The Introduction of Sport into Refugee Camps as a Catalyst for Development

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2009 Conference
International Studies Association
Abstract

Poverty alleviation, access to medical care, gender equality, and increased educational opportunities are issues that have long confronted the international development community. Many third world states continue to languish at crisis levels. With the ability to assist in overcoming many of these issues, the nexus between sport and development is becoming increasingly apparent. This paper examines the manner in which the introduction of sport in refugee camps has addressed developmental concerns. Case study methodology is used to examine refugee camps in Uganda, Zambia, and Tanzania. Themes discussed are: increased educational opportunities that have resulted from the introduction of sports facilities and equipment; the effect these increased educational opportunities have had on gender equality; and increased awareness of HIV/AIDS that has resulted from sport for development programs initiated in refugee camps. Addressing these issues not only provides one potential roadmap for development, but assists in alleviating internal strife that may occur within refugee camps. This paper will provide an appropriate lens through which to view the introduction of sport into refugee camps.

Introduction

Refugee camps – possibly the last resort for those in need of emergency aid and care – are also a bastion for dirt, filth, and disease. While many consider them a temporary fixture until self-sufficiency – either individual self-sufficiency or national self-sufficiency can be re-established – in fact many refugee camps remain in existence far longer than those seeking assistance actually survive. In fact, the refugee camp denotes nothing short of a humanitarian crisis. No one will doubt the importance of increased educational opportunities or increased awareness of
HIV/AIDS. The method of delivering education and medical awareness to the refugees is, however, an area in question. This paper will explore one of those delivery methods – the introduction of sport into the refugee camp. With emphasis on the outcomes of introduction of sport into camps in Uganda, Zambia, and Tanzania, this paper aims to provide a potential roadmap for development as well as assist in alleviating internal strife that may occur within refugee camps. As such, the research question for this paper shall be: “To what extent does the introduction of sport increase the educational opportunities, access to medical information, and gender equality in Uganda, Zambia, and Tanzania?” The first hypothesis posited will thus be: “The introduction of sport into refugee camps in Uganda, Zambia, and Tanzania will increase the educational opportunities for those housed in the refugee camps.” The second hypothesis shall be: “The introduction of sport into refugee camps in Uganda, Zambia, and Tanzania will increase access to medical information for those housed in the refugee camps.” The third hypothesis shall be: “The introduction of sport into refugee camps in Uganda, Zambia, and Tanzania shall increase gender equality among those housed in the refugee camps.”

Methodological Approach

The argument for the introduction of sport into refugee camps as a catalyst for development shall be made in six additional sections: a review of the extant literature on sport for development; a conceptual framework that will provide the appropriate lens through which to view the remainder of the paper; a brief examination of the international response to refugees; a brief examination of the concept of sport for development; the findings of the introduction of sport into refugee camps into Uganda, Zambia, and Tanzania; and concluding remarks.
Literature Review

In the post- World War II era, efforts to alleviate poverty, provide access to medicine and medical care, increase gender equality, and increase educational opportunities in the third world (for the purposes of this paper, we shall focus on Africa), have not been met with significant progress. In 2003, almost 3 billion people worldwide still lived in abject poverty (income levels of less than $2/day) (Levermore 2008, 55).

With regard to educational opportunities, there is little opportunity in sub-Saharan Africa for advanced training and education for teachers (DeJaegher 2008). Uganda has made significant strides in recognizing the overall benefits of universal education, though. In 1997, Uganda embarked its policy of Universal Primary Education (UPE). In doing so, the financial responsibility of educating the youth of Uganda was shifted from parents to the government. The result was an almost doubling of enrollment figures in one year – 2.7 million students in 1996 to 5.3 million in 1997 (DeJaegher 2008). In 2006, President Museveni won re-election on a platform of expanding universal education to include secondary education as well. Efforts to implement such a program began in 2007. This effort is hampered by the fact that only 1/3 of secondary schools in Uganda are publicly financed. The remaining 2/3 of secondary schools are privately financed and often face financial, as well as other, difficulties (Hite, et.al. 2005, 497). Despite these steps taken, significant hurdles still remain before educational opportunities for the youth in Uganda are truly accessible. Most schools in the towns of Mubende and Kaliro lack consistent access to electricity. As such, use of computers or lab equipment is sporadic, at best (DeJaegher 2008).
According to Donnelly (2007, 9) “… there has been a recent proliferation of development through sport agencies all claiming that the intended and unintended consequences of involving young people in low-and middle-income countries in sport will involve a great deal more than improvements in sport skills.” Donnelly, the Director of the Centre for Sport Policy Studies at the University of Toronto, also provides an appropriate historical context when he alludes to education reform in the United Kingdom during the mid-nineteenth century. It was at that point, according to Donnelly that the notion of sport participation and its impact on character development, work discipline, teamwork, fair play, etc. began to be noticed.

