Ka Samba bezi"². Its total land area is 390,800 square kilometres (150,900 square miles), with a population of 15.2 million as of April 20, 2022, as released by the Central Statistical Office (ZIMSTAT, 2022). The country is bordered by Botswana, Mozambique, Zambia, and South Africa. It is endowed with minerals, wildlife, and fertile land, and its economy is largely agro-based. The gender distribution of the population is expressed as 52% and 48% for females and males, respectively.



Zimbabwe as a state has 10 provinces, of which two are cosmopolitan provinces, namely Bulawayo and Harare. The capital city of Zimbabwe is Harare, Bulawayo is the industrial capital and the second largest city. The other administrative provinces are Matabeleland North, Masvingo, the Midlands, Manicaland, Matabeleland South, Mashonaland West, Mashonaland Central, and Mashonaland East. To date, the provinces are named according to ethnicity, which in itself is fertile ground for displacements and marginalisation.

² Ka Samba bezi, meaning only those who know the river should bathe and swim, as they are known by the crocodiles and will therefore never be attacked.

Figure 1 : Map showing the ten provinces of Zimbabwe

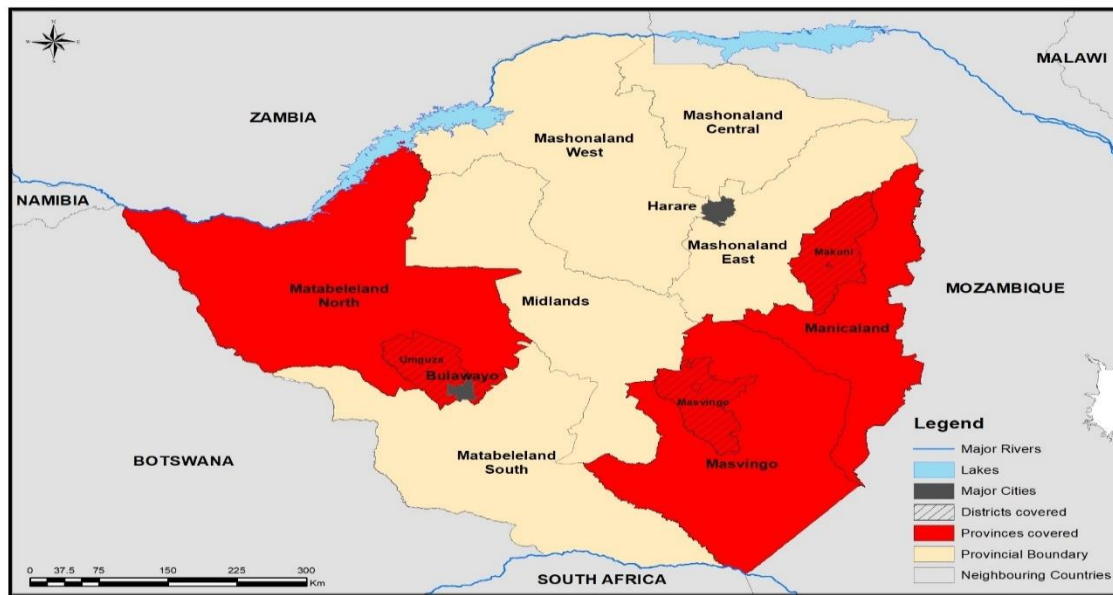
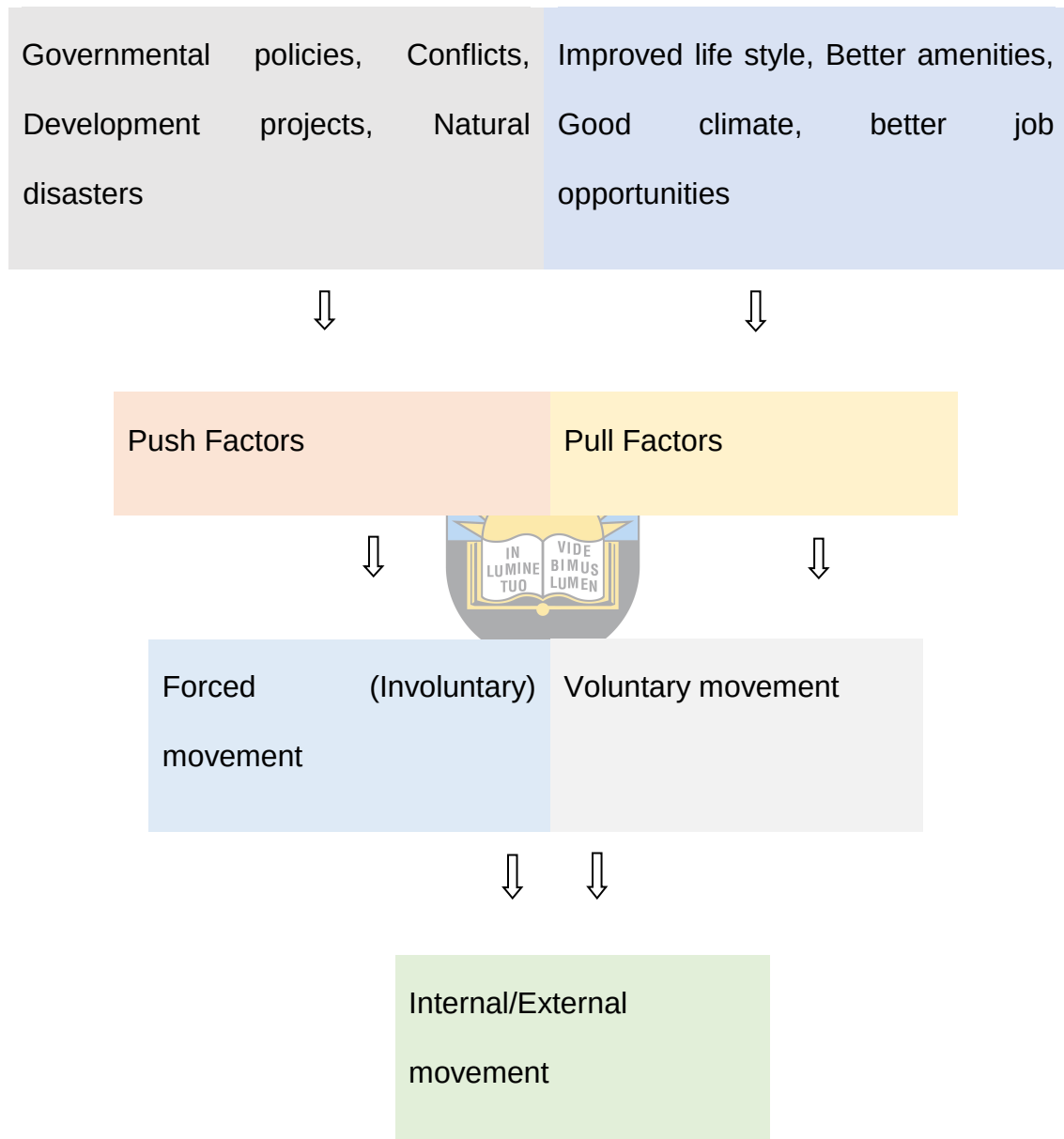


Figure 1.1 indicates the three provinces where research was undertaken

Mashonaland, Masvingo, and Manicaland provinces have fertile lands (Macheka et al. 2022). Therefore, due to the rich soils, the farms in the areas produced impressive yields and the country was regarded as the breadbasket of the Southern African Development Community (SADC). According to Mlambo (2018), the labor force for the farms within then-Rhodesia came mostly from neighbouring nations such as Zambia, Mozambique, and Malawi. The British colonies of Northern Rhodesia (now Zambia), Southern Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe), and Nyasaland (now Malawi) were joined together to form the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland (1953–63). During this time, there was free movement of people across borders, but most people within this federation moved to Southern Rhodesia, which had more job opportunities in the agricultural and mining sectors. As such, these individuals did not return to their home countries of origin but rather married locally, had children, and settled within Zimbabwe to this day. The researcher traces his origins to Zambia

and is now a citizen of Zimbabwe by birth. His great-grandparents migrated due to the construction of the "Kaliba Dam"³, now commonly known as Kariba Dam.

Figure 2 : Reasons and types of movements (Source IOM, Zimbabwe)



³ Kaliba is Tonga for 'trap,' and being trapped makes it difficult to escape.

It is a fact that, as shown in Figure 2, the driving force of the movements is either push or pull factors or both and due to diverse reasons, individuals move in all directions within and outside the boundaries of a state. Movements may occur from one province to another, within the same state, or across a recognised international boundary.

On one hand, the reasons for forced movements are largely push factors, including but not limited to governmental policies, politically oriented interventions, development projects, conflicts, and natural disasters. On the other hand, voluntary movements are as a result of pull factors portrayed as, better civic facilities, improved job opportunities, a conducive climate, and good life style. Because of the push factors, Zimbabwe experienced forced migration from the period of the liberation war (1970s), Gukurahundi atrocities, Fast Track Land Reform Programme, urban clean ups (Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order), disputed election results and economic woes, that is between 1980s, 2000 and 2010 (and even today). However, a worrying trend is that the Government of Zimbabwe (GoZ) has not positively recognised the IDPs as an issue of concern. For example, there is no official agreed numbers of IDPs in the country and even the acceptance of their existence or usage of the term IDPs (Bratton, 2016).

1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study is significant because there is a realisation that forced migration in Zimbabwe remains a serious challenge confronting researchers and development practitioners. The reason is that internal displacements in comparison to refugees

are not adequately acknowledged, recognised, identified, safeguarded and given space to enjoy their entitlements (Holms and de Pinëras, 2011). In most cases, there seems to be a fair amount of both scholarly and grey literature on Zimbabwe's IDPs both in national and international communities. According to Hammer, (2014), the invisibility of IDPs in Zimbabwe seems to be less about lack of knowing? than a deliberate choice by government to refuse to recognise them, which entails recognising\ the states own role in causing this crisis. This has in the process exacerbated their invisibility.

In Zimbabwe, a number of studies have been conducted on IDPs. The Solidarity Peace Trust (2022) has provided deep empirical detail of the direct, lived effects of displacement within Zimbabwe which does not come from a managerial or operational approach. For instance, Mashingaidze et al. (2013) discussed internal displacement from a people-centered perspective with a focus on the undercurrents that occurred during the colonial period in Zimbabwe. Benhura et al. (2021) argue that the post-colonial era in Zimbabwe was extensively covered compared to the colonial period. This cements credence of this research as it focuses on current dynamics in internal displacement in Masvingo, Matabeleland North, and Manicaland provinces from a people-driven perspective.

This study is significant in view that a number of studies done globally, regionally, and locally were conducted in a stable political, social, and economic environment. For example, during the internal displacements in China (Three Gorges-development-induced displacement) and Mozambique (Cabora Bassa), the host states had the capacity to assist the IDPs as per the United Nations Guiding

Principles on Internal Displacement (GPID). On the contrary, in Zimbabwe, the state plays a role in promoting factors that cause the initial displacement and the state is thus incapacitated to assist, but actively participate politically in denying IDPs the support they are entitled to, owing to the social, political, and economic misfortunes facing the country (politically induced displacement). Andersson et al. (2017) allude to the fact that some literature, in many cases, misrepresents IDPs and usually labels them as beneficiaries or victims in their interactions with the government and other stakeholders.

For example, Jacobsen (2006) posits that there is a need to encourage integration between the host communities and the IDPs. Valtonen (2016) developed some institutional policies to support the integration of IDPs and host communities. Similarly, Moyo (2015) observed that food insecurity is often the main impediment for IDPs, affording them an opportunity to access and reclaim their livelihood status. This study will focus and advocate on addressing the study's three dilemmas. These are: recognition, empirical, and exclusion of internal displacement. Displacement inherently produces sudden survival plans, adaptation, and resilience.

The study on internal displacement in Zimbabwe is informed by development studies. However, it also draws from the displacement and Zimbabwe studies. The study argues that IDPs are reduced to being invisible in Zimbabwe, and this makes their access to fundamental human rights, and social services ignored. Further, their invisibility because of failure to make use of tents for ease of recognition has over the years made it easier for them to be ignored by the state. Hence, this research is critical as it also seeks to address issues pertaining to recognition, empirical, and

exclusion dilemmas. This will be done together with the theoretical perspectives of capability theory, entitlement theory, and sustainable livelihood theory.

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

A critical area of the study is the question on the provision of the basic essential services (security, human capital (education), health, shelter, food, and community development) to IDPs as citizens. In addition, the question addresses policy implementation issues, particularly for IDPs. This reinforces the importance of service provision by the state, as it is its primary responsibility to ensure that IDPs receive essential developmental, humanitarian services and protection of their rights. The state, as a duty bearer, should help to alleviate the problems that IDPs face. However, this role seems problematic and a challenge for the Government of Zimbabwe for IDPs in Manicaland, Matabeleland North, and Masvingo provinces. The research will focus on the objectives that address the recognition, empirical, and exclusion dilemmas of internal displacement in Zimbabwe. Also, the objectives captured the comparative component of Masvingo, Manicaland, and Matabeleland North provinces. The objectives of the study are as follows:

- To assess the level of awareness among government officials and civil society organisations in Manicaland, Matabeleland North, and Masvingo provinces of the state's responsibilities regarding IDPs. (In keeping with the recognition quandary)
- To provide an empirical base from which to better assess the needs of internally displaced persons in Zimbabwe vis-à-vis the other citizens of the country in Manicaland, Matabeleland North, and Masvingo provinces. (In line with the empirical dilemma)

- To explore various forms of exclusion from the provision of security, social, and economic services for IDPs in Masvingo, Matabeleland North, and Manicaland provinces. (In line with the exclusion dilemma)
- To identify, based on the outcome of the research, a policy framework that will help the government and the developmental sector to effectively attend to the needs of the displaced persons and enhance their rights of citizenship in Zimbabwe.

1.5 PROPOSED RESEARCH QUESTIONS FOR THE STUDY

To effectively and efficiently address the study objectives and contribute to the solution of the problem, the following questions guided the study. The research is guided by the key question: What are the politics of recognition, the extent of internal displacement, and the effects of internal displacement on exclusionary effects and human capabilities among internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Zimbabwe?

a) **Recognition Dilemma** *Together in Excellence*

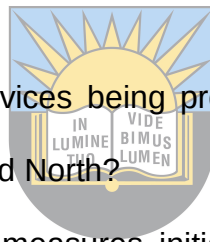
- What is the cause of your displacement?
- How are you being treated as a result of your displacement by the state, communities, and other development agencies?
- What are the views arising from the linkage between internal displacement and basic rights to social services?
- As IDPs facing challenges, how are you being accommodated as a process within the economic, political, and social structures?
- What are the implications of the insufficiency of a policy framework for the well-being and livelihoods of the displaced persons in Zimbabwe?

b) Empirical Dilemma

- Are there IDPs in the country, and if so, how many could there be?
- How prevalent is the IDP situation in Zimbabwe?
- Who is responsible for ensuring that the data base for IDPs is in place and well administered?
- Has the state domesticated the IDPs' international conventions?
- What is the relative vulnerability of IDPs in comparison to other citizens as a result of the state's marginalisation of internally displaced people?

c) Exclusion Dilemma

- What are the essential services being provided to the IDPs in Manicaland, Masvingo, and Matabeleland North?
- What are the intervention measures initiated by the state and partners to mitigate the challenges faced by IDPs in accessing social service provision?
- How have the IDPs accessed social services during and after their displacement?
- What is the effect of internal displacement on local level institutions, and how do they use them (local level institutions) to deal with their challenges?



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1.6 ASSUMPTIONS

The study assumes that IDPs in Zimbabwe are largely settled in self-contained areas within the farm areas and/or within rural communities. The research assumes that due to these unusual contexts, the IDPs' socio-economic rights are being infringed

upon. The Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa, which aimed at promoting measures that would prevent and mitigate internal displacement was signed and ratified by the Zimbabwean state (Christensen et al. 2009). In essence, the current conditions for IDPs show that the state has not implemented the IDP Convention neither has it domesticated the Kampala Convention and the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement as a country.

1.7 LIMITATIONS

The study experienced the political sensitivity of the internal displacement discourse in Zimbabwe. The challenges and limitations are addressed in the methodology chapter. The disorderly Fast Track Land Reform Programme, Operation Restore Order/Operation Murambatsvina, Gukurahundi atrocities, and political violence, which were largely instigated by the state, contributed a big portion of the internal displacement in the provinces of Matabeleland North, Masvingo, and Manicaland (Ndlovu et al. 2021). Thus, a majority of the respondents that took part in the study became IDPs in the three provinces because of the either one or more of the above mentioned and at times provided emotional responses. For validity, the researcher applied triangulation of findings from primary and secondary sources. Furthermore, the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) declined to participate in the research due to the politically sensitive nature of the subject.

1.8 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The central focus of the study is on the IDPs who were victims of diverse forms of internal displacement (Fast Track Land Reform Programme, Operation Restore

Order/Operation Murambatsvina, Gukurahundi, and political violence) in Matabeleland North, Masvingo, and Manicaland provinces. According to IOM (2020), Manicaland hosts the highest number of IDPs in the country, followed by Masvingo. Matabeleland North is where the Gukurahundi atrocities occurred (Scarnecchia and Sisulu, 2008; CCPJ, 2007). The study analyses the provision of social services for IDPs in the provinces of Matabeleland North, Masvingo, and Manicaland and also makes a comparison of the types of internal displacement.

1.9 OVERVIEW OF THE PROCEDURE OF THE STUDY

Drawing from capability, entitlement and sustainable livelihood theories, this research espouses the need for recognition for IDPs by the state. The researcher used a mixed methodology approach and surveyed of 300 participants through the use of observations, focus groups and in-depth interviews from the three provinces (Manicaland, Masvingo and Matabeleland North) of Zimbabwe. Each province had 100 participants, and 3 in-depth interviews and 3 focus groups were conducted. The other in-depth interview was held at the national level.

1.10 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

The study is organised into nine chapters and consist mainly of:

Chapter One

This chapter outlines the introduction, the problem, the proposed questions, and the objectives, as well as the significance of the study. The study hypothesises the engrained negative repercussions of internal displacement on the provision of basic

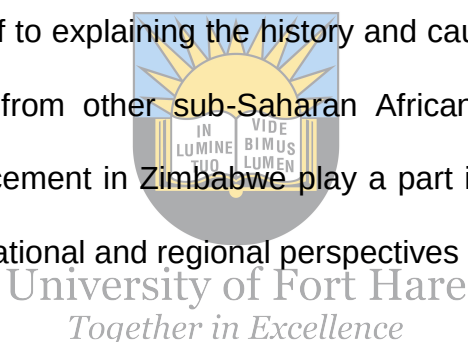
services. Additional information that encompasses questions was examined and completed the section.

Chapter Two

The chapter provides a literature review and a theoretical and empirical overview of the study. The literature is critically engaged in a systematic manner with the relevant literature within the IDPs field. Furthermore, the chapter forms the basis of the study and therefore, connects with the analytical work for the rest of the research document. Also, operational terms are discussed.

Chapter Three

The chapter devoted itself to explaining the history and causes of IDPs in Zimbabwe and drew on examples from other sub-Saharan African countries. The different causes of internal displacement in Zimbabwe play a part in the methodological and analysis chapters. International and regional perspectives are discussed as well.



Chapter Four

The chapter concentrated on the research methodology and articulated the research design, data collection techniques, sampling procedures, population of study, methods of data analysis, and ethical considerations.

Chapter Five

The chapter provides an overview of the findings of the study obtained from questionnaires and in-depth interviews and focus group. A systematic analysis of the information is carried out based on the recognition dilemma of IDPs.

Chapter Six

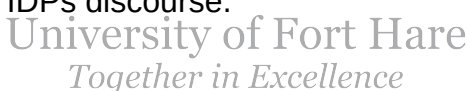
The chapter was centered on the empirical dilemma. This was done from information obtained from the IDPs and data analysed to show in statistical figures who the IDPs are, and their demographic information.

Chapter Seven

The chapter analysed the various services that are denied by the state thus, deprived IDPs their capabilities and entitlements. An exclusion perspective was applied in the analyses and combined with the other two study's dilemmas that is recognition and empirical.

Chapter Eight

The chapter provided information and analysed the concept of durable solution. Also, the chapter provided the measurement of the 8-point UN Guiding Principles, views from the Government of Zimbabwe officials and the development partners in the treatment and addressing IDPs discourse.



Chapter Nine

The chapter, provides conclusion and proffers recommendations, contribution of the study and further research.

1.11 SUMMARY

This chapter has illustrated how internal displacement, coupled with marginalisation and exclusion, is now a huge problem in Zimbabwe. Hammar (2008) views this as a result of sovereignty by the states to perpetuate the borders of exclusion and inclusion in a political arena of IDPs. Acknowledging the existence of IDPs and responding to it presents a challenge to state sovereignty. Usually, many differences

and contradictions arise from state responses to internal displacement leading to the state to exercise their sovereignty through control and regulation of IDPs movements. In so doing and as evidenced in the study, this results in the perpetuation of borders of exclusion and inclusion and create a political field that excludes and marginalises the IDPs. Consequentially, marginalisation and non-recognition of displaced communities are products of interventions that are often exclusionary in nature. Therefore, this study aims to provide a clear understanding in dealing with marginalisation and exclusionary of IDPs in Zimbabwe. Generally, this study will provide a benchmark on how to effectively deal with internal displacement in Zimbabwe in particular and in other sub-regional countries in general. The study will be anchored on a rights and capability notion and in line with Article 5 of the African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa, which states that nations are expected to take primary responsibility for their internal displacements. This, therefore, ensures the Zimbabwean state to recognise the IDPs politically and thereby provide assistance and protection to them. Due to the recurring IDP narrative, there is a need for a comprehensive method to be applied to the complexity of internal displacement in order to alleviate the prevention and impact of internal displacement (Kamara et al. 2017). The study's theoretical concepts will link with recognition, empirical, and exclusion dilemmas and play a role in attaining durable solutions for internally displaced persons and addressing the inadequacy of Article 5 of the African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of IDPs.

The next chapter will deal with the literature review on the marginalisation and exclusionary effects of the IDPs in Zimbabwe, as well as explain and interrogate the theories of the study and the stated IDPs study's dilemmas in Zimbabwe.



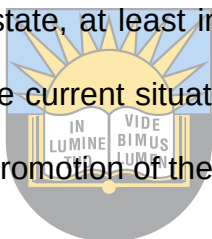
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CHAPTER TWO

CAPABILITIES, ENTITLEMENTS AND LIVELIHOODS: A FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSING THE MARGINALISATION OF INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS (IDPs)

2. 0 INTRODUCTION

The presence of a large number of IDPs in Zimbabwe is a controversial and a politically sensitive issue. As pointed out in the previous chapter, the major problem is the lack of recognition of this category of people who are subjected to forced migration by the very agent responsible for causing and exacerbated the problem. Added to this is the fact that the state, at least in theory, should be responsible for ameliorating the plight of IDPs. The current situation, however, means that IDPs are excluded from the protection and promotion of their human rights.



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During the research, it was observed that displacement caused by natural disasters such as cyclone Idai, received attention, while calamity perceived to be induced by the state such as the Fast Track Land Reform Programme and Gukurahundi atrocities was a cause for concern. The Government of Zimbabwe declared cyclone Idai a state of disaster. Chanza et al. (2020) argue that cyclone Idai created opportunities for linkages between the government and partners and opened avenues for participation in development interventions such as the repair of destroyed roads. In addition, Saurombe et al. (2021) observe the application of Ubuntu and Hunhu⁴ philosophy in response to the provision of shelter, food, and

⁴ Is premised on a relational base where a person is viewed concerning their respective broader family and community roles and responsibilities.

burials led by traditional chiefs that fall under the Ministry of Local Government and Public Works. Furthermore, a collaboration between the Government of Zimbabwe, the Government of China, and partners-built houses, clinics, and schools in cyclone Idai-affected areas (UNDP, 2020). However, a report produced by the Office of the Auditor General in respect of cyclone Idai donations revealed some weaknesses in how the donations were handled (VERITAS, 2022,[\[link\]](#)). The study argues that the revealed weaknesses are a sign of commitment by the Government of Zimbabwe (GoZ) in terms of governance and accountability purposes as displacements caused by the state, such observations were not made public and calls upon partners to assist in the capacitation process.



The literature review advances an insightful critique of similar studies (Silverman, 2011). As such, the aim of this chapter is to further develop the discussion from the previous chapter on the recognition, empirical, and exclusion dilemmas of IDPs in Zimbabwe. The discussion will be turned into an analytical conceptual framework. Furthermore, the chapter interrogates other studies on internal displacement so as to determine their perspectives on the subject and how they shape the current study. The literature review will further highlight the existing gaps as well as gain insight from the previous studies. Consequently, the studies are reviewed to enrich understanding of the phenomenon under review and to avoid replication of the process and the findings.

This chapter serves as both a theoretical framework and an empirical review of the literature on the topic of IDPs in Zimbabwe. The chapter is structured as follows:

First, a definition of what is meant by IDPs is provided, drawing from the literature on the topic as well as international conventions. This is followed by a discussion of, namely the capabilities approach and the associated entitlements approach, supplemented by the sustainable livelihoods approach.

Literature on IDPs in Zimbabwe is drawn from a range of different disciplinary approaches (Displacement, Development studies and Zimbabwean studies), but the approach taken in this study is primarily located in development studies, hence the focus on theories that are fundamental to study. After an exposition of the main concepts, the chapter moves on to analyse IDPs literature, organized along the lines of the three dilemmas discussed in the introductory chapter namely: the recognition dilemma; the empirical dilemma; and, the exclusion dilemma. After the review of the extant literature, the chapter discussed how the relevant theoretical concepts from the capabilities, entitlements, and sustainable livelihoods are relevant. The, overall conceptual framework is summarised in a table at the end of the chapter (see Table 1). The chapter ends by the durable solutions concept to the problem of IDPs in Zimbabwe, but also points out that such solutions will only materialise if the three dilemmas are addressed in a systematic way.

2. 1 KEY CHARACTERISTICS OF INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS (IDPs)

As outlined in the IDPs definition (see Chapter 1, p. 1), the definition of IDPs is not legal, or precise. It is a definition that combine the two notions of internally and displaced persons. In contrast to refugees who cross borders to other countries, IDPs are people who are full citizens of a state but have been forced to relocate from their hometown or state/province to another location within the same country

(Skeldon, 2021). As stated in the definition, for whatever reasons, the movement is usually involuntary. The statement implies that IDPs are forced to move away from their homes due to conditions beyond their control as a result of conflicts, disasters as they have no choice (Hammar, 2014). This means that IDPs are associated with the state's own affairs rather than those of other nations or those of persons who crossed the border to another country.

Despite the fact that the definition has no legal force, Simon (2021) agrees with the United Nations (UN) that it describes IDP as a person who is still a citizen of their state. This statement is further echoed by Dieng (2017), who claims that there is an authoritative definition for a displaced person that is clearly spelled out in the Refugee Convention of 1951. However, there is no legally binding description of IDPs. It is therefore, critical to note that, displaced people who do not necessarily leave their home countries remain under the protection of their government and should be protected and assisted without being marginalised by authorities (Brun, 2015).

The IDP definition goes further to highlight an important element of causality. The invisibility of definitional gaps focuses on causes as opposed to the effects of their unintentional movements and consequences (Ferris et al. 2010, p. 80). In other words, despite the causes of their displacement, whether natural or man-made disasters, people who have suffered internal displacement have similar vulnerabilities as refugees (Mooney, 2005, p.12). In fact, IDPs seek refuge in their own country due to conditions created by their own government. In other words,

IDPs are produced by the factors that cause displacement. Furthermore, the actions of the state may amplify IDPs vulnerability. Additionally, in certain cases, the actions of the government may produce IDPs despite the fact that in a number of cases, IDPs are produced by either natural or man-made disasters.

Individual rights are inalienable, and the state has the obligation to uphold human rights. Persons are forced to migrate when their human rights are violated. For example, in Zimbabwe, state-sponsored violence in the 2000 and subsequent elections drove many people from their homes, particularly in rural areas. Many of them became IDPs, while others sought refugee status in neighbouring countries (Ndlovu and Nwauche, 2021; Fontein, 2009)⁵. Accordingly, Vietti et al. (2013, p. 21) posit that "Forced migration is a result of failure to meet conducive conditions for living a free and fearless life". The study subscribes to the IDP definition by Simon (2021) and further notes that internal displacement in Masvingo, Manicaland, and Matabeleland North provinces was caused by hostile human rights conditions that subjected individuals to fear, violence, and displacement.

⁵ The urban clean-up, code-named "Operation Murambatsvina" or "Operation Restore Order" (2005), was the result of political violence that occurred at different times and for a variety of reasons, as well as farm track land reforms.

2.2 APPROACHES APPLIED: CAPABILITY, ENTITLEMENT AND LIVELIHOOD

In line with the study's three dilemmas (recognition, empirical, and exclusion), the main theories on which the research project was constructed utilized capability, entitlement, and sustainable livelihood approaches. Furthermore, the study examined the durable solution concept. Each of these approaches attempts to provide a comprehensive discussion on the provision of social services to the internally displaced persons in the provinces of Matabeleland North, Masvingo, and Manicaland in Zimbabwe.

2.2.1 THE CAPABILITY APPROACH

The main theory applied in the study is the capability approach (CA), pioneered by Sen (2013) and later refined by Nussbaum (Robeyns, 2017). It is an "assessment to ascertain an individual's quality of life focusing on opportunities available as opposed to an individual's mind or resources" (Sen, 2013, p. 10). Capabilities contribute to the notion of social justice because they "are the relevant space for comparison in justice-related issues" (Nussbaum, 2003, p. 43). His thinking is that social justice capabilities are a valuable measurement mechanisms. In other words, social justice capabilities considers a person's well-being freedom that people value and thereby create conducive conditions for realisation of basic capabilities for all. Nussbaum's improvement on certain strands and distinctions is the reason the approach better suits the study that focuses on a moral-legal-political philosophy. The philosophy is grounded on constitutionality, which holds that the state should protect rights for its citizens, unlike Sen's view, which was concerned with the broad equality of humanity (Robeyns, 2017). As a result, the capability approach was appropriate in the pursuit

of basic social services for internal displacements as a human right guaranteed by the Constitution. Given the above, a capability approach was appropriate for the study because it looks at the provision of basic services of the diverse forms of forced migration in Zimbabwe`s three provinces of Matabeleland North, Masvingo, and Manicaland. Further, this approach aligned with the study as it is concerned with limitations that affect the socio and economic status of a person.

In identifying human capabilities and affiliations, Nussbaum defines life as a capability that is inherent in every human being as long as an individual lives a natural and normal life. In addition, this approach looks at how communities should build social capital systems to enable individuals to have self-respect and counter marginalisation and humiliation through affiliation. Accordingly, affiliation is a core capability that enables an individual to gain dignity and equality. For example, IDPs should form some network groups to comfort, connect and encourage each other on the way forward. Also, the capability approach comprises two normative claims. These are the significance of wellbeing and the abilities of people to achieve it.⁶

Capability approach was proposed for this study because of its elements such as: political participation, engagement, financial resources, social institutions, and protection of freedom of thought (Robeyns, 2017). Also, these elements have been highlighted by other scholars in playing a huge role on the causes and exclusion of IDPs. Therefore, the study attempted to categorise the provision of social services as a vital need for survival and a possibility for attaining an individual`s development

⁶ See <http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/capability-approach/>. (Retrieved November 12, 2022).

and getting them out of the poverty trap. The approach's conceptual framework serves as the foundation for evaluating and discussing social change (Lindeman, 2014). The study views the provision of essential services for IDPs as central to the achievement of capabilities.

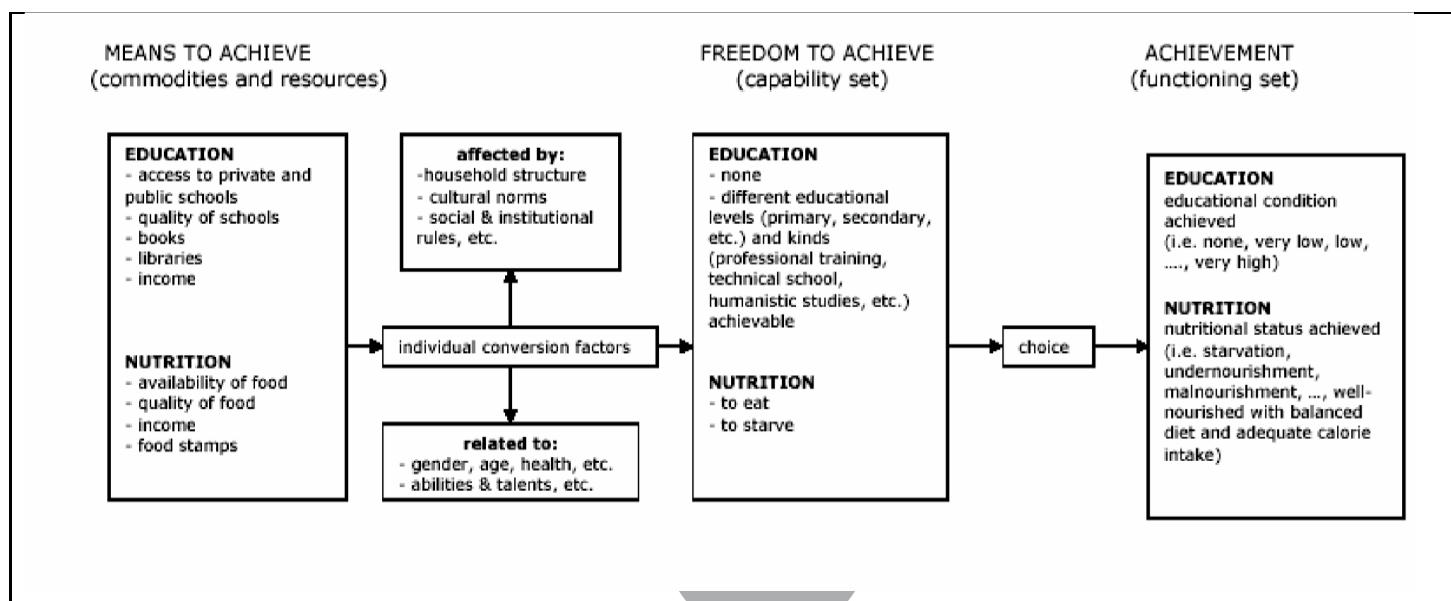


Figure 3 : Capability approach of nutrition and education as evaluative spaces ⁷

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The study noted a critical element of the approach that revealed what a person possesses and what they are capable to act upon and achieve results. IDPs in Zimbabwe own little due to displacement that has perpetuated their deprivation of the basic necessities thus promoting the level of destitution. These observations are commensurate with the capability approach underscores "the freedom individuals possess for a meaningful way of life" (Frediani et al. 2015, p.103). This is a possibility if a person resides in an environment that is conducive. Thus, it may be

⁷ <http://www-3.unipv.it/webdept/prin/workpv01.pdf> (Retrieved November 12, 2022)

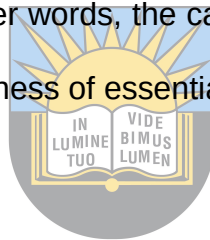
inferred that, capability' itself provides essential aspects that any individual requires to build a perfect life for themselves.

Frediani et al. (2015) further note that the capability approach focuses on the elimination of constraints that prevent an individual from living the life they want, should, all things being equal. As stated by Robeyns (2017), it is possible to enhance social justice and equality when one has the opportunity to do what they can (capabilities). In addition, since capabilities are linked to human rights, community requires an achievement of capabilities to be referred to as a just community (Nussbaum, 2011). Therefore, the application of capability approach connected with the study due to its association with social, economic, and human rights. On one hand, IDPs in Zimbabwe should be able to claim the right to service provision and access in the same manner as other citizens of the country. While, on the other hand, the provision of essential services to IDPs is fundamental to ensuring they attain their potential and capabilities, apart from just being a right.

Robeyns (2017) notes that the impact on individuals' capabilities is addressed by the capability approach in policy evaluation process. Again, this is the policy gap that the study attempts to address as the policies on IDPs' discourse are the GPID and the Kampala Convention that protect internal displacement rights, yet the situation on the ground remains questionable in terms of inclusion and visibility of IDPs (Christensen et al. 2009). On the contrary, Nussbaum (2011) argues that most states provide for minimal rights' without the corresponding capability to acquire those rights. It is, however, the assertion of the study that this is the case with IDPs in

Zimbabwe. The right to the provision of services to IDPs has to become a reality through an effective and efficient human rights implementation process.

The study recognises that the provision of essential services is critical for uplifting the IDPs from the salient conditions of displacement that put them into abject poverty, marginalisation, and deprivation. It is for this reason that, capability approach provides valuable knowledge to understand the need for provision of services to IDPs. The capability approach "views the importance of a conducive environment to achieve wellbeing as arising from social change and justice debate" (Frediani et al. 2015, p.40). In other words, the capability approach opens a platform to a discussion about the effectiveness of essential service delivery to IDPs.

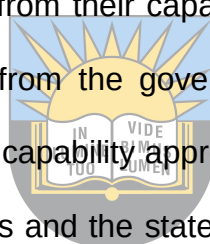


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The capability approach was also ideal for this study because its tenets help to question whether the IDPs in Zimbabwe have access to essential services and goods to attain their respective capabilities that is, being able to conduct livelihood activities. The study posed such critical questions in order to obtain answers. Furthermore, the capability approach helps to turn non-concrete demands into certainty for the provision of services to internal displacement. In this light, the study outlined the basic essentials for survival and human development. Lindeman (2014) argues that the capability approach provides a conceptual framework that adequately discusses and evaluates the efforts of social change. Therefore, non-marginalisation and service provision to IDPs in the three provinces of Zimbabwe are fundamental to the achievement of these capabilities.

Despite the merits that are accorded to the capability approach, there are also a number of demerits attached to it. For instance, it has been noted that it fails to account for group membership and does not appreciate the shortcomings of individual rational agency. Robeyns (2017) points out that the approach fails to appreciate the group's ability to resist pressure and be rational. Also, Assaduzzaman et al. (2020) noted that Sen (2013) should have blended the individual's capabilities (freedoms) with the freedom of the community. Another criticism of this approach, is that individuals are not recognised as part of a vibrant community and the state fails to address inequalities, social justice, multicultural societies, and human well-being. Key assumptions of the capabilities approach allow individuals to attain their freedom, having choices to draw from their capabilities, enhancing their well-being, and the hope of a commitment from the government in the process of bringing sustainable development. Indeed, capability approach implications are evident in the study as that the host communities and the state fail to recognise the IDPs and this affects the improvement of IDPs individual capacities. Another, implication is that without recognition there is no freedom as evidenced in the IDP study areas in the three provinces.



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2.2.2 THE ENTITLEMENT APPROACH

The second approach used in the study was the entitlement approach. Entitlement is a legal concept that focus on the rules that govern the application of the what, how and where (Sen, 2013). For example, what is the entitlement, how is it being administered and where is the location. In contributing to the theory, Devereux (2021, p. 146) suggests that Sen's entitlement approach is "descriptive rather than a

normative concept" while, Nayak (2022, p. 70) notes that Sen's entitlement approach is "a definitional statement as opposed to a causal statement." One key element of Sen's entitlement approach is the non-recognition or inclusion of morality and human rights aspects, which is why the study utilised the approach. The rationality of the application of the theory is that the study under review critically views the protection of human rights. It further questions the application of ethical norms to add legal statutes faced by the IDPs in Matabeleland North, Manicaland, and Masvingo provinces.

The genesis of Sen's entitlement approach was focused on famine, as it perceived starvation as an outcome of a lack of food resources (Osmani, 1993). The access and distribution of goods and services refer to health, security and food. In Sen's words (2013, p. 31), "each person has actual command over necessities, and this is often a source of inequality." As stated earlier in the objectives section (see Chapter 1, item 1.4 and 1.5, respectively), the critical area to the study is interrogating the provision of essential services (security, education, health, shelter, food, and community development) to IDPs as internal displaced citizens. The stated question infers that there were social inequalities that occurred during the displacement cycle.

The entitlement and capability approaches complement each other, hence their use in the study. Devereux (2021) argues that an individual can command these entitlements (principle) using all the rights and opportunities that they face, and these are acquired through legal channels available. The practicality in this study under review is that the basic service provision is key and should be acquired at all costs,

through legal channels if need be. The distribution of inequitable entitlements, as postulated by Sen (2013) undermines the IDPs in Zimbabwe, as stated in the capability and entitlement approaches.

In this study, the entitlement approach ensures and guide if the states are safeguarding international policies and laws that protect and promote human rights for IDPs. As stipulated in the GPID Principles, the international community can move in to assist in terms of humanitarian needs provided, there are signs that points to failure by the host state to assist IDPs as long the assisting states do not usurp the responsibility of the host nation (Mooney and Davies, 2016). In light of this, the study also sought to find out how and if the IDPs in Matabeleland North, Masvingo, and Manicaland are provided with basic essential services as a way of observing their fundamental human rights in line with the capability approach. More so, it is the state's obligation to provide assistance to its citizens, the marginalised IDPs in Zimbabwe included. Consequently, the fact that the international community may come in to assist a failing state brings to light the fact that states are legally and morally bound to provide assistance to citizens, including IDPs in Zimbabwe. As such, the entitlement approach provides fertile ground for a human rights-based approach as articulated by the capability approach.

Sohlberg (2006) identified three concepts for the entitlement approach. The three concepts are: endowment set, entitlement mapping and entitlement set. A person's "entitlement set is an assortment of goods and services acquired by converting their endowments (labour, assets, and resources) through exchange of entitlement

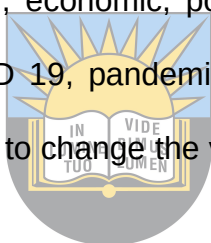
mappings" (Devereux, 2021, p. 146). The entitlement set refers to goods and services an individual can obtain, while entitlement mapping is the combination of the endowment set and entitlement set. In consideration of the provision of the Constitution of Zimbabwe of 2013 state rights such as the study is of the view that the provision of basic services to all citizens is legally backed. Therefore, IDPs should be accommodated and provided equal services as an endowment set and in line with the elements of capability and entitlement approach. Based on the foregoing, it may be assumed that the view of the study is that IDPs in Zimbabwe are entitled to access basic services (education, health, and agriculture) as a fundamental entitlement set.



Despite the fact that the entitlement approach is premised on famine, one of its shortcoming is the failure to offer causes of famine or a hypothesis. Another, criticism of entitlement approach is its concentration on distribution and failure to recommend food in puts as well as negating aggregate shortage (Nayak, 2022). An example that led to the criticism of entitlement approach was the Sudan famine that preserved productive assets during the stress period for the future usage. Lastly, the entitlement approach does not adequately explain factors such as migration, war and bad living conditions in times of the famine (Devereux, 2021). One implication of the entitlement approach evident in the study is the failure and difficulty to address the forced migration discourse.

2.2.3 THE SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOOD APPROACH

The third approach adopted for this study was the sustainable livelihood approach. The approach was applied to investigate the life experiences of the IDPs in the provinces of Matabeleland North, Masvingo, and Manicaland. The approach played a significant role in the work of the Department for International Development (DFID), and it became a vital approach in implementing projects in developing countries (Morse et al. 2009). Likewise, the approach was the principle underpinning the UK development policy and the basis for a number of DFID programme and practise. The approach is premised on the idea that a society's status change over time and shift from a state of vulnerability to that of resilience. The causes of this vulnerability arise from factors such as: social, economic, political, and environmental, climate change, and of course the COVID 19, pandemic (Heyd, 2021). The action of the affected individuals is fundamental to change the vulnerability status condition.



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The IDPs in Zimbabwe are vulnerable, and the question to pose is what action they should do in order to mitigate and attend to their vulnerability status. To a large extent, the sustainable livelihood approach helped the study in addressing the vulnerability, resilience, and adaptation of Masvingo, Matabeleland North, and Manicaland IDPs due to the disastrous effects of the Fast Track Land Reform Programme, Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order, Gukurahundi atrocities, political aggression, and other factors that led to internal displacement. A lesson learnt obtained from the sustainable livelihood approach is that assets and capability activities for the IDPs to produce a living despite their internal displacement and socio-economic and political marginalisation. These are viewed as

the capability assets (resources, stores, claims, and access) and activities required to build resilience in response to vulnerability (Chambers et al. 1992). Carney (1998) provides a simple definition of livelihoods, stating that it consists of assets, capabilities (social and material), and interventions for survival.

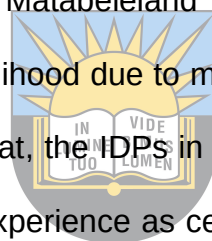
Chambers et al. (1992) argue that sustainable livelihood occurs only when communities, societies, or individuals are able to withstand and recover from shock and stress and succeed in maintaining and improving their capability assets for the present and future generations. This approach was used because it highlights how the livelihood activities play a role in promoting sustainable livelihoods for the marginalised IDPs in the three provinces. The long-term goal of sustainable livelihood activities is to create a resilient and adaptive system for forced migrants in their new environment (Guo, 2022: DFID, 2018).



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As a result of the internal displacement cycle, IDPs remain one of the most vulnerable and this puts a strain on their livelihood strategies as they relocate to new locations. Therefore, to survive in these new areas, a number of livelihood interventions are a prerequisite for the IDPs. Implementing livelihood strategies in IDPs' areas requires assets, capabilities, and strategies to address IDPs' socio-economic dislocation problems. Therefore, the application of sustainable livelihood approach would promote the livelihood interventions carried out by the IDPs in the study area provinces. As such, it is given that IDPs have to secure income, food security, and shelter regardless of the already poor state of economy and social activities especially in developing counties. At the end, the IDPs will apply different livelihood assets within their reach to achieve sustainable livelihood outcomes.

The basic approach to sustainable livelihoods is based on five pillars or capitals (Nunan, 2022: DFID, 2018). These are natural, economic, physical, human, and social capital. The natural capital refers to the environment in the form of water, air, and land at the disposal of the IDPs that absorbs the shock experienced in the displacement process. Economic capital is the second identified capital that is critical to the IDPs, who lack economic capital due to their displacement. The elements of economic capital which are credit, cash savings, and assets are examples of the importance and the need to form a capital base for the IDPs in the provinces of Matabeleland North, Masvingo, and Manicaland. Therefore, this approach corresponded with the phenomenon under research because it showed how forced migration of IDPs in Manicaland, Matabeleland North, and Masvingo has over the years caused a strain on their livelihood due to movement from one area to another. Therefore, it may be suggested that, the IDPs in their new area of settlement due to exclusionary practices that they experience as cemented by the extant literature are in a way left with no choice but the need to adopt new vital livelihood assets, capabilities, and strategies to survive and address their political and socio-economic dislocation. Thus, it may be inferred that forced migrants should by all means source for the essentials if given the opportunities after displacement in the form of income, food, and other income-generating activities within their current areas of location.



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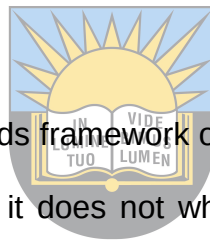
The third capital focuses on the knowledge, skills, health, and well-being needed for the individual, household, community, or society to transform into an asset for their benefit. The fourth, social capital, resonates with the social capital resources attained by the individual, household, and community before, during, and after the displacement. Social capital refers to trust, associations, support, and networks that

slide during relocation and are needed to survive in a new environment. These social capital connections changes into viable livelihood strategies. The process provides an individual, household, or community with the capabilities and capacity to advance despite their marginalised status (Appadurai, 2018). In this regard, sustainable livelihood for the IDPs in the study is central to facilitating the recovery faced in the displacement cycle. The infrastructure and equipment that promotes livelihoods are the physical capital. Also, changes in the environment that affect communication and access to basic services are part of the infrastructure (Fahad, 2022).

The use of the sustainable livelihood method in this study was designed to promote and enhance individual, household, and community capabilities as proposed by (Scoones et al, 2018). In other words, this is the normative dimension of the study that persists alongside the analytical analysis. These capabilities are premised on the different interventions that are adopted as part of community-based protection in communities. These range from food, assets for community mobilisation, income generation, savings clubs, and agriculture (Chambers et al. 1992). According to Solidarity Peace Trust, (2022) a forcibly displaced individual who is relocated to an environment that is not fit for human inhabitation will have their capabilities impacted, but they will eventually adapt to the new situations, with their capabilities improving over time. Therefore, this study sought to reveal the application of these forms of capital to IDPs in Manicaland, Matabeleland North, and Masvingo provinces.

Furthermore, sustainable livelihood approach was adopted for this study because it was able to address dilemmas of recognition, empirical evidence, and exclusion

while, also showing how the state and partners should plan interventions to improve the status of the IDPs. Apart from the challenges faced by the IDPs, the study aimed to assist and implement interventions to achieve sustainable livelihood outcomes. In fact, the study emphasises interventions that improve IDPs' livelihoods. In view of the refusals of the state in ensuring outside support for the IDPs, the thrust is on the internal interventions from the host communities to play a role and assist in the livelihood outcomes for the IDPs. The livelihood outcomes comprises of resources for the economically deprived IDPs, including food, education, health, security, smart environmental security, and sustainable utilisation of natural resources (Nunan, 2022).



However, the sustainable livelihoods framework or Evidence based approaches, has had its critics, who point out that it does not wholesomely attend to challenges of sustainable development (Fahad et al 2022). Matiku (2020), supports Fahad and notes that there are limitations to any evidence-based approach. Another, critique of sustainable livelihood approach is that it is purely mechanical and quantitative in nature.

The sustainable livelihoods approach (SLA) has implications especially for the internally displaced persons under study in the three provinces. Chambers and Conway, (1992) posits that provision of assets such as natural, financial, human, physical and social are critical in the improvement of IDPs livelihoods and in the process reduce their poverty and hunger vulnerability. Another, implications relates to the participation and engagement of IDPs in the decision making process that aid

the confidence, self-reliance and respect of IDPs (Helmores, 2009). Also, in the words of Cernea, (1997), the sustainable livelihoods approach (SLA) has an implication to foster durable solution. Development makes IDPs to tackle the issues of return, integration and resettlement.