In seeking to establish the proper contextual background for the study of sport for development, Donnelly also provides the reader with definitions of “sport”, “children” and “youth”. For the purposes of his research, Donnelly developed the following definition: “… child and youth sport is understood to be an organized and supervised activity that facilitates and encourages teamwork, discipline, and hard work among young people.” (Donnelly 2007, 16)

Donnelly appears to also have a firm grasp on the consequences of the involvement of youth in sport. In his research, Donnelly focuses on various issues including the following:

- Inclusion and community-building which emphasizes the relationship between inclusion and overall social development. Under the proper circumstances, Donnelly points out that the inclusion of youth into sport programs assists in character building traits such as moral behavior, empathy, reasoning and leadership (Donnelly 2007, 29).

- Delinquency and community safety which emphasizes the positive contribution sport programs have had on the reduction of crime.
• Educational benefits. Particularly if physical education is part of the overall curriculum.
  (Donnelly 2007, 29).

Zakus, et.al. (2007, 55) point out the various benefits associated with sport. In recognizing the World Health Organization’s definition of the term “health”, the researchers point to the fact that included in this definition is the recognition that the “physical, mental, and social are all essential if an individual is to attain an optimal level of health.” With the individual increasingly responsible for lifestyle and other choices that will increase the likelihood of optimal levels of health, the researchers focus on the greater need for attention to the benefit of sport.

According to Zakus, et.al. (2007, 58-59), an appropriate manner in which to conceptualize the relationship between sport and health is to note the path from physical activity level to health related fitness to health outcomes. Referencing the need to supplement sport with a well-balanced diet (among other things), the researchers are quick to note, “The benefits of sport and physical activity will only accrue to individuals and populations in certain environments and in combinations with other factors.” In drawing on the relationship that exists between sport and diet, they later state, “Where people live in abject poverty, it may be difficult to achieve a balanced diet or to achieve minimal life stresses.”

Zakus, et.al. (2007, 72,73) also point out to “Kicking AIDS Out! International”, an international network of organizations promoting sport as a tool for development. Drawing from indigenous games and adapting their “movement” games to include HIV-prevention messages, this network is considered a pioneer. However, Zakus, et.al. are correct to point to the need for further studies before causality can be attained.
Larkin (2007, 96) brings gender into the equation in her article, “Gender, sport and development.” She adeptly points to the widespread subordinate status of women in gender relations as a cause for the need for scholarship in this area. According to Larkin, the 1980’s proved to be a watershed decade for the study of woman and development. It was during this decade that socialist feminists came to realize the importance of transforming “the existing gender order and social hierarchies.” This led to a more gender-sensitive approach.

According to Larkin (2007, 97), the gendered approach to the study of development led to the first World Conference on Women and Sport which was held in 1994 in Brighton, England. At this Conference, the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport was adopted. Additionally, the Conference was instrumental in the creation of the International Working Group on Women and Sport (www.iwg-gti.org) as well as Women’s Sport International (www.sportsbiz.bz/womensportinternational).

Overall, female participation in sport has in some studies been shown to have health related benefits, an increase in self-confidence, and allowed for female participants to foster new friendships (Larkin 2007, 97).

The success of the Brighton Conference has also led to the eventual creation of several other organizations whose mission is to draw attention to the gender issues within the sport for development genre. One of those organizations is the Women’s Sports Foundation. This organization takes the position that sport can also assist females in the workplace. It is their contention that females who do not participate in sport suffer from a lack of knowledge with respect to unwritten rules that are not only germane to sport, but to business as well. These rules are as follows:
1. Teams are chosen based on people's strengths and competencies rather than who is liked or disliked.

2. Successful players are skilled in practicing the illusion of confidence.

3. Errors are expected of people who are trying to do new things. The most important thing is never make the same mistake twice.

4. Loyalty to your teammates is very important.

5. "I will" equals "I can"

6. In a hierarchical organization, your boss (the head coach) gives the orders and the employees (players) follow the head coach's instructions.

7. Winning and Losing Has Nothing to Do With Your Worth as a Person.

8. Pressure, Deadlines and Competition Are Fun.

9. When You Are Too Tired To Take One More Step, You Know You Can.

10. Perfection is Sequential Attention to Detail.

According to this organization, the inclusion of females in sport will allow for the transmitting of these unwritten rules. By bringing women into the workforce with such knowledge, the business model will eventually be altered to a hybrid format, unspecific to either gender


Conceptual Framework

In attempting to ascertain the importance of the introduction of sport vis-à-vis refugee camps, one has to view the institutional structures that not only allowed for the refugee camps to become symbols of despair. Additionally, viewing the issue of the refugee camps from the perspective of institutional analysis will allow for a framework from which the relationship sport and
development can be properly contextualized. According to Huang (2008:10), institutionalism is intended to serve as “an analytical framework for understanding the shaping of collective patterns of human activity …” The concept of institutionalism may be further segmented into two differing paradigms: historical institutionalism and organizational institutionalism.

Campbell (1998: 378) characterizes historical institutionalism as “the explanation of how ideas and institutions limit the range of possible solutions policy makers are likely to consider when trying to resolve policy problems.” In a subsequent work, Campbell (2004: 27) argues that historical institutionalists “emphasized that ideas and principled beliefs, such as convictions about what constitutes good public policy and good government, also influence decision making.”

Campbell (2004:23) traces the paradigm of historical institutionalism back to Weber. Indeed, Weber (2003: 109-110, 227) offers insight into the concept of historical institutionalism when, in referring to the doctrine of predestination, he alludes to the notion that the Lutheran will, at a later date, become more pre-occupied with the concept of the Lutheran Church becoming an “institution for salvation.”

In referring to organizational institutionalism, Campbell (1998:378) characterizes this as focusing on “underlying cognitive rather than normative structures.” Indeed – it is the study of the foundations for such normative structures that this paper will focus on. Given this, as well as the above-mentioned analyses concerning historical institutionalism, it is posited that a more apt conceptual framework for this paper will be that of historical institutionalism.
This paper will examine the issues surrounding the refugee camps and to what extent the introduction of sport has had an impact on these refugee camps. In doing so, the institutional aspects of the refugee camps vis-à-vis development will be addressed.

Some would argue that this paper may be better served arguing within the constructivist paradigm. According to Copeland (2006: 19), constructivism is “an argument about how the past shapes the way actors understand their present situation.” This could pose a credible methodological course for a study into the introduction of sport and its impact on refugee camps. Onuf (1998:59) posits that constructivism holds that “people make society, and society makes people. To examine refugee camps and the issues surrounding them under this context would allow for an investigation into the interdependent nature of social rules – people make/set the rules by which society will exist; society makes/sets the conditions by which people can exist to set those rules. Prugl (1998:128-129) affirms this contention when she posits “structures and agents cannot exist without each other …”

While the above rationale for arguing the issues concerning the introduction of sport into refugee camps within the constructivist paradigm has some merit to it, constructivism has its drawbacks. Copeland (2006:19-20) further suggests that human beings are “mutable – they can be changed though interaction.” As such, to proceed along the path of constructivism would be to take this paper into the realm of a policy paper. This paper should not be perceived as one in which policy-shaping suggestions are made. To do so would significantly broaden the scope of the issue and, therefore undermine the intent of this exploration.
International Response to Refugees

In 1950, the United Nations General Assembly voted to establish an organization tasked with the responsibility of leading the international effort to combat the problems associated with refugees. With a mandate to ensure that the right to seek asylum and safe refuge be made available to all, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) was created. Since that time, approximately 50 million people worldwide have been able to start their lives anew as a result of the efforts of the UNHCR. Some of the forms of assistance offered by the UNHCR are:

- Providing food and shelter;
- Conducting refugee status determination;
- Providing legal advice;
- Granting assistance packages.

In 1996, the UNHCR was assisting approximately 4.4 million refugees worldwide (these figures do not account for the approximately 4.4 million Palestinian refugees being aided by UNHCR as they fall under the mandate of the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East – UNRWA). The UNHCR collects and disseminates data on a variety of persons of concern – refugees, asylum-seekers, internally displaced persons, returnees, and stateless persons (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees).

Some of the challenges confronting the UNHCR in data collection are the lack of standardized definitions, measurement issues, and asylum seekers applying for refuge in multiple locations,
unavailable data, and unavailable data or data that may be compromised due to data collection error. In an effort to combat such difficulties, the UNHCR, along with the International Organization for Migration, the International Labour Organization, and the International Centre for Migration Policy Development, Eurostat, the UN Economic Commission for Europe, as well as numerous experts in the industry met in Geneva in December, 2006 to look into improving data collection techniques as well as the sharing of data and best practices (United Nations High Commission for Refugees).