2.2.4 LINKAGES OF THE APPROACHES

Drawing from Sen (2013) the study shows the linkages between the approaches applied to capability, sustainable livelihood, and entitlement. This is based on the view that there is a strong connection among the concepts that are the main tenets of the approaches. For instance, entitlement and capability address human capabilities in a society. Capabilities comprise of functions that the IDPs can achieve, including a set of functions showing the individuals' freedom to select how they want to live (Hussein et al. 2004). Also, a sustainable livelihood approach improves capabilities and entitlements. Sustainable livelihood approach has the same motivation linked to capability approach as well as its components. Furthermore, livelihood literature uses capabilities language and promotes Sen's concept. Also, capability approach is influenced by entitlements, while at the same time entitlements guide the proper design of sustainable livelihood strategies. The study focused on the relationship between these approaches and how they align with the phenomenon under research.

2.3 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE ON INTERNAL DISPLACEMENT

2.3.1 IDPs AND RECOGNITION DILEMMA

In Zimbabwe, internal displacement is increasing, while, at the same time, it is the main agent with the primary responsibility of solving the problem of making sure the very same IDPs have their human rights promoted and protected (Benhura et al. 2021). Ferris (2007) in his earlier research concluded that internal displacement that occurs as a result of governmental actions is more prevalent than natural disasters. In addition, Ferris, specifically mentions that in Zimbabwe, IDPs are called "mobile and vulnerable populations" (MVPs) (ibid). This is indicative that the internal displaced are non recognised or acknowledged as IDPs, as they are now referred to by a different name that is not only recognised internationally but are also known as people of no fixed abode.



For instance, a subset that is more pronounced in Zimbabwe are former Zimbabwean farm workers. According to Mlambo (2015) these former farm workers present various types of challenges encountered during the displacement process of farm invasion in Zimbabwe (before, during, and after) and how they dealt with these challenges. Former Farm workers' representations have been a significant causal aspect of their displacements. Hammar (2008) posits that former farm workers have been labelled with IDP name tags and are denied their citizenship rights and entitlements. Furthermore, former farm workers have always been viewed as opposition party members and former white employers who were opposed to the land invasion. The state has failed to domesticate and honor what is captured in the Kampala Convention of 2009 under Article III (2) (b) (IDMC, 2019).

Meanwhile, in the Matabeleland North province, the Gukurahundi atrocities (refer to chapter 3, item 3.3.2) led to growth of IDPs over the years. To date there have been scholarly debates about how the government has not apologised to the affected families apart from a political meeting statement by the former President of Zimbabwe that the Gukurahundi atrocities was a "moment of madness" orchestrated by the government (CCJP, 2007: Scarnecchia, 2008). Furthermore, a Zimbabwean Political Scientist and scholar Professor Moyo (2019)⁸ on his Twitter handle account comments that "Gukurahundi is not the past. It's a live issue crying for resolution through truth telling and accountability". As the study's first dilemma of recognition, the action of the Government of Zimbabwe shows that it does not recognise the IDPs in their entirety from both the legal and the social aspects, a sign of lack of political will.



Marewo et al. (2021) states that regardless of the diverse four types of displacements, they generally overlap and connect to each other in one way or the other. These include: those displaced by land reform; the others are displaced because of home demolitions, while others are displaced by mining activities. The last group is displaced by political violence (Ibid). The focus of this study was on those affected by the land reform, Operation Restore Order/Operation Murambatsvina and Gukurahundi atrocities. Other categories of groups integrated back to their homes after elections in 2008 (IOM, 2018). However, challenges of marginalisation and exclusion issues are still affecting those that were displaced on political grounds (Chipenda, 2021: Potts, 2011). The study points out as a fact that

⁸ @JNMoyo (2019)

there exists a non-closure on internal displacements due to political violence such as land reform, Operation Restore Order/Operation Murambatsvina and Gukurahundi atrocities to signify the lack of IDP recognition by the government.

In general, IDPs in Africa are situated in non-camp settlements and, as a result, are denied humanitarian protection and assistance that is usually channeled to camp settlements (IDMC, 2019). Unlike countries such as: South Sudan, Somalia, and Afghanistan, where IDPs are offered comprehensive assistance by the state in the form of organised humanitarian support and civilian protection, these are lacking in Zimbabwe (McGregor and Chatiza, 2020). Admittedly, displacement in Zimbabwe is not visible by means of showing displaced camps, and thus the calamity is hidden, leading to IDPs becoming invisible to protection and promotion of their rights (ibid).



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According to Akokpari et al. (2018), some nations that do have IDPs, usually block the assistance of IDPs on the basis of sovereign space. For example, in Zimbabwe, the state banned Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) from accessing IDPs during Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order, the Gukurahundi Atrocities, and the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (IOM, 2018). According to Zimbabwe Lawyers for Human Rights (ZLHR, 2017), the government refuted the internal displacement crisis and prevented humanitarian assistance to victims of Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order, Gukurahundi atrocities, and the Fast Track Land Reform Programme.

In South Sudan, the government prevented the United Nations Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS) from reaching the IDPs due to the ongoing armed conflict within the Protection of Civilian Camps (POCs) (Zambakari, 2018). Such acts of preventing assistance to IDPs reveal the authorities' failure to recognise internal displacement as citizens and in the process paints a bleak picture of external organisations that usually want to step in and assist their IDPs (Hammar, 2008).

However, in Zimbabwe the marginalisation of displaced individuals through the proxy of authorities is the main reason for the vulnerability of IDPs ever since the Fast Track Land reform programme and their situation remains unresolved (Mapiko et al. 2013). Jezreel et al. (2020, p.13) argue that "usually, IDPs are not visible, yet they are more susceptible and marginal protected compared to refugees, yet both have been displaced." The IDPs in Zimbabwe have continued to encounter multifaceted challenges related to their marginalisation, hence the study focused on the three dilemmas towards redress of the existing gaps on the phenomenon under research. An example of marginalisation is noted by Mkodzongi and Lawrence (2019), who asserts that, IDPs in Zimbabwe stay on land with no supporting documentation, and cannot claim the land as theirs.

2.3.2 IDPs AND EMPIRICAL DILEMMA

The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) provides each year a detailed spatial location of IDPs (Maps), numbers of the IDPs whose flight resulted from human rights violations, generalised violence or armed conflict per country (IDMC, 2019). These maps indicate the type of zones affected by forced migration flows, origin of internal displacement, locations or temporarily of migration and areas that

have been affected by inward and outward conflict-induced displacement. The zones affected by forced migration underscores that IDPs are scattered within the nation while, refugees are primarily located in camps (Ibid). However, according to IDMC (2020) the accuracy and quality of data stems primarily from the difficulty to gather data on IDPs that varies between nations. Furthermore, report by IDMC highlights its failure to collect numbers of IDPs due to spatially disaggregated information on displacement in Zimbabwe, with similar problems being noted in Nepal (IDMC, 2019). An earlier report, by the Fact Finding Mission to Zimbabwe, the state, refuted the figures suggested by the Report to assess the Scope and Impact of Operation Murambatsvina (Tibaijuka, 2010).

Research shows that the importance of data gathering for IDPs is critical for several reasons. In a study by Olanrewaju (2018, p.155) this scholar opines that,

"the data is useful for development of national displacement policies, assist humanitarian actors to reduce displacement crisis, knowledge management of internal displacement, reflect on lessons learnt that have work on support of displacement. The population numbers, provide an intra-gender need insensitivity of partners on IDPs and how this interrupts the rights of displaced women and the girl and boy child and more importantly expose government to the need for intra-gender need vulnerabilities evaluation and needs-based targeted interventions".

Linked with Olanrewaju's statement, it may be inferred that the refusal by the government to provide or facilitate the critical empirical data on IDPs negatively impacts and affects the value for the IDP data base.

IDP data plays a role in the management of internal displacement for policy formulation that caters for livelihoods interventions for IDPs. For example,

"IDMC analysed data in DRC and Sudan to control the total number of IDPs for a given year, as there might be concerns that the association between internal displacement and the spread of ethnic conflict may have been driven by countries such as Sudan" (IDMC, 2020, p. 18).

Some of the conclusions after the analysis were that IDPs might be particularly at risk of militarisation. Unfortunately, such an analysis may not be possible in Zimbabwe due to missing empirical data on IDPs while in countries such as South Sudan, Somalia and Afghanistan that have data readily available of IDPs offer comprehensive assistance by the state and support civilian protection (MacGregor et al. 2020). The following states (South Sudan, Somalia and Afghanistan) have IDPs generated through wars, unlike Zimbabwe's IDPs. Therefore, the contexts have significant differences but the bottom line is the inadequate IDP data for Zimbabwe.

Furthermore, a challenge in situations of forced migration is to ensure that holistic assistance is provided while adhering to the principles of impartiality and neutrality (Onoja, et al. 2020). By and large, such interventions for allocating humanitarian resources and for censuring (counting and registering) IDPs often fail to provide specific needs to the IDP groups. This has led politics in organisations to manipulate data (OCHA, 2020).

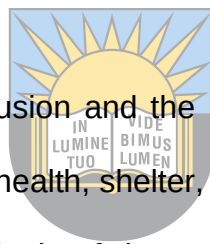
Internal displacement has taken place in most SADC states (SADC, 2020). For example, the historic land displacements have not been addressed and are taking shape within South Africa and Namibia (ibid). Perhaps it explains why, "SADC fails to censure Zimbabwe over human rights" associated with the Fast Track Land Reform Programme, which entailed eviction of the white commercial farmers (Oucho, 2005, p. 38). The number of IDPs in Zimbabwe is unknown because the nation does not have systems of accountability (ibid). For example, different organisations that deal with IDPs have different methodologies for identification and accounting and apply their individual lenses as a way of assisting IDPs (SADC Report, 2020).

For instance, for a majority of countries that have IDPs, the camp settlements are viewed as a visible sign of forced displacement on a transitional path to durable solutions. However, Brandenberger et al., (2020) suggests that there are more of IDPs that are accommodated outside camp-like settings and notes that those who live outside the camp are usually overlooked by humanitarian and development organisations and are marginalised in the process. This is critical and in line with what the study sought to redress as part of its objectives that the empirical dilemma should be addressed for the benefit of the internally displaced communities through a robust and creditable data collection system.

2.3.3 IDPs AND EXCLUSION DILEMMA

Exclusion in the face of internal displacement is prevalent and systematic, and the displaced are subjected to marginalisation in various forms. IDPs encounter a number of barriers and are under-represented in civic activities in Zimbabwe

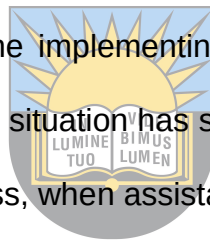
(Orendain and Djalante, 2021). It has been noted that IDPs in camp settlements are easily susceptible to diseases, exploitation, and massive violations from armed military personnel (Lomo, 2000). Furthermore, depending on the management structures of the camp settlement, there may be a lack of water, lighting, insufficient humanitarian assistance, and more importantly, a lack of a source of livelihood (ibid). Robinson (2003, p.121) argues that internal displacement is "disruptive and painful; it is also fraught with serious long-term risks of becoming poorer before displacement, more vulnerable economically, and disintegrating socially." As a result internal displacement in camp settlement or non-camp settlement is susceptible to all forms of abuse and exclusion (Justino, 2014).



Internal displacement due to exclusion and the lack of provision of basic essential services (security, education, and health, shelter, food, and community development) impoverishes the uprooted individuals of these basic necessities (Tibaijuka 2010). This is usually the case because forced migrants, during their relocation, do not have time to collect all of their personal belongings. The process and predicament of internal displacement make them poorer because of a lack of means of production, farming land, and chronic diseases that occur during the displacement process, especially for women, boys, and girls (IOM, 2021). Sahoo et al. (2018) posit that IDPs are deprived of essentials in the form of shelter, security, food, education, and community engagement. As a result, of lack of accessibility to elementary and basic needs, IDPs are regarded as adversaries of the government and are therefore vulnerable to state persecution. On the contrary, those who cross an international

boundary are protected under the Refugee Act of 1951 ⁹and provided with full-fledged benefits (Rai, 2017).

Studies on internal displacement have alluded that in most cases, IDPs are exposed to all sorts of social, economic, political, and environmental vulnerabilities (Zetter, 2015). As evidenced from field experience, most nations are not pro-active in attending to forced migration, and this is a sign of poor planning. The UN Inter Agency Standing Committee (IASC) cluster approach developed a plan to help cover internal displacement and spell out the responsibilities and labour for the organisations (Christensen et al. 2009). IDPs are dependent on emergency assistance as per the plans of the implementing partners (ibid) and development activities usually happen when the situation has stabilised (Benhura, 2021). This is a sign of exclusion during the process, when assistance is most needed.



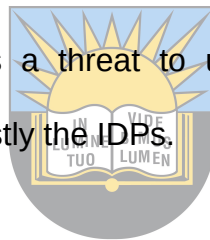
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The Malaysia Racial Discrimination Report (2019) concludes and condemns the donor community for having a discriminatory method of distributing humanitarian assistance to host and displaced individuals. For instance, the then Deputy Special Representative of the United Nations Secretary General for South Sudan, Lanzer (2013), notes that, as demonstrated in South Sudan, the government has established protection camps to shelter IDPs with rudimentary facilities as compared to standard structures developed for the host's communities. Likewise, Hammar (2008) laments that even the host nations employ biased approaches to their

⁹ 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, adopted July 28, 1951, entered into force Apr. 22, 1952, 189 UNTS 137 ("1951 Refugee Convention hereafter).

displaced populations, further marginalising and excluding them from participation in the development arena through the notion of sovereignty. As a way forward, Zetter (2015) contends that both groups deserve international protection to avoid the negative label or tag.

Salama et al. (2016) state that displaced populations' vulnerability is a cause for concern and states should employ equal protection for IDPs as that accorded to refugees on international space. Consequently, forced migration has implications for human security. Albert et al., (2021, p. 90) postulates human security as "protecting essential freedoms—freedoms that are the essence of life." Furthermore, Albert (2021) argues that COVID-19 is a threat to universal security because of the ontological disaster to people, mostly the IDPs.



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As stated earlier, protection and assistance for IDPs are national sovereignty issues and not international laws. However, this only takes place with the assumption that the state follows international human rights and humanitarian guidelines. According to Maphoto (2022), IDP policies do not protect IDPs but rather discriminate them, particularly those displaced by government policies. Eventually, the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (2020) concluded that governments continue to hinder their ability to deliver basic services to the IDPs, as experienced in Zimbabwe.

Internationally, it has been noted that humanitarian assistance and protection for IDPs are provided by the states. This was also true in the post-World War II era, when refugees were recognised, their concerns were addressed, and they were protected under the Geneva Convention of 1951, as opposed to IDPs (Zetter, 2015). IDPs are a vulnerable persons of conflict fatalities, excluded and marginalised compared to refugees, and share the same causes of displacement, despite the fact that the latter relocates to another country while the former remains within the borders of their own. Consequently, they continue to suffer without an international shield as they remain under the dominion of their nations, which literally do not provide the appropriate actions (ibid).

The Internal Displacement Monitoring Center (2020) argues that most IDPs are disadvantaged and struggle to survive because of their exclusion and marginalised in the development discourse. In Zimbabwe, most displaced individuals come from poor farming communities with limited access to adequate housing (Tanyanyiwa, 2020). While displacement affects people diversely, research has noted that women, children, and physically challenged individuals are the most vulnerable (ibid). Additionally, women and children are vulnerable to several threats in the form of human trafficking, and forced labour.

Brun (2015) revealed that IDPs and other citizens have restricted rather than secured access to rights, leading to unequal access to citizen rights. Due to the sour relationship between the IDPs and host communities, the former loses out in comparison in areas such as livelihoods, human capital (education), and influence over local institutions due to marginalisation and exclusion.

Mooney (2015) states that IDPs as victims of displacement are exposed to serious risks of abuse, discrimination, and neglect, especially women and children. He goes on to argue that human displacement poses serious threats and promotes vulnerability levels for civilians, as evidenced by the need for constant assessments of their status. Furthermore, IDMC (2020) raises the view that the IDPs are a marginalised and vulnerable group due to forced movements, destroyed social organisation, traditional roles that remain patriarchal. Some of the factors that affect the IDPs are: psychological distress, especially for children and women, and removal from sources of income, leading to their psychological and physical vulnerability, disruption of children's education processes, inhospitable host communities, as well as, a lack of identification that is a prerequisite to enjoyment of some legal recognition.



In addition, Gender-based Violence (GBV) yet another substantial vulnerability of displaced communities. According to the Global Overview (2020) Internal Displacement Monitoring Center, women and girls are constantly stigmatised, sexually assaulted, and marginalised. Furthermore, UNHCR (2020) advances the risk factors that perpetuate GBV, as lack of community support systems, weak legal systems, and enforcement, "breakdown of family, laws, and practises that encourage gender discrimination, lack of access to shelter, water, fuel, food, and insufficient access to livelihood opportunities." ¹⁰

¹⁰ Emergency Handbook, United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, <https://emergency.unhcr.org/entry/67716/idp-definition>. Retrieved on January 4, 2020.

In addition to GBV, one of the factors that has been noted to affect IDPs is food security. Report by UNICEF (2020) highlights that access to sufficient food that meets nutritional needs for a healthy life and agriculture through the land remain critical. However, this is not the case for a majority of IDPs as they lack a direct supply of food and as a source of livelihood as expressed by the sustainable livelihood approach. Nevertheless, it is argued that shocks such as drought and mainly displacements caused by either war, floods, or fast land reforms threaten the equilibrium of the essential factors of food security and result in the loss of agricultural production, leading to the marginalisation and exclusion of IDPs in the process (ibid).



UNICEF (2020, p.38) describes household food security as "the capacity of households to procure a sustainable and adequate basket of food." However, due to agricultural failure caused by the Fast Track Land Reform Programme, the displaced population became vulnerable. Moyo et al. (2021) put forward an argument that communities that previously developed group coping mechanisms and cohesion networks to lessen the impact of food shortages were scattered due to displacement and marginalisation in the process. In other words, aside from marginalisation and exclusion exposing IDPs to internal displacement risks such as sexual abuse of girls and women, the study contends that all of these are the result of the state's failure to recognise and exclude IDPs just like any other citizens.

Furthermore, one is bound to conclude that IDPs are not only vulnerable, but they are victims of discrimination, deprivation and impoverishment. More so, they experience marginalisation in their own culture, own communities and coupled with the pain of being displaced most of them end up losing their identity, lack financial opportunities and social capital. They also suffer from increased poverty level, loss of their loved ones and turn to delinquency and begging to survive (IOM, 2020).

Ferris et al. (2011, p.10) contend that host communities "usually don't feel comfortable to be joined by displaced communities also from a perspective of job opportunities and politics." This concept is further argued by Youkhana (2015, p. 20) who posits that "territorialities are spatial references which insist that displaced individuals should stick to their genealogies of belonging and concludes that such behaviour prevents IDP to establish their capabilities". This is in line with the capability approach that, being a displaced person has negative connotation and in regaining their functioning, an issue also experienced in Zimbabwe.

Wanninayake (2019) asserts that IDP programming ends with donor funding even if IDPs challenges are not addressed which is a recipe for exclusion of internally displaced communities. This statement is largely elaborated by Nguya and Siddiqui (2020) who notes out that failure to discover durable solutions is fertile ground for continued marginalisation and exclusion of IDPs as continuous protection of their needs is neglected.

In essence, Kalin and Chapuisat (2018) reiterates that because IDP status is typically passed down from generation to generation and does not end, it continues to impede on integration process and thus, undermines their rights. Usually, assistance and protection needs would be different from those of other resident citizens and would continue to be neglected because of the negative labels imposed on them. Landau and Bakewell (2018) posit that the major problem facing displaced populations is the liability of their particular states, as experienced by countries in the form of Iraq, Colombia, and South Sudan, inclusive of Zimbabwe, which are all economically and politically unstable. This therefore affects the IDPs' ability to attain shelter, promotes hostile environment, and derails the attainment of durable solutions at their disposal, coupled with numerous extreme economic circumstances and violence.



Linked with the foregoing assertions by different scholars, it is evident why the research under study adopted capability, entitlement, sustainable livelihood approach towards redress in promoting visibility of IDPs while protecting their human rights and to a large extent, the durable solution concept. This is in accordance with the exclusion definition, which states that "material poverty affects the person, destroys their self-esteem, more caustic for humanity as a whole, and more likely to persist and be attached to generations than exclusion" (Noonan et al., 2019, p. 100). The study indeed applied the approaches as a way forward in the IDP discourse.

2.4 THE STUDY'S DILEMMAS

The study`s dilemmas are recognition, empirical and exclusion dilemmas. The definitions were explained earlier (See chapter 1, p. 3). In the section below, the study will use the applied theoretical concepts namely capability, sustainable livelihood and entitlement approaches to frame the study`s dilemmas in line with the phenomenon under research. In conclusion, this section will look at the durable solution concept and how it is affected by the dilemmas.

2.4.1 THE RECOGNITION DILEMMA

The study provided a detailed operational definition of the first dilemma that is the recognition dilemma (See chapter 1, p. 3, and par. 2). Going forward, the study will use capability and entitlement approaches to frame the recognition dilemma. In line with Sen, Maley (2019, p.148) asserts that capability is “a person’s ability to do valuable acts or to reach valuable state of being”; it “represents the alternative combinations of things a person is able to do and perform”. This view is premised on the assumption that the state is for development and is committed to strengthen the human capabilities. Drawing from capability approach and recognition dilemma one notes the limitations of capabilities in the sense it is supposed to enhance the capabilities of individuals who are not recognised for such capabilities by the government. Therefore, in this case the fact that IDPs are not recognised by the government would then imply failure to attain the mentioned human capabilities.

Entitlement links well with capability approach. This is so because capabilities that are supposed to be provided by the government are on the other hand individual’s entitlements. Entitlement comprises of “goods and services that arise from

endowments through exchange of entitlement mappings” (Devereux, 2021, p.156). It is clear that the entitlement approach sets out entitlement parameters that are legally enshrined in the Zimbabwean Constitution of 2013 and in the Kampala Declaration respectively. The Kampala Declaration gives rights and entitlements to IDPs that the government should act upon and provide. However, what the entitlement approach aims to inform us is faced with challenges resulting from the non-recognition on IDPs by the authorities that subsequently, limits and prevent the presumed individual’s rights and their entitlements.

The thrust of sustainable livelihood approach is along the five types of capitals. These are natural, economic, physical, human, and social (see also item 2.2.3, p. 38). Natural capital, for example, is heavily reliant on government support. The production land is state property, so when people are displaced, they look for yet another state land property to settle on. Drawing from the sustainable livelihood approach helps us to identify livelihood implementation interventions. The recognition dilemma shows some of the constraints faced by IDPs as a result of a lack of state support. Internal displacements, on the other hand, have demonstrated project impact through society organisations engagement. This was observed during the field study assessments. In summation, sustainable livelihoods interventions are critical to positively turning IDPs’ vulnerabilities, but this is limited without a concerted effort from all stakeholders that are supposed to appreciate and recognise internal displacements in the first place.

On analysing capability approach and formulating the recognition dilemma, it points to the view that capability has challenges/limitations regarding the non–recognition of

internal displacements, leaving them with no choice to draw from their capabilities let alone achieve their freedom, political, social and economic goals. As one of its criticisms, the capabilities approach because of the non-recognition of IDPs does not achieve human capabilities, resulting in no progressive development for them.

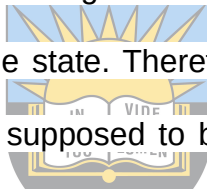
2.4.2 THE EMPIRICAL DILEMMA

The second dilemma is referred to as the empirical dilemma (see chapter 1, p. 4, and par. 2). The theoretical concept to be applied here is sustainable livelihood and capability approaches. As expressed by Morse et al. (2009), the sustainable livelihood approach assumes that the state implements viable interventions for its population. The introduction of the Human Development Index (HDI) was a result of Sen's capability approach. The only indicator of well-being that has been used is the growth of the domestic product (GDP) or the growth of the net national product (GNP). The HDI is premised on Sen's capabilities approach towards understanding human well-being. The emphasis is on the importance of means to an end (like a decent standard of living) over means (like income per capita) (Sen, 2013). The critical capabilities in HDI are the three ends of development: access to education, health, and goods that ensure the person's desired state of being. The establishment of the Human Development Reports (UDR) by UNDP helped to supply the tools used by development practitioners in processing data. The HDI was created to emphasise that persons and their capabilities should be the ultimate criteria¹¹ used for assessing the development of a country, not economic growth alone (UNDP, 2021).

¹¹ It's the measure of a nation's longevity, education, and income, and it is widely accepted in development discourse.

Zimbabwe's HDI¹² in 2018 and 2019 stood at 0.569 and 0.571, respectively to show the human capacity development (capability approach) (ibid).

Sen (2013) stresses the capabilities and functions that an individual achieves. In this regard, how do you measure this achievement? The capability approach integrates well with the human development index (HDI). In fact, the approach has given the HDI prominence as an operational data collection tool. The tool is based on component indices such as life expectancy, literacy, school enrolment, GDP, income, political participation, and civil rights. These are then accumulated in a single-digit index for comparison purposes among the states as the level of human well-being. The indices have equal weight. The recognition dilemma exposes that the IDPs are not recognised by the state. Therefore, if that is the case, this clearly conveys the idea that information supposed to be collected by the HDI will not be measured by the system, as it will not be collected due to the recognition dilemma at play, leading to the deprivation of IDP information in Zimbabwe.



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The entitlement and capability approach nexus, as illustrated in the Kampala Convention, requires that IDPs' data be collected. An individual's freedom of speech, citizenship rights, political and civic participation are collected as data. These are the indexes that are supposed to be collected and computed in order to see the progress and treatment of IDPs as a form of long-term solutions. However, despite such a guide for the entitlement approach in close alignment with

¹² A detailed HID for Zimbabwe from 1990 is attached as an annex
<https://countryeconomy.com/hdi/zimbabwe#:~:text=Literacy%20rate-,Zimbabwe%20%2D%20Human%20Development%20Index,-Date>

capabilities, entitlements are limited and cannot be quantified due to missing IDP data in the three provinces. Subsequently, the empirical dilemma indicates an exclusion of IDPs due to a lack of information on political voices and citizens' rights for IDPs from the inadequate measurement system in place.

The sustainable livelihood approach provides basic empirical measurement. This was the case during the study that collected basic data on the interventions and able to measure the capitals. It is important to collect IDPs human and social data that fed into the development planning process (See p.38). This information from sustainable livelihood approach gives the framework to appreciate and understand the appropriate sustainable livelihood interventions to apply.

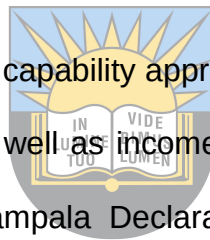


2.4. 3 THE EXCLUSION DILEMMA

The study provided a definition of the last dilemma, which is the exclusion dilemma (See Chapter 1, p. 4, and par. 3). The three theoretical concepts of capability, sustainable livelihood, and entitlement are relevant to the study's dilemmas. As earlier indicated, the capability approach assumes that the government supports development; sustainable livelihood assumes that the government implements viable interventions for their population; and the entitlement approach assumes that entitlements are a right to all citizens.

The term exclusion concerns income. It is about structures, prospects, and life opportunities. "It's a modern problem, and one that is more harmful to the person, damaging to self-esteem, caustic for humankind, and likely to remain and be

attached to generations than material poverty" (Noonan et al, 2019, p.135). Also it is when a person or areas suffer from a mixture of linked difficulties such as family breakdown, unemployment, bad health, poor skills, high crime rates, poor housing, and low incomes" (DSS, 2018, p. 23). As stated, the capability approach focuses on health, civics, education, politics, and income for the attainment of freedom. In this light, capabilities clearly show what the government's exclusion policy for IDPs excludes internal displacements from. As such, one posits that IDPs are excluded from the provision of basic essential services (education, engagement, health, and participation) as postulated by the capability approach and shown by the exclusion dilemma.



The entitlement approach, like the capability approach, focuses on education, health, civic, political, and civic rights, as well as income, as enshrined in the Zimbabwean Constitution of 2013 and the Kampala Declaration. As a result, the entitlement approach identifies those entitlements that are limited or excluded due to the states exclusion dilemma. The entitlement approach's assumes that entitlements (such as education, engagement, health, and participation) are a right to all citizens and thus remain limited as long as the IDPs are excluded from the process.

The sustainable livelihood approach focuses on the different forms of capital, and this informs us as to what exactly internal displacements are excluded from. Also, in cases where governments fail to provide sustainable livelihoods, to the study further sought to find out how the IDPs act as individuals to survive on their own or through current or previous social capital associations. In a nutshell, the sustainable

livelihood approach unpacks what is meant by exclusion and what results from the exclusion dilemma leading to the deprivation of critical services to the IDPs.

2.4.4 THE DURABLE SOLUTION CONCEPT

The study subscribes to the durable solution approach¹³ that originated from the UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement (1998) and other UN instruments. Fundamentally, its parameters range from integration, return and resettlement. The approach is viewed as primarily both normative and operational. The concept will be described in detail in chapter eight. The concept of a durable solution is key to the attainment of human development for the internal displacement. The concept informs us that there is a need for the state and stakeholders to work closely together and address the recognition, empirical, and exclusion dilemmas. One view is the abandoning the state altogether but this has serious challenges because IDPs remain the responsibility of the state and also that durability comes with resilience by the state as the custodian of its population. Therefore, as earlier stated, the option is to pursue and engage the local and international civil societies and urge the state to play its role in addressing recognition, empirical evidence, and exclusion as dilemmas that are encountered by the IDPs. Meanwhile, there were some pockets of good practices that were observed during the field study and these were evidence of improvement in terms of some services given to the IDPs by the state.

¹³ UN General Assembly, 2005 World Summit Outcome Document, A/RES/60/1, 24 October 2005, paragraph 132, developed the eight conditions: i) Safety and security; ii) Restoration of housing and property; iii) Adequate standard of living; iv) Access to livelihoods; v) Access to documentation vi) Family reunification, vi) Public participation, and viii) Access to effective remedies and justice

However, the study's three dilemmas of recognition, empirical evidence, and exclusion point to the challenges and limitations of achieving a durable solution at policy level. An illustration is the Kampala Convention (IDMC, 2020). The Kampala Declaration was signed but not domesticated in Zimbabwe due to a lack of political will on the part of the authorities.

Mooney et al. (2016) observed that there have been no significant signs of IDPs achieving long-term solutions. They are discriminated against and face issues linked to inheritance, family reunification, and security of tenure, education, and property repossession. IDPs are kept in substandard conditions and are discriminated against socio-economic services due to a scarcity or lack of data. For example, possession of land improves the livelihood component and the standard of living of the IDPs. However, this remains limited. The answer is concerned on ensuring that the recognition, empirical, and exclusion dilemmas are addressed as advocated in the study and thus calls for the active engagement of the state and its partners in development.

Having described the dilemmas, the study will show in the following section how recognition, empirical and exclusion dilemmas interlinked with each other and in the process are holistically addressed and applied to achieve the durable solutions with regard to IDPs.

Table 1 : Connection of the approaches and the dilemmas:

Identified Approaches	Recognition dilemma	Empirical dilemma	Exclusion dilemma
Capabilities approach	Maley (2018) asserts that capability is “a person’s ability to do valuable acts. This is premised on the assumption that the government provides development/human capabilities. This shows the limitations due to non-recognition.	How then does one measure this achievement without data? The CA inspires the HDI. The recognition dilemma brings to light the fact that IDPs are not recognised by government.	CA focus on health, civic, education, political, civic and income for attainment of freedom. In this light, capabilities clearly show what exactly the internal displacements are excluded from in the government’s exclusion policy of IDPs. As such one posits that IDPs are excluded from basic provisions.
Entitlement approach	Capabilities that are supposed to be provided by the government are on the other hand individual’s entitlements. The declaration gives rights and entitlements to IDPs that the government should act upon and provide. However, what the entitlement approach aims to inform us is faced	Despite such a guide for the entitlement approach in close attachment with capabilities, entitlements are limited and not quantified because of missing IDPs data. Subsequently, the empirical dilemma indicates an exclusion of IDPs due to lack of information on political voices,	In line with capability approach, entitlement approach focusses on education, health, civic, political, and civic rights and income as enshrined in the Constitutions and the Kampala Declaration. Therefore, entitlement approach indicates those entitlements limited or excluded due to the exclusion dilemma practised by the governments. The entitlement approach is

	with challenges resulting from the non-recognition of IDPs by the authority. This' subsequently, limits and prevent the presumed individuals rights and their entitlements.	citizens' rights for IDPs from an inadequate and inefficient measurement system in place.	premised on the assumptions that entitlements Education, engagement, health, participation) is a right to all citizen is limited as long as the IDPs are excluded in the process.
Sustainable livelihoods approach	The sustainable livelihood approach comprises of five types of capitals. The recognition dilemma shows some level of guide the framework constrains faced by and to identify the the IDPs due to lack appropriate of state support.	The sustainable livelihood approach provides basic empirical measurement to guide the framework and to identify the appropriate interventions to apply	The sustainable livelihood approach focuses on the different forms of capitals and this informs us on what exactly IDPs are excluded from.
Durable solution Concept	The concept of durable solution is key for the attainment of human development for the internal displacement. The concept informs us that there is need for the state and its developmental stakeholders to work together and address the recognition, empirical and exclusion dilemmas. Also, with some appreciation observed during the field study, there are signs of government improvement in the IDPs discourse.		

2.5 DEFINITION OF OPERATIONAL TERMS

▪ Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs)

The study adheres to the UN definition. Restating, IDPs are defined as "persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to leave or to flee their places of

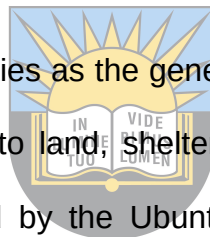
habitual residence or homes, in particular as a result of governmental policies or in order to avoid situations of generalised violence, effects of armed conflict, natural or human-made disasters, or violations of human rights, and have not jumped an internationally recognised state border" (Simon, 2021).

- **Durable Solutions (DS)**

The study defines a framework for durable solutions for IDPs as the achievement or status when an individual requires no more attention and protection from their displacement condition and can enjoy their human privileges, exercise their capabilities, enjoy their entitlements, and possess a sustainable livelihood without fear and discrimination. The UNDG (New York, www.undg.org , 2018).

- **Host communities**

The study refers to host communities as the general village and ward assembly who accommodate and gives access to land, shelter to the displaced persons in their areas of legal status and guided by the Ubuntu concept. In simple terms those legally staying in the areas, villages, wards, district and provinces.



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- **Community integration**

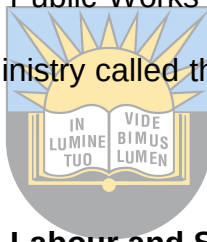
Community integration refers to a situation whereby the IDPs are accepted and incorporated within the host communities and enjoy the same benefits legally enjoyed by the host communities. These benefits include participation in public domain affairs, attending schools and hospitals, farming, and land ownership, among others. Also, IDPs become part of the community of a host. This is where IDPs become a part of a larger or smaller social unit made up of people who share similar norms, religion, values, beliefs, and so on. This is not an easy process and difficult definition to share.

- **Government of Zimbabwe (GoZ)**

GoZ refers to the legitimate government in power. The GoZ has a number of ministries that run the affairs of the state. The GoZ is headed by a President and has three arms: the Legislature, Judiciary, and Executive. Among the ministries are the Ministry of Local Government, the Ministry of Public Service, Labor, and Social Welfare, and the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, among others.

- **Ministry of Local Government and Public Works (MoLG&PW)**

It is a ministry that is in charge of the local administration of both the urban and rural jurisdictions in the state. During the course of the research, the ministry was renamed, the national housing component was removed, and it is now called the Ministry of Local Government and Public Works (MLG&PW). The National Housing Ministry is now a fully-dedicated ministry called the Ministry of National Housing and Social Amenities (MNH&SA).



- **Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare (MPSL&SW)**

It is the Ministry that has the mandate of handling the humanitarian, development and civic affairs in Zimbabwe. The ministry's departments that deals with IDPs is the Social Welfare where the researcher will submit the final research document.

- **Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoP&SE)**

It is the Ministry with the mandate to efficiently and with efficacy provide education facilities to the populace of Zimbabwe supposedly including the IDPs.

- **International Organisation for Migration (IOM)**

IOM is an Inter-Governmental Institution that focuses on supporting the GoZ in areas of migration and development and is the lead coordinating agency for humanitarian assistance to IDPs. Furthermore, IOM, was established in 1951 with 162 member

states and nine states holding observer status. It is the leading inter-governmental organisation in the field of migration.

- **United Nations (UN)**

UN is a body formed by member states whose stated purposes are enabling cooperation in international security, economic development, international law, human rights, social progress and achievement of world peace. To date the UN member states are 193. The General Assembly on 25th August 1980 admitted the Republic of Zimbabwe as the 153rd member of the UN. Therefore, as a member, Zimbabwe has rights and obligations towards the UN organisation. One of the obligations is to ensure the protection of the IDPs.



- **United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)**

It is a United Nations agency that provides protection and assistance to the world's refugees as well as the IDPs. The UNHCR and the IOM work together on migration in Zimbabwe. However, in Zimbabwe, IOM and UNHCR deal with IDPs and refugees respectively. Technically, UNHCR is a UN agency and IOM an inter-governmental organisation that is part of the UN family.

- **Rural District Council (RDC)**

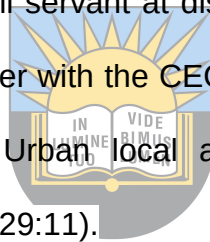
The local authority as enshrined in the local Government as per an act of Parliament. These are administratively headed by the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) and a council chairman who is an elected representative and in charge of the legislature body at the district level (RDC, 1993, Chapter 29:13).

- **Provincial Development Coordinators (PDC)**

As part of the decentralisation process, these were created to oversee development at the provincial level. These are headed by the PDC`s, previously known as Provincial Administrators (PAs). However, politically, the provinces are under an appointed Resident and Provincial Minister (Provincial Councils and Administration Act, 1985, Chapter 29:11).

- **District Development Coordinator (DDC)**

As part of the decentralisation process, these were created to oversee development at the district level. These are headed by the DDC`s, previously known as District Administrators (DA`s) a senior civil servant at district level. The District Development Coordinators (DDC`s) work together with the CEO`s of the Rural District Councils and the Town Clerks in charge of Urban local authorities (Provincial Councils and Administration Act, 1985, Chapter 29:11).

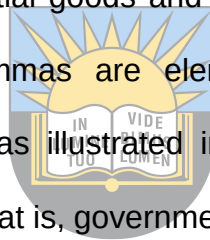


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2.6 SUMMARY

The chapter focused on capability, entitlement, and sustainable livelihood theories in conjunction with the study's three dilemmas: recognition, empirical, and exclusion dilemmas. In finding answers to the marginalisation and exclusionary effects of IDPs in Zimbabwe, the study revolved around the mentioned conceptual framework for a rational conclusion to the attainment of rights and capabilities by IDPs in Zimbabwe. The chapter critically analysed the appropriate literature in the field. This was aided and systematical linked with the study's dilemmas as well as the selected theoretical approaches of the study as it set a solid contextually base for the research.

Furthermore, based on field experience, it is clear that it is only the commitment of the state that may positively address the IDPs issues. The study argues that internal displacement in Zimbabwe is not in line with regional and international best practices trends due to political, economic, and social challenges to satisfying the minimum standards for IDPs. As articulated, Zimbabwe lacks political will, insufficient IDP data, and lack of local policies on IDPs, the state is concerned with short term assistance as opposed to long term that encourages durable solutions. Furthermore, such inconsistency is a reasonable justification for undertaking a study of this magnitude. Furthermore, another critical issue observed is that the government is taking too long to domesticate and implement the agreed policies that take the protection and provision of essential goods and services into account. Also, it was established that the three dilemmas are elements that are inevitable in the attainment of durable solutions, as illustrated in the study, and advocate for an integrated effort from all parties, that is, government and development stakeholders.



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The next chapter looks at the history and causes of IDPs globally, regionally, and in Zimbabwe in particular. These causes will be linked to the dilemmas of the study.

CHAPTER THREE

THE HISTORY OF INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS

3.0 INTRODUCTION

The global community is faced with forced migration arising from a number of causes that are now endemic. These causes either unpredictable or predictable have been part of the human experience for some time. The figure of internal displacements that are deprived of their capabilities, entitlements, and livelihood opportunities is globally pegged at 75.9 million (IDMC, 2023) as at end of 2023. According to Sen's (2013) research, the marginalisation and exclusionary effects of IDPs are linked to the causes of internal displacement. In Zimbabwe, forced migration is largely caused by government actions and further neglected by the same government. Thus, IDPs are viewed as a political group within the political space. The notions of sovereignty and state-making are critical to internal displacement as practiced and justified in Zimbabwe by the ruling elite to consolidate state power (Ntini et al. 2018).

The aim of this chapter is to unpack the causes of internal displacement and show the linkage to the study's dilemmas of recognition, empirical and exclusion. Similarly, the chapter will explain the history of IDPs and the causes of internal displacement phenomena and engage the theories of capabilities, entitlement, and sustainable livelihood. The chapter begins with a contextual outline of the global, regional and the Zimbabwean perspective on internal displacement. Thereafter, this will pave the way for the study to deal with the specificities of forced migration in Zimbabwe. The study's dilemma contributions of recognition, empirical evidence, exclusion, and the approaches of capabilities, entitlements, and sustainable livelihoods will play a part

in the chapter and show how they affect the displacement cycle. Finally, a table will be provided as an analysis of the causes of displacements, dilemmas, and approaches.

There are a number of causes for internal displacements in Zimbabwe. The list is endless, ranging from the protracted war of liberation (July 1964-December 1979), the RENAMO insurgency (the Mozambican National Resistance Movement) (2013-2021), Gukurahundi atrocities (1982-1987), slum clearance during government hosting of the Commonwealth Heads of Summit (1991), Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order (2005), the 1991 drought, the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) (1990), the Fast Track Land Redistribution Programme (FTLRP) (1980-1999), floods, the construction of the Tokwe-Mukosi dam (1998), cyclones, and Operation Chinyanda targeting the girl child and women. The study will primarily focus on the protracted liberation war, Gukurahundi atrocities, the Fast Track Land Redistribution Programme, Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order, and the politically linked violence in that order, among other interconnected causes of forced displacement in Zimbabwe.

3.1 GLOBAL STATISTICS OF INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS (IDPs)

By the end of December 2023, there were approximately 75.9 million IDPs, 68.3 million caused by conflict and violence, and 7.7 million caused by disasters (IDMC, 2023). As of 2023, nearly half of the IDPs were contributed by the following countries: Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Colombia, Sudan, Syria and Yemen (Ibid). The figures continue to rise and pose a global phenomenon with a propensity to destroy the human factor (IDMC, 2023).

Of the global IDPs figure, sub-Saharan Africa hosts 46% of the world's internally displaced persons (IDPs) population. The number of forced displacements continues to increase and again the region was the most affected by internal displacement in 2023 (IDMC, 2023). In Sub Saharan Africa, IDP numbers reached a record 19.5 million compared to 16.5 million in 2022. According to statistics, the figures have risen for the last five years in succession (Ibid). The largest IDP populations are found in Sudan, South Sudan, Nigeria, Ethiopia, DRC and Somalia. According to IDMC (2023) conflict and violence generated 13.5 million internal displacement the highest figure for the past 15 years Sub Saharan Africa. Indeed, some countries¹⁴ have in the past experienced all forms of conflicts, violence, and disasters (Egunyomi et al. 2022). Africa has the highest number of IDPs in the world, with more IDPs than refugees (ibid). The foregoing statistics show the prevalence of the IDP problem in Africa, which remains arguably the most significant humanitarian, development, and peace challenge. However, as noted by IDMC (2020), establishing an accurate picture of the scale and dynamics of IDPs is challenging. Analytically, this could imply that there could be more unaccounted IDPs in the areas, thus the importance of the study's empirical dilemma.

¹⁴ These are the Niger Republic, Nigeria, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, and Somalia. Conflicts and violence characterise the Chad Republic, Cameroon, the Central African Republic, Burundi, the South Sudan, Sudan, Libya, and Egypt. **states** such as Guinea, Mozambique, Madagascar, Malawi, and Kenya.

3.2 CAUSES OF DISPLACEMENTS IN AFRICA CONTINENT OR AND BEYOND

The causes of displacement on the African continent, as in other parts of the globe, are of course complex and manifold (ICRC, 2017)¹⁵. There are a number of different causes of internal displacement listed in the UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement (1998), (refer to page 65, para 1) which are not exhaustive. National laws and policies may also specify what causes and does not cause forced migration. For example, the Peruvian Law ¹⁶and the Colombian Law¹⁷ do not recognise natural or human-made disasters as constituting a cause of internal displacement. The espoused causes of internal displacement in the Guiding Principles are discussed below.

3.2.1 THE IMPACT OF ARMED CONFLICT



According to the United Nations (UN) Commission on Human Rights (2020, p. 30), "in 50 countries across the regions of the world, an estimated 55 million people are displaced as a result of armed conflicts." For example, China and Turkiye has the highest global estimate of IDPs as a result of disasters at 4 702 000 and 4 053 000 respectively as at December 2023 (IDMC, 2023). The International Humanitarian

¹⁵ ICRC, "Translating the Convention into Practice: A Stocktaking Exercise," (2017) 99 International Review of the Red Cross, pp. 365–366. [2] April 2004, Law No. 28223.

¹⁶ April 2004, Law No. 28223.

¹⁷ May 1999, Law No. 668-1Q

Law (IHL) provides protection and prevention of internal displacement. This is provided for under the Geneva Convention and in customary international law¹⁸.

Meanwhile, research conducted by Albuja et al. (2020) shows that IDPs are also as a result of the conflict arising from both the Muslim countries and Communist insurgencies that lead to a military operation. Whereas in Columbia, the Global Report on Internal Displacement GRID (2020) states that, in 2016, operations led by the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC) and the National Liberation Army (NLA) caused massive destruction of the roads and infrastructure in the process of fighting the government forces. In addition, numerous other rebel groups have been established after the paramilitary demobilization exercise. In essence, these groups did not only cause a violation of human rights but also caused a lot of internal displacements. Thus, since the gathering of internal displacement figures during armed conflict remains problematic, it was imperative that as part of addressing the research gap, the empirical dilemma be redressed in this study.

Moe et al. (2022) assert that the trajectory of Columbia's conflict-induced internal displacement exposes IDPs to ambivalent psycho-social consequences in the life cycle of displacement. Internal displacement in Columbia has been widespread as a result of the armed conflict, which has been fueled by drug traffickers. Due to the

¹⁸ ICRC Advisory Service on International Humanitarian Law, "Internally Displaced Persons and International Humanitarian Law: Factsheet," March 2010, available at: <https://goo.gl/euTnGC>

expansion in the power base of conflicting parties the land for IDPs remains in demand for illicit activities, drug crop cultivation and drug processing. This, therefore, supports the theory of social exclusion, where powerful groups seize land from displaced communities for their own benefit.

Notwithstanding other causes, armed conflicts account for the largest percentage of about 70 percent in Africa and contribute about 40 percent of global displacements, revealing a concern about internal displacement (Deininger et al. 2017). As alluded to earlier, countries such as ¹⁹ in Africa account for the highest number of deaths in the recent past arising from the Boko Haram insurgency in Nigeria and civil conflicts, respectively (Nwigwe, 2020).

The armed conflict as a cause of internal displacement is also relevant in this study and has occurred in Zimbabwe. This was evident during the armed war of liberation that massively caused forced displacements from 1975 to 1979 (Bratton, 2016). Furthermore, in line with the definition of armed conflict as postulated by Albuja et al. (2020), the study views the activities of the Gukurahundi atrocities in the category of armed conflict to a certain extent. This is so because military operations occurred in Matabeleland and the Midlands' provinces against the citizens that resulted in forced migration (CCJP, 2007). The IDPs as a result of Gukurahundi atrocities lack the necessary documents such as IDs that prevent them from accessing the human capabilities (education), health services and social and economic services as established by the research.

¹⁹ Nigeria, Somalia, the DRC, and South Sudan

3.2.2 SITUATIONS OF GENERALISED VIOLENCE AND ITS IMPACT

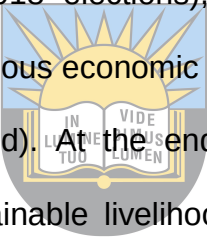
Another reason for displacement is generalised violence within a state. Accordingly, this category involves conflicts that are below the threshold of an armed conflict, such as ethnic conflicts, political conflicts, inter-communal violence, and widespread criminal activities. Classic examples are from the Central African Republic (CAR), Nigeria, South Sudan, Somalia, Chad, and the DRC. For instance, in November 2020, thousands of people were displaced in the villages of Somalia, Nigeria, and South Sudan. This was attributed to the violence emanating from sub-clan fighting over control of grazing pastures, water resources, and political conflicts. The persons displaced were nomads, and some of them resorted to residing slightly in safer urban areas, with their livestock being at risk, let alone themselves (Yonetani and Morris, 2017).

The Sudan Democracy First Group report (2017) posits that in 2018, it observed a drastic increase of violence perpetuated on civilians and committed by the state in Darfur, Sudan. The report further adds that it was the state deliberate move to commit another crime by dismantling the protection camp of the IDPs and resultantly dismissing the UN and the African Union Mission (AUM) in the process. This was a flagrant violation of their rights under the international guidelines for IDPs, or the Kampala Convention. Accordingly, the guidelines safeguard the provision of protection of IDPs from violence, humanitarian assistance, freedom of movement, political and civic participation, provision of health, accommodation, and the right to education, among others.

Additionally, displacement because of the militarization of ethnic states in countries such as Nigeria, Somali and South Sudan has affected the IDP populations through

increased poverty, malnutrition, human rights abuses, exposure to disease, and the breakdown of family and communal ties (Fink, 2018). The research views this as an increase in internal displacement due to an upsurge in social, political, environmental, and cultural conflicts that are rampant within African countries. In short, Africa's displacements are conflict-based (political).