On December 11, 2008, U.N. High Commissioner for Refugees Antonio Guterres called for the development of comprehensive metrics that would ease the humanitarian crisis facing the world today. Concerned that the funding for refugees would eventually run out as the international community moves on to other issues deemed more pressing, Guterres desire is to seek out a common approach for refugees. Among the participants at the meetings that preceded Guterres call, many expressed desire for increased settlement places within resettlement countries, the need for education –both secondary and vocational, the need to stress self-reliance among refugees, fostering local integration, voluntary repatriation and reintegration. Hosting countries, however, expressed concerns regarding their ability to successfully integrate refugees. The overall consensus was to stress repatriation, resettlement, and reintegration, while also offering regional initiatives (United Nations). This paper shall explore those regional initiatives as they pertain to the three countries in our study – Uganda, Zambia, and Tanzania.

**Uganda**

The Ugandan Government’s official refugee policy is: “To find durable solutions to refugee problems by addressing refugee issues within the broad framework of government policy and to
promote self-reliance and local integration of refugees through promoting social development initiatives in hosting areas” (Government of Uganda, UNHCR 2004, v). According to the “Country Operations Plan” submitted to the UNHCR, in 2004 Uganda was housing 230,262 registered refugees. In addition, it was estimated there were 40,000 unregistered refugees living in Uganda. These refugees were being housed in 65 refugee settlements. The source countries of these refugees were mainly Sudan, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, and Rwanda. In addition to the refugee crisis affecting Uganda, the 19 year long conflict with the Lord’s resistance Army has led to an overwhelming crisis regarding internally displaced persons (this paper will not commit to assessing the number of IDPs as the number varies considerably from agency to agency) (United Nations).

The Government of Uganda has used resettlement in the past as part of the solution to the refugee crisis. From 2004-2006, approximately 3,400 persons were resettled, with the United States, Canada, and Australia as the main destinations for resettled populations. In 2006, the Government of Uganda committed itself to a continued policy of repatriation for those wishing to return to their home country, humanitarian assistance for those refugees staying in Uganda, resettlement for some cases and support for self-reliance measures for the remainder of the refugee population. It was estimated that approximately 280,000 refugees would be dealt with in 2006. However, both the Government of Uganda as well as the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees recognize the challenges and limitations of any program implemented by the Government. Some of those challenges include:

- 38.8% of the overall population living below the poverty line;
- 3.4% population growth per year.

[13]
• Over 1 million persons living with HIV/AIDS; approximately 2 million orphans;

• Extreme gender inequality in all segments of society;

• Approximately 2 million IDPs (again, this figure varies widely).

(United Nations, Government of Uganda).

Despite these hurdles to overcome, the Government of Uganda is moving forward with its plan for solutions to the refugee crisis. The Country Operations Plan, as outlined in 2006 is summarized as follows:

• Ensure the delivery of protection for all refugees;

• Attempt to attain and/or maintain minimum standards of humanitarian assistance in the sectors of nutrition, shelter, health care, water, sanitation, and community services, as well as provide support to the refugee hosting communities as and when required;

• Actively promote the voluntary, safe, and dignified repatriation of refugees provided conducive conditions exist;

• Intensify efforts to assist refugees to attain increased self-reliance and continue working towards the integration of refugee services into the national service structure in collaboration with the Ugandan Government, UNHCR implementing partners and development agencies under the rubric of the DAR programme;

• Expand the development of the DAR initiative to include other partners and donors and ensure its full ownership by the Ugandan Government;
• Vigorously pursue all other feasible opportunities for durable solutions for refugees, including enhancing their potential local integration through naturalization, and for some residual caseloads facilitate resettlement as an option;

• Enhance the protection of urban refugees, especially women, girls and children;

• Operationalize the new domestic Refugee Bill and institutionalize Government protection and management structures.

(United Nations, Government of Uganda).

The situation in the camps has improved in the past few years, though. According to briefing notes released by the U.N. High Commissioner for Refugees on September 11, 2007, two camps for internally displaced persons were being closed that day. As a result of peace talks between the Ugandan Government and the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA), the UNHCR estimated that approximately 92% of IDPs in the Lango Region of Uganda have returned to their respective homes (U.N. High Commissioner for Refugees 11 September 2007). Standard procedure for the closure of a camp is to tear down empty huts, fill in latrines, level the lands, and have a mine action team access the area (UNHCR 11 September 2007).