In Zimbabwe, the situation of generalised violence as a trigger for internal displacement is relatively evident. Masunungure (2011) asserts that, to a large extent, Zimbabwe, sometimes practices acts of violence due to its political, social, economic, environmental, and cultural misunderstandings. Some examples of generalised violence activities that caused internal displacements include political processes (e.g. the 2000 and 2018 elections), the constitution-making process, policies on land reform and indigenous economic sectors, and the high inflation state of the country, among others (ibid). At the end the deprivation of IDPs of their capabilities, entitlement and sustainable livelihoods continues for the IDPs in the three provinces prevail.



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3.2.3 VIOLATIONS OF HUMAN RIGHTS AND ITS IMPACT

Human rights violations are common causes of forced displacement. These violations are not limited to specific international human rights treaties, violations of general international human rights covenants, or national human rights provisions. Thus, Benhura et al. (2019) note that displacements continue to occur because of violation of human rights taking place. The report states that native groups whose rights have been breached by states dominated by elitist ethnic groups with no regard to the vulnerable groups (Ibid). Violation of human rights is rampant within the

Southern African Development Community (SADC) region, namely the DRC, Botswana and Lesotho among others. Zimbabwe is within the SADC region as well and thus signifies that violation of human rights is rampant in the country, Zimbabwe as well (Ibid).

For example, in the DRC government development interventions displaced indigenous communities (Amnesty International, 2020). Furthermore, indigenous-rights activists in Botswana are not happy with the government and its partners the DeBeers Diamond Corporation and the World Bank concerning the displacement of Basarwa/San communities from their Kalahari Desert (ibid). In the same vein, concern is on the construction of large dams, water projects in Namibia, Lesotho and Mozambique that have led to mass displacements of people. Thus, a violation of human rights is not associated with violence only, it is prominent and can also be hidden in the development interventions that do not apply consultative processes with the local communities (Schimmel, 2022). In an effort to prevent such developments from occurring and further cause human rights violation, the Kampala Convention offered solutions that are in line with Guidelines on Development-Based Evictions and Displacement. These were developed by the UN in 1997, aimed at addressing human rights due to development-based displacement in both rural and urban areas. Thus, it goes without doubt that, forced displacement due to large scale development projects and land acquisition requires urgent attention. Despite, the fact that the IDPs definitions does not capture that aspect of arbitrary displacement

due to project development it is also viewed as human rights violation and supported by principle 6 of the Guiding principles²⁰.

Meanwhile, the advent of COVID19, according to Orendain et al. (2021),²¹ impacted the whole world at different levels with IDPs and the poor disproportionately affected. It goes without doubt that the IDPs were and remain an easy target to contracting the pandemic more so the condition of their shelter, due to several barriers of social services, health care, relief aid and lack of livelihood accessibility. In addition, Sridarran et al. (2018) argue that where access to free medical care exists, there is competition with the host community and results in social tensions and weakened social networks.



Human rights violations are a common and rampant cause of internal displacement in Zimbabwe. An example of human rights violation is the construction of the Tokwe-Mukosi dam project that subsequently forced displacement of people in Masvingo province. Political persecution of individuals that were not supported by the courts of law had serious consequences for the IDPs (Madzokere, 2018). Madzokere (2018, p.12), further argues that “the government’s aim in implementing the Tokwe-Mukosi dam was to provide water available to embark on livelihoods and sustainable projects but in the process led to a human rights disaster”. Evidence

²⁰ A/HRC/4/18, “Basic Principles and guidelines on development based evictions and displacement”, available at: <https://goo.gl/d1Mhp4>

²¹ Ignored and invisible: internally displaced persons (IDPs) in the face of COVID-19 pandemic, Dan Jezreel A. Orendain¹ · Riyanti Djalante¹, Received: 7 May 2020 / Accepted: 30 July 2020 / Published online: 6 August 2020 © Springer Japan KK, part of Springer Nature 2020

from focus group discussions (FGD) revealed that the dam construction caused massive human rights violation in the form of displacement that destroyed their shelters.

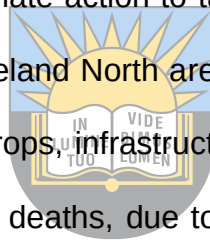
3.2.4 MAN-MADE DISASTER AND ITS IMPACT

Disaster is a social concept that is linked to impacts of natural events/disasters. While man-made disasters are a condition that emanates from a wide range deliberate policies and action by the state. Usually, these impact on infrastructure, economy and result in the collapse of social networks. Generally, these are applied on political lines for the benefit of a few, however, these are imposed by the government. Examples of such comprise of neo-liberal economic strategies, actions of repressive regimes, economic sanctions and failure to contain preventable disease. In fact, man-made disasters that affect civilians' well-being and produce internal displacement, disrupt economic networks, environmental degradation, affect water quality and the general living conditions of the populace (Grossi et al. 2022).

Further to the foregoing, human-made disasters primarily disrupt health, agriculture, economy and produce underdevelopment in infrastructure as a result of inequality and exclusionary policies. Human-made disasters negate rural rapid appraisal methodologies that promote participation, engagement, and community-driven responses (Grossi et al. 2022). The World Bank (2020, p. 15) released a report stating that "diseases as a result of unsafe water, environmental risks, poor sanitation, and hygiene have caused approximately 1.7 million deaths per year." The

disruption of lack of services on IDPs due to human-made disasters has long-term implications for them, the IDPs.

Human-made disaster as a form of internal displacement is a common cause in Zimbabwe. Usually, policies that result in human-made disasters are formulated by the government to benefit a few individuals (Grossi et al. 2022). Consequently, this is signs of exclusion dilemma at play. More so, these policies are a result of political biases and locate the recognition dilemma leading to the breakdown of social networks in the given community or society. In most cases, people do not get information on time or receive inadequate information that helps them make informed decisions on the appropriate action to take. The Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) revealed that the Matabeleland North area was prone to recurring and high-frequency floods that destroyed crops, infrastructure, livelihoods, and properties, as well as causing displacement and deaths, due to lack of appropriate early warning signs.



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3.2.5 NATURAL DISASTERS AND ITS IMPACT

Zimbabwe is not immune to natural disasters. In 2018, Zimbabwe and other SADC countries, namely Mozambique and Malawi, were hit by a natural phenomenon that caused massive internal displacements and deaths, scientifically code-named Cyclone Idai (SADC, 2019). As indicated in (see chapter 2, p. 1), internal displacement caused by Cyclone Idai reflects the state's capacity to protect and address forced migration. Climate change is known to intensify natural disasters and result in internal displacement (Adeola, 2020). Therefore, the link between climate

change and internal displacement in Africa points to climate-related internal battles, climate-connected development projects, and climate-intensified tragedies. Natural disasters are prone in Zimbabwe especially in the low laying areas like Matebeleland North and have caused internal displacements. Furthermore, in Zimbabwe climate change is known to intensify and result in internal displacement. According to Adeola (2020) climate change magnifies the impact of other factors that can contribute to displacement such as poverty, loss of livelihoods, and tensions relating to dwindling resources, ultimately creating conditions that can lead to conflict and displacement. Also, it's estimated that climate change could lead to over 200 million displacements by 2050 (Clement et al., 2021).

3.2.6 HISTORICAL LAND CONFLICTS IN SADC AND ITS IMPACT

Scoones et al. (2018) contends that most SADC nations experienced internal displacements from the colonisation period and the tribal conflicts. The historical land displacement in Africa remains unresolved and signifies potential strife in African countries (Alexander, 2013). In Africa, in general, land is one of the most contentious issues facing South Africa's 28-year-old democracy, writes Ndabeni et al. (2016). Recently, the South African parliament enacted a bill (The Expropriation Bill: B23-2020) to amend its constitution to allow the state to seize farmland without compensation. The land strategy proposed by the South African government has extreme effects on internal displacements as it deprives displaced persons capabilities, entitlement and livelihood interventions. Namibia is yet another SADC country facing land problems (Sibanda, 2021).

In Zimbabwe, the historical land issue is not new. Zimbabwe inherited a land ownership pattern based on racial grounds. The basis of the war of liberation in Zimbabwe was the land issue (Wuta, 2021). According to Wuta (2021), repossessing land was the sole goal of Zimbabwe's three Chimurenga's. These are: First Chimurenga, (1896-1897) also known as the Ndebele Rebellion despite being led by both the Shona and Ndebele chief that were crushed by the British colonial ruler but used it as a foundation by the Africans to fight another day. The second Chimurenga (1964-1979) was the protracted war of liberation that was as a result of the Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI) in 1965 by Ian Smith on the Rhodesian state. Zimbabwe independence was secured in 1980 through the Lancaster Agreement that ended the second Chimurenga. The third Chimurenga (2008-2008) resembled government programmes that lead to massive internal displacements, inflation and social and economic problems. These were justified for the purposes of the land, freedom and justice of the African (Alexander, 2007). In support, the land was the "centerpiece of the government's (led by the ruling party) construction of belonging, exclusion, and history" (Alexander, 2007, p.105). As a result, in order to balance Zimbabwe's land distribution, the government launched a Fast Track Land Redistribution Programme²². In view of the study's dilemmas, the study observes that the government applies and respects terms such as exclusion when it benefits the state, an indication of a lack of political will. On the same note, the study finds that displacement caused by Cyclone Idai was treated more positively than displacement caused by Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order, or the Fast Track Land Reform Programme or Gukurahundi through their policies, which

²² More details will be discussed on this programme as one of the interventions that produced internal displacement in Zimbabwe.

were ignored. Reason being that natural disasters such as cyclone Idai are not directly linked to the government as opposed to Farm invasions among others.

3.3 CAUSES OF INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS IN ZIMBABWE

Internal displacement in Zimbabwe is a cause for concern. The main actor responsible for internal displacement is government that has produced IDPs through their deliberative policies. Nhodo et al. (2022) comment about the invisibility of IDPs in Zimbabwe emanating from the point that no outward signs such as IDP camps and Protection of Civilians (POC) under the UN Missions are visible.

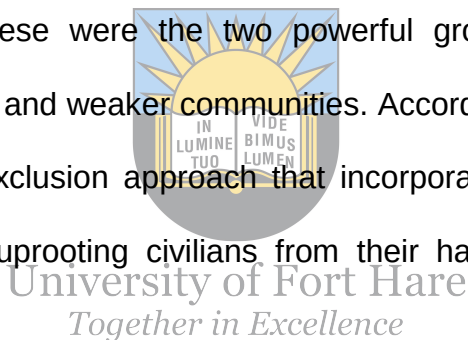
As alluded to at the beginning of the chapter, the history and causes of internal displacement will be articulated in a chronological way to capture the main causes and impacts of internal displacement in Zimbabwe. The main causes of internal displacements are the war of liberation, Gukurahundi atrocities, government's Fast Track Land reform Programme, Operation Restore Order/Operation Murambatsvina and political violence (Naidu et al. 2021). Zimbabwe is not different from other states with internal displacement but has its unique circumstances that the study will frame while applying capabilities, entitlement and sustainable livelihood approaches as well as the study's dilemmas of recognition, empirical and exclusion.

3.3.1 WAR OF LIBERATION AND BEYOND DISPLACEMENTS AND ITS IMPACT

Zimbabwe's protracted armed struggle for independence began in 1965, when Ian Smith issued the infamous Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI) that lasted until late 1979, when the war was ended by the Lancaster House Talks. According to

historians Alexander et al. (2007), the liberation war resulted in various types of displacements that have littered Zimbabwe's histories and geographies. Communities caught in the crossfire during the war were forced to abandon their homesteads and settle elsewhere, while others were forced into and kept in isolated, protected villages or camps created by the Ian Smith government (Ndawana, 2022). This was also the case during the pre-colonial period, when various ethnic groups attacked one another.

The Zimbabwean war of liberation caused internal displacement and induced the exclusion of marginalised communities through exclusion as a monopoly of powerful groups. The warring parties in this case were the liberation war fighters and the Rhodesian army and these were the two powerful groups responsible for the displacement of unarmed and weaker communities. According to Levitas (2000), this is the fourth prototype exclusion approach that incorporates the Marxist notion of powerful armed groups uprooting civilians from their habitual homes to become IDPs.

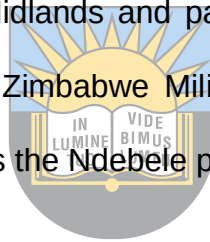


Capability, entitlement, and sustainable livelihood approaches are fundamental provisions made by the government to its citizens. However, during the war of liberation, the government in power led by Ian Smith of the Rhodesian Front (RF) applied control measures to the rights of its citizens (Tom and Chekera, 2022). By implication, this limited or denied the citizens and internal displaced persons the opportunity to express their capabilities, enjoy their entitlements, and exercise their livelihood for purposes of survival. Worse yet, the White government had employed

numerous torture methods against perceived political opponents, and displaced communities labelled them as terrorists and counter-revolutionaries (ibid).

3.3.2 THE GUKURAHUNDI ACTROCITIES AND ITS IMPACT

Since early 1983 to late 1987, following a serious political/governance clash between the two liberation armies of the Zimbabwe African National Union Patriotic Front (ZANU PF) and Patriotic Front (PF) Zimbabwe African Peoples Union (ZAPU), led to the ZANU PF government to launch a programme commonly known as Gukurahundi. Gukurahundi was a series of massacres of PF ZAPU members in the provinces of Matabeleland, the Midlands and part of Masvingo, predominantly the Ndebele clan carried out by the Zimbabwe Military (Alexander, et al. 2013). The centre of gravity in this conflict was the Ndebele populations aligned to PF ZAPU.



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According to Ndlovu-Gatsheni (2018), Gukurahundi is a Shona terminology. The term is comprised of two words, namely Gukura and Hundi. Gukura means wiping and Hundi is the chaff. In this operation of Gukurahundi it meant that the government was wiping the unwanted chaff who in this case were the Ndebele/PF ZAPU supporters in the Matabeleland and the Midlands and Masvingo provinces.

The Catholic Commission for Justice and Peace (CCJP, 2007) produced a report on the disturbances in Matabeleland and the Midlands provinces²³, and indicated that about 20 000 plus people were massacred and several targeted mass displacements carried out by security forces. Ngwenya et al. (2015) posits that a number of internal displacements occurred in Matabeleland and the Midlands province and to date many descendants and not all of the massacred individuals do not have birth certificates and identification cards and are vulnerable. This aligns with what emerged in the findings of the study were 80 % of the respondents did not possess the identification cards. The issue of Gukurahundi is still a thorn in the flesh within the Zimbabwean discourse.



The researcher categorises the Gukurahundi atrocities to fall within the type of multi-dimensional exclusion. As expressed by Ndlovu-Gatsheni (2018), this was along the lines of regionalism politics embedded with ethnicity. Also, the Gukurahundi atrocities demonstrated a clear widespread extermination of the marginalised communities. These belonged to the Ndebele tribe in the regions of Matabeleland and the Midlands province portrayed to be supporters of the PF ZAPU party led by Nationalist Dr Joshua Mqabuko “Ka Nyongolo” Nkomo.

Usually, being displaced is no assurance of achieving a sustainable livelihood or security of tenure. Furthermore, this limited the citizen’s liberties and affected their time on working on their fields and that limited their source of livelihood. Displaced

²³ <http://davidcoltart.com/wp-content/uploads/2006/10/breakingthesilence.pdf>

persons are susceptible to added vulnerability, risks that IDPs face in the stages of the displacement cycle ²⁴ as substantial threats to meet elementary needs and security in general. The study's findings aligns to the above statement.

3.3.3 FAST TRACK LAND REFORM PROGRAMME AND ITS IMPACT

The Fast Track Land Reform programme (FTLRP) remains a controversial experience in the Zimbabwe's development-displacement due to what it caused in the country. For example, there was violence, killings, inflation issues, human rights and unfair land distribution process. The controversy attracted attention from all over the globe (Shumba, 2022). In Zimbabwe, the programme is code named Jambanja²⁵. The word means violence, implying the programme is embedded with violence. The FTLRP was governmental initiated in 2000, on the backdrop of an ailing economy compounded with the recurring droughts of the 1990s. The criteria for the Fast Track Land Reform Programme was a political party ticket and not on the need bases (Gwekwerere et al. 2018). However, the politicians were simply giving favours to their supporters for future votes on a noble programme and diluted the concept of ensuring equity and efficient use of the land. (Ibid)

As a result, the implemented land reform which was noted to be disorganised marked an increase of displacements in the country that witnessed a marked increase of internal displacements which led to farm workers losing their livelihoods (Moyo and Yeros, 2015). Furthermore, Sifile et al., (2021) asserts that the Fast Track

²⁴ The word 'displacement cycle' is used to denote the different periods of displacement ranging initial displacement, transit, onward displacement and integration within host communities and these don't happen in a linear style.

²⁵ Shona word that means "outright action"

Land Redistribution Programme lacked planning and was badly implemented. The displaced individuals were of a low socio-economic strata with no assets base argues (Shumba, 2022). The then President of Zimbabwe Robert Gabriel Mugabe was quoted in the Herald (Zimbabwe), 4 December 2006 acknowledging cases of criminality and corruption associated to the land and agrarian reform and called for an overhaul audit of the land process. However, some sections of the population viewed the statement as politics that did not mean anything.

In an effort to distribute land to the citizens, the process led to the displacement of individuals within the farming communities, including farm workers and farm owners. An estimated 570 000–1 000 000 individuals were displaced in the process, and the Fast Track Land Reform programme was viewed as a cause of forced migration in Zimbabwe (Musoni, 2010). Furthermore, UNDP (2020) estimated that 200 000 displaced farm workers lost their homes and livelihoods as a result of land redistribution. The Government of Zimbabwe (GoZ) disputed the estimated figures. Musanga et al. (2022) comments provide another angle concerning the former farm workers who were displaced. He observes that approximately 200 000 former farm workers continue to live on the same farm compound. The reason given was that a majority of these former farm workers had nowhere to go because they were of foreign origin. Thus, the fact that they remained within the farms, they were referred to as the displaced in place ²⁶ (Magaramombe, 2010). Another name for the displaced in place is "in situ displacement." In simple terms, "the displaced in place" means that there was no physical or geographical movement, and the dislocation

²⁶ The Justice for Agriculture Trust (JAG) estimates that between 25 and 30 percent of all former farmworkers are displaced-in-place on the former commercial farms. (IDMC interview with JAG, Harare)

was socio-economic-political as opposed to geographical (Partridge 2018). According to the development organisation "Displaced-in-Place," the non-movement of former farm workers with no employment and no means of subsistence exacerbated their vulnerability. Chimhowu et al. (2019) argue that the "displaced in place" were not permitted to be where they were by the new farm owner, and the chances to be evicted was high.

Displaced individuals who initially left their homes and later returned generated fights and raised inter-community tensions. In Zimbabwe, IDPs found their pieces of land sold or rather parcelled out to others, which deprived them of their livelihood and fuelled immense tensions (Musanga et al. 2022).



The farm invasions were viewed as a direct confrontation arising from the "no" vote in the constitutional referendum as well as, the collapse of the negotiations with Britain and the breakdown of engagements at the donor conference for raising land acquisition funds. The constitution referendum was held in 2000 following a prior process of political mobilisation that followed the formation of the Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) which was overtly supported by white commercial farmers. There was an emergence and popularity in urban areas of the MDC party. On the other hand, the collapse of the negotiations related to the insistence by Government of Zimbabwe (GoZ) that Britain pay for the compensation to white farmers in relation to the proposed land reforms of 1997/8 respectively. The farm workers did not benefit from the land redistribution programme due to their foreign origin status and their opposition to the land process. According to Magaramombe (2010), the state of the economy, unemployment, shortage of commodities, and the

violence by the war veterans and the militia worsened the situation for the displaced communities. The other factors relate to the collapse of the Zimbabwe dollar (Black Friday), formation of opposition party the MDC, and the NO vote to the constitution referendum results contributed to the negative treatment of IDPs. As a result, the former farm workers fell into forgotten people category, and this status points to the recognition and exclusion dilemma (Hartnack, 2005).

A brief analysis of the theories of capacity, entitlement, and sustainable livelihood in the study shows that the Fast Track Land Reform Program (FTLRP) had a serious impact on the displaced communities in that they lost their security of tenure, employment, and were removed from the land that provided them with a source of livelihood for themselves and their family members. This, then directly relates to the sustainable livelihood approach due to the loss of their employment. Furthermore, conditions for capabilities are not improved during the displacement cycle, and human rights violations take center stage.

3.3.4 OPERATION RESTORE ORDER/OPERATION MURAMBATSVINA AND ITS IMPACT

The post-independence history of population movement in Zimbabwe is littered with violence and repression (Mwonzora et al. 2022). For instance, after the internal displacements of former farm workers through the land reform programme, Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order was next. As a state-sponsored campaign in urban areas and towns, the clean-up campaign was initiated by the state to bring cleanliness, sanity and order in the building structures. It occurred in May 2005, when, with no notice, the Government of Zimbabwe (GoZ) unilaterally

embarked on a programme code-named urban clean-up operation (Operation Murambatsvina) supposedly to clean the filth, yet the state was reacting to the No constitutional referendum results (Masunungure, 2011). The rationale of the programme was primarily to deal with the growing informal housing and informal business structures within the urban setting. According to Kamete (2017), the magnitude of displacement increased dramatically as a result of the Zimbabwean government's Operational Restore Order Programme. Taking the argument, a step further, Kamete (2017) described the Zimbabwe Government's Operation Restore Order programme as a monster to humanity because it exacerbated and fuelled internal displacement in Zimbabwe.



The United Nations special envoy Anna Tibaijuka, (2005) sent to monitor the situation, reported that at least more than 700,000 people were internally displaced in the process and resultantly lost their homes, livelihoods, and their livelihood due to the unprecedented crackdown of Operation Restore Order/Operation Murambatsvina on the innocent, mainly urban citizens. In support of the previous author, Potts (2011) states that approximately 133 534 households were affected by the operation, 32 538 medium and small businesses, and 92 460 housing units were demolished under Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order, and it is estimated that about 2.4 million people were directly or indirectly affected and deprived of their livelihoods. As per the census figures, this put the average household destroyed at 4.2 persons. The International Crisis Group (ICG) (2017) argues that the census figure of 4.2 persons per household was an underestimate and pegged the figure at 5.8 persons per household.

Tanyanyiwa (2020) concurs with the figures and submits that the rise of internal displacement in Zimbabwe was a result of the Government of Zimbabwe's program, "Operation Restore Order." Mwonzora (2022) argues that the displacements caused by Operation Restore Order were in the range of 200 000, let alone the thefts, assaults, and mass psychological torture caused in the process. Critics saw the government's urban operation campaign as a reaction to oppress opposition members and downplay economic inflation, among other things (Sachikonye, 2018). From the figures, the study concludes that Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order had enormous implications on the IDPs' social, economic, political, and environmental lives and thus on their inalienable right to life, and thus brings into discussion the study's three dilemmas of recognition, empirical evidence, and exclusion.



Using the human rights method towards displacement and justice, one observes that both policy practitioners and formulators are cognizant of the fact that investments, interventions, and policies ought to be in place for the good of the IDPs networks of communities. However, according to reputable research findings, the provision of justice for internal displacement should correspond to the strong social networks of the affected. On the other hand, the findings of this study showed that for all the IDPs to access justice, there is a great need for a robust mobilisation process of resources with the right connection for those faced with injustices.

In view of information on Operation Restore Order/Operation Murambatsvina, it is evident that considerable data and general literature on internal displacement were collected. For example, Musoni (2010) unpacked how the IDPs devised their livelihood strategies to survive in response to the Operation Restore Order/Operation

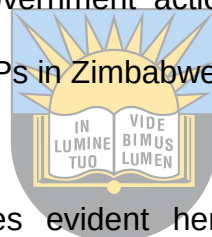
Murambatsvina programme. This is despite the fact that, Operation Restore Order/Operation Murambatsvina resulted in a number of deaths due to loss of livelihood, trauma, and stress (IDMC, 2020). On the other hand, it is worth noting that others survived, connected to their social capital entities, and stayed with relatives in safe urban and rural areas. The application of sustainable livelihood, capability, and entitlement shows their importance in the IDPs' discourse. Also, as previously alluded to and at a limited scale, the NGOs assisted those affected by Operation Murambatsvina/ Operation Restore Order. Assistance was fundamental because the victims lacked cohesion because of different social, economic, and geographical differences that failed to mobilise social capital in response to their internal displacement.



Furthermore, the study notes that, even to date, there are no reliable statistics for this calamity. Mlambo (2019) posits on the outcome of internal displacement for Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order, but there is insufficient information or a strategy for how IDPs attempt to recover and sustain their livelihood opportunities in post-displacement space (IDMC, 2020). Most studies on forced displacement have focused on the impacts on livelihoods, the causes, and the government's reactions to internal migration (Mavhinga, 2015). The study's empirical dilemma advances that it is critical to achieve a durable solution as data provides for planning functions is supported by the study's lack of consolidated figures of internal displacement. The study implies that, it is progressive to focus on the life experiences of IDPs and view IDPs as strategic actors with the potential to handle their own situation than play the role of victims. This includes addressing the

recognition, empirical, and exclusion dilemmas, as well as improving sustainability and resilience approaches.

The causes of internal displacement evoke the recognition dilemma. As expressed by Masunungure et al (2016), the state is responsible for the creation of IDPs, while on the other side Government claims not to have generated IDPs. The Government of Zimbabwe (GoZ) further states that it was its moral obligation to clear the filthy cities and towns of its immoral citizens who were living in shanties. Such comments from a state that is part of the Kampala Declaration to prevent and aid IDPs clearly demonstrate arrogance and the non-recognition practice of internal displacement. According to the study, such government action demonstrating the state-people relationship on non-recognised IDPs in Zimbabwe is concerning.



The exclusion dilemma becomes evident here. The government argues that Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore was a noble action against criminal elements in the urban areas of Zimbabwe (IDMC, 2008). On the contrary, the purpose of Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore was to prevent the perceived economic and political activities in favour of the opposing party as well as, the negative results of the plebiscite Constitution process (Bratton et al. 2011). Apart from violating the IDPs' basic human rights that are supposed to be protected and promoted by the government, Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order severely harmed their source of livelihood. According to this logic, Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore was a retaliation against the urban population for perceived support for the opposition party (Mlambo, 2018). This implies that the internal displacement under Operation Murambatsvina and Operation Restore

targeted the poor and low-income households that comprised the women and the children. In fact, most of these IDPs were informal traders, homeless individuals and street kids in high density areas.

3.3.5 POLITICALLY LINKED VIOLENCE AND ITS IMPACT

Political processes, such as elections in Zimbabwe, have come to be associated with violence and internal displacement (Masunungure, 2011). For instance, the political events that took place in Zimbabwe in 2008,²⁷ particularly the constitution-making process and renewed calls for elections, characterized periods of violence and internal displacement exacerbated the level of IDPs (Bratton et al. 2011). This inclination is based on the intensified pursuit of contentious policies (Land Reform and Indigenization of Economic Sectors), intensified political campaigning related to the 2000 and 2008 elections, and inter-party clashes and mobilisation of militia groups in peri-urban areas (ibid).



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Zimbabweans voted against the government's constitution in 2000, spearheaded by the ruling party. This caused violence, which led to harassment, violence, torture, / illegal eviction of commercial farmers, and the Fast Track Land Resettlement Programme (Moyo, 2015). Opposition politicians and their supporters and farm workers were targeted for displacement. There is evidence that the displacement in Zimbabwe was primarily caused by government policies and actions beginning with the Fast Track Land Reform Programme, Operation Murambatsvina in 2008 (Tibaijuka, 2010), and election-related violence.

²⁷ This was the most violent elections experienced in Zimbabwe. The MDC won the elections over ZANU PF, and the MDC candidate for President (Morgan Tsvangirai) may have won but due to the extreme violence against MDC members, The party chose to pull out. As a result the compromises led to very detrimental events to Zimbabwe and to the opposition party itself.

The entitlement approach, as proposed by Nussbaum and discussed in the previous chapter (see chapter 2), recognises that citizens' rights are enshrined in the supreme law of the land, the Constitution. However, the government usually targets individuals along political lines and persecutes them. When this occurs, the individual's freedom of expression, citizenship rights, and political and civic participation are all violated (Masunungure, 2011).

3.3.6 LINKAGES OF APPROACHES, DILEMMAS AND CAUSES OF INTERNAL DISPLACEMENT

The study observes that the theories and the study's three dilemmas are connected and applicable to the effects of internal displacement in Zimbabwe and around the world. Landau et al. (2018) conclude that capability, entitlement, and sustainable livelihood approaches are essential aspects to IDPs. As such, these theories have played a critical role to help analyse the actual research findings in Zimbabwe, Africa, and world over.

The states are encouraged to focus on logics or ideologies or the basic globally agreed upon principles that shape the pressure on states to act in a positive manner as opposed to their negative application. The treatment of IDPs caused by natural disasters in the form of Cyclone Idai was fairly attended to compared to state-inflicted internal displacements (see Chapter 2). This then shows that the government is capable of preventing, protecting, and restoring IDPs' capabilities and entitlements and improving their sustainable livelihoods.

Below is a table that puts together consolidated information that shows how the key causes of internal displacement, namely the War of Liberation, Gukurahundi atrocities, the Fast Track Land Reform Programme, and Operation Restore Order/Operation Murambatsvina in Zimbabwe, impact on the critical three dilemmas of the study. The study argues that these dilemmas are critical and should be holistically addressed to achieve a durable solution for the IDPs.

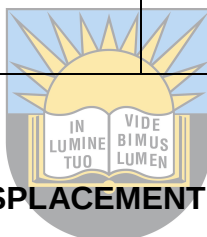
Table 2 : Linkages of approaches, dilemmas and causes of displacement

Causes of Internal displacement	Recognition dilemma	Empirical dilemma	Exclusion dilemma
War of Liberation struggle	The war of liberation caused internal displacement (Alexander, 2007). Usually, during such periods citizens entitlements, capabilities and source of livelihoods are deprived, more so to IDPs with no place of residence. The white government did not recognise the IDPs and thus it	The entitlements and capabilities as expressed by Sen are usually expressed on paper. Therefore, the government would not be concerned about collecting data for HDI on a population that it does not recognise.	Despite the application of entitlements, capabilities and provision of livelihood in a normal environment, the war of liberation excluded the citizens including IDPs of their human rights through what is termed the fourth prototype exclusion approach by Levitas.

	was their intention to deliberately deprive them their livelihood, capabilities and entitlements as a form of punishment (<i>ibid</i>).		
Gukurahundi Atrocities	The Gukurahundi atrocities happened in Matabeleland and Midlands provinces, respectively. These are and released in provinces in 1997 only a Zimbabwe were decade after the the state is duty official 'end' of bound to promote Gukurahundi. It and protect human was called rights of the IDPs, 'Breaking the Silence' precisely promote capabilities, because the entitlements and government provide livelihood. refused to allow On the contrary, the matter to be Ndlovu-Gatsheni discussed (2018) posits that (Benyera, 2019). it was an extermination of However, the the Ndebele tribe. reports that are On this meant to indicate the number of	An Independent study initiated by Catholic Commission on Justice and Peace (CCJP) itself which was undertaken and released in only a decade after the official 'end' of Gukurahundi. It was called 'Breaking the Silence' precisely because the government refused to allow the matter to be discussed (Benyera, 2019). However, the reports that are meant to indicate the number of	In view of the approaches of capabilities, entitlement and sustainable livelihood, the State is perceived to promote these to its citizens. However, during the Gukurahundi atrocities, development in the form of health, civic, education, political, civic and income were denied to the internal displacement caused by the Gukurahundi atrocities (Gatsheni-Ndlovu, 2020). The situation resembled a government that

	assumption it follows that the affected individuals will have limited/ none enhancement of the critical aspects of capabilities, entitlements and source of livelihood to be provided by the government.	those affected in the Gukurahundi atrocities for planning purposes have been kept under lock and key or rather are not agreed upon by the stakeholders, chief and the state.	had become tribalist with ethnicity and openly used Gukurahundi as an instrument to eliminate a rival ethnic group (Enos Nkala quoted by Ndlovu-Gatsheni, 'The Post-Colonial State and Matabeleland.
Fast Track Land Reform Programme	The arbitrary usage of the terminology of Mobile and Vulnerable Persons (MVPs) by the government as opposed to the Internationally agreed term of IDPs as enshrined in the Kampala Declaration is a sign of non-recognition of the IDPs within the Zimbabwean context.	While data was collected on the controversial land and reform programme, there is no agreed numbers to indicate how many individuals were affected by the government's Fast Track Land Reform programme.	Getting a leaf from sustainable livelihood approach, the former farm workers had a good source of livelihood by their standard and sustained their families. However, after the land reform programme, there had no security of tenure, nor a source of income, they lacked social capital due loss of land there used to stay and live on.
Operation Murambatsvina/Operation	The study views the naming of the	The UN special envoy reported	Sustainable livelihood approach

Restore Order	campaign by the government “clean-up campaign” as a non-recognition sign of internal displacement.	figures of IDPs that lost their lives, homes, livelihoods as a result of the government operation that were disputed by the state. The implication is that no agreed figures for the displaced individuals and that affects the planning purposes.	implies that citizens should be provided with that as a fundamental right. However, in the case it shows how government has destroyed the security of tenure on urban dwellers for their source of livelihood and thus, leading to exclusionary practices.
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3.3.7 CAUSES OF INTERNAL DISPLACEMENT AND THE SELECTED SITES

The study outlines below the differences and similarities on the causes of the diverse forms of internal displacement in the three selected provinces and districts in Zimbabwe.

Table 3 : The relationships between study sites and causes of Internal Displacements

Study Sites	Political and Human Causes of internal displacement
Matabeleland North-Umguza district	The main characteristics of internal displacements focused mainly on the Gukurahundi atrocities, Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order, political related violence as well as, the war of liberation that affected the country as a whole.
Manicaland-Makoni district	Focus was on the Fast Track Land Redistribution Programme, Operation Murambatsvina/ Operation Restore Order and the political

	linked violence.
Masvingo- Masvingo district	This looked at the Fast Track Land Redistribution Programme, Operation Murambatsvina/ Operation Restore Order, politically linked violence and the human displacement that occurred in the construction of Tokwe-Mukosi dam.

3. 4 RATIONALE FOR CHOOSING THE STUDY LOCATIONS

The study areas were the three provinces of Zimbabwe, namely Masvingo, Manicaland, and Matabeleland North. In Masvingo, the field work was conducted in Masvingo district; in Matabeleland North in uMguza district; and in Manicaland in Makoni district. The three provinces were sampled because according to (IOM, 2022) IDP data base points out that the provinces have the highest IDPs and have inherent features of forced migration. Furthermore, there are fertile lands in Manicaland with a number of farms where Farm Evictions took place. The use of a case study, constitute the districts as well as the comparison of the districts allowed for a thorough investigation of the accessibility and availability of basic service provisions for internal displacement in the aforementioned provinces.

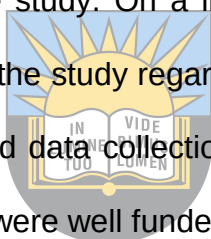
However, focusing the case study on the three provinces does not represent the views of the entire forced migration population in the country. It only serves as an illustrative case study for academic purposes. As expressed, the instrumental studies "serve the purpose of illuminating a particular issue" (Sahoo et al., 2019:465). In that regard, the instrumental case provides critical insight into a subject matter under review on internal displacement. According to IDMC (2020), the Fast Track Land Reform Programme, Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore

Order, and political violence took place in the provinces of Manicaland, Matabeleland North, and Masvingo and left people homeless as study areas but displacement took place right across the whole country. Also, the Catholic Commission for Justice and Peace (CCJP) notes that Gukurahundi atrocities occurred in Matabeleland North and "produced" internal displacement. On the basis of the literature review, it appears that the three selected sites have most IDPs despite that other provinces/districts were affected by the violent displacements. It therefore, follows that these sites exhibited essential characteristics of internal displacement in Zimbabwe.

The length of stay of the IDPs in these areas results from the Gukurahundi atrocities (1982 - 1987), the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (commenced beyond 2000 and formally instituted in 2002). The actual physical displacements started much earlier and continued for much longer (and to some extent still continue), and Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order (2005). A simple calculation reveals that the farm invasions started in 2000. That makes the scale related to farm invasions until now, 24 years, the displacements resulting from the liberation war close to 50 years, Operation Murambatsvina, 20 years and Gukurahundi, 40 years. This is a strong justification for tracing the trends and real experiences in finding out about basic service provisions and the marginalisation of IDPs' status. A prior visit before the actual fieldwork confirmed a notion held by the researcher regarding marginalisation, the condition of IDPs, deprivation of entitlements, a lack of livelihood interventions, and inadequate infrastructure facilities. More importantly, the choice to apply qualitative research is a deliberate action and not a random one, as choosing an "information-rich" case enhances the collection of relevant data for the study.

Hence, the selection of these three provinces and not the other provinces in the country.

Typically, a basic research requirement is rich information that satisfies the qualitative aspect and also has a sufficient quantitative perspective. The study locations provided this basic requirement. The provincial population figures are Matabeleland North (749 017), Masvingo (1,485,090), and Manicaland (1,752,698) (ZIMSTAT, 2021). Also, it was noted that the areas had high unemployment rates, a critical aspect that brought out the impact of forced migration. Further, the IDPs in the three provinces appear knowledgeable and aware of the conditions of forced displacement, which improved the study. On a lighter note, the study areas had a good road network convenient for the study regarding fieldwork logistics. In addition, the research assistants made good data collections, and there were no issues with accommodation as the assistants were well funded from their resources as NGO and UN practitioners.



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3.5 POSITIONALITY OF THE RESEARCHER

For transparency purposes, the researcher shares their positionality and will be self-reflective throughout the research process. Below are the points related to the researcher's positionality:

- The researcher, is a former International Organisation for Migration (IOM) employee (a United Nations organisation responsible for IDPs in Zimbabwe).
- The researcher knew the areas selected for the good relations that were nurtured in the districts of research study.

- The researcher comes from Matabeleland where the concept of "Umntwana we Khaya" / "Wematongo" played a significant role in order to conduct interviews and obtain rich information because they would be sharing sensitive information with one of their own.
- In most cases the "Umntwana we Khaya"/ "Wematongo" status helped in addressing practical and ethical challenges in the research.
- The researcher traces his origins to Zambia and is now a citizen of Zimbabwe by birth. His great-grandparents migrated due to the construction of the "Kaliba Dam", now commonly known as Kariba Dam.

3.6 SUMMARY

The chapter laid out the history of IDPs in Zimbabwe and outlined the causes of the phenomenon. Aside from that, the theories were applied to the causes of internal displacement in Zimbabwe. Despite the Government of Zimbabwe's (GoZ) denial of the influx of internal displacement, the study made some justifications for why the displacements are a cause for concern, which were supported by a number of authors.

Furthermore, the chapter also showed how the history and causes of internal displacement clearly bring to light issues of power relations. For instance, states have too much power in controlling the social and economic aspects, while the elite exploit IDPs and even NGOs promotes unequal power to IDP vs host communities. This is so, because the people most affected by conflict and natural disaster impacts on policies are mostly the poor, weak, ethnic minorities, and those who are already vulnerable because of past disposessions. Resultantly, this demonstrates that IDPs

are created through power inequality and limited accountability on the part of those in power, as in the case of Zimbabwe, and clearly shows that the social exclusion practices are in use.

In contrast to the natural disasters caused by Cyclone Idai, it is clear that the internal displacements perpetuated by the state were not adequately attended to by the responsible authorities. This is a sign of selective prioritisation as a political practice and should be encouraged across all forms of diverse displacement. The study employs the government to address the three dilemmas of recognition, empirical evidence, and exclusion and apply the approaches used in the study for the achievement of a durable solution.

The next chapter will deal with the research methodology.



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CHAPTER FOUR

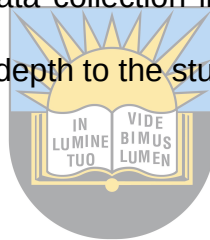
METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

4.0 INTRODUCTION

Designing a plan is generally not an easy task but a cumbersome exercise that requires due diligence (Makwerere, 2017, p.103). As such it is important that one identifies a research methodology that aligns with the phenomenon under study as well as the theories anchoring the study. In this research, the theories underpinning the study, namely capability, entitlement, and sustainable livelihood are also integrated in the data analysis stage. These theories will act as lenses into the effects of forced migration on the lack of social service provisions. For instance, the approaches, capability, entitlement, and sustainable livelihood informed the study on the multiple implications of IDPs. Furthermore, the use of an entitlement approach in the study design showed that depriving individuals of their capabilities infringes on their basic human rights. On the other hand, the sustainable livelihood theory highlighted the vulnerability, resilience, social injustice, and inequality caused by internal displacement due to the lack of interventions destroyed during Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order, the Gukurahundi atrocities, the Fast Track Land Reform Programme, and political aggression. In the process of informing the study, the theories also incorporate the study's three dilemmas: recognition, empirical evidence, and exclusion.

This chapter explains the methodology and research design used to investigate the subject matter. The research ethics as well as the data analysis are articulated. The chapter further clarifies the reasons for adopting the mixed methodology approach

(qualitative and quantitative), the administration of data instruments, and the essential measures taken to guarantee the reliability and validity of the study. Since, Leavy (2022) advances that, there is no study that is entirely qualitative or quantitative, for the purposes of this research. Literature review was applied to validate the mixed method approach and framework for contextualising the marginalisation of internal displacement in Zimbabwe. In the process, recognition, empirical, and exclusion dilemmas identified by the study were incorporated. Using capability, entitlement, and sustainable livelihood theories, this research promotes the three dilemmas of recognition, empirical evidence, and exclusion of IDPs, who are a political category, against the backdrop of marginalisation perpetrated by the government. Observations as a data collection instrument were also applied to the research and added richness and depth to the study.



4.1 RESEARCH PARADIGM

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Social research is frequently inundated with the dilemma of which philosophical frameworks to adopt and gain a scientific understanding of societal reality. This is often entangled in the reliability and validity of the selected approaches to social science research discourse. According to Koch et al. (2014), research is a methodical inquiry used to understand, describe, and predict phenomena that are supported by a paradigm. In the words of Mertens (2014), a paradigm clearly sets out the motivation, expectation, and research intent and thereby guides the way knowledge is received and interpreted. Research methodologies are shaped by philosophical assumptions that focus on ways of studying it as well as, the nature of reality (Smith et al. 2021). Conclusively, this implies that the researcher's perspective models the designed research, including the way data were collected,

processed, and packaged (Mertens, 2014). The notion that the selection of the strategy is premised on the researcher's perspective is sustained.

As expressed by McDonald III et al., (2022, p. 31), the philosophical assumptions that lay the groundwork for a research scope differ in their methodological position, both ontological and epistemological. Indeed, selecting a paradigm requires adequate knowledge, so that it aligns with the research approaches, design, purpose, and objectives, as well as research questions. Research paradigms are important because they guide the researchers in how to perceive the world and the way they should act. In this study, the qualitative and quantitative methodologies associated with critical realism were deemed as most appropriate is explained and discussed below (Page 112, paragraph 1) connects well with Sen's capability approach. Also, critical realism's mixed method allows the study to apply it within the framework of capability approach, a core concept to the study. The use of a case study approach in selecting the three provinces align well in conducting critical realism research (Bach 2014). Furthermore, a case study is useful in tackling the 'how' and 'why' questions and thereby understand the dynamic interactions in a multiple settings (Yin 2009). Accordingly, case method works well with critical realism to explore social events and to reveal causal powers that reflect the complex interface between agency and structure in IDPs (Bach et al. 2014).

4.1.1 Critical Realism Approach

The paradigm that anchored this study was Critical Realism. The critical realism approach stems from a philosophical critique of the positivism hypothesis, which

holds that information about reality can be obtained by assuming that reality is the end product of social construction of knowledge via empirical means (Bhaskar, 1978, 1979). As a result, Sayer (2011) concluded that if true, society would determine how the phenomenon would manifest itself. Critical realism assumes that it starts with the ontological position that reality is not readily observable, structured, and above all, independent. As such, the independent reality comprises the actual, empirical, and real dimensions as a foundation for critical realism's theory of causation. This study is premised on a notion that there is a method that is actual, empirical, and real for studying the social environment as suggested by (Gilbert et al. 2022). In other words, critical realism is premised on realist and scientific views that believe in an independent reality and argue their views in a multi-layered or stratified world on the basis of human knowledge and practice.



Critical realism is distinct from the High traditional paradigm due to its ontological and epistemological assumptions. According to Archer et al. (2013), combining transcendental realism and critical naturalism allows critical realists to see social world information as knowledge that is socially produced and of a natural (man-independent) thing. Therefore, the double recognition of both an independent reality and subjective interpretations makes critical realism distinctive from traditional positivist (empiricist) and social constructionist (interpretive) paradigms (O'Mahoney et al. 2014). Critical realism is a stratified, open system of emergent entities (Bhaskar et al. 1998).

Incorporating critical realism, the study observed three critical central propositions. Critical realism, according to Groff (2018), has the concept of stratified ontology. In viewing the world as an open system, it lays out three distinct useful levels: the level of experience (empirical), the level of events (actual), and the level of structures and causal powers (real). The study will benefit from the tenets of critical realism in the use of empirical, actual, and real data concerning IDPs in Zimbabwe. Furthermore, the selected critical realism paradigm values exploring social structure and human agency. This aligned with the study as the researcher also looked at the interaction of IDPs' social structures and human agency with a view of highlighting the causal relationship's powers. The third attribute is the presence of plurality and causation. For instance, the forced migration discourse in Zimbabwe is due to a number of causes leading to displacement that have resulted in multiple and complex effects as opposed to a single cause. Critical realism is the actual domain of reality, and thus measurement and observation are referred to as experiences that occur within the empirical dimension of reality. The study observed these experiences in the everyday environment of the IDPs and the causes of displacements that entailed the underlying causal mechanisms, tendencies, and counter-tendencies, as opposed to positivism's identification of highly correlated empirical variables. These observations are also supported by (Groff, 2018).

Critical realism as a paradigm was selected as it played an important role in the study for three reasons. Firstly, critical realism grounded in ontology assisted in coming up with a thesis that is based on empirical knowledge of internal displacement in Zimbabwe. Secondly, critical realism helped in interrogating the questions of What? (caused internal displacement) and Why? This assisted in

having a solid base of information while addressing the third level of structures and causal powers (real) as proposed by (Groff, 2018). Lastly, despite the fact that critical realism is not viewed as a social science approach in other quarters, the set-up and adoption of the design helped the researcher to conceptualise the study under review.

According to Pasipamire and Masuku (2022) critical realism is a strand of philosophy that endorses mixed-method approaches (qualitative and quantitative methods) by making their ontological settings explicit, constitutive of a meta-theoretical goal to differentiate the tendencies, counter-tendencies, and deeper mechanisms that generate empirically-apprehended events. Thus the critical realism aligned with the study adopted mixed method. Babbie (2016) sums up that quantitative and qualitative methods apply different symbolic systems with different structural forms for describing the properties of objects; if each is focused on the different properties of social objects, then it is possible to reconcile them. He further notes that the reconciliation occurs at the ontological level.

In this study, Focus Group Discussion, observation and in-depth interviews was utilised as a way of identifying the narratives given by the IDPs on the phenomenon under research. Furthermore, McEvoy et al. (2006) claim use of qualitative methods illuminates complex concepts and relationships that are unlikely to be captured by predetermined response categories or standard quantitative measures. Therefore, in this regard, qualitative methods were used to reveal the perspectives given by the

participants concerning their lived experiences as IDPs in the three provinces under research.

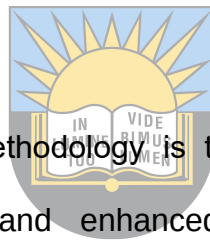
Qualitative methodologies in critical realism are epistemologically valid due to their function to produce analytical reasoning and describe social phenomena that helps in the study of internal displacement. Reason being, the world consists of an open system where the determining role is played by human agency (Sayer, 2011). Thus, to use qualitative methods remains important as it allowed the researcher to engage with human actions and agency, social events, within their natural settings. Also, qualitative methods allowed the researcher to generate open-ended questions and source new theories and insights (Suddaby et al. 2015).



According to critical realism, numerous reasons have been identified as impetus for human action, and they argue that the reasons are complex, layered, and highly affected by social structures that agents are not conscious of (Zachariadis et al. 2013). Furthermore, critical realism has critiqued the conflation of human action with social structure and agency (ibid). For example, a study in Tanzania on teachers concerning social structures or capability constraints concluded that teachers did not respond uniformly under the same circumstances. In this study use of qualitative research approach was premised on the fact that thought the IDPs in the three provinces under research were going to give rich and in-depth information their experiences were likely to be different. Finally, Archer (2013) asserts that the acknowledgement of social structures makes no difference to the responses provided because respondents (IDPs) were unaware. A critical realism theoretical

framework and analysis enabled the study to provide a linkage between IDPs' values, social structures, their contexts, constrained capabilities, and the process that results in a combination of IDPs' actions as a politically unwanted group.

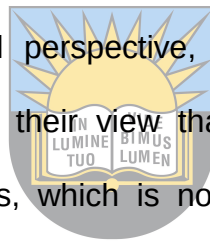
The study assumed that the respondents' experiences would help unpack internal displacement in Zimbabwe as a theoretical and practical issue. This includes the practicality of the deprived human rights, livelihood strategies, and the community's views concerning the research under study. According to Babbie (2016, p.154), the researcher believes that seeing himself as them in respondents' life worlds would allow him to draw meanings, feelings, beliefs, and views about the dynamics of internal displacement. This was revealed in the study's qualitative methodology.



Another benefit of qualitative methodology is that it enhanced the researcher's interpretation of the problem and enhanced respondents participation and engagement. For instance, friendliness, respect and active engagement promoted a rich understanding of internal displacement from the personal narratives of the IDPs of the Gukurahundi atrocities. At times, the effects of internal displacement are not easy to tell, using quantitative approach only and as such, the study was able to articulate and describe the prevailing conditions of IDP marginalisation by utilising the qualitative approach as this assisted the researcher to tap into the lived experiences of the IDPs so as to gain rich and in-depth data. The researcher's attributes of Umntwana we Khaya"/ "Wematongo" concept explained on Page 106 played a role as methodologies practice. This also brings to light that qualitative research, as alluded to by Collins et al. (2018, p.49), links theory and methodology. Among the study's dilemmas is the empirical evidence that promotes the invisibility

of internal displacement. For instance, it emerged during the data collection period that there are no agreed-upon figures on internal displacement. These sentiments are cemented by Marki (2021) who advance that, correct statistics of the IDPs remains an issue that needs a robust exploratory study (ibid). The idea is to ensure that their narratives are illuminated by the findings and such findings are used to tell their stories about the marginalisation of IDPs in Zimbabwe. Further to this the use of qualitative approach assisted in highlighted through participants verbatims how the different causes of forced migration of the IDPs in Zimbabwe at the time of the displacement cycle and how their basic services as IDPs were catered for.

However, from a methodological perspective, critical realists are concerned of quantitative methods because of their view that causal analysis and regression analysis are virtually synonymous, which is not to say there is no value in the empirical descriptions of the contribution of quantitative approaches (Sayer, 2011). Implying that quantitative methods reveal, among other things, the percentage of the population, age distribution, marital status, changes from one survey to the next, and location (Zachariadis et al. 2013). There, furthermore, argue that critical realism embraces quantitative and qualitative methods. According to Zachariadis et al. (2013) the importance of quantitative methods in critical realism is premised on the interpretation of statistics that was helpful in the study. The study described the events through questionnaires and surveys that are used in critical realist research. Another contribution of the quantitative method was the application of the illustrated statistical descriptive statistics used in the study to generate outcomes Ravn (2019). Also, as proven in the study one merit of quantitative method in critical realism is the production of reliable comparisons and descriptions of information (McEvoy et al.



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2006). This notion is in line with Kazi et al., (2011) who argue that the outcomes maybe as a result of inferential statistics.

4.2 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

Hodkinson and Devarakonda (2019 p. 235) describes a research design as "the framework that has been created to seek answers to research questions." In other words, it is a plan that connects the dots of data collected in response to the study questions. On the other hand, Neuman (2011) posits that a research design refers to a strategy for conducting research that facilitates the researcher's ability to explain, describe, and forecast a phenomenon. Besides providing a definition of research design, Hunziker et al. (2021) in Saunders et al. (2012) further divide research designs into exploratory and conclusive designs. Accordingly, exploratory research discovers the precise domain of the research, provides tentative answers as opposed to conclusive answers to research questions, and is biased towards qualitative research. Meanwhile, as compared to exploratory designs, conclusive designs are more specific and rigorous in providing inferences and are linked with quantitative theory. Furthermore, Hunziker et al. (2021) argue that conclusive designs can be either causal or descriptive and focus on describing key elements, the study's dilemma, whereas causal designs investigate cause-and-effect relationships.

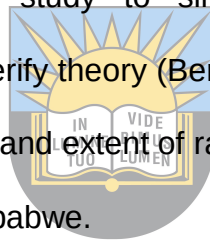
The exploratory-descriptive design was adopted for the research. Hunziker et al. (2021) in Saunders et al. (2012) allude to the fact that exploratory-descriptive designs are productive to learning with minimum control of variables in their natural environment. Also, the exploratory-descriptive design was adopted as it generated

theory and explain the phenomena from the viewpoint of the individual or society being researched. Consequently, the process of data collection was strengthened by the utilized research design as it aligned with identifying the realities and contextualizing the marginalisation of IDPs in Zimbabwe with a focus on the three dilemmas of internal displacement namely recognition, empirical, and exclusion dilemmas.

4.2.1 Mixed Methodology

The adopted integration of a mixture of qualitative and quantitative data provides an inclusive and comprehensive understanding of a research problem compared to data sourced from one methodology strategy (Neuman, 2020). The triangulated method has several merits or advantages that embrace strengths and opportunities from both applied approaches. As expressed by Leavy (2022), mixed methods provide a more detailed understanding of the research problem as compared to either approach alone. According to Maree et al. (2016), using a mixed qualitative and quantitative method within a single study is beneficial because it increases the credibility of the study by triangulating the different data sources. As such, the mixed methodology approach was utilized for purposes of triangulating the study through the use of various data collection sources. Further, mixed methods approach improved data analysis while adding value to the research validity and allowed the researcher to ask questions, which thereby enhanced both the process and outcome of the research. Similarly, as put forward by Sarangani, (2022) triangulation is considered to have noteworthy quality and balances the shortcomings found in one structure by applying both methods, hence the mixed approached anchored the study.

The application of mixed research in contemporary research discourse has been contaminated by the theory to break the incompatibility thesis between qualitative and quantitative approaches and has hampered a theoretical and practical application of the methods in social research. However, in the words of Bergman (2008), the incompatibility thesis between quantitative and qualitative approaches has stalled the application of theory and practice for both methods in research. Therefore for the purposes of this study, the researcher applied a logical strategy by benefiting from both methods in terms of their strengths and opportunities according to the phenomenon under research as proposed by (Bless et al. 2013). The mixed-methods research allowed the study to simultaneously answer explanatory questions, generate theory, and verify theory (Bergman, 2008). The approach added a deeper exploration of the nature and extent of rational conclusions in assessing the marginalisation of the IDPs in Zimbabwe.



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The research applied a mixed-method design to explore the nature and impact of marginalisation of IDPs in Zimbabwe. Also, the study adopted a triangulation strategy through the use of different data collection techniques to confirm, cross-validate, or corroborate the findings of the study. The method resulted in the applied data sets complementing each other during the data collection, analysis, and interpretation stages and provided a clear illustration of how the marginalisation of IDPs as a political category plays a role in the development discourse in Zimbabwe. Conclusively, the mixed-method approach validated the reliability of the research process and outcome.

In the study, one of the data collection methods that the researcher used was the questionnaire to investigate the nature and extent of IDP marginalisation as perpetuated by the state. Furthermore, data were gathered through in-depth interviews with technical officials, including development partners and local authorities including the government at the district, provincial, and central levels. The researcher applied inductive and intuitive observations of primary sources for an in-depth qualitative understanding of the dynamics of IDPs in Zimbabwe. It was the understanding of the researcher that the interactions with the participants within their natural environments provided an in-depth and solid understanding of internal displacement in Zimbabwe.



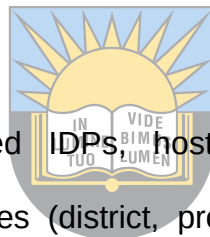
In summation, the application of mixed research approach, using quantitative and qualitative methods further assisted the researcher highlight the status of non-provision of services, limited capabilities and entitlements, and inadequate sustainable livelihood interventions that are levelled against IDPS in Zimbabwe. This process was backed by numbers of respondents that indicated how many individuals were affected. The methods applied addressed the objectives of the study as they responded to the questions that sought to find out the status of the basic service provision of internal displacement.

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4.3 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

Sampling is an important aspect of the research process that also defines the population for the focus of the study. Pandey and Pandey (2021) in Cohen (2007), p. 111) argues that, “in addition to methods and data collection instruments, an appropriate sampling strategy aids good quality research”.

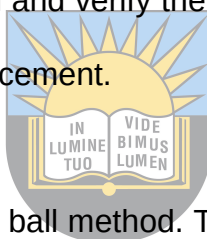
Against this background, it is therefore fundamental to apply a sampling strategy that is properly thought out. The study selected the sample with the knowledge that a sample is not representative of the population (ibid). The census population figures for the provinces are available (see item 3.5, p. 108). The participants were chosen because they would provide relevant information about internal displacement in the three provinces chosen for the study. In qualifying this notion, Onwuegbuzie et al. (2022) argue that the application of qualitative methodology does not aim to make statistical generalisations but rather to gain insight into the problem under discussion. In short, the sample was not intended to meet the numerical representativeness of internal displacement in Zimbabwe but to have a numerical idea of affected IDPs.



The target population comprised IDPs, host communities, non-governmental organisations, and local authorities (district, provincial, and central) in the three provinces of Manicaland, Masvingo, and Matabeleland North. As earlier, stated provinces are comprised of districts, districts results from wards and wards are formed by the lowest planning entities the villages were there are people. Also, the central government formed part of the target population. The provinces and districts were purposefully selected due to the vast presence of IDPs (See item 3.5, p. 108). To draw samples for the different groups of respondents, purposive sampling was used in this study. This is supported by Leavy (2022, p. 206), who argues that choosing a sample through purposive sampling depends on whether they are information rich, while Tongco, (2007) notes that purposive sampling is a deliberate choice of an informant due to the qualities the informant possesses. On the other hand, Pandey and Pandey (2021) posits that purposive sampling requires picking

cases based on their having characteristics the researcher is interested in as well as those respondents who possess the required traits for the study. In line with the above arguments, the study used the purposive sampling method.

As explained the provinces and districts²⁸ were chosen because they met the study's requirements for internal displacement and the study participants within these districts were deemed as capable of sharing responses to the set questions stated in Chapter 1. Purposive sampling is concerned with the selection of participants who have a crucial role in the study and who are capable of making or unmaking sensitive claims on the discourse under review (Makri et al. 2021). As such, the sample was supposed to ascertain and verify the level of marginalisation and lack of service provision for internal displacement.



Another method applied was snow ball method. This method aided the researcher in reaching out to other potential respondent for the study. Also, this method helped to minimise the problem of not getting participants due to the political and sensitive nature of internal displacement in Zimbabwe. In fact, the purpose of snow ball method is the assistance offered by participants to introduce other participants who are willing and qualify to be included in the pool for engagement with the study until the required number of participants is met.

²⁸ In the selected provinces there are districts and these were the ones that formed part of the sample. In terms of local government there exist villages, wards, districts and provinces. The village is the last unit of analysis were people stay.

Table 4 : shows the sampling methods applied in relations to the group of respondents.

#	Category	Sampling type
1	Selection of Provinces/Districts/Wards	Purposive Sampling
2	National/Provincial/District Government Officials-Interviews	Purposive Sampling
3	IDPs and Hosts communities at Ward level	Convenience sampling and Snow ball sampling
4	NGO Practitioners- Interviews	Purposive Sampling
5	Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)	Purposive Sampling and Snow ball sampling

Local histories and practises of hosting the IDPs in each province were used to select villages in each ward of the districts, namely Masvingo, uMguza, and Makoni. Stratified purposive sampling was used to select the districts, wards, and villages. The starting point used convenience sampling and snow ball was the central location of the selected villages, usually a business centre referred to as a growth point or service centre. The study was concerned on an in-depth understanding of marginalisation of IDPs in Zimbabwe.

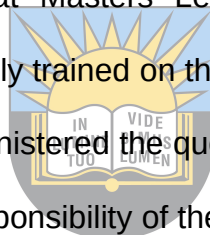
A total of three hundred and eleven ($n = 311$) respondents were purposively selected from the population. These included IDPs, host communities, local authorities and NGOs. However, due to the practicality on the ground embedded with sensitive nature of the study on internal displacement in Zimbabwe participants ended up as three hundred and ten ($n = 310$). In the words of Leavy (2022) in Creswell (2015, p. 206), the researcher exercises purposive sampling when one intentionally selects sites or objects that clearly understand the phenomenon. In this case, participants

were selected from Masvingo, Matabeleland North, Manicaland provinces, and the central government based in the capital city, Harare. The study engaged an official of government at Head office in the Ministry that is responsible for humanitarian and development partners.

A purposive sample of ten ($n = 10$) participants was selected for each focus group. Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) were conducted per each participating district. The FGDs promoted inclusivity in participation and comprised of women, men, and youths respectively. The inclusivity of distinct gender group discussions enabled groups of the same gender category to freely and actively participate. The selection was influenced by the need to further identify information-rich cases that provided the researcher with more in-depth information. Besides being a relatively fast and cheaper means and approach to data collection, a focus group also brought in group dynamics that amplified the range of responses and elicited forgotten experiences in participants, which provided an in-depth view not attainable from a questionnaire or face to face interviews (Maree, 2016). Apart from the questionnaire survey and focus groups, the researcher also conducted ten (10) in-depth, interviews with local authorities and development partners. These included three (3) Provincial Development Coordinators (PDCs), three (3) District Development Coordinators (DDCs), one (1) official from the central government, and three (3) NGO officials. Besides, the technical officials selected understand the experiences of internally displaced groups and are knowledgeable about the discourse.

For data collection processes the study applied a rapid rural appraisal (RRA) methodology, with the researcher visiting the research areas for familiarisation and

reconnaissance purposes. A participatory method was applied by attending key community meetings, making observations, making preparatory appointments, and holding informal meetings to acquaint myself with the local life environment in the study areas. In the words of social scientist's rapid rural appraisal (RRA) is a technic designed to get practical information on development discourse in local communities and learn from the communities (Kanyamuna et al. 2022). The researcher chose study sites where the research volunteers and assistants were practising and are well-known development practitioners. Besides, the practising development practitioners helped in reintroducing the researcher, dispelling negative perceptions, and assisting in administering the questionnaires. The research assistants were academic colleagues, qualified at Masters Level and working for NGOs, who appreciate research and extensively trained on this particular study. There organised with the local leadership and administered the questionnaires. However, the in-depth interviews and FGDs were the responsibility of the main researcher.



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4.4 INSTRUMENTS OF DATA COLLECTION

In any research study, identification of the most appropriate and systematic data collections instruments is critical to ensure that the most accurate data is collected. In this regard, the researcher came up with a number of data collections instruments that included a questionnaire, focus group, in depth interview, observation and document review both published and unpublished. The Six (6) seasoned practicing research volunteer assistants were sought and capacitated to administer the questionnaire. Piloting of study instruments for reliability and validity was done prior to the actual research work and it involved ten (10) respondents (IDPs (5), host communities (3) and in-depth key informants (2). The pilot respondents were not

involved in the final study research. Secondary data sources included comprehensive literature review of journal articles, newspapers, speeches, books, policy papers and reports on the discourse on internal displacement.

4.4.1 Questionnaires

The researcher engaged the services of six research assistants, who were fully trained before participating in the fieldwork activities. These field volunteers are colleagues in the development and academic fields. The field workers utilised in the research were men and women with vast experience and knowledge on NGO and who were operatives and familiar with the internal displacement field. Apart from that, the field workers had worked extensively in the study areas and had reputable and professional relationship with the local people and the authorities and as such they acted as gate keepers and assisted in negotiating entry to the study sites.



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The study administered one hundred (100) questionnaires in each of the study's three provinces and resultantly captured three hundred (300) questionnaires. Purposive and snow ball sampling were used from places of high activity, such as shopping centres and boreholes, to identify the respondent for the study. Additionally, the skills and knowledge of surrounding areas were data were collected by the field assistants enabled swift administration of the questionnaires. Furthermore, because it was difficult to obtain respondents, the volunteers remained in their respective areas until the required study number was obtained from each of the selected province. Persistence and tolerance were required in Matabeleland North, as the participants were eager to participate in large numbers because the study touched on the contentious Gukurahundi saga, which was directly caused by

the government and resulted in massive internal displacements. The extra numbers formed part of the FGDs.

The researcher and the volunteers/research assistants are employed by the UN and the NGO sectors and used their resources to pull through this intensive and demanding research process. Their vast experience and professionalism in the administration of the questionnaire conformed to the laid-down procedures and standards of anthropological and sociological research. The main researcher monitored the volunteers to ensure adherence to research ethics from one province to the other.



The questionnaire administered contained open-ended and closed-ended questions. The open-ended questionnaire presented opportunities for the respondents to freely articulate their feelings, perceptions, views, and opinions on the subject matter without any limitations. In the words of Creswell (2015), p. 105), "an open-ended questionnaire is an open check for the respondent to write all that matters to the discourse." This meant that the respondents put their thoughts into writing at their own pace, with the volunteers and researcher acting as passive takers.

The completion of the questionnaires by the respondents were well managed in terms of time, responses and the research assistant did quality control that I monitored. Leavy (2022) mention that closed-ended questions generate quantifiable data. The close-ended questionnaire enhanced the statistical significance of the survey results. The standard questionnaire enhanced the process and ensured that the participants responded to the same questions, resulting in a reliable and valid tool of assessment for the study. Giving confidence and anonymity to respondents is

critical and vital for determining the quality of their responses to the questionnaire by use of pseudo names.

A well-crafted and tested questionnaire attains relevant responses from participants (Gray, 2014). However, in this study though the volunteers diligently assisted the respondent through the questionnaire they were a few of the participants that failed to complete the self-administered questionnaires on their own. The study experienced such cases even though the researcher had made effort to have a well-written and worded questionnaire in simplified English. This was after the, questionnaire had been piloted and tested on some respondents outside the study provinces with similar environments well before it was administered to the research participants.



The questionnaire, as an instrument for data collection in the quantitative approach, eliminated biases, emotionally detachment, uninvolved with the objects of study, and tested or empirically justified their stated hypotheses (Creswell, 2015). The scientific method involves scientific objectivity observing facts and measurements using figures, statistics, or numbers, as shown in the next chapters. Finally, according to Creswell (2015), the methods include prediction, explanation or investigation of relationships, examination of impacts, and description of current conditions. However, as a researcher, some critical reflection of the notion of scientific objectivity is that the researcher is not unbiased, his underlying interest as well as research focus itself has strong normative orientations. These are related to justice, exclusion and marginalisation.

Research sampling techniques have a number of weaknesses and as such snow ball sampling technique is no exception. As experienced, a number of individuals had interest to participate. This was as a result of effective social networks that had shared about the study (Babbie, 2013). Another weakness as alluded by Kaiser (2009) is the compromise of participant confidentiality. Among others data triangulation was applied to ensure validity and reliability of the data collected.

4.4.2 In-depth interviews

The study, after making tedious protocol appointments, conducted in-depth interviews with the authorities and development partners at their respective offices. The sample size for in-depth interviews was 10. These recipients interviewed were PDC (3), DDC (3), NGOs representatives and the PS representatives at Ministerial level due to their knowledge on IDPs. The interviews were held face-to-face, which promoted interaction, established rapport, and enhanced friendly communication despite the contentious subject matter of internal displacement in Zimbabwe. On the other hand, the researcher observed that government officials were evasive, as they maintained that the Fast Track Reform Programme was not responsible for IDPs in Zimbabwe.

The in-depth interviews were flexible, adaptable and achieved greater depth in the discussion. When an interviewee was hesitant to provide valuable information or gave vague answers to questions, the researcher probed further. After, respondents signed the consent forms that detailed the reason for the interviews, the researcher was allowed to record the discussions using his cellphone and used the information in his relaxed environment away from the research location. As a result of the fair

discussion and attentive listening, the researcher obtained critical data and obtained divergent viewpoints on the subject matter, as expressed by Creswell (2017).

During the interviews, officials showed uneasiness and fragility on the subject. The fragility and uneasiness were also felt by development partners, who, while openly expressing their views on the subject, were sensitive to the issue of internal displacement. For example, the development partners used phrases such as "the affected people in Manicaland as a result of the disturbances on the farms" as opposed to "the IDPs as a result of the fast-track land reform programme caused by the state" or "the displaced communities as a result of the Gukurahundi government-supported program." Such behaviour by development partners and authorities provided the opportunity for the study to establish a detailed account of internal displacement as well as the attitudes, experiences, beliefs, and perceptions concerning the internal displacement discourse. According to Leavy (2022) in qualitative methods, respondents tend to raise issues as they perceive them within their social construct and understanding, and this was achieved in the study.

The use of in-depth interviews in the study had its own limitations and constraints as they were time-consuming, lack of resources, fluidity, sensitivity, and expense. However, the study minimised the element of time management by avoiding the possibility of natural expressions from those being interviewed. The face-to-face interviews with the authorities and development partners, due to their knowledge base on the welfare of IDPs, provided vital and useful information to the study.

4.4.3 Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)

The researcher facilitated the focus groups using the guide questions, where participants were afforded space to articulate their viewpoints. The discussions were held in an open space, free from disturbances, under big communal trees within the locality. The conducive environment explored the perceptions, feelings, ideas, and attitudes of respondents regarding the marginalisation of IDPs. The non-mixing of youths and elders, men and women, promoted and exhibited active participation and engagement from the different groups. Internally displaced youth, women, and men in their separate groups freely expressed their genuine concerns, experiences, views, and opinions, which they do not normally articulate when in a mixed group. The study gave participants the opportunity to discuss the issue.



The small and manageable focus groups promoted interactive analysis of participation. The group ranged between 8 and 10 participants, which prevented domination of the discussion by any one individual in the group through the skillful facilitation of the researcher, who stimulated the discussion in an environment that was conducive to free and frank discussions by the focus group participants. As earlier mentioned the reason for FGDs were to further gather and clarify information. This assignment was held by the main researcher, with the assistant taking notes after approval from the respondents. The FGDs were conducted after the questionnaire distribution and in-depth interviews respectively. As expressed by Elizabef (2004), the facilitator-maintained eye contact with the participants and observed their body language, unspoken signs, and gestures for an undisturbed flow of the discussions. The lively participation of the focus groups empowered the study

to collect significant data, encouraged discussion of personal problems, and acted as a catalyst for solutions to the issues raised by the participants.

Despite the study's nine focus groups, the process proved to be relatively quick and inexpensive, and its improved group dynamics, which broadened the range of responses and elicited forgotten experiences from participants. These interactions provided insights and an in-depth view not achievable from individual interviews, as indicated by Boyce et al. (2006) in their analysis of the focus group. The researcher facilitated the flow of discussion and posing the questions to the groups and gave the groups space to discussion freely. Furthermore, the researcher was allowed to record the focus group for further listening during his free time to complement the written notes taken during the group discussions.



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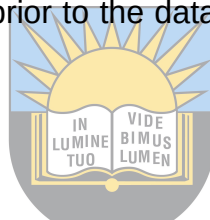
It was a challenge to select the participants, especially in Matabeleland North, as a large number of IDPs voluntarily wanted to join in the discussions. Because of the interest and engrossment shown in the subject matter, more time was allocated and more discussion times were held. Also, some respondents spoke before being allocated their speaking space. This could be due to the fact that the state, as the primary perpetrator of the discourse, was unwilling to discuss issues pertaining to IDPs

The study was able to establish the reasons and meanings why IDPs were subjected to crude marginalisation through focus groups, which was not easily

accomplished using other surveys or other data collection methods. Creswell (2015) alludes to this point. Furthermore, for the sake of the study, the focus group displayed social meanings, the respondent's feelings, and their experiences.

4.4.4 Observations

According to Phellas et al. (2011, p.25), observation is a method that contains a system with a clear purpose of selecting, listening, and watching. The observation technique was used to complement the data collected from questionnaires, interviews, and focus groups. Thus, a researcher must have a clear purpose and focus of the observation process prior to the data collection technique (Maree 2019, p. 84).



The interface with the communities in the field for the study before, during, and after was valuable. In the process, the researcher observed and recorded a significant amount of data that was inaccessible to the researcher from key informants, among others through participatory as well as non-participatory observation. In the process, the study noted information regarding the physical environment and the day-to-day life of the study area and added value to the data analysis process. The field setting allowed the researcher to have an in-depth experiential experiences and informal conversations with the respondents. The linguistic skills of the researcher played a role in the process. This was achieved by the study captured a number of photographs, which are shared in the research on the findings chapter. The observation method placed the outcome as a root cause or causes-of-effects

template for the marginalised internal displacement in Zimbabwe (Benhura et al. 2021).

4.4.5 Secondary sources of data

The study also gathered data through the use of secondary sources. The rationale was to augment the data that was collected through primary sources. Information from a broad spectrum of local and international newspapers, journals, NGO reports, UN reports, Lawyers for Human Rights reports, faith-based reports, books, and government reports, among others, that covered internal displacement in the form of the Fast Track Land Reform Programme, Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order, Gukurahundi atrocities, and political violence in the three provinces was reviewed. Of major significance were the government reports, in view of the study's objective 1 (Chapter 1, p. 15), which sought to ascertain the position of the government on IDPs. The reports discussed state-people relations regarding the discourse on internal displacement in the three provinces. Also, reports from local and international organisations portrayed a victim label. However, to date, as earlier articulated, the use of sustainable livelihood has changed the previously victim tag to active participant.

The study applied a number of data collection methods. These data collection methods were linked to the study objectives as a way to ensure all objectives are well captured and attended to as highlighted below:

Table 5 : link between objectives and methods

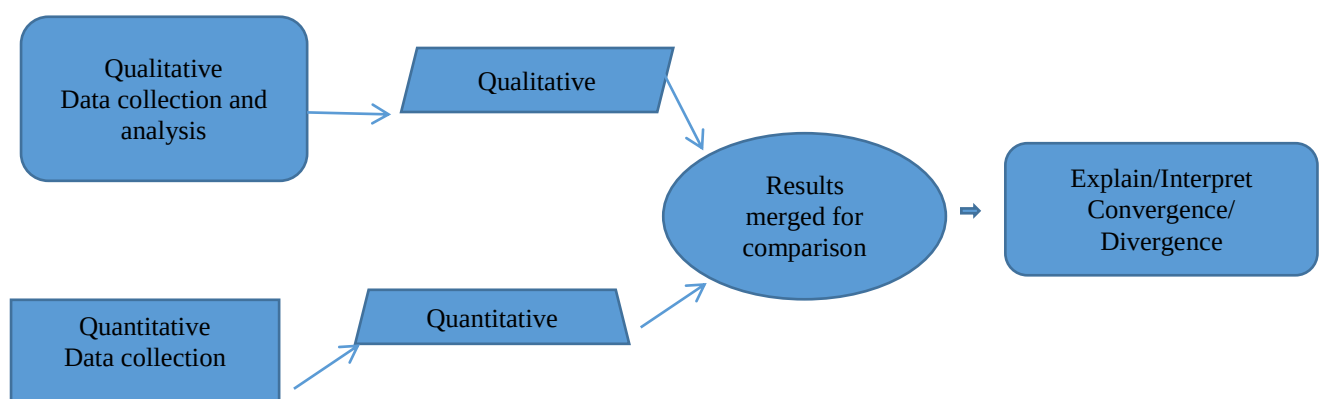
Objectives #	Source of Data
To assess the level of awareness among government officials and civil society organisations of the state's responsibilities with regards to IDPs in Manicaland, Matabeleland North and Masvingo provinces. (In line with the recognition dilemma)	The study applied in-depth interviews to capture the level of awareness from the officials as well as secondary information from documents, reports.
To assess the level of awareness among government officials and civil society organisations in Manicaland, Matabeleland North, and Masvingo provinces of the state's responsibilities regarding IDPs.(In keeping with the recognition quandary)	Capturing of empirical data on the provision of needs for IDPs was from the survey of IDPs, observation, documents and Focus Group Discussions (FGDs). The number of methods acted as verification and triangulation of provided data.
To provide an empirical base from which to better assess the needs of internally displaced persons in Zimbabwe vis-à-vis the other citizens of the country in Manicaland, Matabeleland North, and Masvingo provinces. (In line with the empirical dilemma)	Obtained mainly from surveys and FGDs.
To explore various forms of exclusion from the provision of security, social, and economic services for IDPs in Masvingo, Matabeleland North, and Manicaland provinces. (In line with the exclusion dilemma)	In-depths interviews, documents and FGDs played a role in capturing the required data for purposes of policy formulation for IDPs.
Objective 1, 2, 3 and To identify, based on the outcome of the research, a policy framework that will help the government and the development sector effectively attend to the needs of the displaced persons and enhance their rights of citizenship in Zimbabwe.	It is noted that the different methods complimented each other and verified data for the study.

4.5 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Maree et al. (2016, p. 122) refer to validity as the magnitude to which the research measures what it claims to measure. In the same vein the measurement instruments provide the basis on which the entire research effort rests. Both are in agreement that the researcher should decide on the nature of the measurement instruments, describe the instrument in use, determine the scoring method, and provide the reasonableness of the instruments in terms of validity and reliability. The study guarded against pretesting, subject attrition, instrumentation, diffusion, and maturation as tenets of internal validity.

In qualitative research, trustworthiness is linked to validity, and according to Rose (2020), trustworthiness is a matter of persuasion, whereby the researcher makes scientific practices visible and auditable. Accordingly, validity is not attached to truth but rather on the readers' judgment. Therefore, the research applied the triangulation method to mitigate on the dire effects of investigator bias.

Figure 4 : Triangulation process



Reliability is a pre-condition for validity and thus refers to the consistency of measures, meaning that repeating a study would give almost similar results with an accepted margin of error. (Maree et al. 2016). Conversely, in a qualitative study

involving people (their experiences, their perceptions, and their views), the prospect or even aim of producing the exact results is not at all appropriate or desirable. In the study, a number of reliability indicators, which are standard conditions for the administration of data collection instruments, were observed. A standard research request letter explaining the purpose of the study was shared with all participants. Also, responses were coded and entered for analysis in the spreadsheets. The questionnaires that were both closed and open were uniform and well processed, which, according to Babbie (2020), enhanced objectivity. Despite ensuring that the questionnaire responses were exhaustive to avoid loss of accuracy and variability (ibid), there are a few difficulties in structuring responses, and at the end, some important responses are missed in the process.

The study conducted a pilot to ascertain the suitability of the methodology, sampling, instruments, and language appropriateness and how the respondents would understand the questionnaire Bless et al. (2013). The research applied the Cronbach's alpha correlation coefficient when testing the consistency of the questionnaire using correlation coefficient (Maree, 2016). Anonymity and confidentiality of participants to reduce proving of socially acceptable responses was a high factor in the research and promoted truthfulness.

4.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Makwerere (2017, p.102) defines data analysis as one of the critical stages in research when the "researcher reflects on the data collected in order to make meaning out of it." The implication is that the data analysis is more than description of data. According to Shafiei et al. (2022), data analysis focuses on bringing order, structure, and meaning to the mass of collected data as well as breaking the data

into smaller units to reveal their characteristic elements and structure. On the other hand, Robinson (2014, p.38) points out that “data analysis offers an equally important view on the interpretation of data when he posits that the process and products of analysis provide the bases for interpretation and analysis”. It is therefore not an empty ritual, carried out for forms' sake, between doing the study and interpreting it, which can be safely ignored until the data are collected and conclusions are reached. Finally, the data analysis process aids in the dissemination of what has been learned.

The study used content and thematic analysis as tools to analyse the collected data. In the analysis of primary data obtained through interviews, thematic analysis was used (Lochmiller, 2021). He asserts that a thematic analysis is a form of pattern recognition within the data, where emerging themes become the categories for analysis. In essence, data analysis does not end with the description of the data collected. Therefore, the process goes from recognised themes, interpretation, and reference to the research question. Hsieh and Shannon (2005, p. 78) define the method as the subjective interpretation of the context of the data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes. Furthermore, the qualitative data analysis focused on the identification, examination, and interpretation of patterns and themes in the textual data and determined the themes and patterns to respond to the research questions (Creswell, 2015). As such, "thematic analysis is rated as appropriate for studies that seek to discover the use of interpretations" (Lochmiller, 2021, p. 40). Equally, it aids the researcher in analysing classifications and patterns that emerge in relation to data.

Coding of the data collected from participants led to patterns emerging. These then formed the themes identified as a result of their frequencies of occurrence or topics of conversation. In essence, these comprehensive and systematic data analysis methods enable the process to be interpreted. In addition, Maguire et al. (2017) argue that thematic analysis is a method that works to reflect reality and to unravel the surface of reality. In an effort to bring to light the visibility of internal displacement and reveal the conditions prevailing in internal displacement, both notions were applied in the three displacement provinces of Manicaland, Matabeleland North, and Masvingo.

Jang (2008, p. 99) notes that content analysis is "the study of the content of texts, such as meanings, words, and pictures." Accordingly, context analysis relies more on secondary data as it describes the features of the document's content in terms of who said what, to whom, and with what effect (Vaismoradi et al. 2013, p. 400). These refer to and are not limited to documents in the form of speeches, official documents, photos, and written materials. In his view, content analysis is a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data in relation to their context (Westbrook, 1994, p. 245). The researcher ensured that the collected data was examined to extract connotations and themes. The process showed themes on the question of IDPs' basic service provision and the implementation of the IDPs' policies on internal displacement. The study also explored the human rights laws and policies on internal displacement in Zimbabwe.

Furthermore, the study examined the latent content of documents. In this case, latent content refers to "the underlying meaning conveyed through documents." (Botha and Ackerman 2018, p. 8). The use of the meaning of the documents was a necessity for context-based analysis of IDPs. This was so, as it assisted in identifying the real

meaning and effects of the contents of a document in relation to the socially constructed meanings of forced displacement. A number of policy documents in Zimbabwe on IDPs needed to be analysed. The study, from its analysis, views that there is indeed some uniqueness to IDPs in Zimbabwe that is not the same with other global IDPs, and thus advocates for the construction of meanings in the policy documents in Zimbabwe.

All this process was aided by using a software called "computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software" (CAQDAS) to generate data from in-depth interviews and focus group discussions. The data was then used to import transcripts by marking phrases, words, or sections of text with codes and, for each code, collecting together all the chunks of text associated with that code (Gray, 2014, p. 225). Furthermore, the qualitative data analysis was conducted as a fluid process with a focus on the research objectives and research questions.

On the other hand, the quantitative data was analysed using a software package called the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Usually, the programme is used for data entry and analysis and to create tables and graphs. Tables and figures were produced using SPSS from the quantitative data gathered. The study also used secondary data in its literature to enhance the subject matter.

4.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The researcher complied with fundamental ethical issues to conduct the study. The first requirement was defence of the PhD proposal with the Higher Education Committee which led to an approval letter by the University of Fort Hare's ethics

board²⁹? The ethical clearance number is BEZ011SSIK01. The University of Fort Hare's ethics board approval was the basis to obtain authority from the GoZ to undertake the academic study in the three provinces of Zimbabwe. Despite, the political sensitivity of the project title on internal displacement, government processed and approved the study³⁰. The approval was in two parts. The first approval to conduct the internal displacement study was authorised by the Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare and the second one was authorised by the Ministry of Local Government and Public Works to be able to enter and conduct the study in the areas. The subsequent, gatekeeper permission from the province, district, ward and village were procedural and were in agreement with the authority and approval letter from the Ministry of Local Government and Public Works.



In the words of Makwana (2019), "harm is physical, psychological, or material injury. The study was pro-active to prevent such incidents by engaging participants on issues that could affect them. This was despite the fact that the study did not potentially cause such traumatic or life-threatening physical harm. Since IDPs' discourse is viewed as a political and victimisation issue, the study ensured the anonymity of participants by using pseudonyms instead of their real names. Participants chose the names they wanted to be addressed by the researcher, and one preferred to be called "Mugabe"³¹ and the other "Sibolukhulu"³². These pseudonyms resembled the participants' attitudes towards internal displacement. However, in view of the devastating nature of displacement for human dignity, the act was

²⁹ The Ethics Committee letter is attached as annex

³⁰ Both approval letters from the Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare and the Ministry of Local Government and Public Works are attached as annex.

³¹ The name of Zimbabwe's former president

³² Ndebele name for "Big Man"

carried out as a process to build relationships, empower the participants, and give them the opportunity to reclaim their respective forms of identity. The process of applying pseudonyms across the study areas did not follow a standard pattern. This protected activity includes recording, writing participant names, and even taking pictures without permission from the participants.

The study also took note of confidentiality and privacy. "Confidentiality is paramount and allows participants to retain ownership of their voices and exert their independence in making decisions" (Creswell, 2015, p. 90). The study constantly ensured inclusivity in coming up with roles and responsibilities. This was applied according to the notion that invasion of privacy takes place when participants are oblivious to what they can disclose about themselves and how much of this information will be made public (Makwana, 2019). The researcher, as a linguist, used the Shona language in Masvingo and Manicaland and then IsiNdebele, Tonga, and Kalanga languages in Matabeleland North to explain what was required of them in the study. One important message shared was that participants were not forced to participate in the study. Furthermore, those who participated did so on a voluntary basis and were not paid anything by the study. Despite sharing the above information as a social being, some still wanted to know any future benefits, and the researcher reminded participants about their signed consent forms for the study in question.

Creswell (2017) posits that informed consent implies a lack of deception in any form as well as the acknowledgement that participants' rights will be protected. According to the ethics principles, the study distributed and explained the consent forms to the participants prior to the interview. In addition to the consent forms that were written in

English, Ndebele, and Shona, the researcher and the assistant also took time to explain the purpose of the study in the local languages and the assistant ensured the signed forms were collected. Only after the participants were aware of exactly what was required of them and were in agreement, did they sign the consent forms to pave the way for the study's engagement process. The issues of informed consent, privacy, respect for intellectual property, and legality are of critical importance to the study, as raised (Creswell, 2015), considering the politically sensitive issue of IDPs in Zimbabwe.

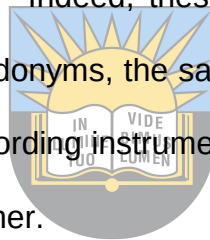
The researcher used a recording device and also took notes during interviews after having been authorised to do so by the participants. The use of a recording device allows the interviewer to concentrate on the process of listening, interpreting, and refocusing the interview, as it is difficult to rely on memory (Gray, 2014). Despite the permission to record the interviews, some participants, primarily from Matabeleland North, expressed uneasiness and suspicion during the recording process. In general, the politics and contestations embedded in internal displacements made some respondents uncomfortable with the use of recording devices and the signing of informed consent forms. Due to Gukurahundi atrocities and general lack of development in Matabeleland North, the people have developed serious mistrust on any person they view, perceive or connect to Government.

One elderly man in Matabeleland North, when asked to be recorded, said:

"Hebo jaha hanti uthi le yingxoxo kuphela, njengo mntwana wekhaya. Manje amaphepha lokungitata indaba ingenangaphi lapha jaha le khaya. Makunje, kuncono singakhulumi lawo ungumthengisi³³.

The participants were reassured that the study was purely academic and was not going to be shared with the media or government (their greatest fear). Also, the "Umntwana we Khaya"/"Wematongo"³⁴ concept played a significant role in terms of status.

Surmiak (2018, p. 395) posits that "identities, locations of individuals, and places are concealed in published results, data collected is held in an anonymised form, and all data is kept securely confidential." Indeed, these characteristics were observed in the study through the use of pseudonyms, the safekeeping of information-containing note books, and the locking of recording instruments under lock and key and making them available only to the researcher.



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Zimbabwe is a country that is known for authority and adherence to procedures. In this case, despite having the authority to undertake the academic study in the three provinces, the researcher secured other gatekeepers' permissions from the provinces, districts, chiefs, councillors, and the village head to conduct the study and engage with the participants. Again, the "Umntwana we Khaya"/"Wematongo"

³³ My boy, if it is just a discussion, let's just talk about this area. If so, then what's with this idea of signing a form and recording it? What do you want to do with that information? If that's the case, we're not going to talk because you are a sell-out.

³⁴ One of us

concept, being a former IOM employee, and being a seasoned local government practitioner all played a role in obtaining approval from the gatekeepers.

Finally, the researcher conformed to codes of academic writing discourse by acknowledging sources of data cited and literature utilised. Ethical considerations in the form of confidentiality, respect, objectivity was upheld throughout the research.

The researcher also followed and abided by the Ethical procedures as postulated by Du Plooy (2010, p.45). The below was utilised:

Figure 5 : Ethical procedures by Du Plooy (2010, p. 45)

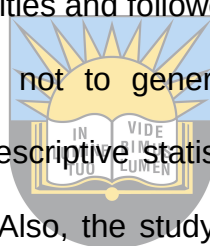
<i>Procedures</i>	<i>Actions Taken</i>
<i>Protect the rights of human subjects by not causing emotional harm or infringing on their right to maintain self-respect and dignity.</i>	The questionnaires were completed anonymously.
<i>Provide all necessary facts without distortion or misrepresentation</i>	The in-depth interviews with technocrats provided a space for questions and were responded satisfactorily.
<i>Avoid being biased in the interpretation and presentation of data</i>	The focus group discussions allowed sufficient input of other interesting viewpoints.
<i>Use measurements that are suited to the research problem</i>	
<i>Report conflicting evidence:</i>	By facilitating triangulation of data.

(Adapted from Du Plooy 1995: 45)

4.8 SUMMARY

The chapter outlined the methodology, and the methods applied in the study. Because the government is responsible for the majority of the causes of internal

displacement, such as the Fast Truck Land Reform Programme and Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order, the Gukurahundi atrocities are viewed as a political issue. The research methodology adopted for the study was anchored on a mixed methodology approach. Both the quantitative and qualitative models were discussed and articulated. Also, the chapter discussed the data collection instruments used, which included questionnaires, interviews, focus groups, observation. Finally, the data collection, analysis, procedures, and challenges encountered during fieldwork were highlighted in the chapter. Also, the data analysis made use of the study's capabilities, entitlement, and sustainability theories. As previously stated, due to the political sensitivity of internal displacement, the study safeguarded the participants' identities and followed research ethics. The study, in its methodology and survey, aimed not to generalise and did not use inferential statistics but rather focused on descriptive statistics with a comparative aspect on the data for the three provinces. Also, the study offered some contributions to the literature in terms of IDP definition and policy formulation.



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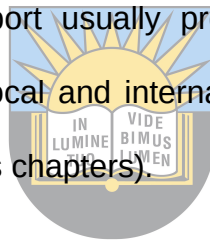
The next chapter will deal with the analysis of the data on internal displacement with a focus on the recognition dilemma perspective.

CHAPTER FIVE

RECOGNITION DILEMMA: ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

5.0 INTRODUCTION

As argued in chapter one (see item 1, p. 3) and the subsequent chapter (see, chapter 2, item 2.4.4, table 1), the recognition dilemma refers to the notion that the existence of IDPs in Zimbabwe, is largely due to governance related actions and policies as opposed to natural disasters and other external welfare forces that lead to displacement of individuals. The assumption is that the IDPs are as a result of the government and that it is the same government that does not recognise IDPs as legitimate recipients of the support usually provided to displaced communities, including the non-application of local and international policies designed to protect IDPs (as discussed in the previous chapters).



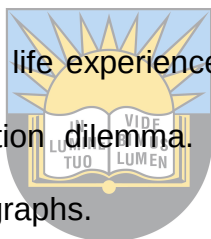
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The aim of this chapter is to unpack the importance of recognition dilemma in relation to internal displacement. The chapter analyses the different themes that show the non-recognition dilemma of the IDPs on the part of the government and link the study's theoretical framework concepts. Lastly, the chapter presents the findings of the questionnaire, interviews and focus groups in relation to themes associated with the recognition dilemma.

In line with the theoretical discussion in chapter 2, the analysis presented here, is framed by the capability, entitlement and sustainable livelihood concepts. The capability approach is a function of the government that is expected to provide

individual's capabilities as well as their entitlements to promote development. This is shown through a process of appreciation and recognition of their citizens. However, failure to apply these concepts results in deprivation of individual rights and entitlements. The sustainable livelihood concept reminds us of the provision of the critical capital that enables an individual to use and prosper in their lives. However, the question here is: Can the provider inject capital in an area it does not recognise the population staying there?

In line with the study objective as stated in chapter one (see item 1.4, p. 14), the chapter concentrated on the responses and analysed internal displacement from a number of sources including IDPs life experiences and framed from the theoretical concepts to explore the recognition dilemma. Data is presented based on the objective 1 of the study in form of graphs.



5.1 RECOGNITION DILEMMA

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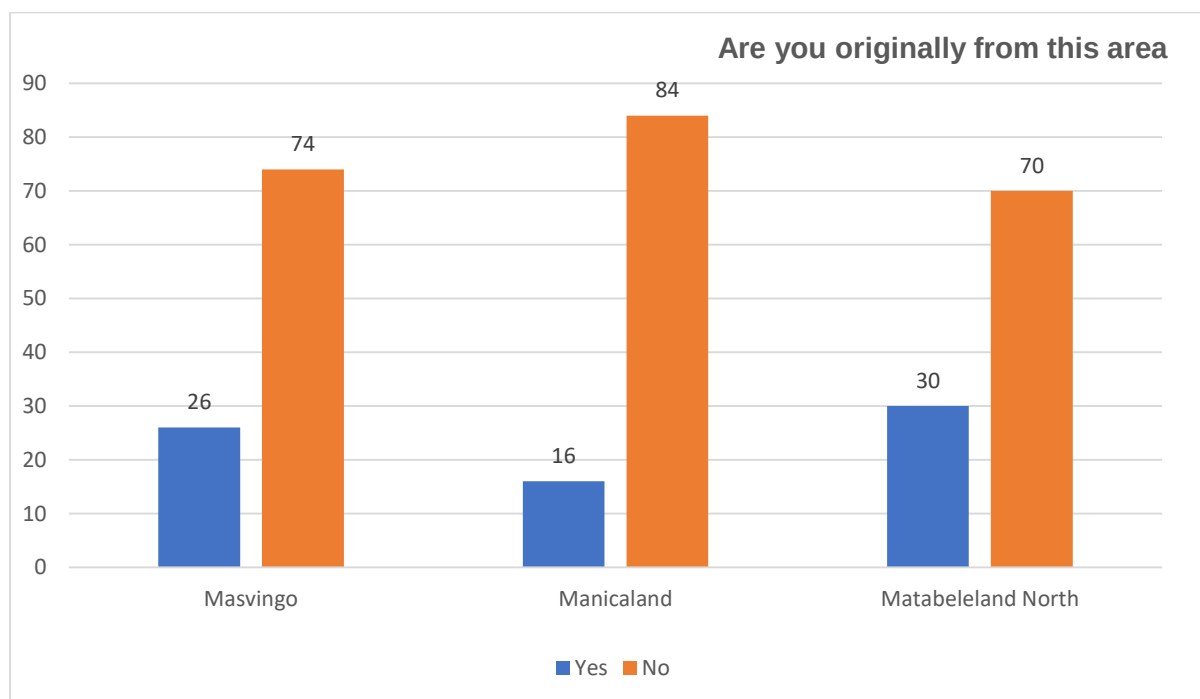
The research analysed the findings on the recognition dilemma as the battle for the recognition of IDPs as a government concern. The questions applied were closely interrelated and highly depended on each other to explore the recognition dilemma of IDPs in the provinces under research through a comparative analyses.

5.1.1 Are you originally from this area

The study enquiry sought information on the origins of the participating respondents. The rationale behind such a question was to determine whether or not there were displaced people from other areas in order to address a portion of the research

study's objective. Figure 6 shows responses of the selected study areas for the three provinces were Manicaland province recorded the highest respondents that were new in the area with 84%, followed by Masvingo and Matabeleland North provinces with 74% and 70%, respectively. All the three provinces were marked by a high number of new inhabitants in their area of jurisdiction an indication that some movements of population continued to settle within the research selected areas.

Figure 6 : Are you originally from this area



N = 300

For the entire sample, out of 300 individuals that responded, 228 (76%) revealed that they were not originally from the participating areas. On the other hand, 72 respondents, representing 24%, indicated that they originated from the areas where the study was being conducted. This indicates that there continues to be some distinct movements taking place in Zimbabwe particularly, within the, provinces, districts, wards and villages. As shown in Figure 6, selected study areas in

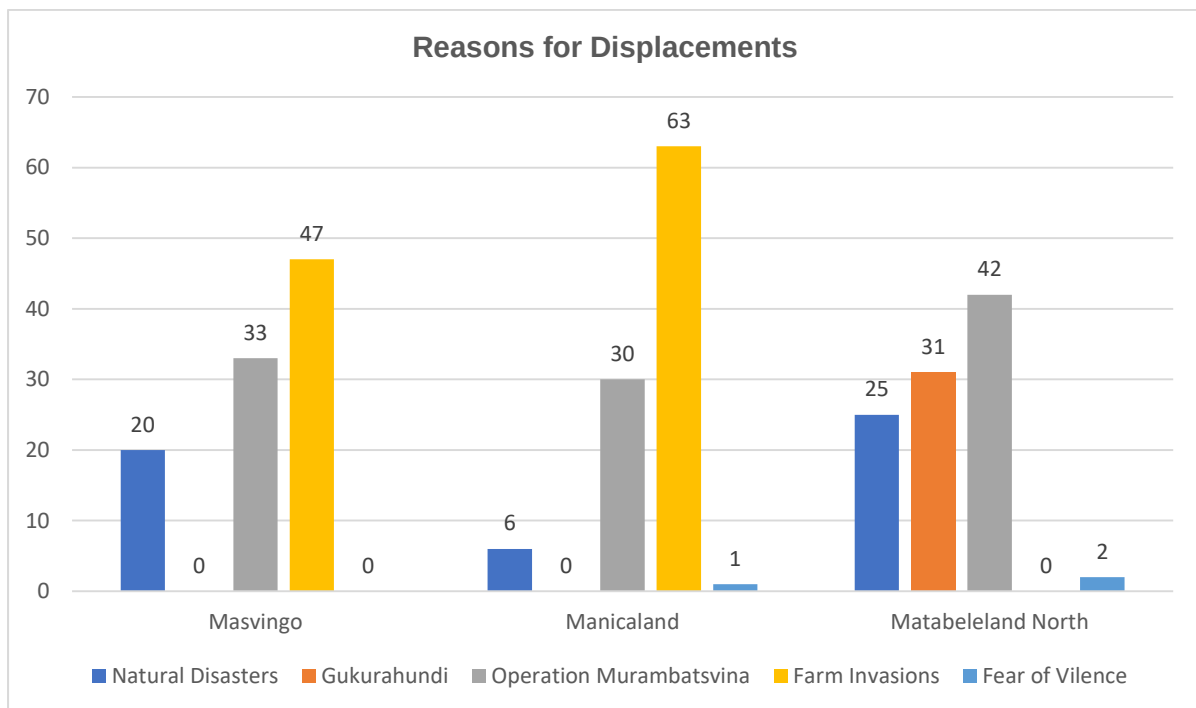
Manicaland had 84% of respondents compared to Matabeleland North, which had 70% of respondents who were not from the area. The findings may imply that some movements that occurred for example in Manicaland may be attributed to the vast fertile farms where IDPs worked for a livelihood source. This shows the linkage with the sustainable livelihood approach.