Despite success vis-à-vis internally displaced persons in the Lango Region of Uganda, the Acholi Region was not experiencing the same level of success. According to the briefing, 63% of IDPs still remained in camps as of that date. It was hoped that continued peace talks and improved security measures would facilitate IDPs returning to their homes, thus allowing for further camp closures (UNHCR 11 September 2007).
As internally displaced persons begin the process of leaving the camps and returning to their homes, the need for an immediate support system in northern Uganda has grown dramatically. Previously, the United Nations World Food Programme (UNWFP) had provided primary schools with maize flour, corn soy blend, vegetable oil, and beans. Once hostilities between the Ugandan Government and the Lord’s Resistance Army began to abate, the focus of the WFP switched to that of supporting initiatives that would assist people to produce their own food and become self-reliant. Advocacy of such a program, does have its drawbacks, though. According to the Integrated Regional Information Network (IRIN), initial results from the program indicate that increased self-reliance may come at the expense of primary education. As food aid from the United Nations has dried up, many displaced primary schools have closed and relocated back to their original sites. Families that had been displaced due to the ongoing conflict between the Ugandan Government and the Lord’s Resistance Army are just now beginning the process of growing food. As a result, over 11,000 children below the age of 15 have dropped out of primary education in the Gulu region alone. The situation has become dire in the villages of Mucwini and Agoro. There, according to Aruru Abraham, “… classes are empty with no children attending” (Integrated Regional Information Networks 25 November 2008).

With regard to the policy of self-reliance, approximately 80% of the refugees hosted by Uganda are Sudanese. Most of these refugees are concentrated within the Adjumani, Moyo, and Arua districts in northern Uganda. In 1998, the Ugandan Directorate of refugees, under the auspices of the Office of the Prime Minister and jointly with the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, developed the program to promote self-reliance for the Sudanese refugees. Entitled the “Self-Reliance Strategy for Refugee Hosting Areas of Moyo, Adjumani and Arua Districts of Northern Uganda” (SRS), the objectives of the program are:
• To empower refugees and nationals in the area to the extent that they will be able to support themselves;

• To establish mechanisms that will ensure integration of services for the refugees with those of the nationals.

(Government of Uganda, UNHCR 2004, v).

According to the Mid-term review of the SRS, several issues were noticed by those comprising the report. Among the issues of concern were:

• Seasonal periods of food scarcity in a majority of communities;

• The area of Arua is characterized by low-lying land, irregular rainfall patterns and poor soil;

• Lack of usage/knowledge of agricultural technology, leading to reduction in soil fertility, improper crop rotation (if crops were rotated at all), limited use of soil improvement techniques;

• A higher level of vulnerability to shocks (droughts, floods, pests, etc) than anticipated.


In addition, the refugees faced other challenges. While access to health services and education has improved, outcomes have not followed. There was shown to be a significant drop out rate from primary to secondary level school. According to the report, the role of the refugee vis-à-vis the actual educational structure in each region/district needed to be further clarified. Some of the
school buildings built by UNHCR were not permanent structures and, therefore, needed constant maintenance. As far as medical issues were concerned, while drugs were free to the refugees, they were not always available (Ugandan Government, UNHCR 2004, 16).

The report concluded that a transition from the SRS to a Development Assistance for Refugees (DAR) program was the best way to move forward. The DAR would promote self-reliance for refugees and improve burden sharing for countries and communities hosting large numbers of refugees. It was to be applied in situations where protracted needs for refugees existed. It was anticipated that the net result would be a “better quality of life and self-reliance for refugees as well as a better quality of life for host communities” (Ugandan Government, UNHCR 2004, 34).

While the programs initiated by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees have yielded some positive results. It cannot be said that the refugee situation in Uganda is significantly better as a result. As a result, the need for further intervention is warranted.

**Zambia**

According to the Government of Zambia estimates, approximately 102,000 refugees live in the urban capital of Lusaka as well as in the following refugee camps:

- Meheba
- Mayukwayukwa
- Nangweshi
- Kala
- Mwange.

In addition to the officially recognized refugees, it is estimated that approximately 75,000 refugees are living in Zambia unrecognized. The policies being pursued were that of voluntary
repatriation and local integration. This policy has led to the repatriation of 45,000 Angolans and it was expected that an additional 30,000 – 34,500 would repatriate within a year (Government of Zambia, United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees 2005, 1).

For those refugees not of Angolan origin, the situation is not as bright. Efforts to repatriate refugees originating from either Burundi or the Democratic Republic of the Congo were not met with much success in 2004. It was anticipated that by 2006 this situation would improve marginally. According to the UNHCR, the possibility of resettlement to a third country was a more realistic solution. Those countries listed as possibilities were: the United States, Canada, Australia, as well as the Nordic Countries (UNHCR 2005, 1-2).

As a result of the lack of overall success with the repatriation of refugees, the UNHCR embarked on a program known as the Zambia Initiative (ZI). Anticipated outcomes include the creation of conditions that would facilitate socio-economic development in the areas of the refugee camps. This, in turn, would lead to integration of those refugees incapable of repatriation or unwilling to participate in a program of repatriation (UNHCR, 2).