One therefore concludes that some form of movement, either through a push or pull factor, occurred in Zimbabwe since these respondents were not originally from the study villages. Correspondingly, it is evident that the movements of people have settled in the villages, districts and provinces. In applying the recognition dilemma perspective, it indicates that a high number of 70-84% of persons in the three provinces in particular the selected study areas are deprived of their constitutional and human rights in terms of their capabilities, entitlements and sustainable livelihoods interventions. In general, governments are supposed to provide such provisions as postulated by Sen and supported by Nussbaum.

5.1.2 Reasons for displacement

The study, also sought to ascertain if these movements by the IDPs were as a result of push factors and if they were subjected to marginalisation or to some form of integration. The emerging results as highlighted in Figure 7 show diverse reasons in relation to the push factors that occurred in the three different provinces.

Figure 7 : Reasons for displacement



N =300



The provinces show more or less similar reasons for internal displacement but differ in terms of intensity. For example, Manicaland province indicated the highest respondents with a total of 63% due to farm evictions as a result of the Fast Track Land Reform Programme. Masvingo indicated 47% and, Matabeleland North had 0%. In general, Matabeleland North have very few large-scale commercial farms with extensive numbers of farm workers, due to its arid conditions. Most farming in the province has been cattle ranching which is not farm-worker intensive. Another, reason for forced migration was due to Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order. The respondent numbers were not very different indicative that all three provinces were heavily affected. Matabeleland North reflected 42%, followed by Masvingo with 33% and Manicaland with 30% respectively. This, therefore

demonstrated the extent to which IDPs have indeed been neglected and marginalised by the state respectively.

Respondents across the three provinces also identified natural disasters as reason for their displacement. The natural disasters ranged from droughts, storms and floods. According to the respondents Matabeleland North, Masvingo and Manicaland, they indicated 25%, 20% and 6% that they experienced floods and storms. Matabeleland North, is prone to natural disasters in the form of floods and cyclone El-Nino disasters and cyclone idai that occurred in Masvingo. In support, Mavhura (2020) posits that floods have a direct impact on the human capital through inflicting injuries and internal displacement. He further brings up poverty as one of the factors linked to natural disasters and argues that it exhibits itself as a development barrier, a non-discriminatory agent, and a vulnerability amplifier. As a result, he concluded that there is a link between flooding and poverty, with flooding having an impact on poverty and poverty having an impact on increased flood vulnerability.

The study also established that only one province that is Matabeleland North was affected by the Gukurahundi atrocities that caused internal displacement. The table illustrates that Manicaland Province 63% was highly affected on Farm invasions and this is supported as the province had numerous fertile farms worked on by workers even by citizens from namely, Malawi and Zambia states (Mlambo, 2021). Matabeleland North scored high on Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order (42%), natural disasters (25%) and the Gukurahundi atrocities (31%). The

high figure for Operation Murambatsvina/Operation restore Order is linked to having Bulawayo, as the second largest city in Zimbabwe and based in this province. Matabeleland North, due to its low laying area it is prone to natural disasters such as floods and storms are cause for concern and an area where Gukurahundi atrocities took place (CCJP, 2000).

To address the study's objectives 2 and 3 (See chapter 1, p. 14), a selected number of narratives of respondents' experiences are shared in order to highlight the lived experiences of the IDPs by forced migration in Zimbabwe's selected three provinces. The study's recognition dilemma, as well as the approaches of capability, entitlement, and sustainable livelihood, aided in analysing the provision of basic services to marginalised IDPs.



In support of this assertion and sharing their internal displacement story, an elderly man from Manicaland province said:

“Nilikushuphika kathesi chifukwa chamavutho amu Mugabe, kumenyiwa namapolisa amene ana chita kuti ndibe chilima nakusoba bana banga vamene bana mwalilila nakumenyiwa na ma sotsha a Mugabe”.³⁵

Furthermore, another elderly man from Manicaland province had this to narrate as a victim of the Fast Track Land Reform Programme:

³⁵ “I am in great problems now because of my disability caused by Mugabe land reform where I was beaten by the police and resulted in the death of my children who were blood massacred by the army of the same regime of Mugabe.” Mugabe is the former President of Zimbabwe under which Gukurahundi happened.

“Ndirikurwara uye ndirikutambura mwanangu. Ndaimbova mukuru pa farm ya Mr. Z*, ndakagarika. Asi kubva musu wakaauriwa murungu wepa purazi pandaishanda handisisina rugare ndakadzingwa. Hapana chekubata kuraramisa vana vangu. Ndosaka ndaakurwara”³⁶

In one of the FGDs one respondent from Masvingo province shared her experience on Operation Restore Order/Operation Murambatsvina ordeal:

“Mwanangu hapana chandakakwanisa kunhonga. Nanhasi mwana wangu andisati ndamuona. Anga ane makore maviri uye ndinofunga kuti anenge akatofira ipapo. Mapurisa nema soja vakapaza dzimba vachindirova. Kusvika pano andizive kuti ndakasvika sei. Yaive hondo yechimurenga”³⁷



Some individuals were displaced several times. One such respondent from Manicaland province who was displaced first by political violence and later, by Operation Restore Order/Operation Murambatsvina recounted his experience:

“Mwanangu ndakanga ndakagarika asi kundiona kudayi ndakatama ruviri rweze zvichikonzerwa ne hurumende. Ini nevamwe takatamiswa nechikonzero chekuti tiri kutsigira rimwe bato rinopikisa. Takatorwa husiku tikanorohwa dzimba dzikapiswa. Asi tinotenda Mwari hatina kupisirwa

³⁶ I am sick now and cannot even afford to get treatment and look after my family yet during my days as a supervisor at a farm I could work for myself. My life become heal after, government killed my white employer and took over the farm and chased us away.

³⁷ My son, I did not collect anything from my house on top of losing my 2 years old daughter. Armed policeman and soldiers destroyed my house and beat me up and I even don't know how I settled at this place. The situation resembled the war of liberation.

mumba. Ndakabva ndatama ndikaenda kwaMutare, asi mugore ra2005 ndakarohwa zvakare nemapurisa akaputsa dzimba”³⁸

In one focus group discussion (FGD) which comprised of the youth in Matabeleland North, they were a number of participants who had similar stories and narrated their stories of forced migration as a result of Gukurahundi. For instance one of the participants in the FGD shared her story as follows:

“Umhlaba lo uyahlaba, nginjenje angilalutho engilalo, angila muzi, angila bazali ngenxa kahulumende awabulala imuli yami. Ubaba watshona endutshulwa lapho umama kwatsha engide ehlabela. Umama watshona enginda ehlabeni ngoba wayese ngula ingqondo watshiya umntwana owamunyiswa ibele ngusisi wekhaya. Ubhundi baya eGoli, njalo kuzima ukuthi bephenduke ngenxa yokuthi sonke asila gwalo zokuzalwa”.³⁹



The above narrative brings to light another issue of unsafe migration to neighbouring states through unauthorised routes as the brother is now an economic migrant and left her in a vulnerable condition with no source of income, livelihood activities and no cash to provide for their children to attend school and other necessities.

As illustrated by data obtained from the respondents and experiences shared, the findings of the study illuminated that the IDPs were denied the capabilities and their

³⁸ My son, I had a good life. I was displaced twice as a result of Operation Murambatsvina/ Operation Restore Order and political violence. Was beaten because I was an opposition party member and my house burnt but I praise the Lord because there did not set us on fire in the house. A number of other people were in my predicament.

³⁹ Life is difficult with no home no family all because there were killed by the government. Father was shot and mum asked to sing and dance in the process. Even after that mum continued to sing and dance and was a mental case and died. My brother left for South Africa and chances of coming back are slim because none of us had birth certificates.

entitlements. For instance, the IDPs stated that the displacement destroyed their sustainable livelihoods sources as some had small business that were destroyed by the Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order. As for the former farm workers, their daily work wages ended and the same from the former white farmers ended as well. With regards to the lives of those affected by the Gukurahundi atrocities, they were shattered with no capabilities and livelihoods as most are not employable due to lack of documents that even prevented their human capital entitlement.

5.1.3 Timing of displacements

The study further sought to find out the number of years that the respondents had been internally displaced. As shown in Figure 8 it can be deduced that the respondents arrived in the study areas from period 2000-2004, 2005-2008, 2009-2012 and 2012-2015.

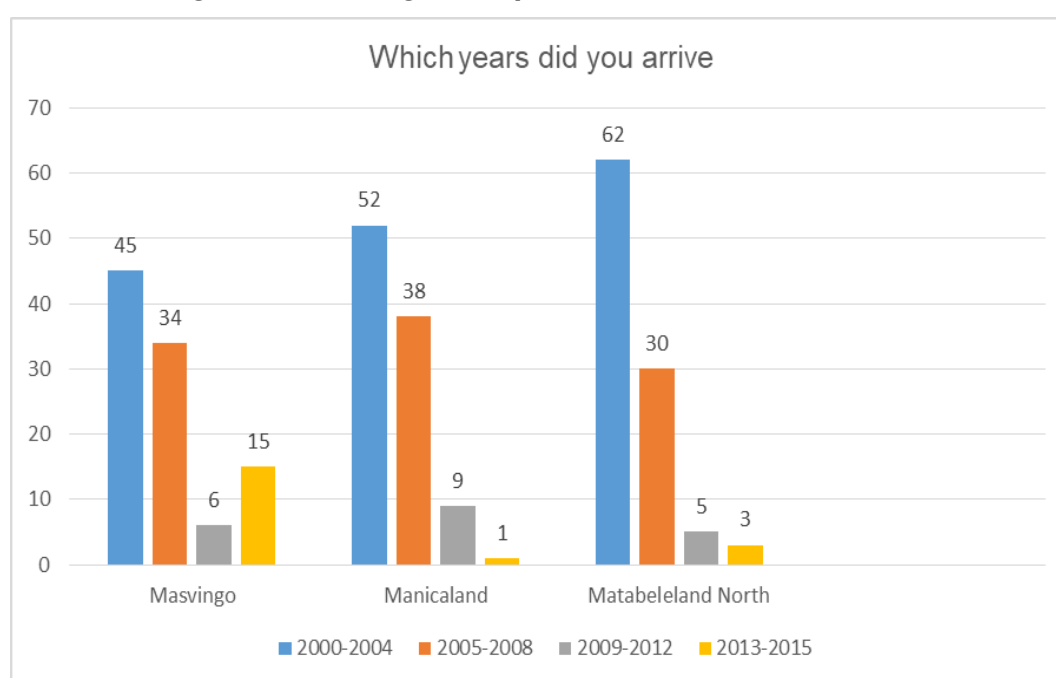
The table below shows some activities that happened in the stated periods:

Table 6 : Contextualisation table of events

#	Period	Events
1	1983-1987	Gukurahundi
2	2000-2004	Launch of the Land Reform Programme, Jambanja-violent farm invasions, Political stalemate due to disputed election results, Humanitarian crises
3	2005-2008	Launch of Operational Murambatsvina/ Operation Restore Order, Cholera outbreak, Food shortage, Isolation and sanctions, Formation of the Global Political Agreement (GPA), Food shortage
4	2009-2012	Constitutional Reform process, Power sharing Agreement, Political tensions
5	2012-2015	Constitutional Referendum, Elections

All the three provinces showed substantive arrival of IDPs in 2000-2005 with Matabeleland North scoring 62%, followed by Manicaland with 52% and lastly Masvingo with 45%. The period 2005-2008 and 2009 -2012 was active as well in all the three provinces. According to secondary data and IDPs experiences these are the periods during the Fast Track Land Reform Programme, Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order. The study missed indicating the Gukurahundi period of 1983-1987 in the study. It is fact that Gukurahundi occurred in the stated period and resulted in displacements in Matabeleland North and Midland province respectively.

Figure 8 : Timing of displacements



N = 300

The period 2013-2015 had generally low movements or arrivals in the two provinces (Matabeleland North and Manicaland). However, in Masvingo it was the opposite as there was a significant arrival of IDPs at 15%. According to FGDs as well as

secondary data information in Masvingo movements were noted due to the Tokwe-Mukosi dam construction that displaced a number of individuals. For the entire sample, 159 (53%) of the respondents moved into the area between the years 2000 to 2004. Respondents with 102 (34%) revealed settling between the period 2005 and 2008. Whereas, others, arrived between 2009 -2012 and 2013-2015 both accounted for 39 (13%) respondents.

Matabeleland North, having Bulawayo the second largest city showed high figures in the period 20005-2008 due to Operation Murambatsvina while Manicaland and Masvingo indicated high figures due to both Operation Murambatsvina and Fast Track Land Reform Programme in the period 2000-2004 and 2005-2008 respectively.



To complement the quantitative data, qualitative information was sourced as well. Participants in FGDs shared the years in which they arrived in the study sites and confirmed that their forced migration was due to the Fast Land Reform Programme, Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order, political violence and Gukurahundi atrocities.

“Ndichirikuyeuka kuti mugore ra2000 takavhotera bumbiro remutemo. Gare gare, hurumende ikatanga kuti hatina kuivhotera. Aaa... kuzoti rimwe zuva ari mangwanani mapurisa akatanga kupaza dzimba dzedu achiti hatina kuvaka

zvakanaka zviripamutemo uye tine hutsvina. Ndogore randakatama ndikauya kuzogara muno maRusape ndichibva kwaMutare”⁴⁰

Another, participant informed the FGDs and said:

“Mugore ra2002 pakabviswa murungu nejambanja ndakafirwa nemwana wangu mukomana uyo akarohwa zvakaipisisa nemapurisa” nanamukoma”⁴¹

According to the emerging results from the FGDs as well as reviewed literature, it can be noted that most of the IDPs particularly in Manicaland and Masvingo provinces settled in the participating villages during the Government programmes that caused internal displacement in the period 2000-2008. The study agrees with the works and theory of Masunungure et al. (2011) who argue that Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order and the Fast Track Land Reform Programme, respectively were the main reasons for internal displacement in Zimbabwe.

The study concludes that the movements were as a result of the push factors leading to IDPs. Key to the sustainable livelihood theory is the capitals of natural, economic, physical, human, and social capital. For instance, in a movement or transit state the

⁴⁰ I remember it was the year 2000 when we voted for the referendum and later accused of voting for the opposition party. Later, our urban town Mutare was affected by the government programme of Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order. That was the year I was forced to move and settle in Rusape.

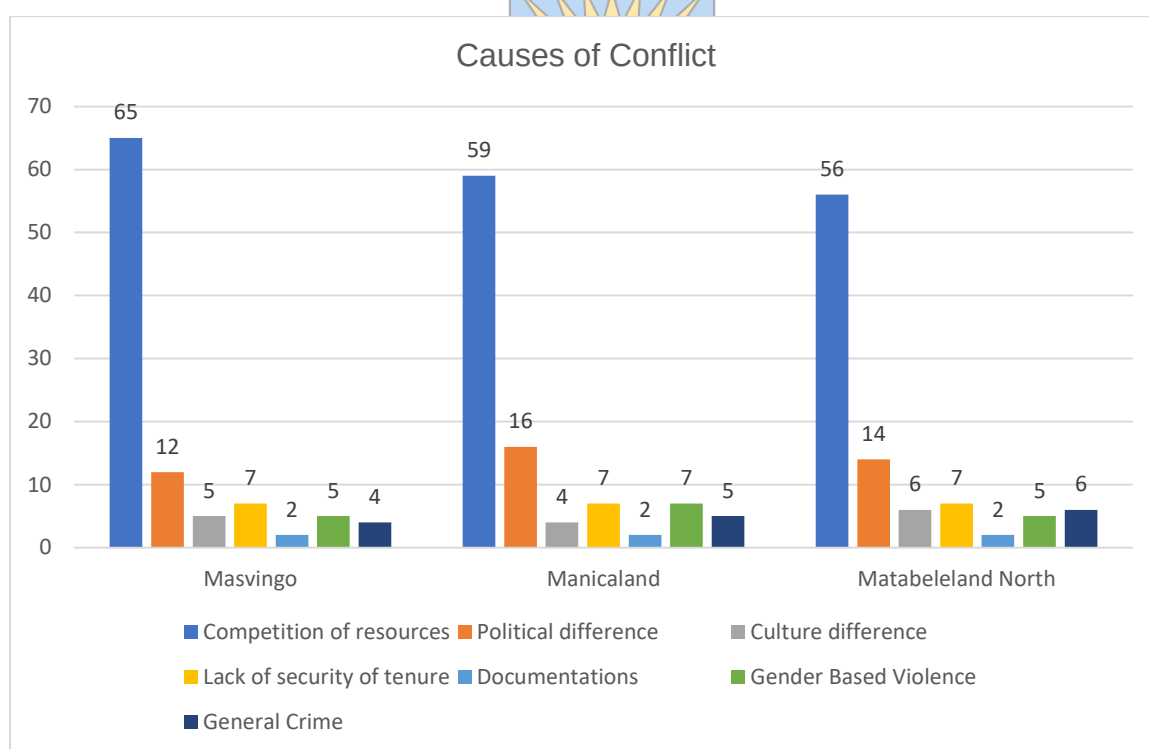
⁴¹ When the white Farmer employer was evicted during the Fast Track Land Reform Programme, the year was 2002 the time, I lost my son who was badly beaten by the police and the war veterans

physical capital that is the environment is a challenge to work for individuals on the move or running away from displacement. In most cases the physical is directly connected to the social capital which again in this case, is affected by the movements and results in the failure to link with the sustainable livelihoods strategies for survival of the internal displacements.

5.1.4 Conflict between IDPs and host communities

In line with objective number three, the sources of conflict acts as an exclusionary factor on internal displacement. The focus groups confirmed that there were conflicts between the IDPs and hosts.

Figure 9 : Sources of conflicts



N: 300

The three provinces faced almost the same types of conflicts. As indicated in Figure 9 the conflicts mentioned involved competition of resources, political differences,

cultural differences, lack of security of tenure, documentations, general crimes and Gender Based Violence (GBV). Accordingly, the major contributor to conflicts was the competition for scarce resources in all the provinces with Masvingo recording 65%, followed by Manicaland and Matabeleland with 59% and 56%, respectively. In fact, competition resulted in the depletion of the scarce resources that affected the sustainability of the resources. Furthermore, the study noticed deforestation and pollution in the areas visited thus affecting the health of the IDPs. The second source of conflict that featured is the political differences. As alluded earlier on, opposition politics presence was shaping in the country. As such people started calling each other as ruling party and opposition supporters. The practise also happened in the study areas of Masvingo, Manicaland and Matabeleland North provinces. Manicaland had the highest with 16% and followed by Matabeleland North with 14%. Masvingo recorded the least at 12%. This assertion on the political difference between IDPs and hosts is supported by Hove et al. (2020). Furthermore, while all the provinces experienced political differences, there differed in intensity. For example, Manicaland and Matabeleland North had a much stronger opposition presence as well as other historical, social and cultural factors at play.

In all the three provinces, Gender Based Violence (GBV) was present with the highest being Manicaland at 7% and Matabeleland North and Masvingo at 5% respectively. However, as a participant observer, the researcher noted that the figure indicated regarding the aspects of GBV is low. In this regard, one feels that the communities were still following the traditional, cultural, power imbalances and religions that remain deeply entrenched and a gender-based awareness raising is recommended. Furthermore, the researcher noticed a high level of traumatising

because of the trends of unfriendliness shown by community members especially to the IDPs. The source of conflict as indicated on figure 9 is concerned with the relationship and differences between the host communities and the IDPs. For the entire sample the major contributor to conflicts raised was the competition for scarce resources that accounted for 60%. Apart from the figures the study acknowledges that all the cited conflicts are a cause for concern because they play a role in further depriving IDPs their capabilities, entitlements and sustainable livelihood sources.

Despite the selected areas of the three provinces, showing low gender issues, the study articulates its conceptual analytical analysis on the power dynamics and gender in internal displacement observed. The existence of gender inequalities usually among women and the girl and boy child facing vulnerability are as a result of violence and exploitation (Ferris, 2011). As observed, it is due to unequal distribution of power, resources that are based on patriarchal structures. Furthermore, men often take charge of the decision-making process of deciding on the durable solution (return, settle or settle elsewhere) and thus preventing the views of the women and girl child to be heard on issues of displacement (Ibid). Lastly, men often control and own the assets in the form of buildings, food and hence women become dependent on men for survival especially in the context of internal displacement.

Commenting on competition of resources in the area one lady from Masvingo province in the focus group discussion lamented:

“We struggle to fetch water from the Borehole. The gate to the Borehole is locked and when open, only persons who produce ruling party cards are allowed to collect water. However, those without party cards pay cash (1\$) per 20 litre container. I am a young lady not working and have not bathed for a week now.”

In one of the interviews with a NGOs, the officials shared:

“As development organisation in the area of internal displacement, we have sourced funding to prevent the high gender based violence that is happening within the areas where IDPs are found. The programme of awareness will be led by the traditional leadership”.

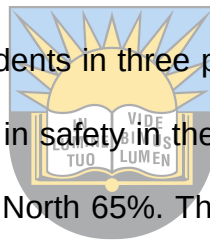


Conversely, from FGD and through participant observation, it may be concluded that where cases of conflict occurred, the disputes were brought to the attention of the traditional leadership for conflict resolution. The chiefs attested to this and alluded to the fact that a number of cases brought before them were issues or concerns between the hosts and IDPs. The FGD discussions noted that the decisions reached in such conflict resolutions in most cases went against the IDPs and further enhanced their stigma and label tag. This then raised the conclusion that the system was not fair and thus promoted marginalisation of the displaced communities as practised by the traditional leadership.

A provincial analysis indicated that there were similarities in the sources of conflicts and their magnitude. For instance, taking into account the competition of resources and the political differences in line with the theoretical approaches, one concludes that IDPs are denied their capabilities, entitlements and livelihoods. Furthermore, failure by the government to have current figures of IDPs, implies that wherever they are settled they put pressure on the existing infrastructures with no government planning to take account of new demographics of the same to cater for such increase in the numbers of the people in the areas.

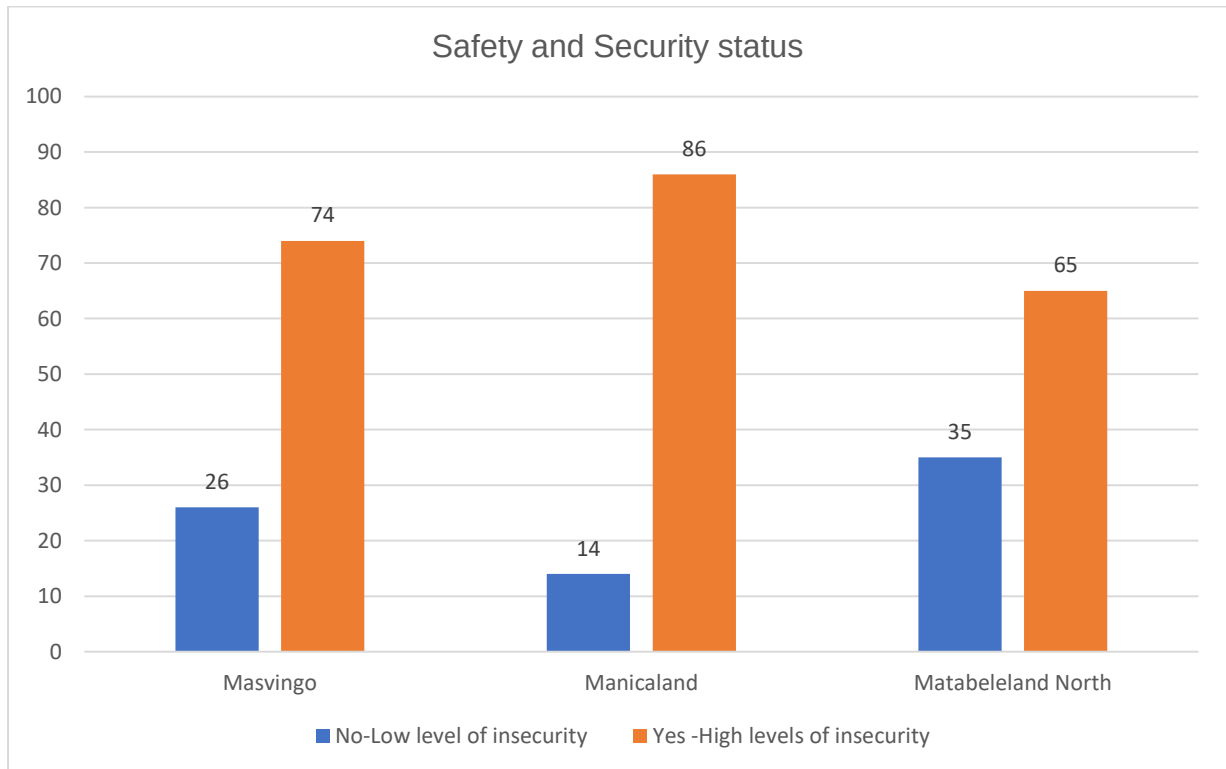
5.1.5 Security and safety

Access to security and safety was linked to addressing objective number 2 of the study. According to all the respondents in three provinces it was revealed that there were high levels of insecurity and in safety in the areas. Manicaland indicated 86%, Masvingo 74% and Matabeleland North 65%. The reason to continue staying in the area was advanced as having no alternative place to settle with one respondent in the focus group lamenting that *“the devil you know is better than the devil you don’t know”*. There were general concerns about the safety of internally displaced persons in unfamiliar settings as raised by respondents.



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Figure 10 : Safe and security status



N=300



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The study ascertained the causes of insecurity during the FGDs. These were: fear of another displacement, marginalisation from participation in a civic and public engagements, conflicts, and victimisation by the host communities led by their traditional leadership who they claimed were partisan. The host -IDPs dynamics manifest itself in the social, economic and political aspects. For instance, IDPs competed for jobs and housing schemes that brought conflict between host-IDPs. Furthermore, at times host communities become frustrated when IDPs become depended on them (host).

The respondents shared their experiences concerning the raised insecurity elements. As illuminated in Figure 10 high levels of security concerns in all provinces

can be seen with , Manicaland (86%), Matabeleland North (75%) and Masvingo (74%). On the fear of another displacement, one woman from Manicaland province had this to say:

“Vhiki rapera iri, tirikuona mota dzemapurisa mu area mwedu kuma purazi eRusape. Ndomatangiro akaita jambanja. Musangano uno tingatafunga kuti ndewa DA arikuda kutidzinga sekudzinga kwaakaita vanhu ku purazi number BZ”⁴²

The IDPs are not safe and thinking of another displacement. Their entitlement are not being guaranteed by the government.

On exclusion to participate on civic and public engagement, a man from Masvingo province shared that:



“Tichiri vanhu here isusu, musangano atisheyedzwe, tika yenda to zvingwa. Zvakaoma, Ndosaka vana vakutengesa miviri neku futa mbanje nekuti hapana budiriro”⁴³

Another participant from Manicaland province commented on the relationship between the traditional leadership and said this:

“Ah madzishe aya avatifariri zvachose vakati isu tinonetsa, nekuba zvipfuyo zvevanhu. Vanoti ngavarohwe vasungwe uye vadzingwe”⁴⁴.

⁴² Last week, there was a police vehicle making rounds in our area. This was after we heard there was a meeting with the District Development Coordinator. This is how Jambanja started. In fact, we thought this gathering was to tell us that we should leave this area

⁴³ “We are not people. We are not invited for community meetings and when we attend we are chased away. This has affected our children we now think drinking and prostitution is the way to go”

⁴⁴ “Traditional leaders don’t like us because there take us to criminals and cattle’s poachers and want us chased away or jailed by the police”

An Agricultural Extension officer said, “Isusu madhumeni hatidi nezvavo ava nekuti vakadzingwa kwavaigara nemhaka yekuba neuroyi asi votinyepera pano kuti tayirima kumapurazi kwataigara. Ndosaka tisingavatambire mumisangano yedu ye kurima”⁴⁵

Another participant said there are fights between hosts and IDPs and IDPs are beaten in the process. A security personnel from Manicaland province commented on the IDPs and said *“IDPs are a problem and we need to monitor them due to the bad reports we received from where they used to stay”*. Provision of security by government officials is critical and these one view suspicion on IDPs. Concerning the Agricultural Extension worker`s comment, it may be suggested that the government workers` role is to promote acceptance and solidarity in communities and not enhance negative practices.



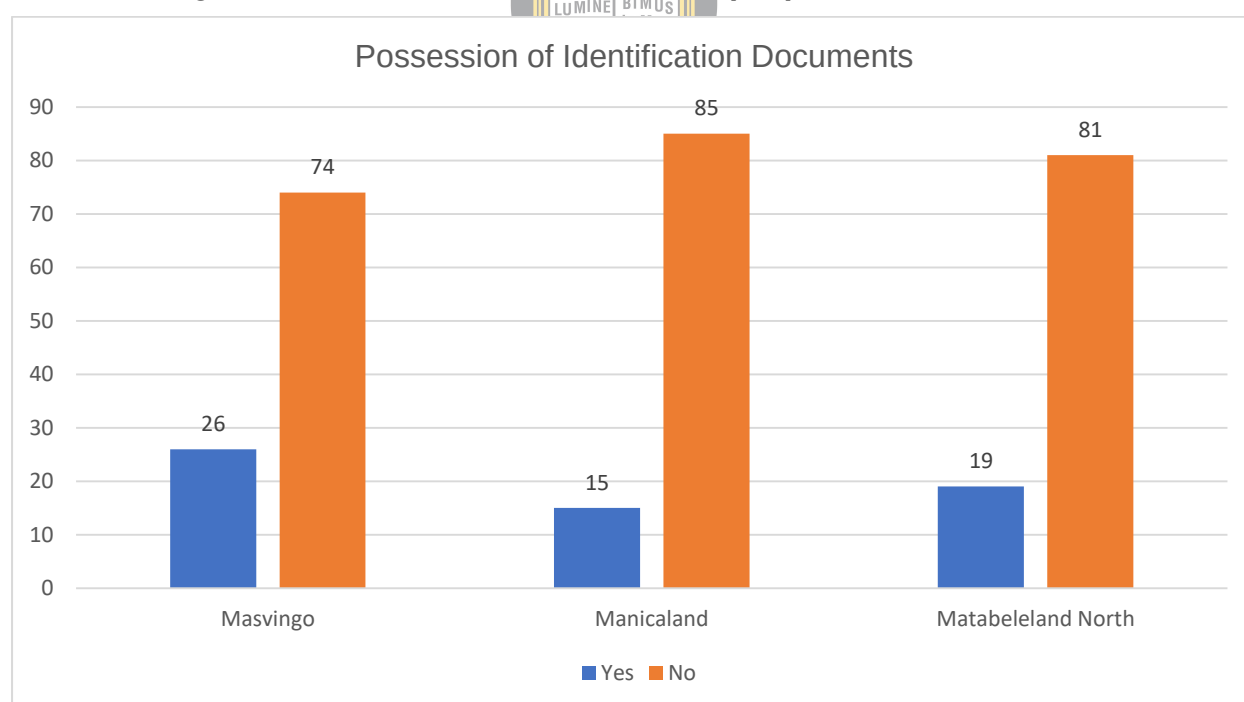
It was further noted that out of a sample size of 300 respondents a total of 225 (75%) respondents noted that they were not safe staying in their present area due to serious levels of insecurity and attributed this to marginalisation and high levels of exclusionary practices. The study further took note that lack of safety/security is a fertile ground of demonstration of refusal/unwillingness of the government in providing capabilities as well as lack of entitlement and sustainable livelihood interventions more so in IDPs that are not recognised and are viewed negatively on political lines.

⁴⁵ “Agricultural Extension officers hurt us and don’t invite or want us to attend their meetings, This means no farming inputs for us”

5.1.6 Lack of Identification Documents

According to the Zimbabwean laws and policies, possession of an identification card (ID) is a *de-facto* passport for accessing most of the social and economic services within the country. Therefore, in pursuit of this notion, the question sought to find out whether the respondents had the necessary IDs. In most cases the ID is used to access health, education facilities and obtaining other documents such as birth and death certificate for children. A majority of the respondents in all the three provinces indicated lack of possession of the IDs. Manicaland had the highest with 85%, Matabeleland North 81% and Masvingo 74%. This implies a violation of human rights that leads to lack of access in sustainable livelihood and results in exclusionary practices of the IDPs.

Figure 11 : Identification Documents (IDs)



N=300

The focus group discussions (FGDs) revealed that identification cards were lost or destroyed during the displacement cycle. Likewise, one youth said:

“Ngenxa yokuthi ngili Ndebele elavotela uMqabuko, uMugabe waqenda izihlobo zami nge Gukurahundi. Ngibonga uNkulukulu ngaphila kodwa akwamanje angila sithupha. Ngenxa yaloku kunzima ukuthi ngithole umsebenzi lokuya latshwa esibhedlela”⁴⁶.

One elderly man who was in his 80 years age group shared his contribution in the focus discussion that occurred in a farm that there continued to stay in Manicaland as the “displaced in place” and said:

“Achimwe, efe tinakulila pano papurazi. Abereki banga bamachoka ku Malawi. Nikalimbe kupeza chitupha chifukwa banalikutu sithili bamuno mu Zimabwe. Ndife ambili tirimbe vethupha antu otshokela ku Malawi naku Zambia.”⁴⁷



Another respondent mentioned that non-possession of IDs prevents people from getting employment as it was difficult to replace the IDs that were destroyed or lost during the internal displacement caused by Gukurahundi, Fast Track Land Reform Programme and Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order.

She said:

⁴⁶ Because I am a Ndebele who voted for Joshua Nkomo, Mugabe`s Gukurahundi massacred my relatives. I am grateful to the Lord that I survived however I lost in the process my identification cards and other important documents. As a result, I am not employed and cannot afford hospital fees”

⁴⁷ I grow up at the farm and my parents were from Malawi. We are many from Malawi, Zambia and have been denied access to get IDs because there take us to be foreigners yet Zimbabwe is the country that I know, grow and raised my family.

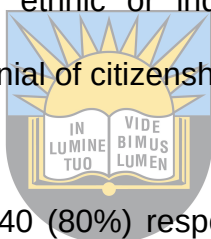
“Kunzima ukuthola isithupha kithi abantu abalahlikelwa yizithupha ngenxa ye Gukurahundi le njambanja. Ukungabi lesi thupha kwenza ukuthi singathole misebenzi enzo sinika imali yoku bhadala esikholo le simbedhlela”⁴⁸

The Matabeleland North victims of Gukurahundi attributed the non-acquiring of the IDs squarely on the government who have had a silent view on the Gukurahundi and hence pushed their problems to the periphery. On those affected by the Gukurahundi incident, the respondents noted that the deceased individuals were not given death certificates and descent burials and as such their descendants could not acquire the birth certificates hence, the IDs. This situation is likely to progress from one generation to the other. Some research has noted that Matabeleland region youths without IDs migrate illegally to settle in South Africa and Botswana for manual farm jobs (Mlambo, 2018). The respondents of Gukurahundi atrocities pleaded with government to issue them with IDs the way they have handled the victims of Cyclone Idai. According to the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UNOCHA) (2020), IDPs encounter obstacles in accessing food relief. This was worsened by the COVID19 lockdown whereby a majority failed to get food aid due to lack of IDs and were not registered as community members.

The IDs issue brings to play another variable discussed in FGDs about exercising of voting rights by IDPs. In Zimbabwe, an IDs is the bases for one to register to vote. The FGD revealed that mostly IDPs affected by Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order, Fast Track Land Reform Programme and Gukurahundi do not have

⁴⁸ “It’s difficult to access an ID especially to victims of Gukurahundi. As a result we fail to get employment and struggle to pay fees for our children and attend to hospital fees”

IDs because they were either destroyed or lost in the displacement cycle. The study engaged with participants who originated from outside Zimbabwe who had crossed the borders from the neighbouring countries in search for work in the farming sector. Chambati et al. (2018) posits that a number of farm workers originated from other SADC countries like Zambia, Mozambique and Malawi. It was established that an alien with an identification card is not allowed to vote because the identification card will be inscribed NC. The NC stands for non-citizenship. Therefore, IDPs born and bred in Zimbabwe and have never been to their original nations are an example of statelessness of the affected individuals. Extant literature also shows that citizenship rights often-equal access to voting, services and support systems of a government (Chu et al. 2019). Furthermore, ethnic or indigenous discrimination, language barriers, racism, cultural divide, denial of citizenship come into play.



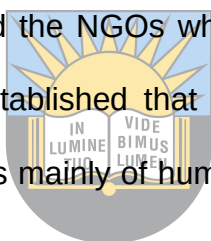
The sample recorded a total of 240 (80%) respondents that did not have IDs. As expressed by respondents on the importance of the ID, this is evidence that IDPs due to their non-recognition and lack of ID are automatically deprived basic capabilities, entitlements as suggested by Sen and Nussbaum. This also means that they tend to miss out on receiving agricultural inputs/seeds let alone acquisition of land to enable carrying out the sustainable livelihood interventions.

5.1.7 Benefits from other Programmes

The benefits from NGOs programming was in line with objective number 4 of the study. In almost all the FGDs participants echoed that:

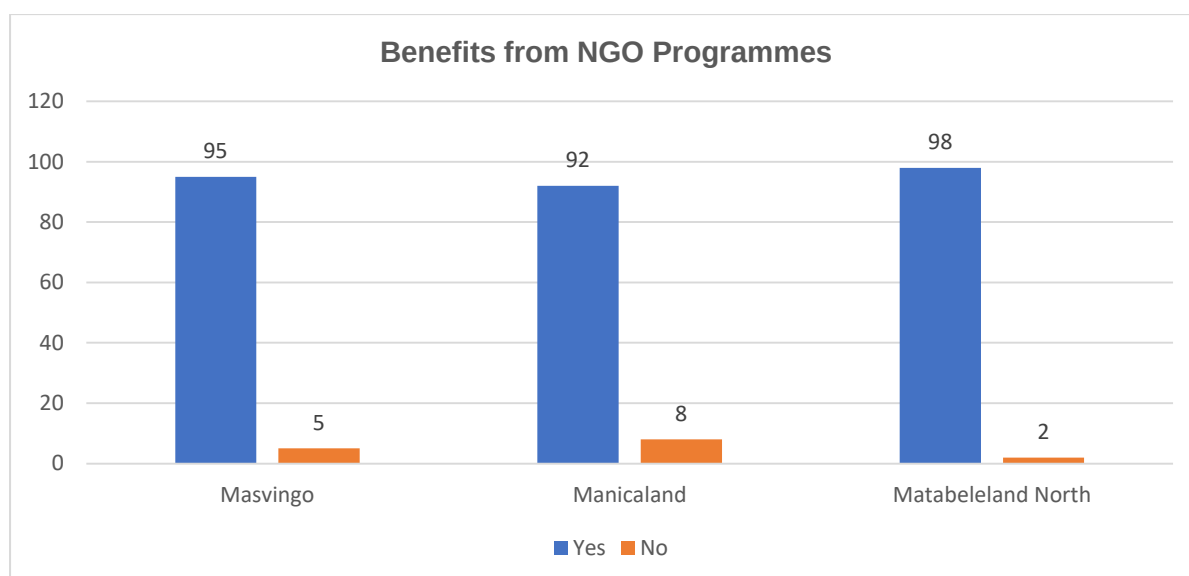
“Thank God we are alive all because of the assistance that we received from IOM, World Food Programme (WFP), Zimbabwe Community Development Trust (ZCDT), Norwegian Refugees Council (NRC) and Organisation for Rural Association for Progress (ORAP)”. ORAP and ZCDT are implementing partner for IOM and WFP. ORAP is based in Matabeleland North, NRC in Masvingo and ZCDT in Manicaland province.

The three provinces indicated a high level of support from NGOs. Figures show that 98% for Matabeleland North, 95% for Masvingo and 92% for Manicaland respondents benefited from support by the NGO. Overall, the majority at 285 (95%) of the respondents expressed that they received assistance from development partners. The respondents praised the NGOs while castigating the government for not assisting them. The study established that the assistance by NGO that was referred to by the respondents was mainly of humanitarian assistance and not long-term sustainable support.



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Figure 12 : Benefits from other programmes



N=300

A total of 15 (5%) respondents stated that they had received no assistance from either non-governmental organisations or the government. One member of the host community chastised non-governmental organisations for preferring to assist displaced communities at the expense of the host communities, despite the fact that the host communities are also vulnerable. The notion was supported by officials from local and provincial authorities, who observed that there was need for the non-governmental organisations to balance their assistance with those not displaced. According to Crilly, (2016) international best practise, development and humanitarian non-governmental organisations were violating the “Do No Harm principle”.

Information obtained from the focus group and verified through participatory observation noted that a number of the IDPs were staying and accommodated in brick houses in Mhondoro and Masvingo. The said houses were confirmed to have been constructed as a package of assistance by the non-governmental organisations on land that a new farmer had offered to demonstrate that IDPs are human that may integrate with host communities. The constructions of the houses were viewed in different perspective either by the host communities and/or the IDPs. The former viewed the move as a strategy to being left out of interventions facilitated by the non-governmental organisation while the latter, viewed it as assistance that perpetuated stigmatisation and a labelling tag.

According to the official the different type of assistance provided for IDPs by development partners perpetuated discrimination and negated the process of integration. As mentioned, “Do No Harm” principle should apply. To promote integration ordinary accommodation prevailing in the locality was to be used as a bench mark and the service be extended to a certain vulnerable percentage of host

communities as well. The work by the development partners is in a way enhancing IDPs capabilities, entitlements and promoting livelihood strategies. Development Partners expressed that during the Operation Restore Order, some of them were prevented to provide humanitarian services to IDPs. As indicated on Figure 6, the assistance from the NGOs seems equally distributed in all the three provinces as respondent scored Manicaland (92%), Matabeleland North (98%) and Masvingo (95%). However, Matabeleland North had a slight edge as the most disadvantaged area in Zimbabwe.

The below table is a consolidated summary of the findings from the field assessment in relation to the study dilemmas.

Table 7 : Findings from the field assessment



Research Study Conceptual Dilemma	Issues assessed	Results
Recognition dilemma	Are you originally from this area?	The study established that 228 (76%) were not from the area. One respondent said” <i>Ngivela eNkayi, ngeza lapha eMguza ngenxa yokutshaywa ngamasotsha ka Hulumende</i> ” (I come from Nkayi and come here after Gukurahundi killed members of the family).
	Timing of displacements.	The study noted that most individuals arrived during the period of the fast land reform programme that occurred in the

		period 2000 to 2004 and accounted for (53%) of the respondents. One respondent shared <i>“I remember it was the year 2000 when we voted for the referendum and later accused of voting for the opposition party. Later, our urban town Mutare was affected by the government programme of Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order. That was the year I was forced to move and settle in Rusape.”</i>
	Lack of Identification Documents  University of Fort Hare Together in Excellence	According to the study 240 (80%) had no IDs as there were destroyed during forced migration? A youth shared this experience <i>“Because I am a Ndebele who voted for Joshua Nkomo, Mugabe’s Gukurahundi massacred my relatives. I am grateful to the Lord that I survived however I lost in the process my identification cards and other important documents. As a result, I am not employed and cannot afford hospital fees”</i>
	Reasons for displacement	The study established the reasons for internal displacement as fast track land reform programme (47%) Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order (37%) among others. political violence and Gukurahundi atrocities. A land reform victim said <i>“I am sick now and cannot even afford to get treatment and look after my family yet during my</i>

		<i>days as a supervisor at a farm I could work for myself. My life become hell after the government killed my white employer and took over the farm and chased us”</i>
	Issues of conflicts 	The research established a number of causes, chief competition of resources, political differences and lack of security of tenure. A lady had this to share: <i>“We struggle to fetch water from the Borehole. The gate to the Borehole is locked and when open, only persons who produce ruling party cards are allowed to collect water. However, those without party cards pay cash (1\$) per 20 litre container. I am a young lady not working and have not bathed for a week now.”</i>

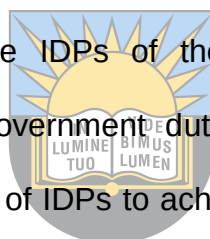
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5.2 SUMMARY

The chapter presented the findings of this study based on data obtained from the research sample in the three provinces. Data from the three provinces was analysed and indicated more of similarities rather than differences in terms of the non-recognition of internal displacement regarding themes such as origin of respondents, timing of their settlement, possession of IDs and types of conflicts. However, a major difference was noted on the reasons for displacements and the magnitude among the provinces. For instance, while almost all causes of internal displacement took places happened in the provinces, Manicaland was highly affected by the Fast Track Land Reform Programme while, Matabeleland was affected by Operation

Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order and also the Gukurahundi atrocities that only affected this province.

The findings point to the fact that there is non-recognition of internal displacement by the government. The implication is that the originality of respondent shows how movements occurred in the provinces and those movements are being denied their rights, capabilities, entitlements and livelihood activities. On the same note, the findings indicate that government policies and interventions were responsible for the Fast Track Land Reform Programme, Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order and Gukurahundi. As a result, the implication is the denial of interventions, as government continued to deprive IDPs of their rights because of their non-recognition status. While it is government duty to uphold capability, their non-recognition of IDPs implies failure of IDPs to achieve their human capabilities in the process.



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The study established that the effects for displacement which ranged from non-originality, food assistance, and timing of displacements, conflicts, security and safety and lack of IDs are among the services that internal displacement members need most but have been denied access by the government. On the contrary, the national and international policies such as the Kampala Convention and the Constitution of Zimbabwe oblige the government to provide all the services as a moral and legal duty to IDPs. The capability, entitlement and sustainable livelihood and service recognition is lacking to IDPs. As such, due to lack of recognition of IDPs, the capital elements (natural, physical, economic, human and social).of

livelihood that are supposed to be provided by the state are not. Also, the data illuminates that due to non-recognition of the IDPs by the government, the IDPs in the provinces of Matabeleland North, Masvingo and Manicaland have challenges in attainment of their freedom, human capabilities and self-development as a whole. Therefore, the implication is that the IDPs rights and entitlements are deprived and limited. The findings also noted that development partners were assisting the IDPs wherever possible. In this regard, the study posits a vigorous advocacy by civic societies in the study provinces for purposes of dealing with the recognition dilemma.

The next chapter deals with the second study's dilemma of empirical.



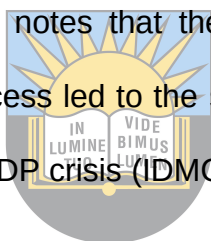
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CHAPTER SIX

EMPIRICAL DILEMMA: ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

6.0 INTRODUCTION

The empirical dilemma as discussed in chapter one (see item 1, p. 3 addresses the necessary information (numbers, areas from and to) and the scale of internal displacement. In fact, such information is needed for planning purposes after knowing who the internally displaced are and their numbers. In Zimbabwe, as discussed in the previous chapter on the recognition dilemma, the government's non-recognition state on IDPs has some effects on the empirical dilemma. Literature written on the Zimbabwe context notes that there is insufficient data on internal displacement. This has in the process led to the state to choose not to recognise or thereby take responsibility for the IDP crisis (IDMC, 2022).



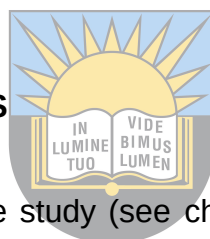
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As such, this chapter brings to light the importance of information/data collection in view of the government's inadequate attention to the empirical dilemma. The chapter will provide the demographic information of the IDPs and make demographic IDP comparison of the province.

In re-capping, the entitlement, capabilities and sustainable livelihood approaches play a role to frame the empirical dilemma. According to the capability theoretical approach, the Human Development Index (HDI) is an essential element for the approach. For instance, HDI as an essential element for capability approach calls up the empirical dilemma to provide the necessary data for purposes of calculating the

HDI. The nexus between recognition and empirical dilemmas are at play that the IDPs are not recognised due to no empirical data collected. Also, the neglect by the Zimbabwe state to collect such data reflects on its refusal to recognise that there is even a need to do so. Again, the mere talk of limited capabilities and deprived entitlements of internal displacement needs quantification hence the reason why empirical dilemma remains critical. Furthermore, empirical dilemma relates to yet another exclusion dilemma to be discussed in the next chapter. Empirical dilemma shows exclusion of fundamental human right elements as a result of insufficient data collection. Lastly, the implementation of sustainable interventions requires critical assessment towards redress of data collection.

6.1 PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS



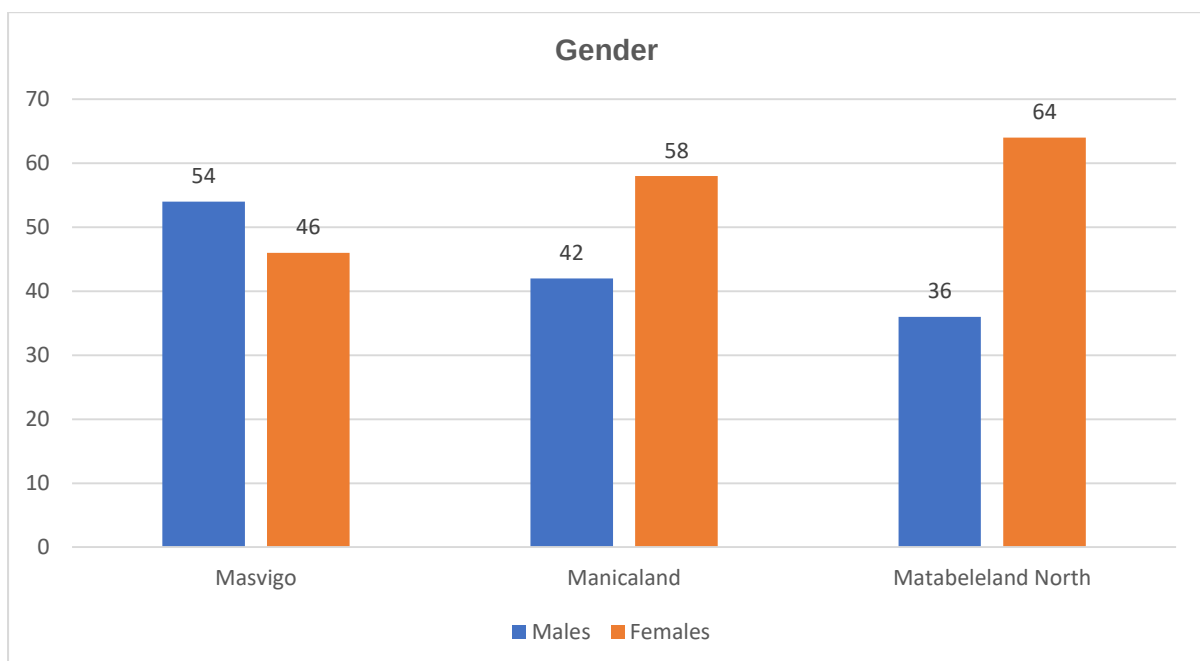
Congruent to the objectives of the study (see chapter 1, item 1.4), the chapter will provide the bio-graphical information of the IDPs through diagrams and an analysis of the same. The bio-graphical information presented below represents a sample of respondents in the three provinces of Matabeleland North, Manicaland and Masvingo. The survey does not in any way generalise, or use inferential statistics but simply gives data on who the individuals interviewed in the three provinces. The study takes note that only a National survey qualifies for such a task, which however is not possible within the PhD time framework. A comparative analysis of the three provinces (Masvingo, Manicaland and Matabeleland North) will be done and include respondent's experiences on the necessity of information/ data collection as well and get their voice.

6.2 EMPIRICAL DILEMMA

6.2.1 Gender Analysis

According to Tabassum et al. (2021) the gender plays an important and functional role so as to understand and dissect the gender undercurrents of a particular view in the discourse. In this regard, gender implies the social construction of differences of sex.

Figure 13 : Gender Analysis



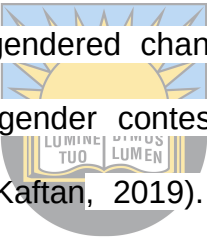
N=300

The presented data on gender indicated that only the areas interviewed in Matabeleland North had the highest females at 64%, followed by Manicaland and Masvingo at 58% and 46%, respectively. Also, these figures reflect on the researched population in the selected districts that is Mguza in Matabeleland North province, Masvingo in Masvingo province and Makoni in Manicaland province. On the other hand, Masvingo has the highest males at 54%, followed by Manicaland at

42%. Matabeleland has the lowest number of males at 36%. In fact, there are more females in Matabeleland North and Manicaland and more males in Masvingo province in the selected study areas which in any case do not represent the entire respective selected provinces. However, for the entire sample there were 168 female respondents who constituted a 56% of the respondents and 132 males who represented 44% of the respondents who participated in the study.

The study established that more females as compared to males comprised a larger population of IDPs, an indication that women are highly vulnerable to internal displacement. Taha and Sijbrandij, (2021) supports this notion and comments that women are strongly affected as IDP and highly vulnerable than men. The World Vision (2020) argues that women roles change from traditional roles (child bearing) to bread winner of the family after displacement provided that the sole providers were men before displacement. As a result, women become *de-facto* heads of household families. These statistics imply that the women rights and the GBV in the three provinces are a cause for concern and women deprived of their human rights. However, the significant 132 (44%) percentage of men who participated and responded to the questionnaire also gave a good account and description of issues pertaining to the marginalisation of IDPs in this instance. The provinces are border areas with South Africa, Botswana, and Mozambique. The ratio for females and males in Matabeleland North is 64% to 36%, hence ZIMSTAT (2022) observes that most males in Matabeleland North leave the country for greener pastures elsewhere soon after completing their Grade 7 or secondary education.

In line with the conceptual framework of the study, the notion of entitlement alludes to the notion that, in most cases, women are susceptible to human rights violations. It is the responsibility of the state to ensure that the human rights-based concept is fully implemented on IDPs in order to avoid females being disproportionately affected, as they constitute the majority of IDPs in Zimbabwe. Congruent to the concept of the exclusion, as illustrated in the theoretical framework chapter, the women and the girl and boy child are excluded from societies and constitute huge numbers of IDPs, as produced by the research and are deprived of their capabilities, entitlements and sustainable livelihoods.



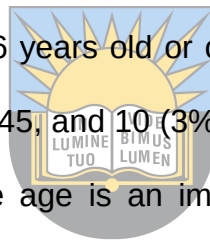
Another view point is that the gendered changes are not only as a result of displacement but associated to gender contestations on social, economic and political space (Moghadam and Kaftan, 2019). In that discourse of changes in gender, the empirical dilemma brings the question of measurement and asks who knows if the change occurred before, during and after displacement and the metrics applied without previous data information. The study advocates for a robust gender tool in implementation of gender interventions. This will assist to understand and redress the impact of gender on internal displacement and the strategies to find solutions that will promote gender equity and equality.

6.2.2 Age Groups

Age of the participants in any research pays a crucial role as one is able to gain in-depth and rich information that is diversified for the different age groups concerning the phenomenon under research. The findings of the study showed that a majority of the participants belonged to the age group of 46 years plus with Matabeleland

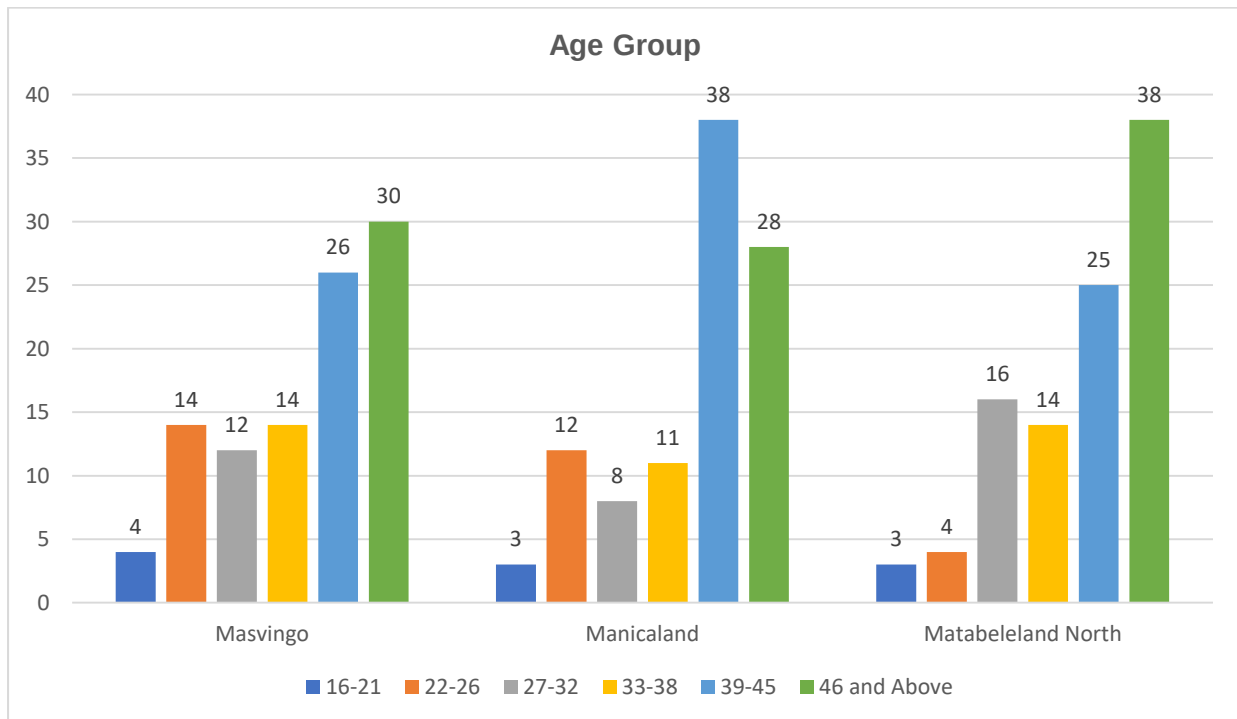
North having 38%, Manicaland 28% and Masvingo 30%. The second is the 39-45 age group. Topping on this group is Manicaland with 38%, Masvingo 26% and the last Matabeleland North with 25%. The 16-21 age group fared lowly in all the provinces with Masvingo having the highest at 4% and the other two provinces were both at 3%, respectively. For the 22-26 age group Masvingo and Manicaland recorded 14% and 12%, respectively with Matabeleland North at 4%. The figures shared are reflective of the study areas and in particular the individuals surveyed and not representative of the respective provinces.

Therefore, in summary, for the entire sample, according to the age groupings, 96 (32% of the respondents) were 46 years old or older, 89 (30%) of the respondents were between the ages of 39 and 45, and 10 (3%) of the respondents were between the ages of 16 and 21. Because age is an important factor in the displacement discourse, the study enunciates that the older population, typically above the age of 39, are vulnerable due to their physical weakness, cognitive issues and easy targets for displacements, and as such recorded a total of 185 representing (62%) of the respondents.



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Figure 14 : Age Groups



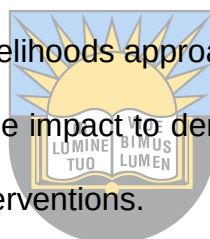
N=300



The elderly tends to be vulnerable to displacement due to their advanced age and physical stature. On the other hand, the youths who participated in the research brought to play another diverse concept: that displacements are usually passed from generation to generation, and thus there is a high inclination that these youths will either encounter another internal displacement in the near future or continue to face the very same challenges that the older IDPs have encountered. The intergenerational displacement occurs in a number of ways. The sharing of experiences on the happenings of the displacement from one generation to the other. For instance, Gukurahundi occurred in 1983-1987 but the current generation tells it as if it's happening now. This also, implies that what is learnt may perpetuate the displacement cycle. In most cases as witnessed in the households of IDPs points to the fact of poor inheritance that will be passed to other generations to come. The

participation of youth, both male and female, added a new dimension with regard to the perceptions of the knowledge and aspects of marginalisation practices of the IDPs.

In line with the concept of exclusion, a monopoly by power groups, it is the view of the study that the younger generations as compared to the older generation are the powerful individuals in society, manipulating the weaker groups to safeguard their space from being internally displaced. In this case, the study alludes to the fact that the older generation experiences more internal displacements than the younger generation due to their vulnerability and weakness. Thus, it may be suggested that the capabilities and sustainable livelihoods approaches may be implemented but, the elderly in the provinces will lack the impact to demand more so, they are usually not active participants to livelihood interventions.



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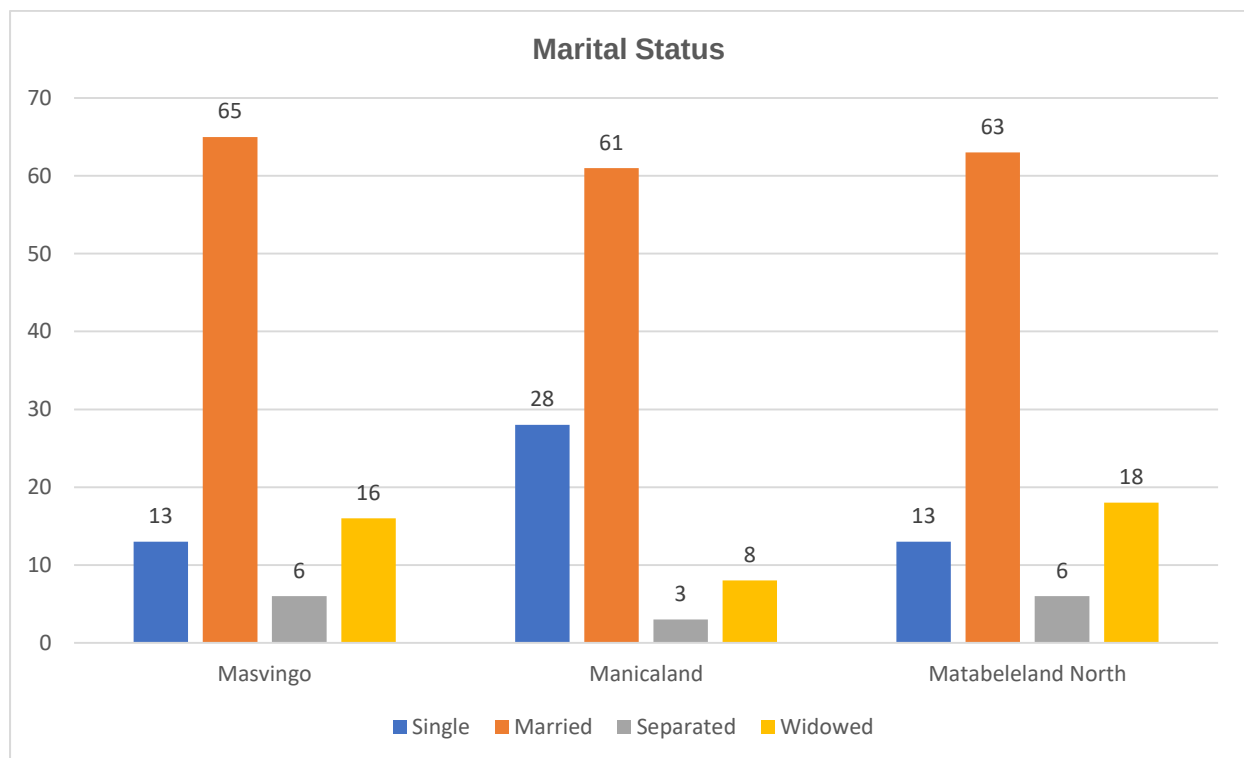
6.2.3 Marital Status

The next category addresses the marital status of the respondents.

Figure 15 shows that a majority of the participants in the study were married. Masvingo had the highest respondents that were married at 65% and Matabeleland North had 63% of those who indicated that there are married. Manicaland showed that 61% of the respondents were married. Furthermore, the results showed that some of the respondents were widowed. For instance, Matabeleland North had 18%, followed by Masvingo with 16% and 8% for Manicaland respondents that were

widowed. There were more respondents that were single in Manicaland at 18%. Masvingo and Matabeleland North had an equal number of 18% of respondents that were unmarried. Respondents who indicated that there were separated were 6% for Matabeleland North and Masvingo while Manicaland had 3 %. In terms of the entire sample, the majority of the respondents (189, or 63% of those polled) were married while, those that were not married were 54 (18%), the separated accounted for 15 (5%) of the respondents and a considerable number 42 (14%) of participating respondents were widowed.

Figure 15 : Marital Status



N=300

In the African context, marital status is synonymous with a fully-fledged family with a number of children. As a conclusion, this could therefore imply that the displacements that occurred were significantly high in numbers as a result of families

and children being affected in the process of internal displacements. In this regard because of the inadequacy of data collection systems in Zimbabwe due to state refusal may be difficult to ascertain the number of IDP families.

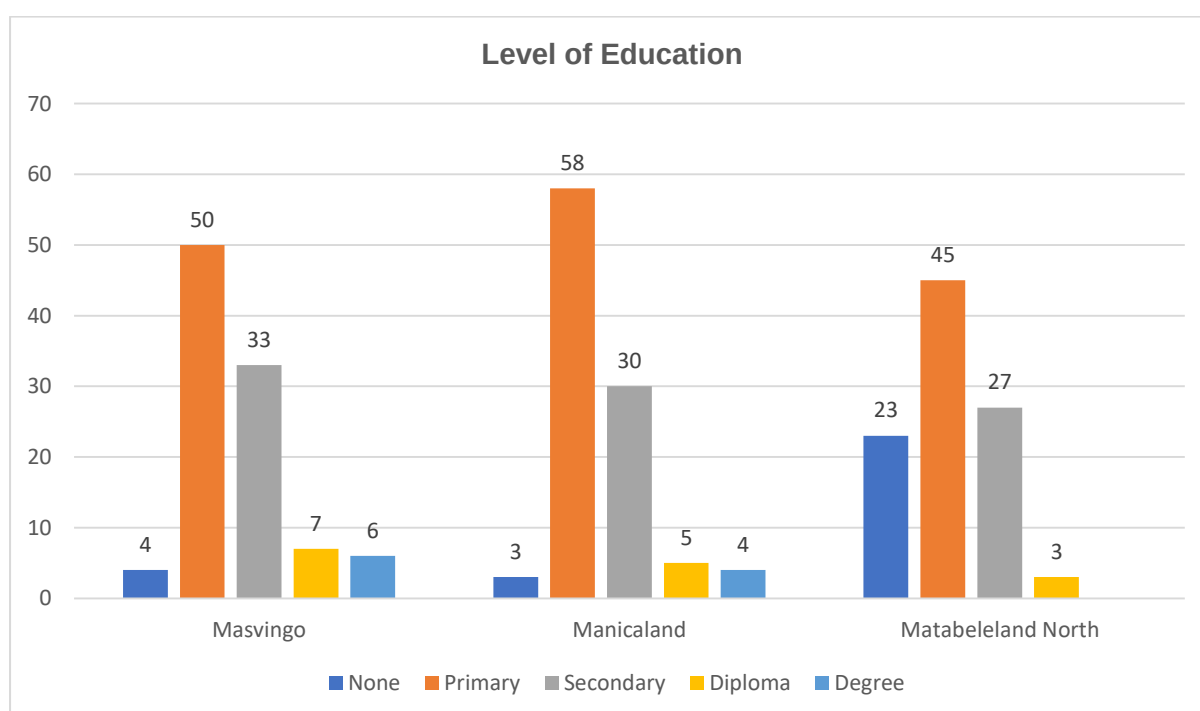
According to Zimbabwean population statistics (2020), a family has an average of seven members in a household. Based on this calculation of census records, the figure reflects about one thousand three hundred and twenty-three (1,323) individuals affected the selected study areas. The singles made up 54 (18%) of the respondents, while the separated made up 15 (5%) of the respondents. As indicated in Figure 15, a considerable number (42, or 14%) of the participating respondents were widowed. This large number of widowed people supports the theory advanced in Operation Restore Order/Operation Murambatsvina and the Fast Track Land Reform Programme that a number of people died during the displacements because the process was perceived as military or forceful (Mangongera, 2014). The capability, entitlement and sustainable livelihood were deprived to all individuals in the marital status group.

6.2.4 Level of Education

In terms of education, according to the Zimbabwe National Statistics (2020), Zimbabwe is regarded as a highly literate country on the African continent. In terms of primary education all the three provinces indicated favourable results. The highest was Manicaland followed by Masvingo with 58% and 50% respectively. Matabeleland North indicated that 45% of the respondents had primary education. Secondary education fared well in all the provinces. Masvingo maintained the lead at

33% and Manicaland at 30%. As the least province with the respondents that had attained primary education, Matabeleland North maintained the least position again in terms of secondary education at 27%. The status core for Matabeleland North remained at degree level with Masvingo indicating 6%, Manicaland 4% and Matabeleland 0 %.

Figure 16 : Level of Education

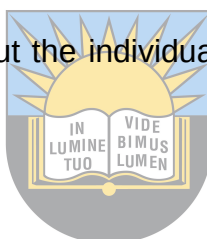


N-300

Figure 16 shows that, generally, the Zimbabwean population is highly educated and literate. The majority of respondents had attained at least primary level education, constituting 153 (51%). The respondents with secondary-level education made up 90 (30%) of the respondents. There were at least 27 (or 9%) of the respondents with a diploma and a degree, respectively. Indeed, the level of education vary in the study area due to the different forms of displacement and the locations of displacement.

For example, farm workers communities displaced by the Fast Track land Reform Programme would generally have far lower levels of education than among those displaced from the urban areas as a result of operation Murambatsvina/ Operation restore Order. Also, urban displacements would have higher level of education than among the areas affected with Gukurahundi in Matabeleland North with poor education facilities.

One therefore, argues that the utilisation of such human resources of IDPs in the communities could be an indication of potential entrepreneurship and a source of viability in the community which can lead to sustainable livelihood. Indeed, different forms of displacement occurred but the individuals displaced still have the required level of education.



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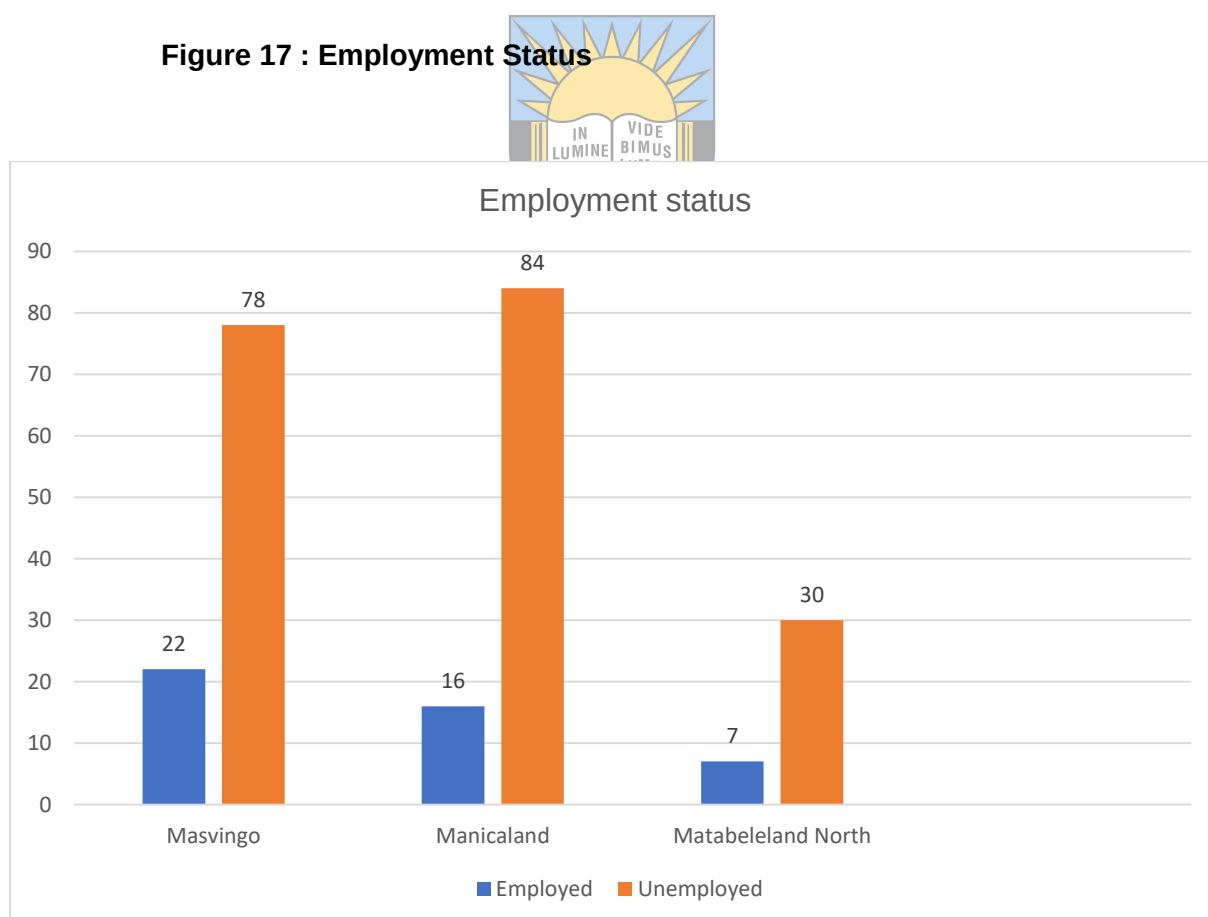
6.2.5 Employment Status

One of the indicators of quality of life and substantial value in human development is employment. The employment status in the study will assist to gauge the status of exclusion of IDPs. Most states in Southern African Development Community (SADC), inclusive of Zimbabwe are characterised by high unemployment. The study areas in the provinces of Masvingo, Manicaland and Matabeleland North indicated high levels of unemployment. The province that recorded the highest unemployment rate at 93% was Matabeleland North. Manicaland and Masvingo's unemployment rate was 84% and 78% respectively. In line with the study's approaches that is capability, entitlement and sustainable livelihood it implies that the IDPs in the three

provinces are denied these entitlement and thus will not be able to live a good life of their own.

As indicated in the figure 17, the majority 255 (85%) of respondents were not employed. Attributed to this high unemployment rate was the non-possession of identity cards (IDs) by most of the IDPs that were lost in the process of displacement and further aggravated by the marginalisation of the IDPs by the host communities and the local authorities. On the other hand, about 45 (15%) of the respondents registered as employed. The type of employment for the respondents constituted as house maids, cattle herders and the famous “*maricho*” implying small manual cultivating jobs during the farming season.

Figure 17 : Employment Status



N=300

Furthermore, the current non-performing economy of Zimbabwe plays a major role to the emerging variables on employability. Accordingly, employment contributes to the survival of families. It was highlighted in the focus groups that some women resorted to prostitution to earn a living and compensate for their losses which happened during the displacement period.

One single mother from Masvingo province shared:

“Moda kuti tirame nei hapana mabasa uye tine vana. Zvirinani kushandisa muviri wangu wandakapiwa naMwari kuraramisa vana vangu. Hurumende yakauraya hupenyu hwedu”.⁴⁹



In another focus group, a youth simply put it like this:

“Mina angila ndaba manje ngithini akula msebenzi ngiya gwaza umuntu ngithole imali yotshwala”⁵⁰.

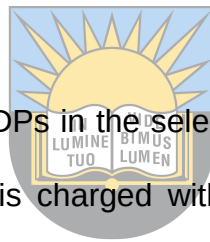
According to presented data in the figure 85% of respondents indicated that there were not employed compared to 15%. Such a huge percentage of unemployment implies exclusion in terms of constitutive significance (or inherent importance) and instrumental prominence (or consequences) as expressed by Sen. The absence of

⁴⁹ “How do you expect us to survive, when there are no jobs, yet we have children to care and look after? It’s better and noble to use my God given body and provide food and fees for my children. The Government destroyed our livelihoods”.

⁵⁰ “I don’t care, even if am unemployed, I will just kill anyone and get cash for my beer”.

employment experienced by the IDPs in Zimbabwe leads to massive deprivations as a result of income poverty.

The IDPs in Zimbabwe are lagging behind the host communities in many respects. In most cases their deprivation related to employment as well as education is fertile ground to ignite another conflict in future. Besides, it is now common that people around the world are demanding an end to discrimination of all forms and advocating for equity and equality (Collins, 2021). According to the UNDP (2018, p. 38), *Humanity Divided*: argues that “income inequality needs to be moderated to have meaningful equality of opportunity, and then people could start their lives from about equal starting points”.



The findings on the treatment of IDPs in the selected areas of study are a cause for serious concern for a state that is charged with the protection of its citizens. As illustrated above the research concepts that is capability, entitlement and sustainable livelihood as well as study's dilemmas framed the analysis of the attributes. The person's attributes were related to sex, age, marital status, education, and employment status. What then will be the treatment of such a group with already unfavourable conditions to their persons as IDPs?

The below table is a consolidated summary of the findings from the field assessment in relation to the empirical dilemma.

Table 8 : Findings from the field assessment

Research Study Conceptual Dilemma	Issues assessed	Results
Empirical dilemma	Gender	There were 168 female respondents who constituted 56% of the respondents and 132 males who represented 44% of the respondents. The more females as compared to males for IDPs is an indication that women are highly vulnerable to internal displacement.
	Age	The elderly age group was the majority at 185 (62%). The study enunciates that the older population, typically above the age of 39, is a symptom that the older generation is vulnerable and thus easily targeted to displacements.
	Marital Status	The study established that the majority of the respondents (189, or 63% of those polled) were married. On the other hand, those that were unmarried were 54 (18%), the separated accounted for 15 (5%) of the respondents and a considerable number 42 (14%) of participating respondents were widowed.
	Level of Education	The study supports literature written on the Zimbabwean context on education that the Zimbabwean population is highly educated and literate. The majority of respondents had attained at least primary level education, constituting 153 (51%). However, the question to pose is why an educated and literate government would fail to recognise IDPs.

	Employment Status	The fact that the majority 255 (85%) of respondents were not employed is a cause for concern as this has a negative impact on the study's theoretical approaches.
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6.3 SUMMARY

The chapter provided a consolidated demographic information on gender, age, academic qualification and employment status of IDPs in the selected three provinces. However, as alluded earlier on, the bio information provided was not to generalise and use inferential statistics on the internal displacement discourse. Its purpose is only to describe the statistics and make a comparison of the three provinces. This is to support the importance of empirical dilemma in terms of know-how on the numbers, measurement and reporting systems.



The data revealed that displacement disproportionately affects women, with a greater number of them (women) being displaced as compared to men. Also, men are more likely to die during displacement process as they at times resist. Also, the results suggest that elderly IDPs are overrepresented among the IDPs, suggesting that older individuals are disproportionately affected by displacement, with long term effects. On the other hand, those of middle age were identified and the implication was that due to bad economy in Zimbabwe there are not contributors to the GNP due to their displacement status. As alluded, the GNP needs capability and thus implies that the human well-being of IDPs in the study provinces of Matabeleland North, Manicaland and Masvingo are affected. More so, it may imply that there have no source of income to provide and sustain a livelihood intervention. The majority of the IDPs in the study provinces have primary education and lack development of the

human capital for progress in their lives. Furthermore, it could be deduced from the study that there are more married individuals. However, despite staying alone in the locality while their spouses are in search for greener pastures, they continue to struggle on the attainment of their rights as IDPs. However, their lives are not supported with capabilities, entitlements and livelihood activities by the state. The government poor IDP data collection results in the failure to measure the HDI remains a critical component of the capability approach as well as measurement of livelihood interventions.

Also, the notion advanced by Moghadam (2019) that social, economic and political differences of gender. The study data collected point to the fact that internal displacement affects men, women, youths and children differently from one another. This assertion is tested with the provision of detailed empirical dilemma information before, during and after displacements. Addressing the empirical dilemma is critical to substantiate the non-provision and deprivation capabilities, entitlement, sustainable livelihood as well as, the non-recognition and exclusion of internal displacements individuals.

The next chapter addresses the exclusion dilemma.

CHAPTER SEVEN

EXCLUSION DILEMMA: ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

7.0 INTRODUCTION

The last dilemma is the exclusion that was defined in chapter one (see item 1, p. 4). Exclusion dilemma refers to side lining, negative attitude, non-treatment and no concern of IDPs. Usually, exclusion is across all the facets of development affecting IDPs such as failure to recognise their basic human rights. Taking account of the theoretical frameworks used namely: capability, entitlement and sustainable livelihood, the chapter will apply the exclusion dilemma to explore what exactly the IDPs are excluded from. The emerging themes leading to the exclusion of the IDPs as a result of the responsible authority will be analysed and at the end presented using a table that is indicating the basic socio economic rights that the IDPs are excluded from.

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As alluded to earlier on, the capability approach concentrates on the aspects of the provision of basic services to enhance an individual's freedom. It is at this point in time that the approach reveals the forms of services that IDPs are excluded from. The exclusion of the basic services entails: education, income, health, civic engagement, and extension services. In the same vein, entitlement works closely with the capability approach on the basic services that policies and law give as a right to all citizens. However, the exclusion of the IDPs renders the rights provisions and entitlements of right to education and health as an example a non-event. Lastly, the sustainable livelihood theory applies different and holistic capitals of natural,

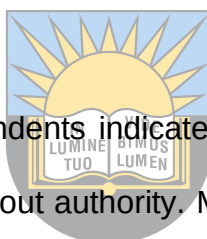
economic, physical, human, and social. The application of capitals reveals all the social, economic, political and environmental aspects that IDPs are intentionally segregated from by the government. Below are the emerging themes on the exclusion dilemma.

7.1 EXCLUSION DILEMMA

The resources and services that IDPs are presumed to be excluded from by the Zimbabwean government are land settlement, access to farming, security, health, education and civic participation. Below is the analyses.

7.1.1 Permission to settle?

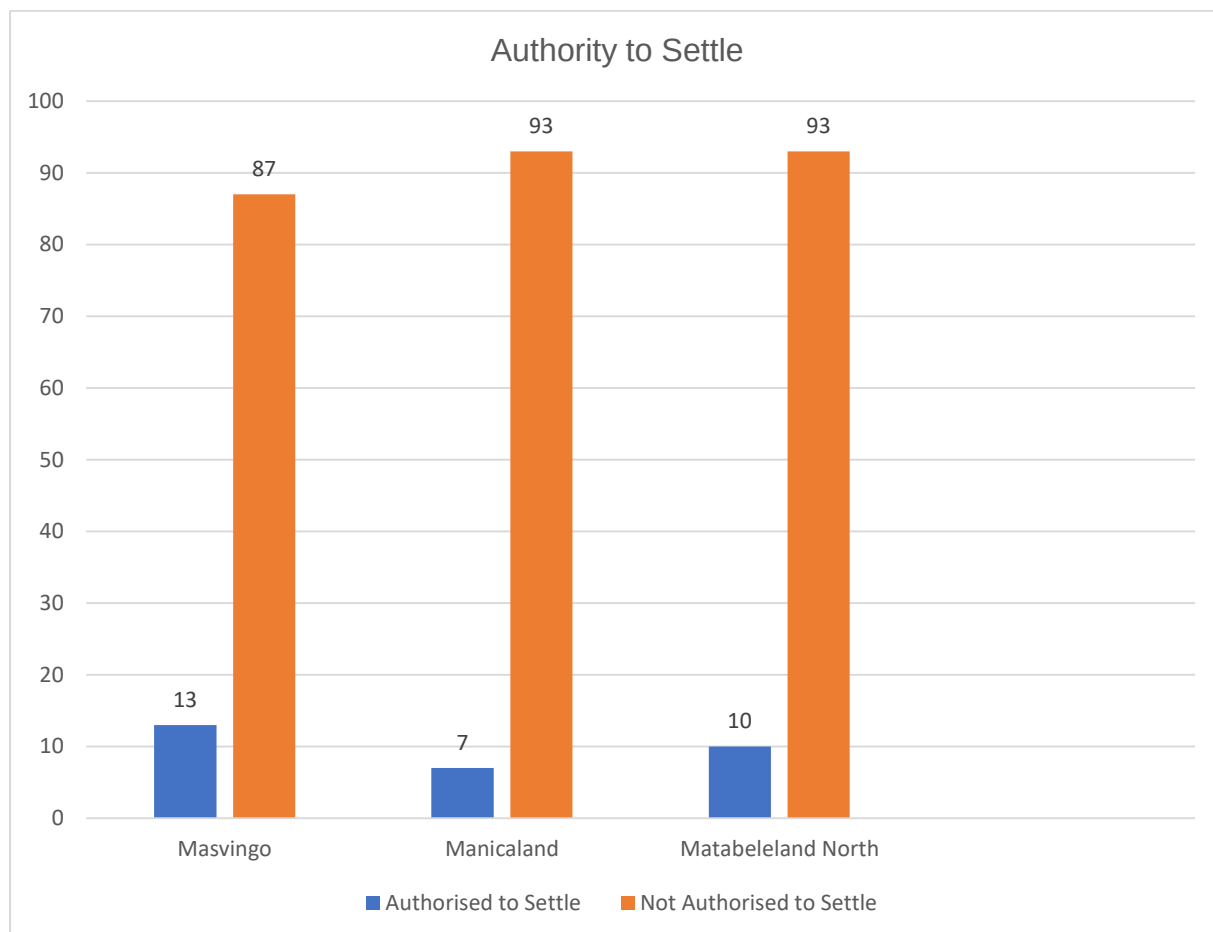
Across the three provinces respondents indicated high numbers of individuals who had settled in the study areas without authority. Manicaland had the highest number of respondents at 93% followed by Matabeleland North at 90%. Whereas, Masvingo had 87%. On the other hand, the statistics of those who indicated having permission to settle were low. However, Masvingo indicated the highest with 13%, followed by Matabeleland North and Manicaland at 10% and 7%, respectively. As indicated in Figure 18, of the 300 respondents, 270 (90%) indicated that they had no official permission to settle in the villages or surrounding areas as IDPs, with 30 (10%) claiming to have been authorised by the authorities to settle in the area or villages. As many as 270 (90%) expressed the view that they had no time to seek permission as they were running away and simply looking for space to shelter and settle. In addition to not having permission, the respondents reported that the authorities looked down on them and used segregation principles of preventing them from attending developmental meetings and registration of agricultural inputs. Those with



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authority, are presumably hosts and some IDPs affected by the Tokwe-Mukosi Dam construction in Masvingo.

Figure 18 : Authority to settle

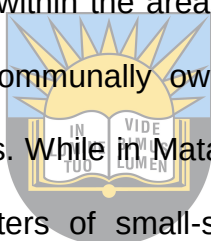


N=300

The study ascertained with authorities that no permission was granted to the IDPs to settle apart from those settled by the government on the Mukosi-Mutokwe dam construction project in Masvingo province. As a result of this assessment, the researcher discovered that the process of official authorization took too long, especially given that the internal displacements occurred all-round the year 2000. This delay was indicative of a serious lack of security of tenure on the part of IDPs and a cause for marginalisation by the surrounding community members due to the

delay in officially allocating land to them. These findings resonate with the Kampala declaration which revealed a lack of serious political will on the part of the government to protect the IDPs. This aspect of authority to settle the IDPs officially addresses the study's objective number 4 on policy formulation. As postulated in the capability, entitlements and sustainable theory, the IDPs are denied and deprived these basic essentials and lack livelihood due to non-availability of space that the government excludes particularly meant for IDPs.

In addition, the non-possession of authorization documents inflicted a sense of lack of security of tenure on the part of the IDPs. In Manicaland and Masvingo provinces, some of the IDPs illegally settled within the areas regarded as communal property, such as the pastures that are communally owned by the communities for their domestic animals as well as, fields. While in Matabeleland North province, the IDPs mostly settled within the perimeters of small-scale mine workers. Conflicts, as previously stated, arise as a result of a scarcity and competition of resources.



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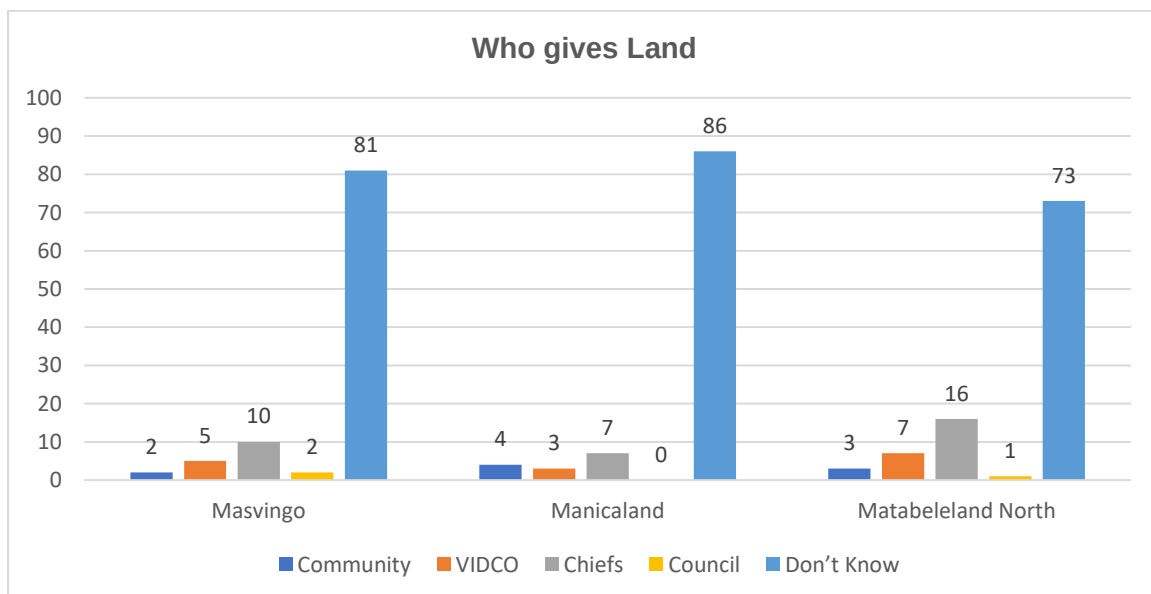
Resultantly, this state of affairs rendered the IDPs as subjects of marginalisation, victimization, and social and economic exclusion by the host communities and the authorities. During the data collection phase a majority of the IDPs displayed a high level of honesty as they laid out their facts and pleaded for help from the leadership of the country. Given the number of years since 2000, one would have assumed that affected individuals would have long obtained the necessary documents, discarded the label of IDPs, and been integrated into communities. Finally, this clearly shows the lack of political will by the government of Zimbabwe in line with the international

IDP treaties they sign. This aspect highlights and raises concerns about the level of exclusion.

7.1.2 Who gives Land?

In Zimbabwe, as in all other African countries, land is a very vital source of fixed assets because everything is built upon it. For example, in Zimbabwe, as in some other African states, the liberation struggle was fought on the premises of regaining the land. Munemo (2022) asserts that in Zimbabwe, the Communal Lands Act (1982) is operational. The Act vests ownership of communal lands in the President and further notes that the President owns the land in benign trust for the inhabitants as per Section 4 of the Act. The Communal Act (1982), gives the Rural District Council (RDC) powers to allocate the land or, rather, to permit individuals to settle through the traditional leadership structure in collaboration with the village development committees (VIDCOs). Respondents were asked who allocated them the land where they are currently residing.

Figure 19 : Who gives Land



N=300

Figure 19 revealed that the population in the three provinces do not know the institution that is responsible for land allocation. For example in Manicaland and Masvingo respondents indicated that 86% and 81% respectively that they did not know who allocated land. Matabeleland North had 73%. Despite lack of knowledge some of the respondents noted that the Chief had the right to allocate land. Thus, in support of the Chief allocating land the responses were: Matabeleland North had 16%, Masvingo had 10% and Manicaland had, 7%. The other sources of institutions such as VIDCOs and WARDCOs who allocated land were also mentioned in the three provinces though by a significant number.



The majority of the 240 respondents (80%) indicated that they were not given land officially by any responsible authority but just settled as there was no place to settle. Likewise, the mere fact that no one has removed them since their settlement has made them claim the land ownership, despite the fact that the land tenure system does not allow communal land ownership (Communal Lands Act, 1982). Generally, most of the respondents found it difficult to claim total land ownership because no one offered the land to settle. Those who claimed to have official documents of settlement were mainly members of host communities. As a result, the chiefs and VIDCOs were noted to have allocated 33 (11%) and 15 (5%) respectively to host communities and those affected by Tokwe-Mukosi dam construction project.

As alluded earlier, in the introduction the sustainable livelihood approach reveals what the governance system is excluding and in this case is the land space for settlement of internal displacement. Furthermore, lack of land space denies IDPs

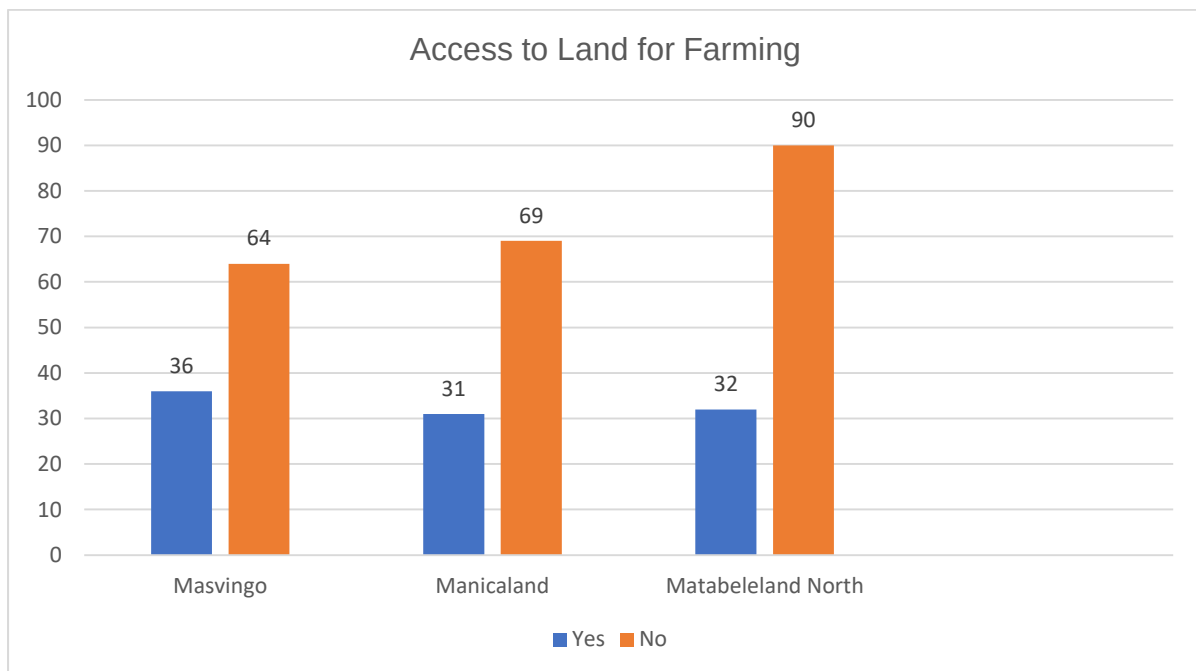
their capabilities to work and change their lives and in the process they are denied their entitlements as enshrined in the Supreme Law of the Land, the Zimbabwean Constitution. Perhaps, the ambiguous exclusion of the `stranger` theory described by the analogy of a *wanderer* and *stranger* plays a significant role in this context. It states that the *stranger* here representing the IDPs even within the locality does not have the entitlement to claim ownership of the land (Kim, 2022).

Information obtained from the respondents revealed several parties who had the authority to allocate land for purposes of settlement. These ranged from village heads, village development committees, kraal heads, councillors, chiefs, and the rural district council. The rural district council, as the land authority, revealed that they were in the process of officialising the stay of the IDPs. However, the study found that the process was long overdue and caused anxiety among IDPs because they continued to lack security of tenure, resulting in marginalisation and social exclusionary practices. The study also established that the process of land allocation was on partisan lines, and most IDPs were not yet allocated because they were viewed as supporters of the opposition political parties due to their previous alleged employment in providing labour to the former white farm owners.

7.1.3 Access to farming

Farming is a key component of a livelihood strategy and this will address objective number 3 and 4 of the research. A question was posed to find out if the respondents were able to farm as a form of livelihood.

Figure 20 : Access to land for Farming



N=300

In all the three provinces, respondents indicated that they had no access to land for farming. Topping the list was Manicaland at 69%, Matabeleland North at 68% and Masvingo at 64%. Of the 300 respondents, 201 (67%) responded that they were not sufficiently able to engage in farming and cultivate as there was not enough land for that purpose. This then implies that IDPs in the three provinces were deprived of the critical sustainable livelihood approach. According to the data, 99 (33%) of respondents said they could farm. However, the respondents mentioned that the land they cultivated was small as it was land within the homesteads and thus the produce or output were insufficient to sustain an individual.

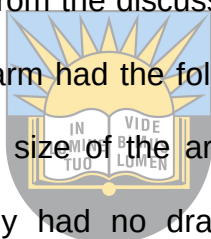
One of the theories underpinning the study is sustainable livelihood, an approach viewed as central to improving the asset base and alleviating poverty. As a result, without adequate land for farming, the livelihood component of the IDPs' survival strategy is jeopardized. As supported by Arthur et al. (2020) in Ogwumike. The

aspect of farming for livelihood affects all the provinces, as indicated in Figure 20. Therefore, this situation deprives the IDPs of their capabilities and entitlements.

An elderly lady from Manicaland province shared her experience:

“Inini ku purazi remurungu ndairima chibage ne muriwo nemadomasi . Basa iri ndorairaramisa mhuri yangu. Pano tirikuita nzara nekuti hatina pekurima, uyezve madhumeni avatibatsiri neruzivo pakurima”.⁵¹

However, the study discovered that there were a few IDPs who were engaged in garden projects in Manicaland that were supported by IOM and improved the nutritional status of the children. From the discussions, it was established that those who were able to till the land or farm had the following constraints: a lack of inputs (including seed and fertiliser), the size of the area was not large enough to plant beyond subsistence farming, they had no draught power, a lack of extension government services, and a lack of capital.



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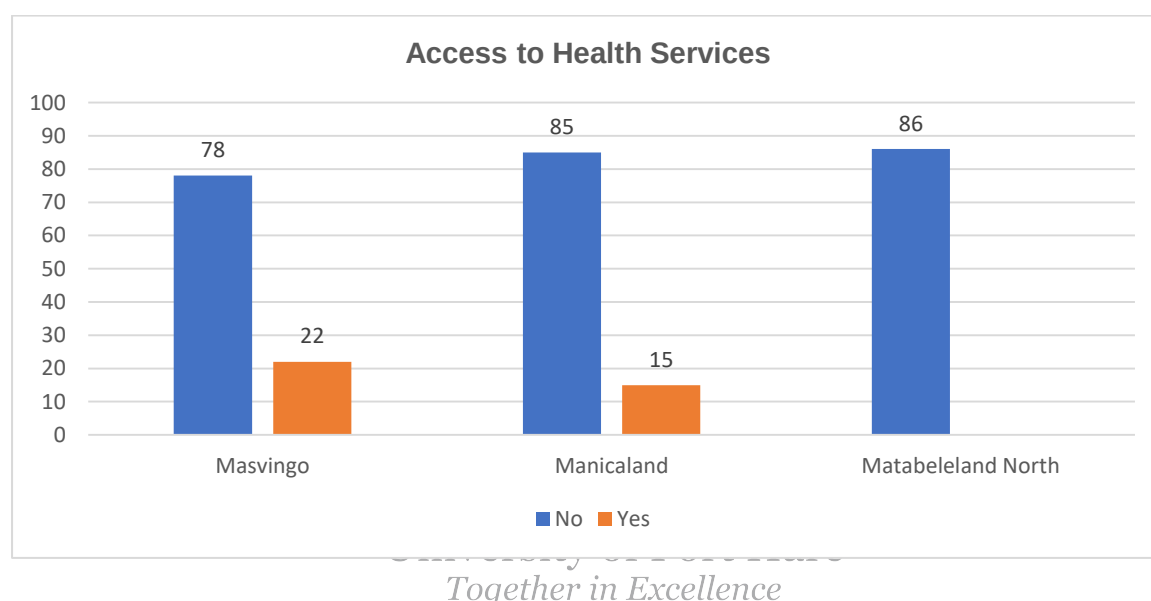
7.1.4 Access to health services

Provision of Health Service is fundamental for internal displaced communities. Health is also a fundamental part of the capabilities approach and is included in the composition of the Human Development Index. Moreover, is it a basic human right? This measurement variable addresses objective number 3 of the study. The provincial ratings indicated that all provinces had shown figures of not accessing the health services in their area of jurisdiction. The highest was Matabeleland North that indicated 86%. The second was Manicaland that indicated 85% and the third was

⁵¹ I am a good farmer as I used to plough at the farm. Here we are denied land to do farming. More, the communities including the Extension Officers don't like us.”