In addition to the above-mentioned programs, most NGOs were to have phased out their operations at the end of 2005. The Government of Zambia, with assistance provided by the UNHCR, was to then take control over such functions as water, sanitation, education, and health care.

In attempting to provide a realistic expectation of outcomes the UNHCR, as part of its global strategic objectives and with participation and cooperation from the Government of Zambia as well as their NGO partners, listed the following objectives for 2006/2007:
Angolan Refugees:

- The providing of protection services to all remaining camp-based Angolan refugees;
- The providing of social assistance to those deemed most vulnerable;
- Providing the appropriate documents to those refugees wishing to remain to allow their stay to be in accordance with existing Zambian immigration laws;
- Facilitate the transfer of service-providers from NGOs to the appropriate departments within the Zambian Government;
- Consolidate some existing camps so as to allow the closure of the Nangweshi camp with the expectation of turning over the rehabilitated camp to the local communities;
- Assist those Angolan refugees who have spontaneously settled in Zambia to repatriate to Angola (subject to the availability of funds).

Congolese Refugees:

- Provide protection and assistance services;
- Promote and assist the voluntary repatriation of Congolese refugees where the security environment is conducive to repatriation;
- Ensure access to resettlement services for Congolese refugees. Ensure that such access is provided in a transparent and humane manner;
- Increased training in program management, international protection methods, and UNHCR’s policies and assistance standards.
Urban Refugees (located in Lusaka):

- Provide protection services to those registered urban refugees;
- Continued focus on programs for women and children;
- Provide health care, education, and social assistance to the vulnerable;
- Monitor the security situation in Burundi to allow for repatriation when possible;
- Providing the appropriate documents to those refugees wishing to remain to allow their stay to be in accordance with existing Zambian immigration laws;
- Ensure access to resettlement services for urban refugees. Ensure that such access is provided in a transparent and humane manner.

(Government of Zambia, UNHCR 2005, 3-4).

Despite these goals, serious flaws remained primarily in the area of security and protection of the refugees. As a result, a National Consultation was held in December, 2007. This led to the creation of a plan of action that would become known as the “Strengthening Protection Capacity Project in Zambia” (SPCP-Z). Its mission was to “strengthen the capacity of the government of the Republic of Zambia to protect refugees and bring needed durable solutions to the thousands of refugees who have been in exile for many years” (UNHCR June, 2008). The plan consisted of 17 separate projects, with the intent of closing the gaps that had become pervasive. As part of the SPCP-Z program, a training program has been implemented for immigration and border officials, refugee officers, magistrates, prosecutors, lawyers, police, and civil society. Training consists of attention to human rights issues such as the procedures and standards for determining the status

[21]
of refugees to ensure these procedures and standards are consistent with international standards (UNHCR June, 2008).

Additionally, the SPCP-Z program has provided the necessary tools needed for the registration of refugees both in camps as well as in urban areas. With regards to the Justice system in Zambia, SPCP-Z has afforded the opportunity to implement more transparent procedures such as detention monitoring systems and legal assistance for refugees. In an effort to provide further access to legal assistance, the SPCP-Z program has resulted in mobile courts being installed in camps and settlements, allowing refugees direct access (UNHCR June, 2008).

Despite some of the successes, the refugee situation in Zambia still constitutes a humanitarian crisis. In its 2006-2007 Report, the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies indicated some of the roadblocks inherent to the problem. According to the report, Zambia was confronted with several natural emergencies during the time in question. Floods devastated the northern Zambian districts of Kazungula, Solwezi, and Mpulungu as well as various southern provinces. Livestock and crops were significantly impacted; 1.5 million people were dispersed; Cholera outbreaks occurred – the first one affecting approximately 4,000 with 55 deaths (International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies 2007).

Natural emergencies were not the only issues confronting the refugee camps. Daily rations per person in all Zambian refugee camps, except the Nangweshi camp, were as follows in 2005:

- Maize grain 450 g
- Beans/peas 120 g
- Vegetable Oil (Vitamin A) 20 g

[22]
• Iodized Salt 10 g

(de la Maisonuneuve, Lyon, Musambo, and Ondeko 2005).

While the above ration does provide the individual with 2,154 calories/day, this diet leaves the refugee with an inadequate daily intake of several nutrients including: niacin, riboflavin, and vitamin C. Supplemental feeding programs (SFP) do exist. The refugees in the Mwange camp receive a High Energy Protein Supplement (HEPS) proving them with an additional 725 calories/day. These dry ration HEPS are distributed on a monthly basis. According to the report, the daily caloric intake provided by this additional supplement falls far below international standards. The report further recommends changing this program to a weekly or bi-monthly program (de la Maisonuneuve, Lyon, Musambo, and Ondeko 2005).