Masvingo at 78%. Overall, there were 249 respondents (83%) who said they had no access to health care, while 51 (17%) said they did. However, the service received was not to their best as they were accused of being IDPs and troublemakers. Health workers allegedly chased IDPs away from getting the services. Such treatment adversely affects the reproductive rights of women as well as immunization of children in the process.

Figure 21 : Access to Health Services



N=300

A pregnant woman from Manicaland province had this to share:

“Ndonamata kuti guva yandicha yenda kumbereka mwari apindire. Ndodaro nekuti gore ra2021 mwana wangu akachaya nekuti vakonti wakaramba kundibatsira nekuti andisi mugari wepo nekusaya chitupa chakarasika ngova ye njambanja”⁵²

As the FGDs was in session, one participant stood up and said:

⁵²“ I pray that I be assisted to give birth because last time there denied me access and my child passed on because I was an IDP/foreigner”

“Mkoma, (My Friend) can you see those boys pushing that sick boy in a wheelbarrow”. My response, was yes am seeing them. Those boys are from the clinic and have been chased away without treating the sick person. This is how we are treated as IDPs”.

Later, as part of participatory observation, I visited the clinic and sought some treatment for a fake “*running stomach*”. I was treated with care and when I wanted to pay for the consultation fees was informed it was a government clinic and should not pay. After building some relationship with the clinic nurse team, I asked that I had seen a sick person who was being pushed on a wheelbarrow and they claimed the clinic was closed. The response from the Health official was:

“Those boys are liars, we chased them away because there are criminals and are not from this area. The sick man is suffering from ST.... and did not have an ID, enough money for consultation and treatment fees. More so, the Headman told us that there should not be treated as there were chased away from there previously areas due to criminality activities”.

During the focus groups it was noted that officials at the health services often asked for identification cards which in turn led to IDPs avoiding visiting the health facilities for fear of victimisation. Conclusively, access to good health services was generally not free and open to the displaced groups. For, example members of the marginalised groups were victimised and segregated by the health workers let alone by the members of communities. It was established that health workers instigated fear into the IDPs by asking them to provide and show their identification cards when attending the health facilities for purposes of treatment. An observation noted was

that the health workers on duty were not the qualified staff or Registered Nurses. There were community nurses that were recruited on political lines who followed the Headman instructions instead of the Ministry of Health guidelines and thus lower and affect the process of proper medical attention for a Healthy Nation.

In Zimbabwe, the Ministry of Health and Child Welfare slogan is “Health for all”. Literally, this implies that “may everybody be happy, may everybody be free from illness”. Is this motto true for IDPs? As established in the study, medical attention is lacking in Zimbabwe due to exclusion and high costs and it is the IDPs that are negatively affected. As shown in the study, IDPs economic deficiency as reflected through their poverty gap index and headcount index shows that most IDPs don’t afford the medical care attention. It therefore follows that they are short of occupational opportunities to meet their advanced education level and medical cost and thus denied their entitlements.



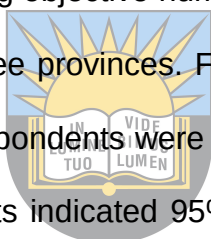
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In short respondents did not have access to the provision of health services due to a number of cited constraints faced when they attempt to visit the health facilities for medical care. According to the Sustainable Development Goals number 3 (SDGs), access to health services was a fundamental human right. In this regard, it could be deduced that access to health services was a challenge in the three provinces with Matabeleland North showing a slight edge of 86% over 85% and 78% for Manicaland and Masvingo, respectively. Matabeleland North is one of the least development areas in Zimbabwe (ZIMSTAT, 2020). The theoretical framework of the study assumes that the state has a responsibility to develop, improve capability and provide entitlements. However, in this regard, health is among the fundamental

development interventions that IDPs are excluded from their services as illustrated by the provided data, narratives from the IDPs and comments from health service providers.

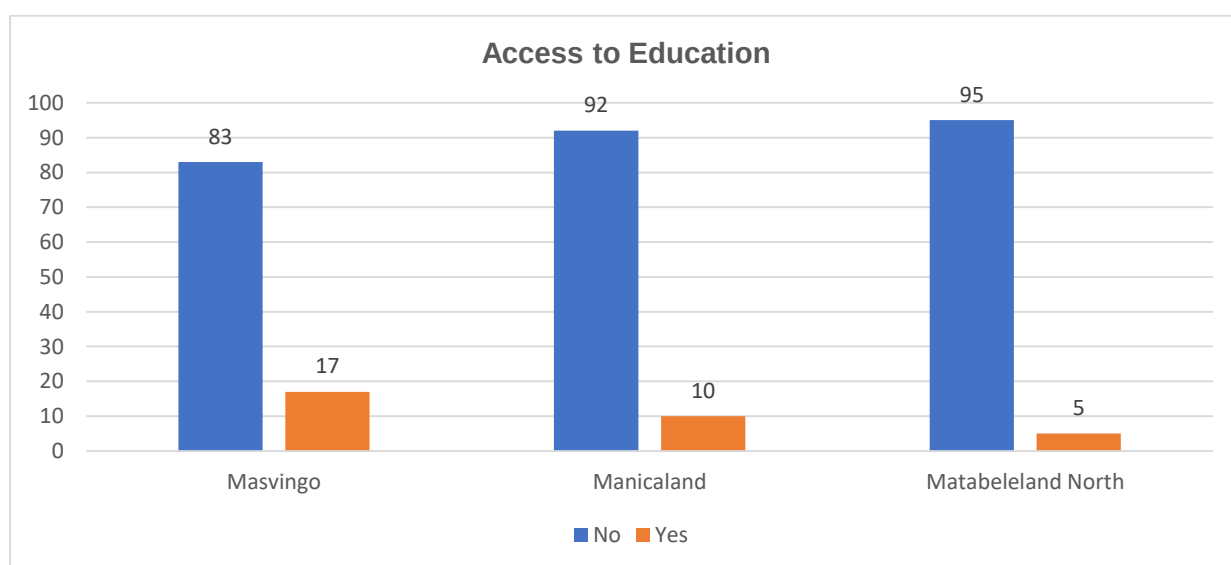
7.1.5 Access to education

The access to education for internal displacement is critical as its one attribute that shows the welfare of the IDPs. As in the case of healthcare, the expansion of education as a human capability is fundamental to development and the attainment of freedom. In the previous chapter the emerging findings highlighted that the majority of the respondents in the survey had primary levels of education only. This was also the purpose of formulating objective number 3 to ensure that basic services are measured in the identified three provinces. Figure 22 points to the fact that the distinct provinces indicate that respondents were not accessing the basic education. In Matabeleland North respondents indicated 95%, Manicaland 92% and Masvingo 83%.



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Figure 22 : Access to Education

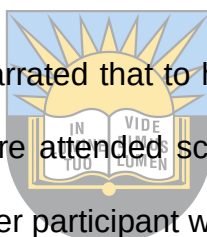


N=300

The question sought to find out whether IDP children were allowed to attend school in the research study areas. Of the 270 (90%) respondents, 30 (10%) reported that their children were attending school.

A girl child from Manicaland province had this to share:

“I am not sure how I managed to be attending school, because the village head hates my family and had shared with the family that I was not going to get assistance from any donors because I was an alien in this community and only original households were to benefit from the donations”. She ended by saying she would be home tilling the unproductive piece of land.



Contributing to the FGDs a boy narrated that to him and his relations, displacement from the Rusape Farm where there attended school means end of schooling. The statement was enhanced by another participant who shared that:

“I have never attended schooling here and I better spend my days drinking and smoking and thereafter go after girls”.

In one FGD for women, a lady narrated her experience about the education system with their area and said:

“Vakuru vechikoro nevabereki vanoona nezvechikoro avavimbi nevana vedu uye vanoti imbavha zvekare vanemisikanzwa ndosaka vana vedu vasigafariri chikoro chero zimbo dziripo. Tibatsireiwo”⁵³

⁵³ “School officials and parents prevent our children from attending school because there say we a criminals and were chased away from our original place of stay.

Another participant had this to say:

“Nharaunda ino vazhinji atishande. Ipapo zvikoro zvinoda mari yakawanda yeku bhadhara mabhuku, uye zvipfeko. Toiwanepi mari yakadaro? Zvirinani kusaendesa vana ivavo voenda kumaricho towana mari yechikafu Tarisa vakomana avo varikuto tsvaga maricho. Chimbovatoraka iwewe. Asi vasikana vano enda kubhawa vowana mapurisa, maticha nezvidara zvinemari.”⁵⁴

However, it was revealed that despite attending school their children were often marginalised and accused of crimes. According to a study by Kanbur et al. (2014) it revealed that policies that promote learning results in the reduction of income inequalities. They argued that investment origins from primary to high secondary levels as the latter will warrant equal opportunities for families from the financially and social backward communities such as IDPs. The study further attests that it is a prerequisite for intergenerational movement for children to obtain an advanced level and get employed and not depend on their parents.



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The research also exposed that family poverty pushes most IDPs, especially girls, out of school and into prostitution, early marriage, and becoming victims of human trafficking. Furthermore, information from the Global Survey on Education in Emergencies (2004) by Bethke (2020) revealed that lack of or underfunding of educational amenities is acute for IDPs, resulting in their provision of education suffering from a deficiency of a methodical international response to internal displacement. This leads Chimni (2019) sentiments that overcoming these obstacles

⁵⁴ “We are unemployed and don’t have money and so we cannot pay fees for our children. Hence boys prefer to look for manual work and girls sell their bodies”

is not only for children of the internally displaced, although going to school is a gateway to a degree of stability and normalcy for traumatised children of the IDPs. However, as expressed in the study, 270 (90%) of the internally displaced children were not enrolled in schools.

The focus groups expressed the view that girls not originally from the area supported by their parents feared sexual exploitation from the male-dominated teachers. Also, it was revealed that the distance travelled to the schools was an inhibiting factor and that anything terrible could happen on the way. Threats of sexual violence on the way to school also played a role in preventing girls from attending school and instead staying at home for their own safety.



Another interesting observation was that pupils felt unsafe in the school environment due to the distance from their homes, as well as some locals looking down on them and not understanding their cultures. This was done in full view of teachers, who apparently did not take any corrective action. One student of Malawian origin confessed to having some spirits in her, and at times during break she would be forced to talk to her ancestral spirits, which would scare other students and call her names such as a witch. No protection came from the school authorities, but rather means were designed to expel her from school, indicating that they did not understand her cultural background.

The girl from Matabeleland province had this to say:

"Mizimu yanga itshoka palipose and vana basikuli banithaba and sibayankula nayine. Matitsha a nimenya and sa marker ma books anga. Napepha ine".⁵⁵

In summation, referring to the study's theoretical approaches that capability, entitlement and sustainable livelihood the government is required to provide interventions to enhance societies capabilities. Also, education is a fundamental entitlement and a basic human right that has to be provided by the state to its citizens. Development practitioners argue that education is a source of livelihoods. As demonstrated in the discourse provided with statistics and real life stories from the IDPs capabilities, entitlements and sustainable livelihoods are deprived due to their exclusion.



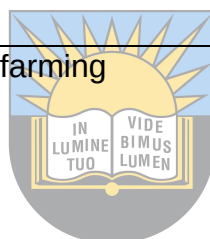
The below table is a consolidated summary of the findings from the field assessment in relation to the exclusion dilemma.

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Table 9 : Findings from the field assessments

Research Study Exclusion Dilemma	Issues assessed	Results
Exclusion dilemma	Authority to settle	The study established that 270 (90%) of the respondents had no official permission to settle. One man reacted and said: <i>"If it was you would you have time to be seeking authority to settle while you are running away from gun fire"</i>

⁵⁵ "I am possessed and my other colleagues and even teachers discriminate me to an extent that teachers do not even mark my assignments. I am indeed in serious problems".

	Access to security and safety	The responsibility of protection of citizens in a country is placed on the government and the study noted that 225 (75%) respondents lacked protection (security and safety). In support of the figures, an old man shared the following in a FGDs. <i>“Last week, there was a police vehicle making rounds in our area. This was after we heard there was a meeting with the District Development Coordinator. This is how Jambanja started. In fact, we thought this gathering was to tell us that we should leave this area”</i>
	Access to land for farming	Sustainable livelihood is critical but the study revealed that 201 (67%) did not have access to farming. A lady respondent commented: <i>“In the farm we worked I used to plough maize for my family. The problem here there is no land and more so the AGRITEX extension workers hurt us”</i>
	Access to health facilities	The Ministry of Health and Child Welfare slogan is “Health for all”. This slogan does not apply to IDPs. During the FGDs this was shared: <i>“Comrade, can you see those boys pushing that sick boy in a wheelbarrow”. My response, was yes am seeing them. Those boys are from the clinic and have been chased away without treating the sick person. This is how we are treated as IDPs”.</i>



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	Access to education	The Ministry of Education`s motto is “Education for All” but results of the study revealed that 270 (90%) of IDPs are not attending school. A youth alluded to this <i>“Because teachers hurt us, “I have never attended schooling here and I better spend my days drinking and smoking and thereafter go after girls”</i> .
	Participation in public affairs	Community decisions are made without the active participation of internally displaced persons. According to the study, 270 (90%) expressed that there were not participating in public affairs. A youth said” <i>We try to attend community meetings but the village heads chase us away and call us IDPs”</i> .



7.2 SUMMARY

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The chapter shared and analysed data according to the three provinces of Masvingo, Manicaland and Matabeleland North. Applying the capabilities, entitlements and sustainable approach the highlighting the services and practices that the IDPs were excluded from. The findings point to the fact that there is exclusion of IDPs in terms of authority to settle, access to farming, education and health service and engagement in civic among others.

The results on security and safety revealed that displacement is threatening the IDPs from their natural habitat apart from exposing them from lowering their well-being due to risks. Due to inadequate protection the IDPs especially women and the girl

and boy child are vulnerable to sexual violence during the displacement cycle. The protection lies with the state and is premised on a number of national and international policies. The provision of services in the form of education, health, civic participation, farming and security and safety, farming are an undisputable right that should not be denied to any right-holder citizen of the state. However, on the contrary, the findings reveal that the IDPs in the three provinces of Matabeleland North, Masvingo and Manicaland were denied these basic services due to the vulnerability of their displacement. IDPs greatly need these basic service provisions for their survival apart from human development as argued by the capabilities theory to enhance the attainment of IDPs agency potentials. From the capability lenses, the study views the provision of basic services IDPs entitlement, while the entitlement concurs and brings in the aspect of moral and legal provisions to IDPs as citizens that should be provided with these basic services. The failure and governments exclusion of these services promotes inequalities to the already vulnerable IDPs in the three provinces. Furthermore, income, education, civic engagement, health, and politics are core tenets of capability theory that play a role in the achievement of freedom while at the same time are entitlements for citizens inclusive IDP as enshrined in the Constitution of Zimbabwe and IDP policies that the country has failed to domesticate. Further to this, the results show that these services are fundamental ensuring that the sustainable livelihood capitals are applied to usher development are denied and excluded to the IDPs.

Subsequently, exclusion of these basic fundamental human rights deprives and limit IDPs capabilities, entitlements and sustainable livelihood. On the basis of this

assessment, the study advocates for the responsible authorities of the government to ensure that IDPs are not excluded as they form part of the citizens of Zimbabwe.

The next chapter is on the durable solution a concept that ties up the study's three dilemmas.



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CHAPTER EIGHT

DURABLE SOLUTION CONCEPT: ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

8.0 INTRODUCTION

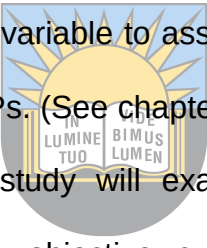
As discussed in chapter 2 (see item 2.4.4) the durable solution notion refers to a situation when the needs of internal displacement are accomplished and their problems related to their IDPs status are non-existent. In other words, this implies the accomplishment of IDPs human development as a result of government, partners and themselves. The capability y, entitlement and sustainable livelihood approaches plays a critical role in the enhancement and attainment of human development. World over, it is the sole responsibility of government where possible by development partners to ensure development takes place within their citizens. However, the study argues and advocates that for durable solution to happen to internal displacement the government should firstly address the recognition, empirical and exclusion dilemmas that the study has dealt with extensively. The task needs holistic engagement with all other partners involved in the internal displacement discourse. The study drafted and postulates the following as its theory of change (ToC) and that notes that:

“If governments are nurtured, equipped and connected with other stakeholders to address the recognition , empirical and exclusion dilemmas applying the theoretical approaches of capability, entitlement and sustainable livelihood they will drive effort and improve good living conditions following the laid down IDPs policies despite their reasons for displacement to attain durable solutions for the internal displacement” .

Attainment of durable solution implies the provision of basic social services in terms of access to health, education, farming, security and safety, civic engagement among others.

The chapter discusses the durable solution concept and shows options for the IDPs. Furthermore, the options of durable solutions are analysed across the provinces and compared. Lastly, the chapter presents findings against the 8-point UN durable solution bench mark as well as highlight the study's observations.

The durable solution concept seems to be the product of end of internal displacement and a measurement variable to assist in the study's objective number 4 on policy formulations for the IDPs. (See chapter 2, item 2.4.4). In line with the UN Durable Solution guidelines the study will examine and analyse the emerging findings as a way to addressing objective number 3 of the study. The IDPs experience will also feature.



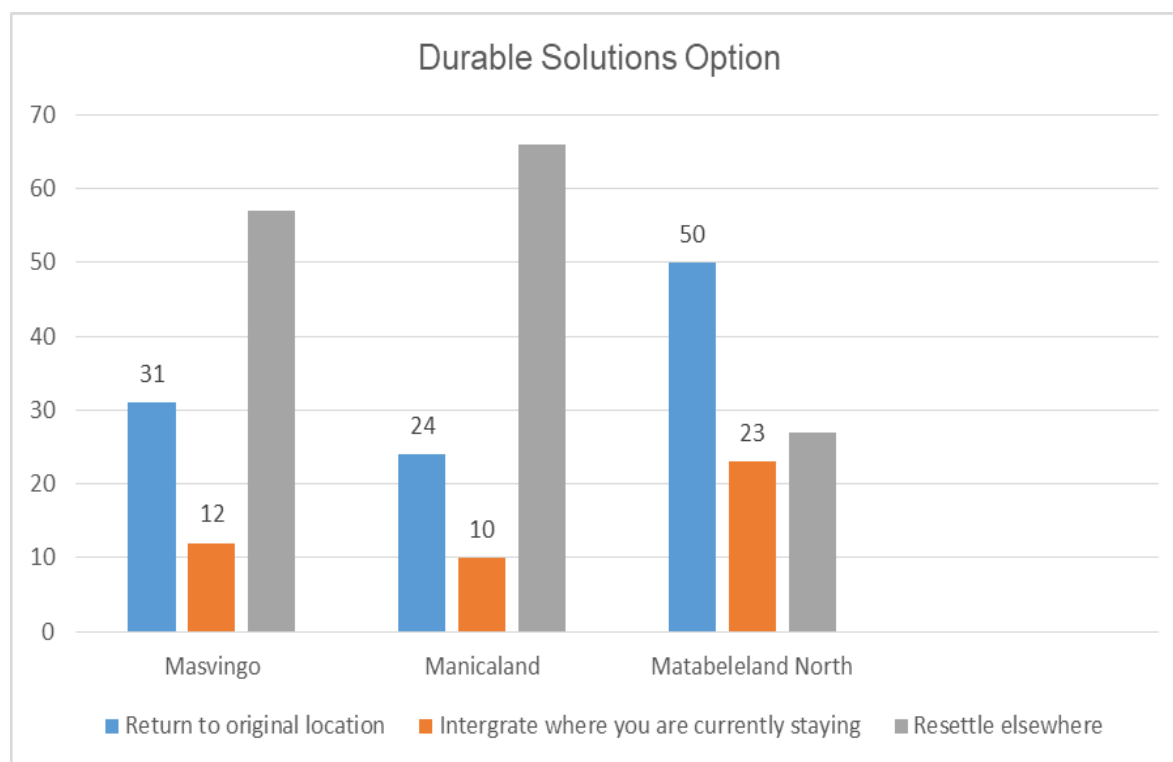
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8.1 DURABLE SOLUTIONS

Regarding the question on perceived durable solution respondents in the three provinces provided varied options. For instance, the respondents were asked if they would return to their original locations. The findings showed that, in Matabeleland North 50% said they would, while those in Masvingo only 31% and Manicaland 24% were willing to return to their places of origin. On being given the option to integrate where they are currently staying, Matabeleland North had the highest number of respondents with 23%, followed by Masvingo and Manicaland at 12% and 10%,

respectively. Concerning the option to resettle elsewhere, Manicaland had the highest at 66% and Masvingo had 57%. Matabeleland North had the lowest respondents who wanted to resettle elsewhere at 27%. For the entire sample, a total of 150 (50%) preferred to be resettled elsewhere, 105 (35%) wanted to return to their places of origin. Lastly, those who preferred to be integrated recorded 45 (15%). The figures are a sign that IDPs were deprived of their capabilities, entitlements and sustainable livelihood due to the study's dilemmas hence they preferred not to be integrated but move away from the location.

Figure 23 : IDP's Durable Solution options



N=300

From the qualitative analysis on durable solution obtained from FGDs, an elderly woman had this to say:

“Asiri murume wangu anenharo dai inini ndakaswera ndaenda kunogara kumwe, nekuti vanhu vekuno avaiti, ima.....chaiyo”⁵⁶

Another one agrees with the elderly women and adds this:

“Chokwadi ngavauye kuzotitora tiende zvirinani kunogara nemhuka”⁵⁷

A particularly angry participant who blamed the displacement due to Operation Restore Order/Operation Murambatsvina for killing his life as it destroyed his promising livelihood venture in Masvingo town said:

“Dai zvichiita inini hangu ndoda kuzokera ku Masvingo town kunotanga business rangu zvekare”⁵⁸

Another contended,



“Ku town ndizvo, kunevanhu and business rinofaya”⁵⁹

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One youth said

“Hongu hwupenyu hwanetsa asi pano ndopatinoziva semusha wangu, zvirinani kugara muno”⁶⁰

Those respondents who wanted to return to their original location were mainly victims of Operation Murambatsvina who wanted to go back to urban areas to start

⁵⁶ “It’s all because my husband does not want, if I was alone I should have long left this place for another place because communities here are not good to us.”

⁵⁷ “Let then come to transfer us and leave this place. It’s better to go and be place with wild animals”

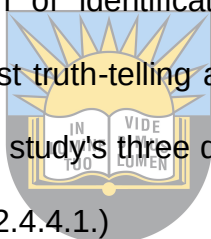
⁵⁸ “For me I would want to return back to Masvingo and re-start my business that was destroyed”

⁵⁹ “Going back to town its better and business is better than this place. I want to go back”

⁶⁰ “Life is difficult but this is the place I know to be my home and so I would rather continue staying here”

their livelihood strategies. According to the data obtained, the respondents were former sole traders who wanted to advance their social and economic status. The 45 (15%) who chose to integrate believed that the responsible authority should play its role in ensuring that IDPs are not marginalised or socially excluded, but rather promote inclusionary practices

Regarding the critical question on durable solutions, the study also raised the question: What is desired to attain this preferred durable solution? More permanent shelter—that is, improving current structures; provision of implements and farm inputs (including draught power); provision of social amenities; tenure of land; water and sanitation facilities; provision of identification cards; and resolution of the Gukurahundi case through a robust truth-telling and reconciliation mechanism (See chapter 3, 3.3.2). Furthermore, the study's three dilemmas are critical for the durable solution concept. (See Chapter 2, 2.4.4.1.)



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8.2 DURABLE SOLUTION BENCH MARK

The pursuit for durable solutions is complex, often it involves a lengthy process designed to restore the human rights of IDPs. The process to search and support durable solutions is inclusive and participatory and should include women, children and should commence soon after displacement. Many actors are involved (primarily national authorities) who need to observe a number of key principles to make the quest for durable solutions a success. IDPs must be provided with information and support in order to make a voluntary and informed choice about their preferred durable solutions, and also participate in the planning and management of that

choice. This will assist in promoting transparency and accountability through monitoring and evaluation.

Durable Solutions is a rights-based approach. It involves national, local and development actors to holistically integrate and support IDPs interventions. The support focuses on sustainable access to health care, life, human dignity, housing, security, protection, land, property, privacy, and respect for the home, freedom of movement, choice of residence, access to adequate housing and compensation following displacement.

Table 10 shows a tabulation of conditions prevailing to the IDPs in Zimbabwe against the basic conditions for durable solutions as per the results of the study.

Table 10 : Research Findings against the durable Solutions bench mark

#	Conditions for durable solution	Research Findings
1.	Safety and Security	• Basing on the findings gathered in this study, the majority of respondents feared for their safety and revealed that in their current place of residence they felt insecure. • Furthermore, the respondents reported being targeted in the social, economic, political and environment sphere due to their label of being internally displaced persons. • This insecurity and lack of safety was expressed in the acquiring of health, education, agricultural services and in the justice administration.
2.	Adequate standard of living	• Most of the respondents indicated that there had no access to affordable basic services. For example, there were not allowed access to the health facilities and their

		children were prevented from attending school regularly. • The Chingwizi protection camp in Masvingo is an example of overcrowding and inhumane living standards offered to IDPs in Zimbabwe. • The inadequate living standard of the internally displaced individuals in Zimbabwe is a clear indication of the lack of political will from the authorities and the absence of policy frameworks.
3.	Access to livelihoods and employment	• From the reactions assembled in this examination it is completely clear that the livelihood of the respondents is in a dire state due to lack of farming land and unemployment by the internally displaced persons. • The lack of livelihood and unemployment has resulted in high poverty levels for the internally displaced persons in comparison to the hosts' communities. • The negative livelihood strategy practised such as prostitution by the young girls and the women as a form of living was likely to lead to increased sexually transmitted infections (STI's) and the human immune virus/acquired immune deficiency syndrome (HIV/AIDS) virus in the country and unwanted pregnancy. • Furthermore, data obtained from the internally displaced persons revealed a very high unemployment rate attributed to lack of identification cards and marginalisation tactics by the authorities and the host communities.
4.	Access to documentation	• A good number of respondents indicated that there had lost their identification cards and all other important documents were destroyed during the displacement process. As a result, this has negatively prevented them from accessing public services, participating in vote casting and seeking employment opportunities. • One of the respondents had this to share <i>"I cannot</i>

		<i>access a new identification card, access health facilities for myself and my family due to the costs of getting a new ID as the one I had was destroyed during displacement and yet I am not employed”.</i> • And another had this to say, <i>“I could not afford to pay the hospital bills after a caesarean section and therefore I did not get a birth record for my child”.</i> At the end this is passed from one generation to the other.
5.	Restoration of housing, land, property	• As expressed by the majority of the respondents, the local authorities have not given them official land to settle, both did they have farming lands and had they been offered grants to replace their destroyed properties. Therefore, the restoration of housing, land and property remains a far-fetched dream
6.	Access to effective remedies and justice	• According to the study it was revealed that the government remains in denial state that there are IDPs and one concludes that the process of access to effective remedies and justice is not available for these internally displaced persons. • The government in Zimbabwe has termed the internally displaced persons (IDP`s) as mobile and vulnerable population (MVP`s) implying that it was due to their own accord to move from one place to another in search of better land in line with the “pull factors” yet it is the “push factors”. The movement is produced by the state and results in IDPs.
7.	Family Reunification	• Government of Zimbabwe does not know the numbers of internally displaced persons because the assumptions ids that such groups of people do not exist in the country. As such the critical questions that remains unanswered is that: How do they carry out a mechanism process to re-unify the families when they don’t believe that internal displacement occurred in the country?

		• This is a systematic marginalisation and exclusion of internally displaced persons practised by the government.
8.	Participation in public affairs	• The majority of the respondent revealed that there were not informed, prevented and did not participate equally in the public discourse of the areas such as attending meetings, registration and collection of agricultural inputs. • In other words, this clearly shows that there is marginalisation and exclusion at play as internally displaced persons are not easily accepted and integrated in the communities. • Furthermore, it was established that there was no single internally displaced person in position of authority a sad state for integration process and failure to hear the views of the displaced communities.



From information covered above it is apparent that the presence of the IDPs was not being taken great care of by the authorities, development partners among others. Respondents clearly expressed that there were being treated as second class citizens with no attempt by the authorities to improve their displacement status mode caused by the governmental policies in the form of the Fast Track Land Reform Programme and Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order.

In the analysis conducted on the process of the attainment of conditions of durable solution, it is imperative to point out that no progress has been achieved. This could be attributed to the denial status of government on the presence and reasons for having IDPs in Zimbabwe. Also, the findings infer that on paper, the government remains pre-occupied with theories and while failing to redress the situation on the ground pertaining to exclusionary practices levelled against the IDPs as already

highlighted in the foregoing chapters, this is a sign of lack of political will at its highest level within the government hierarchy.

In conclusion, the findings of the IDPs as per the tabulated durable solution benchmark is in line with the results obtained by the study using the framework on the study's conceptual dilemmas. The study therefore, concludes that the action of the state is among the top causes of internal displacement in Zimbabwe yet it is also responsible to address the problems of IDPs. The study contribute to the internally displacement discourse with the conceptual dilemmas of recognition, empirical and exclusion for attainment of durable solutions.



8.3 COMMENT ON THE IDPs MARGINALISATION AND EXCLUSION PROCESS?

The capturing of knowledge from the government officials is critical as it adds value to objective number 1 and 4 of the study. From the data analysed from the respondents, observation and the focus group, one views that marginalisation and social exclusion among the IDPs is a reality in Zimbabwe. According to the discussions, it is clear that whatever form of displacement, it does seriously affect the displaced individuals and generates power inequality which is normally associated by massive marginalisation, exclusion and stigmatisation at the individual level. The results of the study promotes the implementation of durable solution interventions. In this light the study alludes to the fact that the identified recognition, empirical and exclusion dilemmas be addressed by the Zimbabwean state as a matter of urgency in IDPs discourse.

8.4 CRITICAL OBSERVATION OF THE STUDY

The research observed and captured photographs on the internally displaced discourse in Zimbabwe. This section is to give the reader a graphic view and quotes from IDPs lived experiences on the Fast Track Land Reform Programme and Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order. The following photos amplify the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme and Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order situation.

Figure 24 : War veterans/ZANU PF youths during the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme



Figure 25 : A displaced boy during Operation Murambatsvina



8.5 IMPACT OF PROGRAMMES FOR THE INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS (IDPs)



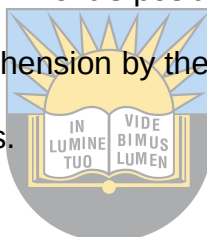
A revelation from in-depth interviews with both the responsible authorities and development partner officials was that not much impact was being realised from the different interventions to the IDPs in its entirety as there were mainly short-term projects. Despite the assistance provided to IDPs, in-depth interviews revealed that there was still much that was lacking among the displaced communities. Humanitarian food aid was seen as a simple stopgap measure to achieve short-term goals rather than long-term (durable solutions).

However, there was an agreement from the in-depth interviews that massive support in the form of land allocation and assistance for farm inputs, income-generating interventions such as chicken, goat rearing and the provision of documents and grants as a means to uplift the livelihood status of the IDPs was of paramount

importance to having an impact on their status. This highlights the research recognition, empirical, and exclusion quandaries, that shows the importance of government ensuring that IDPs are afforded their capabilities, entitlements and sustainable livelihood.

8.6 GOVERNMENTS POLICY ON INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS

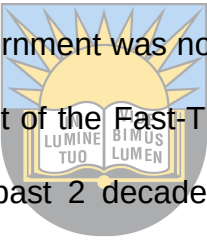
This section was critical in capturing the government's level of appreciation and policy formulation aspect, thereby addressing study objectives 1 and 4. Despite the IDPs being discussed at high level of government, the official revealed that there was no definitive decision on government's position on IDPs. The officials noted that there was, however, some comprehension by the government of the need to provide protection to the marginalised IDPs.



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As part of the government's commitment, the Head of State and Government appended his signature to the Kampala Convention, and the government was also in the process of engaging the development partners in an intensive joint assessment of IDPs (In-depth interview with officials, 2019). This was signs of active engagement of government with the development partners and if implemented could likely produce the meaningful outcome. The purpose of the assessment was to establish the exact number of IDPs in the country. Besides, the final words from the officials were that the government denied the existence of IDPs but rather individuals moved (the movement meant that there are Mobile and Vulnerable People (MVPs) from one place to the other during the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme, or Operation Restore Order/Operation Murambatsvina, in the country, while agreeing that

cyclones caused IDPs. The two acronyms that is (MVPs and IDPs) mean the same in Zimbabwe. However, concerns have been raised through informal discussions that there were indeed some pockets of insignificant numbers of IDPs as a result of natural disasters, citing the floods and Cyclone Idai. Furthermore, it was mentioned that the United Nations' definition of IDP was subjective and should be taken into context per individual state, and there is a preference for the term "mobile and vulnerable populations" (MVPs) as compared to using IDPs. In summary, the government are avoiding the use of IDPs to MVPs. Furthermore, government is simply downplaying their IDP role and avoiding scrutiny for failure to attend to IDPs.



The officials revealed that the government was not in agreement with the proposition of the existence of IDPs as a result of the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme and the clean-up campaign. For the past 2 decades, indeed the political history has influenced the direction of IDPs. For example, the implementation of Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order and farm evasions that displaced people. Also, signing the Kampala Convention but fail to domesticate it is a clear sign of lack of political will (IOM, 2024). One notes that the IDPs have been affected by the political instability and economic and natural factors. The government went further to castigate the humanitarian agencies that took advantage of government policy and inflated the figures of IDPs in the country.

During the in-depth interviews it emerged that, as a second republic government, it was in talks with the UN about conducting another comprehensive IDPs assessment, similar to the one conducted in 2009 to deal with natural disasters. The

researcher informally engaged with the UN team official on the mission who confirmed that it was in their plans as well to ensure that such an assessment was conducted. Meanwhile, during the field study, humanitarian organisations were observed aiding the marginalised group and members of communities adhering to the "Do No Harm" principle.

8.6.1 Legislative and policies in support of IDPs

There are numerous IDPs policy comprising of : Human Rights Treaty Law, Core IHRL treaties, UN Human Rights Committee communications, CERD, Soft Law Instruments Developed in Response to (Internal) Displacement, UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, UN Principles on Housing and Property Restitution for Refugees and Displaced Persons (Pinheiro Principles), ILO Convention No 169 and CIHL Rule, AU Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) and Constitutions among others. However, the study analysed few critical IDPs policy documents namely the GPID (1998), Kampala Convention (2009), Constitution of Zimbabwe (2013) and other documents that concerned the IDPs discourse. The approaches the capability and entitlement played a role to validate interpretations of these policy documents through the exploratory study of basic service provision to IDPs.

The GPID provided an operational 30-point principles in line with the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights to address the plight of IDPs (Rhoades, 2010). In short, GDIP is concerned with the provision of rights to the internal displacement. For example, the GDIP principle 1 relates to the enjoyment and equality of rights and

freedom of IDPs as provided in both the international and domestic laws of respective governments. In reality, IDPs should have the rights and freedom and thus not engage in the discourse of lack of basic service provisions in the three provinces. On the other hand, the GDIP gives this responsibility of addressing IDPs to national governments in principle 2, 3, 5 and 7 (Chimni, 2000). Ironically, displacements in Zimbabwe were carried out well after the adoption of the GDIP in 1998 and indication that the government violated GDIP principles. To buttress this, point the production of IDPs as a result of Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order and Fast Track Land Reform Programme was negligent of human rights as stated in GPID Principle number 6. Furthermore, GPID Principle 3 focuses on the right to humanitarian assistance, yet respondents complain of hunger and negligence, a contradiction of the state duty to its population welfare. One critical element of the basic provision of services to IDPs is the human capabilities (education) and the health services that are provided as a human right and entitlement to IDPs without any type of favouritism. Given such clarity, the three provinces ought to be having adequate provision of basic services and prefer the durable solution of integration. This is stated in GPID Principle number 23.



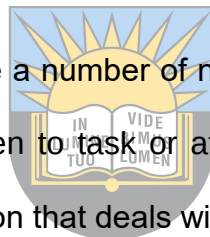
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In essence, the GPID principles were adopted in October 2009 by the African Union at the Convention for the Protection and Assistance of IDPs in Africa to form what is referred to as the Kampala Convention (IDMC, 2010). The document, re stated and reaffirmed the key GPID principles in particular that it was the onus of the state to protect IDPs. According to Article 9 (2) government should provide water, food, water, health, human capital -education among others in view to the address the citizens needs and vulnerability inclusive the IDPs (Hassman-Howard, 2010). The

end product is the domestication of the Kampala Convention into respective national laws for the protection of IDPs (IDMC, 2018). Zimbabwe was the second state after Uganda to assent its signature on the Kampala Convention an indication of submission to the principles stated in the document without discrimination (ibid). As indicated in the study findings, the three provinces' well-being, lack of basic services due to displacement has been a challenge arising from inadequate protection and assistance of IDPs because of government non-domestication of the Kampala Convention.

One government official had this to say on the domestication of the Kampala Convention:

“As a government, we have a number of national laws to enact and therefore government cannot be taken to task or at ransom for failure to domesticate only the Kampala Convention that deals with IDPs”.



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Given such comments by government officials and the lack of instituting legal intervention by the regional body implies that the Kampala Convention is relegated as an ineffective policy and negates the state's duty on the protection of internal displacements. The implication is that non-domestication of the convention affects IDPs livelihoods, capabilities, right and entitlements provided in the instrument. As in the GPID principles, the Kampala Convention proclaims national authority first and followed by other international institutions and issue that arises in view of the non-domestication of the Kampala Convention. The study findings show that other institutions such as WFP and IOM and not the government provided IDP assistance to the Gukurahundi atrocities, Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order

and Fast Track Land Reform Programme victims. As such the government should acknowledge what is proffered by the study's recognition dilemma, domesticate the Kampala Convention, quantify IDPs and address the exclusion dilemma.

Lastly, the Constitution of Zimbabwe Amendment (No.20) Act 2013 promotes the rights and entitlements of its citizens. However, the findings point to the fact that the three provinces show areas where the rights, privileges and entitlements of the IDPs remain violated. According to the UN 8 point durable solution benchmark, the three provinces conditions show that the respondents have not yet enjoyed their constitutional rights and brings to light injustice and inequalities to the IDPs. As stated earlier, it is evident that basic services are denied to the IDPs in the three provinces yet policies such as GPID, Kampala Convention, Constitution of Zimbabwe and subsequently the health and education act express the provision of basic service a fundamental human right to improve the attainment of durable solution. However, on the contrary, capabilities, rights, entitlement are denied to IDPs in the three provinces of Matabeleland North, Masvingo and Manicaland in Zimbabwe. Also, the Zimbabwe studies contribution have been aligned to the legal frameworks, policy and advocacy documentation in shaping the promotion of internally displaced persons (IDP).

8.7 GOVERNMENT'S COMMENTS

The government of Zimbabwe is mindful of the existence of IDPs caused by the fast-track land reform programme and Operation Murambatsvina but lacks the political will to accept them. Accordingly the researcher is of the view that the government is not being honest because at international level the government has acknowledged

and appended their signature on conventions that talk to IDPs issues, yet at national level, the very same government disputes the existence of the IDPs.

The general comment from the government officials` were that the development partners should be honest and sincere in the numbers of the IDPs and the reasons for the causes of internal displacements. Also, they should be guided by the principle of `Do No Harm` programming.

In reference to Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order, an official had this to say:

“Every citizen of Zimbabwe was allowed to move to their places of choice as a free Zimbabwe”. Furthermore, he noted that:

“We all have a rural home to settle without any problems”.

The official assertion is linked to an editorial comment in a state-run newspaper, the Zimbabwe-Herald dated 16th January 2007 that urged urbanites to connect with their roots and benefit from the land redistribution process in the comfort of their rural homes”.

The study, however observed that usually shanty rooms in cities are for foreigners without the right for settlement in rural areas. According to the ICG, August 2005, p.5-6:

“Oral evidence from high ranking government official, reports from press and deliberation in Parliament on Operation Murambatsvina was not a collective responsibility either from government or the ruling party (ZANU PF) as others were surprised by the military and police exercise....a likelihood that that those who

pushed for the implementation had their own agenda and should be held responsible”.

Also, another reviewed document is that of OCHA, dated 16th July 2008, p.2:

“That at least 36 000 were politically internally displaced while 16844 are confirmed cases and 9425 were assisted by an NGO”

During the in depth interview, one official was heard saying the following concerning the victims of the Fast Track Land Reform Programme:

“Government is supportive to progressive Zimbabweans who know the history of the country, unlike the former farm workers who are sell-outs and against the government. These are not government people and government is not there for its enemies”.



The study observed that this mentality has cascaded to the levels of chiefs and headmen who deny IDPs government assistance such as food, seeds and fertilisers among others because they do not recognise them (IDPs) as bona fide citizens of Zimbabwe more so as community members in that locality of Matabeleland North, Masvingo and Manicaland provinces.

One official shared in an interview:

“Comrade, Researcher, Zimbabwe is a free and democratic state where its population is free to movement and how then can a governments land reform programme be responsible for displacement of its population that it intends to settle, that is a mischievous statement that has a regime change connotation”.

8.8 DEVELOPMENT PARTNERS COMMENTS

The development partners raised the view that the government has drastically failed to honor its international obligation and accept that IDPs were real and in existence in Zimbabwe due to a number of reasons, chief among them being governmental policies in the form of the fast-track land reform programme and Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order.

An NGO official said:

“The lack of empirical data for IDPs in the three provinces is as a result of government’s refusal to approve the collection of data for planning purposes. We are concerned as we at times have inconsistency figures that we fail to explain”.



The sentiments expressed especially by government officials shows that IDPs despite being citizen of the country face non-recognition, not known if ever there exist hence no records and excluded from programmes. Due to these sentiments the study aligns them in the negative in reference to the approaches applied by the study. Therefore, IDPs in Masvingo, Matabeleland North and Manicaland are deprived these fundamental approaches by the state agencies. Also, from the view point of development partners, their sentiments infers that while there are carrying out their duties there are constricted with the exact numbers of IDPs to assist. This then brings to light the importance of one of the study’s empirical dilemma.

8.9 ANALYSIS OF THE AGENTS/AGENCIES INVOLVED IN EXCLUSION

The study identified some significant agencies or agents that are pivotal to the marginalisation and exclusionary effects of the IDPs' members. From the analysis of the collected data, supplemented by in-depth of literature review in Chapter 2, the study found three agents or agencies responsible for the marginalisation and exclusionary effects of the IDPs.

Some of the agencies or agents:

- ✓ **State policies:** Policies that restrict provision of services to IDPs
- ✓ **Social exclusion:** Labelling of IDPs by host communities
- ✓ **Economic exclusion:** Lack of provision of economic empowerment to IDPs
- ✓ **Representation:** Failure to involve IDPs in the decision making process

According to the social exclusion approaches proposed by Levitas (2015) and O'Reilly (2005), the first group of agents or agencies is the state that is an active participant that plays a role in exclusion, stigmatisation and discrimination through policies. The social exclusion is concerned with labelling usually by the host communities and deprive IDPs resources. Economic exclusion is where IDPs are not empowered. Lastly, failure to engage IDPs in making decisions does not promote empowerment and sustainability.

8.10 SUMMARY

The chapter presented the durable solution concept and it could be deduced that the durable solution is the end product of a combination of addressing the recognition, empirical and exclusion dilemmas. The findings further indicate that, the majority of IDPs in the three provinces decided to be resettled elsewhere from their current

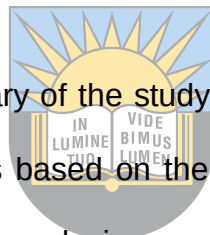
location. The implication is that IDPs in these areas are not being provided with development through the application of the capability approach. Furthermore, there was evidence that the moral and legal entitlements, 'endowment set,' 'entitlement mapping and 'entitlement set' are being denied by the state. Also, as a new area, IDPs need to adopt robust livelihood assets, capabilities, strategies and address conditions of exclusion, neglect and discrimination to survive and address their political, socio-economic dislocation that is lacking.

Therefore, in such a situation, the implication is that there IDPs should be settled elsewhere where their capability, entitlements and sustainable livelihood would be provided without fail by the government. Those who preferred to return to their original locations where mainly small traders who wanted to revive their destroyed business in urban areas where business is generally fares better and one can obtain profits. Furthermore, the assessment against the UN 8 point durable solution benchmark indicated that there were not being fulfilled due to the recognition, empirical and exclusion dilemmas and government lack of providing IDPs with the study's approaches that is capability, entitlement and sustainable livelihood. In support to this notion was the observation of the study as well as the negative comments about the IDPs from the government officials coupled with the failure to implement the IDPs policies such as the Kampala Declaration among others.

In addition, the study posits that sustainable attainment of durable solutions for internally displaced persons revolves around the research's theoretical concepts of capabilities, entitlements and sustainable livelihoods and rights based. The study

postulates that durable solutions for internal displacement in Zimbabwe will be attained only when the government holistically addresses the recognition, empirical and exclusion dilemmas. The simple concept is acknowledging existence of IDPs regardless of the reasons of displacement, process data of IDPs for planning purposes and lastly engage them in the participatory planning of the development agenda as citizens. Consequently, the state should provide capabilities, entitlement and sustainable livelihood strategies for the IDPs. Lastly, the state and development partners should work together to achieve durable solutions. Due to the state` disengagement on IDPs the development partners need to be strategic on their engagement process and be active advocates on behalf of the IDPs.

The next chapter provides summary of the study, major findings, conclusions of the research and some policy options based on the key findings and objectives of the study on marginalisation and exclusionary effects of IDPs in Zimbabwe. Furthermore, the researcher will suggest some critical implications for future research.



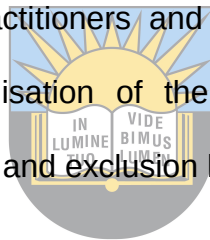
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CHAPTER NINE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY OPTIONS

9.0 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, a comprehensive summary of the phenomenon under research is presented. The previous chapters namely, chapter 5, 6, 7 and 8 focused on data presentation and analysis in line with the study dilemma revolving around recognition, empirical, exclusion and the durable solution in that order. Thus, in this chapter focus is on drawing summary, conclusions based on the analysis and suggesting policy options for consideration. The suggested policy options are mainly targeted at the development practitioners and the authorities in Zimbabwe and beyond in ameliorating marginalisation of the IDPs and addressing the three dilemmas of recognition, empirical and exclusion highlighted in the study.



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In their approval letter and acceptance to participate in the study, the Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare requested the final dissertation document. The approval letter had this to say; "Please kindly submit a copy of your final research document to the Department of Social Welfare upon completion as your research has a bearing to the department's mandate". Not to be outdone, the Ministry of Local Government and Public Works in their approval letter also expressed that the findings of the study would help the Ministry to find relevant strategies in the study discourse. This was encouraging, put away the political assumptions on the IDPs and it motivated the researcher to undertake a credible study without fear or favour.

The researcher's full view is that in the event the policy options are adopted and implemented to the latter, recognition of IDPs will play a role and result in the attainment of durable solutions. The policy options or findings of the study could add some impetus when implemented in the country. This is because there is limited research literature that has been carried out in Zimbabwe in this politically viewed and sensitive discourse.

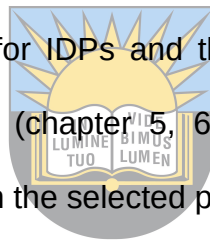
9.1 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The study explored and analysed a comparative marginalisation and exclusionary effects on internally displaced persons (IDPs) in the diverse forms of internal displacement in the three provinces of Matabeleland North, Manicaland and Masvingo in Zimbabwe. As articulated in the research problem, IDPs continue to be exposed to forms of marginalisation, discrimination, regarding access to land (title and of security), admission to health facilities, human capital, education and employment opportunities (Al-Mamun et al. 2022).

On the analysis of internal displacement and the politics surrounding IDPs, the study has few insights about forced migration. This view is premised on the IDPs and refugee's definitions. In this aspect, the different impacts, assumptions, actions are placed on the definition usage either in a positive or negative manner. The definitional dichotomy of IDPs and refugees impacts on the latter in terms of provision of services yet, both groups are individuals displaced from their habitual places of residences. For example, in Zimbabwe thousands of people remain internally displaced, marginalised, excluded with their rights violated in the process

due to the implemented governmental policies such as Operation Restore Order/Operation Murambatsvina and the Fast Track Land Reform Programme respectively and denial of their human rights.

As such in this study, the usage of capability approach relating to the definitional dichotomy of refugees and IDPs plays a vital role especially on forced migration policies. For instance, as expressed earlier in the study concerning the current situation in Zimbabwe with regard to IDPs tend to be difficult especially in the usage of some policy instruments that hinder the achievement of durable solutions for IDPs in the three provinces. In this regard, capabilities, entitlement and sustainable livelihood remains unpredictable for IDPs and this takes account of one research objective. The previous chapters (chapter 5, 6, 7 and 8) analysed the different themes on internal displacement in the selected provinces on marginalisation.

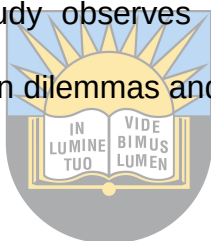


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The study views that the definition (that is between IDPs and refugees), IDPs politics, and the current environment has aggravated and deprived the protection of IDPs fundamental human rights on basic service provision. Furthermore, this is worsened by the lack of adequate support from local and international institutions. The findings of the study reflected that there was massive marginalisation and exclusion of IDPs in Zimbabwe mainly caused by government's action or non-action. Some of the flaws being lack of policy, programme implementation, lack of political will and disjointed coordination of IDPs interventions.