It is clear that while efforts are being made to provide services to the refugees in Zambian camps, Governmental and quasi-governmental programs in place do not provide adequate services to the refugees. Nor do these programs instill a heightened sense of self-reliance or a proclivity towards integration into the local community. As such, the refugee situation in Zambia can be characterized as one that is in need of further assistance from NGOs and the private sector.

Tanzania

According to the 2006 Country Operations Plan submitted by the UNHCR, Tanzania hosts the largest amount of refugees throughout Africa. In February, 2005, approximately 400,000 refugees were registered as living in Tanzania and receiving assistance from the UNHCR. It was also estimated that another 198,000 refugees from Burundi were also registered with the Tanzania government yet lived in self-sufficient settlements. In addition, the un-registered
number of Burundian refugees living in Tanzania was estimated to be approximately 200,000 (UNHCR 2006).

After achieving independence, Tanzania embarked on a refugee program that focused on rural settlements. Over the years, it has housed refugees from nine different countries and this program received accolades across the continent of Africa. A series of emergencies in the 1990’s resulted in a shift to a more camp-centric policy of repatriation. Today, the political climate in Tanzania vis-à-vis refugee populations is increasingly strained. Perception throughout Tanzania is that refugee camps have been the cause of serious environmental degradation. Additionally, it is perceived that issues surrounding the refugees and refugee camps have led to an overall deterioration of security in the Kigoma and Kagera regions of Tanzania (UNHCR 2009, 120). Refugees are required by law to be in camps. Additionally, restrictions on the movement of refugees have grown since 1998. Anti-refugee statements are rallying cries for politicians. As such, the need for intervention is acute (UNHCR 2006). As a result of the decreased support for hosting refugees, the Tanzanian Government, with the backing of its population, would prefer to find solutions to the problems that lead to the displacement of individuals (UNHCR 2008).

Tanzanian Prime Minister Mizengo Peter Pinda addressed the issue of the level of support among the people of his country when he served as the keynote speaker at the annual High Commissioner for Refugees’ Dialogue on Protection Challenges in December, 2008. In his speech, he spoke to the need to properly sensitize the host communities when attempting to re-settle or integrate refugee populations. According to Prime Minister Pinda, “… if the international community comes in to assist the refugees and we have not sensitized the locals, they may question why a foreign refugee is being helped and they are not” (UNHCR 2008).
In 2003, a national refugee policy was crafted. According to this policy, refugees are accepted for a period of one year, during which arrangements should be made for their return to their country of origin (this policy does call for such return to take place in an established safe zone within that country of origin). In 2004, the Tanzanian government again shifted its focus for each of the three main refugee groups: the Burundians, the Congolese, and the Somalis. The intent is to shift away from programs stressing care and maintenance to programs that will provide long-lasting, durable solutions.

Burundian refugees: The overall political climate in Burundi over the past decade can be characterized as one of having pockets of peace interrupted by deadly massacres initiated by resistance movements. United Nations’ peacekeeping forces have aided in the peace process, but progress toward comprehensive peace has been slow and uneven. The same country that has seen a national referendum on a new Constitution with a high turn-out rate has also witnessed the massacre of 160 refugees by a rebel group in its Bujumbura rural province. Even during periods when fighting has abated, the country has seen far too many incidents of traits endemic to any post-conflict society: lawlessness, devastated infrastructure, lack of food, human rights abuses, and an overall sense of insecurity and tension (UNHCR 2006).

The plan of action vis-à-vis Burundian refugees centers on assumptions and hope. It is assumed that the nascent democratic process in Burundi will mature to the point that civil conflict and unrest gradually fade away. Should this occur, it is hoped and anticipated that the majority of Burundians will seek to repatriate. Camp closures and decreased UNHCR involvement will ensue (UNHCR 2006).
Congolese refugees: The assumption of long-term peace is also present in the plan for Congolese refugees. However, tensions in the Democratic Republic of the Congo have presented major impediments to this plan. Periodic fighting in the North and South Kivu region as well as that of Ituri have resulted in the United Nations High Commissioner on Refugees to be less than optimistic concerning the long-term peace process. From 2004, the country has been saddled with the postponement of elections, voter registration issues, decaying and destroyed infrastructure, as well as a limited ability/authority of the central government (UNHCR 2006). The bright spot to the Congolese refugee plan is that 85% of Congolese refugees in Tanzania originated in one region in the Democratic Republic of the Congo – the Fizi district. This district has been relatively immune from the intense fighting typical of the remaining districts in the DRC. Unfortunately, significant issues still remain before any serious thoughts of repatriation to the district can occur. The armed rebel group, Mayi-Mayi remains a dominant force and is a factor in any decision to begin repatriation plans. Additionally, the Fizi district is still overwhelmed with land mines (UNHCR 2006). As such, improvements to security and the procurement of these landmines need to occur prior to any plan to repatriate. As is the case with the Burundi plan, the plan for Congolese refugees is filled with hope and anticipation, yet lacking in substance and reality.