9.2 OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND FINDINGS

In order to accomplish the objectives of this study, related questions were formulated in cognisance with the study's three dilemmas. The emerging findings showed that internal displacement in the three provinces were mainly caused by the states policies through the Gukurahundi Atrocities, Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order, Fast Track Land Reform Programme and political violence. The study made use of three approaches that is the capability, entitlement and sustainable livelihood to assist in framing the study questions to achieve the research's objectives. The study will outline briefly the main issues of findings in line with the study's dilemmas that is recognition, empirical and exclusion which are linked to the objectives. The study observes a close relationship between the recognition, empirical and exclusion dilemmas and are not distinct elements.



Objective 1: To assess the level of awareness among government officials, IDPs and civil society organisations of the state's responsibilities with regards to IDPs in Manicaland, Matabeleland North and Masvingo provinces. (In line with the recognition dilemma). In line with the objective 1, the following questions were posed to the respondents:

1. What is the cause of your displacement, how are you being treated as a result of your displacement by the state, communities and other development agencies?
2. What are the perceptions built around the nexus between internal displacement and rights to social services?

3. How are you been accommodated as a process within the political, economic and social structures?
4. What are the implications of the insufficiency absence of a policy framework for the well-being and livelihoods of the displaced persons in Zimbabwe?

9.3 MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

9.3.1 Major findings on recognition dilemma (Objective 1)

Internal displacement for the three selected provinces namely: Matabeleland North, Masvingo and Manicaland resembled abandonment and de-humanisation of the IDPs status to their lives due to their non-recognition. According to respondents, life as IDPs was unbearable. This was aggravated by the government as it failed to provide protection and care on the IDPs' condition and assist in obstacles linked to their displacement. In their view (IDPs), there was no assistance rendered in the displacement cycle and hence they felt useless, neglected, and invisible as a result of the non-recognition by the state.

Nussbaum`s (2011) in her approach assumes that a government provides capabilities. However, in this research findings illuminated that had not been the case for the IDPs as a result of displacement. Furthermore, a majority of them lost their source of livelihoods and thereby denied their capabilities and entitlements due to their non-recognised status. Tapping on the narratives given by the IDPs and through observation by the researcher, it may be concluded that family heads were failing to provide the necessary basic life requirement for their families and it was worse for those displaced more than once. The notion of double displacement is supported by a Political Science Scholar, Masunungure (2016) who notes further

deprivation of IDPs when in the process of gaining their capabilities after the first displacement. For instance, the respondents representing the youth alluded to the fact that , the non-recognition of their displacement status had led to their peers developing negative life coping strategies, some of which were dehumanising especially for the girl child and this in the process promoted negative label tag (IDPs). For instance, they highlighted that a majority of them were involved in drugs, criminality, prostitution and early marriages for survival purposes. More so, this was happening in a situation where most of the youths are unemployed. The study showed that the majority of the respondents were not employed.

The Kampala Convention reinforcing the GPID states that the fundamental rights of IDPs, humanitarian assistance and acceptance are a right to be offered by the concerned states. However, this is not the case within the Zimbabwean government. For instance, the research established that the authorities from central government to local authorities confirmed a serious lack of political will to accept, appreciate and offer support and promote basic human rights of the IDPs. Therefore, the non-domestication of the Kampala Declaration and the GPID policy implementation in Zimbabwe is not an oversight but rather a declaration of the invisibility of internal displacement because of the non-recognition stance. As such basic service provisions in the three IDPs provinces of Zimbabwe remain inadequate.

On the discourse of IDPs, Benhura et al. (2019) raised a point that a holistic look of displacement determines the realisation of human rights for the internal displaced communities. Drawing from the rights-based approach which states that among others, civic organisations empower IDPs to lay a good foundation to pursue all other

entitlements. In this instance, the local and international civil organisations should advocate for government to adhere to the Kampala Declaration for holistic programming that is properly backed with progressive policies and regulations so that basic services for the IDPs are enhanced. This is in line with the humanitarian International law contained in the Geneva Conventions of 1949 that states that failure by the state to adequately provide assistance the international community is compelled to act as in the Zimbabwean context that the government should recognise the IDPs.

Furthermore, it was highlighted during the discussion that the competition for the already limited resources strained relationship between IDPs and host communities in terms of food, water, health and education. Lack of these fundamental rights as enshrined under the African Charter on the rights of Child exacerbates lack of human dignity and well-being of the displaced communities as anchored by the rights-based concept. The research concurs with the views of Benhura et al. (2019) quoting Devereux (2001, p.153), that the weaker claims to resources or access create fuzziness to entitlements for the displaced communities. This happens due to failure by the government to recognise the IDPs.

Though scholars writing within the Zimbabwean context like Mkodzongi (2019) allude the fact that the Fast Track Land Reform Programme and Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order are top causes of internal displacements, the authorities denied this view. On the contrary, the authorities deny that their caused displacement but people are allowed to move anywhere in the country. However, they agreed that there were some pockets of IDPs as a result of natural

disasters like floods and cyclones. The study concludes that such sentiments by state officials are an indication of failure to recognise the existence of IDPs in Zimbabwe violation of their rights, capabilities and livelihood to the internal displacements in Zimbabwe.

In summation the study on the recognition dilemma established that, as a result of the reasons for displacement, non-originality, and timing of displacements, conflicts, security and safety and non-possession of IDs in the three provinces the IDPs were denied their capabilities and entitlements despite their guarantee through the Kampala Convention. IDPs lacked the capital elements of livelihood from the government. The implication is deprivation and limitation of IDPs rights and entitlements.



Objective 2: To provide an empirical base from which to better assess the needs of IDPs in Zimbabwe *vis a vis* the other citizens of the country in Manicaland, Matabeleland North and Masvingo provinces. (In line with the empirical dilemma). Empirical questions that helped to interrogate this aspect were:

1. Are there IDPs in the country and if so how many could there be?
2. How prevalent is the IDPs situation in Zimbabwe?
3. Who is responsible for ensuring that the data base for IDPs is in place and well administered?
4. Has the state domesticated the IDPs International Conventions?

5. What is the relative vulnerability situation of the IDPs compared to other citizens because of the state's marginalisation of the internally displaced persons?

9.3.2 Major findings on empirical dilemma (Objective 2)

As indicated in (Chapter 2, item 2.4.2 and Chapter 5, item 5.5) empirical dilemma connects and quantifies the level of treatment for internal displacement. The study provided in-depth empirical assessment on the status of service provision that was offered by the authorities to the IDPs in terms of health, education, safety, livelihood, civic participation and conflicts resolutions. The analysis points that the levels are high in the exclusion of IDPs and reveal failure by the governments to protect their citizens and thereby deny capabilities, entitlement and sustainable livelihood aspects to the IDPs in the study areas of Matabeleland North, Masvingo and Manicaland. Also, the study showed the different quantities of the variables according to the selected provinces in the study. For example, the study revealed that Manicaland Province a total of (47%) respondents in the selected areas was highly affected due to the Fast Track Land Reform Programme while in Matabeleland North, IDPs were caused by Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order and Gukurahundi Atrocities. Understanding the different forms of displacement and their effects, helps addressing the interventions, policies to support the IDPs and the host communities. The empirical dilemma acts as an instrument that reveals the levels or impact of the non-recognition and exclusion dilemma in the internal displacement discourse.

One critical question raised on the empirical dilemma was: Are there IDPs in the area? The study established that 76% respondents in the selected study areas indicated to be new settlers in the study areas. Furthermore, the reasons for being in

the area were revealed as the Fast Track Land Reform Programme, Operation Restore Order/Operation Murambatsvina, Gukurahundi and natural disasters.

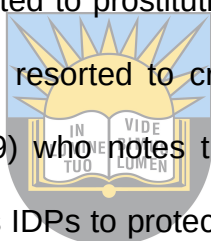
In summation, the demographic data showed that the majority of the IDPs in the three provinces were females in the selected areas of the study an implication woman remains vulnerable to internal displacement. Further, the emerging trend in all the provinces was that a majority of displaced persons in the three provinces were the elderly while the youths were unemployed and thus did not contribute to the country's GNP.

Objective 3: To explore various forms of exclusion from the provision of security, social and economic services for IDPs in Masvingo, Matabeleland North and Manicaland provinces. (In line with the exclusion dilemma). The following questions helped in the process of exposing the exclusion dilemma:

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1. What are the essential services being provided to the IDPs in Manicaland, Masvingo and Matabeleland North?
 2. What are the intervention measures initiated by state and partners to mitigate the challenges faced by IDPs in accessing social service provision?
 3. How have the IDPs accessed social services during and after their displacement?
 4. What is the effect of internal displacement on local level institutions, and how do they use them (local level institutions) to deal with their challenges?

9.3.3 Major findings on exclusion dilemma (Objective 3)

Lack of livelihoods for the IDPs in Zimbabwe prevented them from fulfilling their capabilities and inhibits the attainment of basic rights and results in extreme poverty as the IDPs are marginalised and socially excluded by the state. According to the findings of the study, 270 (90%) of the respondents in the selected study areas indicated that they had no official permission to settle in the villages and 201 (67%) responded that they were not sufficiently able to engage in farming and cultivate any crops as they did not have adequate land for that purpose. Most IDPs lacked the security of land tenure and had no sustainable livelihood activities for their families and thus depended on limited food assistance and negative coping strategies where the women and the girl child resorted to prostitution for survival. On the other hand, the unemployed boys and youths resorted to criminal activities. In support of the findings is Schroeder et al. (2019) who notes that vulnerability as a lack of land tenure and livelihood incapacitates IDPs to protect their interests and this affects the way that they function.



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The Fast Track Land Reform Programme and the Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order disrupted the lives of the internal displaced and affected the schooling trajectory to date. Dzimiri et al. (2012) observes that the timeline of these government sponsored programmes was to blame as it marked the denial of educational services to the children of the displaced communities. The study's demographic statistics provided indicate that 270 (90%) of the respondents in the selected study areas were not attending schools in the areas. This is further substantiated by respondents who brought to the attention of the study that education was not offered to their children. Apart from the high fees charged by the

schools the IDPs were segregated.

As emerging in the findings of the study in all 3 provinces a 225 (75%) respondents in the selected study areas noted that they were not safe at all by staying in the areas due to serious insecurity, lack of land tenure, lack of livelihood activities and attributed this to marginalisation and exclusionary effects of being IDPs. Participants confirmed through their experiences that there live in fear of another displacement as there were not protected.

The research concludes that as a politically marginalised group perpetuated by the state, it is evident that securing the basic human rights and privileges is a difficult process for IDPs in Zimbabwe.



Also, it has been noted that displacement is a human rights violation (Williams, 2019). The above statement brings to light the linkage between human rights and displacement. Conclusively, the study in line with the conceptual framework notes that IDPs in Zimbabwe's denial of promotion and protection of human rights by the state negates one's capability and thus de-promotes their entitlements. A majority of IDPs were not accessing the basic social, economic, political and environmental services as a result of lack of essential documents such as ID cards that were either lost or destroyed in the process of displacements. Thus, it may be inferred that the displacements denied many of their rights more so those without identification cards and migrant descendant.

For example, in Zimbabwe, lack of an identification card means one cannot access a certain number of services. Subsequently, non-schooling, employment and health care services for IDPs children and youths is negatively affected. Thus, rendering IDPs vulnerable and invisible as they are also not recognised by the state and thus excluded from the services. According to the findings of the study 249 (83%) of the respondents in the selected areas indicated that they were excluded from access to health services among other services in the areas. Despite the Motto which reads *Health for All*, a health official confirmed that anyone without an ID were not treated at the health institutions.

According to Olido (2022) development partners offering humanitarian assistance are guided by the principles of 'humanity, impartiality, neutrality and independence'. The study observed that the Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare and the development partners agreed that the short term implemented programmes had no positive impact and lacked viability and were not sustainable. Support Organisations are required to aid IDPs when the host government fails or incapable to do so (Zaman et al. 2022). This is also expressed in the IDP Guiding Principles. The study established that the state failed to provide basic services to IDPs and, at times prevented NGOs from fulfilling this role. However, the study notes that humanitarian assistance from NGOs tendered to prioritise immediate relief over sustainable, long term solutions.

For instance, Fast Track Land Reform Programme and Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order occurred around 2000s and to date support organisations are still providing short term programming such as humanitarian

assistance. Thus, the development partners exist to perpetuate the problem of IDPs for their existence by not venturing in impact programming (Bimeny, 2022). This assertion is supported by Orido (2022) who advances that perpetuating IDPs problems will not attain their durable solutions. Furthermore, the research concludes that the development partners offer support exclusively to the IDPs which is a cause for concern. The practise perpetuates the stigma associated with the IDPs label, that is used to marginalise IDPs by the host communities and the study advocates that the support organisation should include other vulnerable members of host communities in the implemented programmes that are earmarked for IDPs. Deneulin et al. (2016) note that the fragility and fallibility of human institutions create gaps of vulnerable people's capabilities and results in perpetuation or failure to attain desired lives of the IDPs as is the case in Zimbabwe.



Traub (2006) sums up that development partners as powerful bodies in societies who are controlled by their funders mainly from the USA among have a different agenda in the discourse of internal displacement. The study alludes to the fact that development partners could in fact be protecting their territory of existence and perpetuate the stand point of displaced individuals (decline to participate by one of the development partners) due to the past actions of the government. In this regard, the study calls the civil society organisations, local and international funders to ensure that IDPs are assisted both with short and long term interventions.

Drawing from Sen's concept of entitlements, it is clear that the IDPs in Zimbabwe are not capable of realising their opportunities and rights in the communities they reside. Thus, it may be concluded that internal displacement is not only rampant

with violation of human rights but also results in poor quality of lives for the IDPs. Further to the poor quality of life for the displaced and marginalised groups in Zimbabwe questions the implementation of social justice. According to Benhura et al, (2019) and quoting Deneulin (2009) a just society promotes development of functional capabilities in a given community to attain good and quality living. In the words of Sen, capabilities and entitlements are closely related. Therefore, in view of this analysis the study concludes that IDPs in Zimbabwe are nowhere near attaining their ambitions of entitlements and capabilities.

One of the universal rights is the right to life as it is vital to human capabilities. According to Badescu (2011:4) the norm places high value 'on actual or apprehended genocidal intent leading to large scale loss of life or large scale ethnic cleansing'. In the Zimbabwean situation this was exposed through the horrific atrocities of the effects of the Gukurahundi in Matabeleland Provinces as articulated in the research. However, this has created obstacles for other crimes against human race. Besides, internal displacement caused by Gukurahundi, it was also noted that Operation Murambatsvina and Fast Track Land Reform Programme was also a contributor to human rights and human security.

Zimbabwe has no protection camps for IDPs, the study observed such protection facilities in the Tokwe-Mukosi Dam construction project in Masvingo. Protection camps in other countries (South Sudan) have worked during the early recovery stages of displacement but are not sustainable. The study noted that this facility lacked provision of essential services such as water, shelter, lighting and social services. The state is duty bound to protect and provide services to their citizens

inclusive of IDPs as outlined in the Guiding Principle (3) and Article (5) (1) of the Kampala Convention.

Stoecklin et al. (2021) observe the 'synergy role between capabilities approach and human rights. This is exacerbated by the realisation that the state and the development partners seem to fail to offer the moral and legal obligation for the IDPs and deprive them of their dignity and freedom as human beings with lack of fundamental social and economic services. According to Benhura et al. (2019), lack of connectivity between the human rights and capacities negates repossess their capabilities. Furthermore, the power dynamics between the government of Zimbabwe and humanitarian organisations becomes misdirected and this calls for the implementation of a number of strategies that are meant to assist IDPs. As a result, IDPs' rights are not taken into consideration and their chances of obtaining durable solutions remain bleak.



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Humanitarian agencies guided by international tools have the obligation to intervene when human atrocities and human rights violation takes place in any given state. Theoretically, this was the case during Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order, Gukurahundi and the Fast Track Land Reform Programme but, in practice this resulted in serious conflicts between the state and the development actors. The research concludes that the free play of development partners is indicative of the political power dynamics at play in the internally displaced discourse as advanced by (Benhura et al. 2019). Resultantly, the power dynamics at play have increased the vulnerability of the IDPs in Zimbabwe. Solution to this praxis would be to promote the IDPs to exercise their rights as well as their capabilities.

In summation, regarding the exclusion dilemma, the IDPs in the provinces of Matabeleland North, Masvingo and Manicaland lack basic rights such as shelter, food, water, education and health services. In fact, the basic rights are those without which no other rights can be enjoyed. The study emphasises the importance of these rights to all individuals, including IDPs in the three provinces in Zimbabwe. Finally, non-recognition, with inadequate empirical evidence and exclusion of basic services is a challenge in attaining durable solutions for the IDPs in the three provinces.

Objective 4: To identify, based on the outcome of the research, a policy framework that will help government and the development sector to effectively attend to the needs of the displaced persons and to enhance their rights of citizenship in Zimbabwe. The comprehensive research questions covering recognition, empirical and exclusion were applied to deal with this objective.



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9.3.4 Major findings on durable solution concept (Objectives 1-4)

As alluded to earlier, durable solution is a result of the functioning of recognition, empirical and exclusion dilemmas. As such, the findings indicated that there is sustained no-recognition of IDPs, an absence of empirical data, persistent exclusion and worse treatment of IDPs as the majority of the selected areas respondents in the three provinces opted to be settled elsewhere.

However, the fact that a majority of the respondents in all the selected areas of the three provinces preferred to be resettled is therefore, indicative that, promotion of social justice in the country is a cause for concern because the status quo of the

IDPs persists. Moreover, there are missed opportunities in terms of political participation, human capabilities and the endowment set by the IDPs. On the other hand, some of the participants felt that their durable solution could only be achieved if they returned to their original location, as they felt their way of living would be improved through the assistance of their old friends.

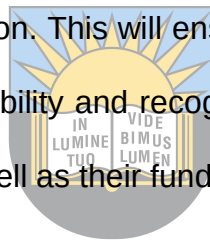
Also, the failure of the durable solutions for the three provinces was because of the assessment of the 8 point UN durable solution bench mark that failed the test. In all the conditions the results were below the mark an implication that IDPs durable solution was a failure. On the other hand, the state should recognise the IDPs and programme with them to attain durable solution. General, the state has failed to provide the capabilities, entitlements and sustainable livelihoods activities and their failure to implement the IDPs protection policies. However, while NGO positively assisted the IDPs, the study notes that in the long run, the NGOs become non-sustainable interventions and as such urges the development partners to advocate support from the government and that they should play their responsibility of protecting and assisting the internal displacement. The study concludes that durable solutions implies the government`s acknowledgement of recognition, empirical and exclusion dilemmas and strategically work together with the development partners and engage the IDPs in the process.



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9.4 POLICY OPTIONS

Uprooted and displaced from their habitual safe homes of stay through the Fast Track Land Reform Programme, Operation Murambatsvina/Operation Restore Order, Gukurahundi atrocities and natural disasters these IDPs are not recognised by the state. Despite internal displacement being rampant globally, in Zimbabwe the situation remains dire because to date the state is yet to accept existence of the IDPs. The study strongly argued that these politically non-recognised individuals are not benefiting from the state and remain vulnerable. The thesis argues that the local and international civic organisations should advocate for government to implement holistic national policies. The policies should be congruent to international policies in the form of the Kampala Convention. This will ensure that the state recognises them as IDPs and thus ensure their visibility and recognition as IDPs is enhanced as this will exercise their capabilities as well as their fundamental rights in society.



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The power dynamics observed within the displacement discourse has seriously impacted on the vulnerability of the marginalised IDPs in Zimbabwe. Human rights violation top as the cause of internal displacement in Zimbabwe. The study contends that the civil societies both at national and international level as empowered by the different binding statutes are the gateway to cement to the state to acknowledge, accept and recognise the fair treatment of IDPs in Zimbabwe as other ordinary citizens to the provision of human rights. This is on the basis that international civil societies are duty bound to redress any form of discrimination on the aggrieved parties in this case, the IDPs and be prepared to know how to handle the issues of sovereignty and the selective approach by the ruling party in Zimbabwe. This taking

into consideration that no state was immune to legal global involvement that maintains and promotes the fundamental human rights of persons.

The research contends that the IDPs in Zimbabwe are far from the achievement of the durable solutions as a result of their marginalisation and exclusion. However, it is the opinion of the study that drawing from the rights-based concept and the holistic implementation of all vital elements such as: provision of education, health, livelihoods and the recognition of the IDPs championed by the state with support from the development partners human rights will be attained and thus durable solution achieved. Attainment of durable solutions for the IDPs in Zimbabwe will promote their capabilities, entitlements, livelihood and a just living for prosperity. This, however, calls for commitment and funding from the state and development partners.



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In conclusion, it is the assertion of the study that the mentioned three dilemmas (recognition, empirical and exclusion) are conceptual contributions to the internal displacement discourse in Zimbabwe. Therefore, it is in the interest of all concerned parties to deal with the recognition, empirical and exclusion dilemmas for the betterment of the livelihoods for the IDPs in Zimbabwe. The study has proved beyond reasonable doubt that these are critical conceptual contributions to be attended to by the stakeholders especially the responsible authority, the state.

A review of the literature indicates that research on internal displacement in Zimbabwe has significantly increased, as such, there is need to interrogate protection of IDPs. As demonstrated in this thesis, the study posits that sustainable attainment of durable solutions for IDPs revolves around the theoretical concepts of capabilities, entitlements and sustainable livelihoods. Furthermore, the theoretical concepts add some impetus on the realization of the research identified dilemmas of recognition, empirical and exclusion.

9.5 THE STUDYS CONTRIBUTIONS

In light of the methodology used in the research, the study observed crucial issues that need attention. Zimbabwe has replaced the globally accepted IDP terminology with "Mobile and Vulnerable Population" (MVPs). Analytically, the shift of name is based on the sovereignty notion to assert independence on how to handle displacements apart from avoiding international scrutiny. Furthermore, the forced displacements in Zimbabwe are quite unique compared to other internal displacements due to land reforms, operation restore order, political instability, economic woes and climate change. As a result, the study seeks to contribute to unpacking the definition of what constitutes an IDP in the context of Zimbabwe. Furthermore, while the state has implemented a number of policies to protect IDPs with no impact or change in the status of the forced displacement, the study aims to contribute to some robust policy development that ensures the better protection of the IDP population in the country.

Another contribution of the study is in respect of the comparative perspective in the analysis across three different provinces that have different social, cultural, economic and political histories and their different causes and forms of displacement. Also, analyzing the available data related to the extensive lack of essential documents amongst IDPs, in a range of circumstances is another contribution of the study. Lastly, the application of the three study dilemmas that is recognition, empirical and exclusion as the study contribution are critical and a pre-requisite to the durable solution concept.

9.6 IMPLICATIONS

By and large development partners do not have control over the spread of IDPs in Zimbabwe or in any other given state but play a crucial role in mitigating effects and supporting the affected individuals. However, robust strategies must be devised and put in place to mitigate the spread of internal displacement. To this end, solid partnership and management relationships should be strengthened to uphold a cordial working partnership between the State (Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare) and the development partners to address internal displacements in Zimbabwe. Furthermore, as the findings state, the aspects of IDPs durable solution is not on track. As such, one assumes that in case the government continues to refuse to acknowledge the incorporation of the recognition, empirical and exclusion of the IDPs, the following should be done: There is need for civic societies both national, regional and internationally to carry on board the responsibility of the IDPs without usurping powers, while at the same time advocating and capacitating the state to honour its legal and primary responsibility of protecting and assisting the IDPs.

9.7 AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Owing to the current study, the researcher has opened up new avenues to be reviewed in the controversial subject matter of IDPs in Zimbabwe. The issues that were observed by the researcher that need further investigation could be:

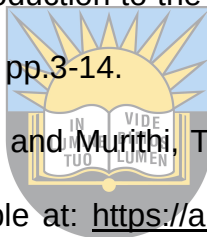
- The impact of a community free from labelling the IDPs in an integrated community that promotes co-existence in the country Zimbabwe.



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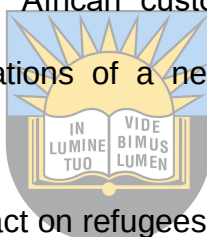
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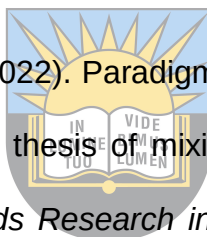
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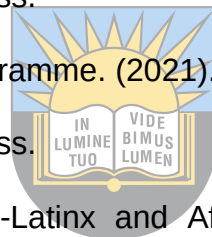
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Together in Excellence

ANNEXURE 1: LETTERS OF PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

House No. 14401
Madokero Estate, Harare.

18th September 2019

The Permanent Secretary
Ministry of Local Government, Public Works and National Housing
P. Bag 7706
Causeway, Harare.

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: APPLICATION TO CONDUCT AN ACADEMIC RESEARCH IN MASVINGO, MANICALAND AND MATABELELAND NORTH PROVINCES

The above subject refers.

I **Alois Neza SIKUKA**, ID No. **79-074137 Y 79** hereby request for permission to conduct an Academic Research in Zimbabwe. I am a PhD Candidate in Social Science-Development Studies with University of Fort Hare (UFH), South Africa.

My study areas are as follows:

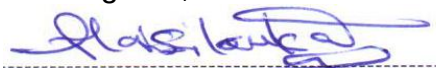
1. Masvingo Province (Masvingo District)
2. Manicaland Province (Makoni District)
3. Matabeleland North (uMguza District)

I intend to interview the Provincial Development Coordinators, District Development Coordinators and members of the communities in the above cited districts.

The title of my project is ***“A Comparative Study of the Marginalisation and Exclusionary effects of Internally Displaced Persons (IDP`s) in the Diverse Forms of Internal Displacement in Zimbabwe”***

Find attached copy of my Ethics Clearance from the University of Fort Hare, Alice, South Africa.

Best regards,



Alois Neza SIKUKA
Cell Phone: +263 775 552 893
Email: 201708867@ufh.ac.za / ansikuka@yahoo.com

House No. 14401
Madokero Estate,
Harare.

18th September 2019

The Permanent Secretary
Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare
P. Bag CY 17
Harare

Dear Sir/Madam,

**RE: REQUESTING FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION IN THE RESEARCH AS A
STAKEHOLDER**

The above refers.

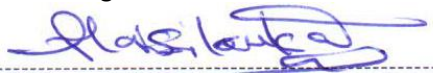
I **Alois Neza SIKUKA**, ID No. **79-074137 Y 79** is hereby requesting for your participation. If you agree to participate you will be requested to being interviewed. Your identity will be protected to the best of the researcher's knowledge. The study will be conducted in Zimbabwe in the three provinces of Manicaland, Masvingo and Matabeleland North.

The title of my project is ***"A Comparative Study of the Marginalisation and Exclusionary effects of Internally Displaced Persons (IDP's) in the Diverse Forms of Internal Displacement in Zimbabwe"***

Find attached copy of my Ethics Clearance from the University of Fort Hare, Alice, South Africa.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Best regards,



Alois Neza SIKUKA

Cell Phone: +263 775 552 893

Email: ansikuka@yahoo.com / 201708867@ufh.ac.za

House No. 14401
Madokero Estate,
Harare.

18th September 2019

The Chief of Mission
International Organisation for Migration (IOM)
P. Box 1420
Harare

Dear Sir/Madam,

**RE: REQUESTING FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION IN THE RESEARCH AS A
STAKEHOLDER**

The above refers.

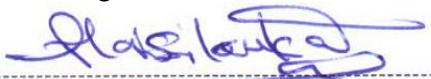
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Find attached copy of my Ethics Clearance from the University of Fort Hare, Alice, South Africa.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Best regards,



Alois Neza SIKUKA
Cell Phone: +263 775 552 893
Email: ansikuka@yahoo.com / 201708867@ufh.ac.za

House No. 14401
Madokero Estate,
Harare.

18th September 2019

The Provincial Development Coordinator - Masvingo
Ministry of Local Government, Public Works and National Housing
P. Bag 1420
Masvingo.

Dear Sir/Madam,

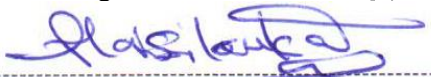
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The title of my project is ***"A Comparative Study of the Marginalisation and Exclusionary effects of Internally Displaced Persons (IDP's) in the Diverse Forms of Internal Displacement in Zimbabwe"***

Best regards,



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Alois Neza SIKUKA

Cell Phone: +263 775 552 893

Email: ansikuka@yahoo.com / 201708867@ufh.ac.za

House No. 14401
Madokero Estate,
Harare.

18th September 2019

The District Development Coordinator – Masvingo
Ministry of Local Government, Public Works and National Housing
P. Bag 140
Masvingo

Dear Sir/Madam,

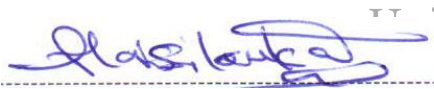
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The title of my project is ***"A Comparative Study of the Marginalisation and Exclusionary effects of Internally Displaced Persons (IDP's) in the Diverse Forms of Internal Displacement in Zimbabwe"***

Best regards,



Alois Neza SIKUKA

Cell Phone: +263 775 552 893

Email: ansikuka@yahoo.com / 201708867@ufh.ac.za



House No. 14401
Madokero Estate,
Harare.

18th September 2019

The Country Director
Christian Aid (CA)
Harare

Dear Sir/Madam,

**RE: REQUESTING FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION IN THE RESEARCH AS A
STAKEHOLDER**

The above refers.

I **Alois Neza SIKUKA**, ID No. **79-074137 Y 79** is hereby requesting for your participation. If you agree to participate you will be requested to being interviewed. Your identity will be protected to the best of the researcher's knowledge. The study will be conducted in Masvingo Province in Masvingo where your organisation is implementing interventions for internally displaced persons.

The title of my project is ***"A Comparative Study of the Marginalisation and Exclusionary effects of Internally Displaced Persons (IDP`s) in the Diverse Forms of Internal Displacement in Zimbabwe"***

Best regards,



Alois Neza SIKUKA

Cell Phone: +263 775 552 893

Email: ansikuka@yahoo.com / 201708867@ufh.ac.za



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

House No. 14401
Madokero Estate,
Harare.

18th September 2019

The Provincial Development Coordinator - Manicaland
Ministry of Local Government, Public Works and National Housing
P. Bag 1320
Mutare.

Dear Sir/Madam,

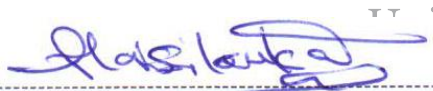
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The title of my project is ***"A Comparative Study of the Marginalisation and Exclusionary effects of Internally Displaced Persons (IDP's) in the Diverse Forms of Internal Displacement in Zimbabwe"***

Best regards,



Alois Neza SIKUKA

Cell Phone: +263 775 552 893

Email: ansikuka@yahoo.com / 201708867@ufh.ac.za



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

House No. 14401
Madokero Estate,
Harare.

18th September 2019

The District Development Coordinator - Makoni
Ministry of Local Government, Public Works and National Housing
P. Bag 1978
Makoni

Dear Sir/Madam,

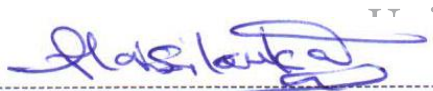
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The title of my project is ***"A Comparative Study of the Marginalisation and Exclusionary effects of Internally Displaced Persons (IDP's) in the Diverse Forms of Internal Displacement in Zimbabwe"***

Best regards,



Alois Neza SIKUKA

Cell Phone: +263 775 552 893

Email: ansikuka@yahoo.com / 201708867@ufh.ac.za



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

House No. 14401
Madokero Estate,
Harare.

18th September 2019

The Country Director
Norwegian Refugees Council (NRC)
Harare

Dear Sir/Madam,

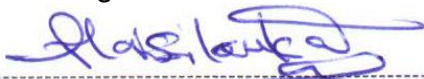
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The title of my project is ***"A Comparative Study of the Marginalisation and Exclusionary effects of Internally Displaced Persons (IDP`s) in the Diverse Forms of Internal Displacement in Zimbabwe"***

Best regards,



Alois Neza SIKUKA

Cell Phone: +263 775 552 893

Email: ansikuka@yahoo.com / 201708867@ufh.ac.za



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

House No. 14401
Madokero Estate,
Harare.

18th September 2019

The Provincial Development Coordinator – Matabeleland North
Ministry of Local Government, Public Works and National Housing
P. Bag 47
Lupane.

Dear Sir/Madam,

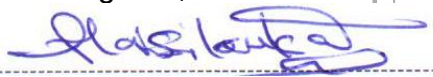
**RE: REQUESTING FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION IN THE RESEARCH AS A
STAKEHOLDER**

The above refers.

I **Alois Neza SIKUKA**, ID No. **79-074137 Y 79** is hereby requesting for your participation. If you agree to participate you will be requested to being interviewed. Your identity will be protected to the best of the researcher's knowledge. The study will be conducted in Matabeleland North Province in uMguza district in your area of jurisdiction.

The title of my project is ***“A Comparative Study of the Marginalisation and Exclusionary effects of Internally Displaced Persons (IDP's) in the Diverse Forms of Internal Displacement in Zimbabwe”***

Best regards,



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Alois Neza SIKUKA

Cell Phone: +263 775 552 893

Email: ansikuka@yahoo.com / 201708867@ufh.ac.za

House No. 14401
Madokero Estate,
Harare.

18th September 2019

The District Development Coordinator - uMguza
Ministry of Local Government, Public Works and National Housing
P. Bag 3210
uMguza

Dear Sir/Madam,

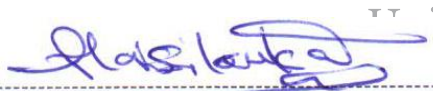
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The title of my project is ***"A Comparative Study of the Marginalisation and Exclusionary effects of Internally Displaced Persons (IDP`s) in the Diverse Forms of Internal Displacement in Zimbabwe"***

Best regards,



Alois Neza SIKUKA

Cell Phone: +263 775 552 893

Email: ansikuka@yahoo.com / 201708867@ufh.ac.za



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

House No. 14401
Madokero Estate,
Harare.

18th September 2019

The Country Director
Zimbabwe Community Development Trust (ZCDT)
Harare

Dear Sir/Madam,

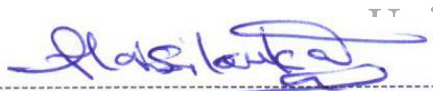
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STAKEHOLDER**

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The title of my project is ***"A Comparative Study of the Marginalisation and Exclusionary effects of Internally Displaced Persons (IDP's) in the Diverse Forms of Internal Displacement in Zimbabwe"***

Best regards,



Alois Neza SIKUKA

Cell Phone: +263 775 552 893

Email: ansikuka@yahoo.com / 201708867@ufh.ac.za



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ANNEXURE 2: LETTER OF APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Ministry of Local Government, Public Works and National Housing

Telephone 263 4 707615
Fax 263 4 797706
REF: ADM/23/8

Office of The Secretary
P. Bag 7706
Causeway,
Harare


ZIMBABWE

14 October 2019

Mr Alois Neza Sikuka
House No. 14401
Madokero Estate,
Harare

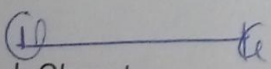
APPROVAL OF AUTHORITY TO UNDERTAKE ACADEMIC RESEARCH: MR ALOIS NEZA SIKUKA: UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE STUDENT

The above subject matter refers.

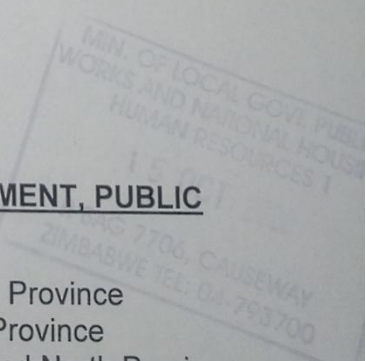
Please be advised that the Head of Ministry, in his memorandum dated 10 October 2019, approved your application to undertake a field research on **Marginalisation and Exclusionary effects of internally Displaced Persons (IDP'S) in Zimbabwe.**

Further, be advised that, the research findings should not be subject to external consumption and must be solely used for academic purposes only. You are mandated to complete the Official Secrecy Act before commencement of the research project. In addition, the final copy of the research findings should be submitted to the Office of the Permanent Secretary upon completion.

It is hoped that the research findings will help the Ministry in coming up with relevant strategies in the study area undertaken.


I. Chazuka
FOR: PERMANENT SECRETARY FOR LOCAL GOVERNMENT, PUBLIC WORKS AND NATIONAL HOUSING

Cc: The A/Provincial Development Coordinator, Manicaland Province
The A/Provincial Development Coordinator, Masvingo Province
The A/Provincial Development Coordinator, Matabeleland North Province



Ms Gumbira
Correspondence should not be addressed to individuals
information
ph

please assist with



ZIMBABWE

MINISTRY OF PUBLIC SERVICE, LABOUR
AND SOCIAL WELFARE
9th Floor Kaguvu Building
P.O. Box CY 17
Causeway
HARARE

Telephone: (04) 704085 / 703871 / 703625
Fax: (04) 700393

REF:

20 September 2019

→ Mr. Alois Neza Sikuka
House No. 14401
Madokero Estate
HARARE

**REQUEST FOR THE MINISTRY'S PARTICIPATION IN YOUR PROJECT RESEARCH
WORK TITLED "MARGINALISATION AND EXCLUSIONARY EFFECTS OF INTERNALLY
DISPLACED PERSONS (IDP's) IN ZIMBABWE"**

The Ministry acknowledges receipt of your letter dated 18 September 2019 in which you requested the Ministry's participation in your research on the aforementioned title project.

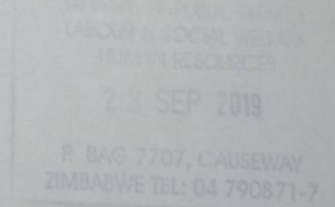
Please be advised that the Ministry has allocated the Deputy Director, Family and Social Protection Services, Mr. T. Tirivavi, to assist you with relevant personnel in your study through interviews. The approval is on the condition that the research is for academic purposes only in pursuit of your PHD in Development Studies and that the data collected should not be shared to third parties.

You are kindly requested to submit a copy of your final research document to the Department of Social Welfare upon completion as your research has a bearing to the Department's mandate.

S. Masanga
Ms S. Masanga
Permanent Secretary

MINISTRY OF PUBLIC SERVICE, LABOUR AND SOCIAL WELFARE

Cc Director, Human Resources
Director, Social Welfare
Deputy Director, Family and Social Protection Services
Deputy Director, Human Resources



Request for a research

MUGAURI Judith <JMUGAURI@iom.int>

To: ansikuka@yahoo.com, 201708867@ufh.ac.za

Cc: KASSAYE Teklewoine

Sep 21 at 4:19 AM

Dear Mr. Sikuka,

Based on IOM's regulatory framework, we kindly inform you that IOM's Ethics and Conduct Office (located in Geneva) has raised objections to your request to interview the COM Zimbabwe.

Please note all Research and interviews requests are sent to the Ethics office for clearance.

Regards,

Judith MUGAURI

Operations/Admin Assistant

International Organisation for Migration

Harare – Zimbabwe (GMT+2)

T. +263 4 704285/88/90

M. +263 771 147 543

www.zimbabwe.iom.int | [Facebook](#) | [Twitter](#)

ANNEXURE 3: HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDEX FOR ZIMBABWE FROM 1990

Zimbabwe - Human Development Index		
Date	HDI	HDI Ranking
2019	0.571	150°
2018	0.569	150°
2017	0.563	151°
2016	0.558	150°
2015	0.553	150°
2014	0.547	151°
2013	0.537	152°
2012	0.525	152°
2011	0.499	161°
2010	0.482	161°
2009	0.458	167°
2008	0.422	174°
2007	0.421	173°
2006	0.414	172°
2005	0.411	172°

Date	HDI	HDI Ranking
2004	0.411	164 ^o
2003	0.414	162 ^o
2002	0.423	156 ^o
2001	0.431	149 ^o
2000	0.430	147 ^o
1999	0.437	124 ^o
1998	0.442	119 ^o
1997	0.447	119 ^o
1996	0.453	116 ^o
1995	0.453	116 ^o
1994	0.460	112 ^o
1993	0.463	111 ^o
1992	0.467	110 ^o
1991	0.481	108 ^o
1990	0.478	109 ^o

Source: UNDP, Zimbabwe (2020)

ANNEXURE 4: CONDITIONS FOR DURABLE SOLUTIONS ACCORDING IASC FRAMEWORK ON DURABLE SOLUTION (DS)

Thematic Durable Solutions -area 8 conditions for durable solutions	Description	
	General	Internationally accepted Indicators measuring achievement of a durable solution
1. Safety and Security	IDPs do not suffer attacks, harassment, intimidation, persecution or any other form of punitive action	• Number of police stations and courts as well as trained police and judicial personnel deployed in IDP resettlement areas compared to the local situation before displacement • Degree of access by IDPs to police and judiciary compared to the resident population • Frequency of police patrolling in IDP areas • Number of reported acts of violence or intimidation targeting IDPs on the basis of their IDP-status • Safety and security perceptions of IDPs seeking durable solutions
2. Adequate standard of living	IDPs have adequate access on a sustainable basis to essential food and potable water, basic shelter and housing, essential medical services (including ARV), sanitation and at least primary school education	• Number of IDPs who are malnourished • Percentage of IDPs who do not have access to essential food, potable water, basic shelter or essential health care compared to the resident population • Percentage of IDP children with access to at least primary education compared to the resident population • Rates of IDP children whose education was interrupted by displacement and who resume schooling • Percentage of IDPs living in overcrowded housing/shelter, compared to the resident population • IDPs do not face specific obstacles to access public services, assistance or remittances from abroad compared to local residents with comparable needs
3. Access to livelihoods and employment	IDPs have access to employment and livelihoods that at least allows them to fulfil their core socio-economic needs. The IDPs must not face obstacles that prevent them from accessing employment and livelihoods on the same basis as residents	• There are no legal or administrative obstacles to IDP employment or economic activity that the resident population does not face • Unemployment among IDPs compared to the resident population • Types and conditions of employment of the IDP population compared to the resident population, including rates of informal-market employment and access to labor law standards, such as the minimum wage • Poverty levels among IDPs compared to the resident population

4. Access to documentation	IDPs have access to personal documentation, which is usually required to access public services, to vote and for administrative purposes	- IDPs face no legal or administrative obstacles to obtain or replace birth certificates, national ID cards, voter identification cards or other personal documents - Mechanisms to replace documents for IDPs are accessible and affordable bearing in mind the local context - Percentage of IDPs without birth certificates, national ID cards or other personal documents relevant compared to the resident population
5. Restoration of housing, land, property	IDPs have access to mechanisms for property restitution or compensation, regardless of whether they return or settle in the area where they found refuge or a new location	- Existence of effective and accessible mechanisms to resolve housing, land and property disputes relevant to displacement and steps taken to overcome the most common challenges to implementing housing, land and property rights - Percentage of IDP land and property claims resolved and enforced - Percentage of IDPs remaining without adequate housing, reduction in this percentage over time and comparison with the percentage for the resident population - IDPs have access to support programs (including access to credits) to improve housing, land or property on the same basis as the resident population
6. Access to effective remedies and justice	IDPs have full access to national and sub-national protection mechanisms, including police and courts	- Existence of accessible mechanisms that have the legal mandate and actual capacity to provide IDPs with effective remedies for violations suffered, including violations committed by non-state actors - Percentage of IDPs who consider that the violations suffered have been effectively remedied and a sense of justice restored - Number or percentage of identified cases of displacement-related serious human rights violations or grave breaches of humanitarian law that result in effective and adequate reparation
7. Family Reunification	IDPs have been able to reunite with family members if they choose to do so	- Mechanisms have been put in place to reunite separated family members. No movement restrictions prevent family reunification - The number of internally displaced children or other dependent persons who have not yet been reunited with their families - The number of persons without access to property/pensions due to a missing family member or other provider - The number of unaccompanied and separated internally displaced children for whom a best interest determination is needed but has not been conducted

8. Participation in public affairs	IDPs are able to exercise the right to participate fully and equally in public affairs	• IDPs face no legal or administrative obstacles not faced by the resident population that prevent them from voting, being elected or working in public service • The percentage of adult IDPs eligible and registered to vote in comparison to the resident population • The percentage of adult IDPs participating in elections held in comparison to the resident population • The percentage of IDPs among public servants and elected officials in comparison to the percentage of IDPs in the overall population
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ANNEXURE 5: QUESTIONNAIRE - INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS (IDP`S) / HOSTS COMMUNITIES

Questionnaire - Internally displaced persons (IDP`s) / Hosts communities
Topic: Marginalisation and Exclusionary effects of internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Zimbabwe: Self - Administered Questionnaire

Section A - Background Information of the Respondent/Household Demographics

1. Sex of Respondent?

Male ☐

Female ☐

2. Which is your Age range? (Respondent in years)

16 - 21 Years ☐

21 - 26 Years ☐

27 - 32 Years ☐

(d) 33 - 38 Years ☐

(e) 39 - 45 Years ☐

(f) 46 Years and above ☐

3. Marital status?

(a) Single ☐

(b) Married ☐

(c) Separated ☐

(d) Widowed ☐

4. Level of education?

(a) None ☐

(b) Primary ☐

(c) Secondary ☐

(d) Diploma ☐

(e) Degree ☐

(f) Post Graduate ☐

(g) PhD ☐



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5. Are you employed?

(a) No ☐

(b) Yes ☐

Section B - Information on Marginalisation and Exclusionary effects process

Marginalisation issues

6. Are you originally from this community?

(a) Yes ☐

(b) = No ☐

7. Which year did you arrive in this location?

(a) 2000 - 2004 ☐

(b) 2009 – 2012 ☐

(d) 2005 – 2008 ☐

(e) 2013 – 2015 ☐

8. Why did you leave your previous area?

(a) Natural Disasters ☐

(b) Lost Livelihoods ☐

(c) Operation Murambatsvina ☐

(specify).....

(d) Fear of Violence ☐

(e) Farm invasions ☐

(f) Other ☐

9. Do you have official permission to settle here?

- (a) Yes ☐
(b) No ☐
-

10. Are there any conflicts between the resident “host” and the displaced community?

- (a) Yes ☐
(b) No ☐
-

11. If yes, what are the issues of the conflict?

- | | |
|---|--|
| (a) Competition for resources ☐ | (f) Documentation/ Identity card |
| problems ☐ | |
| (b) Political differences ☐ | (g) Exclusion ☐ |
| (c) Cultural differences ☐ | (h) Gender based violence ☐ |
| (d) Lack of law enforcement ☐ | (i) General Crime ☐ |
| (e) Lack of security of tenure ☐ | (j) Other ☐ (specify) |
-

12. Do you and your family member’s possess any of the following documents? (Birth Certificate, National Identification Card Passport, Title land right permit)

- (a) Yes ☐
(b) No ☐
-

13. How does your family rate the level of security and safety in this area/Does your family feel safe and well appreciated by the general community?

- (a) Safe ☐
(b) Not Safe ☐
-

14. Who gave you land on which to stay?

- | | |
|--|--|
| (a) Community ☐ | (d) Council ☐ |
| (b) VIDCO ☐ | (e) Other ☐ (Specify) |
| (c) Chiefs ☐ | |
-

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15. Are you able to engage in farming activities on the land, you are staying?

- (a) Yes ☐
(b) No ☐
-

16. Do you benefit from any assistance?

- (a) Yes ☐
(b) No ☐
-

Adequate standard of living in the area

17. Do you feel you have good access to health services in the area?

- (a) = Yes ☐
(b) = No ☐
-

18. Are your children going to school?

- (a) Yes ☐
(b) No ☐
-

If not, why?

- | | |
|---|---|
| (a) No cash ☐ | (d) Early marriages ☐ |
| (b) No birth certificate ☐ | (e) Long distances to school ☐ |

(c) Stigmatised ☐

19. Do you freely attend and participate in the community meetings?

(a) = Yes ☐

(b) = No ☐

20. Have you voted in the Zimbabwean Elections since 1980 to Date?

(a) = Yes ☐

(b) = No ☐

If not, why was that so?

(a) Did not want to cast my vote ☐

(b) Personal reasons

(b) Was not illeigible to vote and give reason ☐

21. What do you perceive as a durable solution?

(a) Return to original location ☐

(c) Resettle elsewhere ☐

(b) Integrate where you are currently staying ☐

22. What is your general comment on the IDP marginalisation and social exclusionary effects?



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Thank you for your time!!

ANNEXURE 6: INTERVIEW QUESTION GUIDE - OFFICIALS

Topic: Marginalisation and exclusionary effects of internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Zimbabwe (IDPs)

Type of respondent:

1. Are there any internally displaced persons (IDPs) in the country your organisation is assisting?
2. If so, where did they come from?
3. What do you think were the reasons they left their original area of residence?
4. Who gives land rights to persons displaced?
5. What name is given to these persons displaced in Zimbabwe?
6. Are these persons being accepted by the host communities in your view?
7. Do host communities and internally displaced persons have safe and equal access to social services?
8. Are displaced persons' children allowed to attend school?
9. Have there been any conflicts between the "host" and the displaced community?
10. If yes, what do you think is the main cause of conflicts between the "host" and the displaced community?
11. How are conflicts between the resident "host" and the displaced resolved in the community?
12. What are main sources of income for most local people in this community?
13. What are the preferred durable solutions of displaced persons?
14. What assistance do you think they need to achieve this durable solution?
15. What programmes are you assisting the displaced persons with?
16. What is the impact of your programmes for the displaced persons?
17. What are the challenges you are facing on working with the displaced persons?
18. What is Government policy on displaced persons?
19. Any comment you wish to make?

Thank you for your time!!

ANNEXURE 7: QUESTION GUIDE – FOCUS GROUP

Topic: Marginalisation and exclusionary effects of internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Zimbabwe

1. Type of respondents:
2. Are we all originally from this area?
3. Those who are not from here where are there from?
4. How did they find their way to this area and settle?
5. What were the reasons to leave their original areas of stay?
6. How do we treat this group of people in the following aspects/How are we treated:
 - i) Access to education
 - ii) Access to health facilities
 - iii) Access to land and farming
 - iv) Participation in civic Affairs issues
7. How do the authorities handle these displaced persons?
8. Are you happy that youths of the displaced persons have the same opportunities with the host communities?
9. In your views, what should authorities do to assist the displaced persons?
10. Any additional comment you wish to make?



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Thank you for your time!!



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