Somali refugees: The securing of land for Somali refugees (in a camp known as Chogo) will, hopefully lead to long-term self-sufficiency on the part of these refugees. It is hoped and anticipated that this land, once cultivated, will allow a full phase-out of assistance (UNHCR 2006). As has been demonstrated in both the case of Burundian refugees as well as Congolese refugees, this plan is long on dreams and short on reality. While it is possible that cultivation and eventual harvesting of the land can occur, planning for its occurrence may result in less than
desirable outcomes. This plan falls too heavily on the assumption of cooperative weather
patterns, good harvests, and the ability of the refugees to properly cultivate the land.

Recognizing the shortcomings of previous attempts to initiate programs to combat the issues
related to refugees, in 2007 the UNHCR trained approximately 160 Tanzanian Government
officials in matters related to refugee law and assisted on the preparation of the drafting of
legislation to be presented to the Tanzanian Parliament. In addition, the UNHCR implemented
the following programs in 2007 regarding the care and safety of the refugee community:

- The use of radio broadcasts in an effort to make refugees aware of the rights of children,
  sexual violence, and legal assistance options;
- The tracing of all unaccompanied children as well as those who had been separated from
  their family;
- The monitoring of foster children as well as children with specific needs;
- Psychosocial support for abuse victims;
- Providing school uniforms in an effort to reduce school drop-out rates.
(UNHCR 2007, 191).

In an effort to identify gaps in existing programs and take the appropriate measures to secure
those gaps, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees issued the “Tanzania Refugees
Consolidated Project Concept Notes.” These notes identify the following four categories (with
appropriate sub-categories) of concern regarding the refugee situation in Tanzania:

- Favourable Protection Environment;
- Security From Violence and Exploitation;
- Basic Needs and Essential Services;
- Durable Solutions.
(UNHCR 2008).
Within the category “Favourable Protection Environment”, the UNHCR listed the following six sub-categories that require addressing:

1) Promoting Protection-Sensitive National and Regional Migration Policies. The objectives of this are to secure access to asylum where it is desired, and supporting the development of a legal framework for population movement within the East African Community. The border areas with Kenya were identified as being in need of close monitoring following post-election violence in Kenya. Support will be given for Immigration College in Moshi, which is intended to provide ongoing training on asylum and refugee law.

2) Institutionalisation of Capacity Building. The objective of which is to enhance the capacities of governmental institutions that are charged with the mission of dealing with refugee matters. Proposes an increased training capacity at the national Police Academy as well as Immigration training programs. Recognizes the need to work with international institutions such as the Centre for Studies of Forced Migration.

3) Enhance the performance of immigration/customs Department and Regional Administrative Secretary through increased mobility. The objective here is to build the capacity of law enforcement institutions attending to the needs of the refugee community. The sole proposal here is for the acquisition of a vehicle to be used to visit camps and gain hands-on knowledge of the activities in the refugee camps.

4) Ensure a rapid and adequate response to refugee related emergency situations through capacity building for emergency preparedness. It is proposed that additional training workshops focusing on emergency preparedness and response will allow for local and
central Government officials to increase their capacity to respond. Aim is to identify gaps in national emergency response techniques.

5) Enhance the follow up of refugee related issues and programmes through reducing implementing partners’ staff turnover. UNHCR currently has 16 partners. It is feared that a failure to retain staff will result in delays in repatriation programs. Recognition of the difficult living conditions, low salaries, and overall difficulty in recruitment of staff has led to the desire to further incentivize the UNHCR’s partners. The objective is the retention of implementing partners. This will be accomplished by increasing salary and benefits by 50% in 2009.

6) Support UNHCR engagement and strategies for the One UN “Delivering as One” pilot in Tanzania. The objective is to properly address the development needs and gaps that may arise as the UNHCR phases out its operations. Support staff will be needed to coordinate activities in an effort to affect a seamless transition. Such a transition will require active intervention in the following three areas:

   a. Wealth Creation, Natural Resources Management;

   b. Social Services;


   (UNHCR 2008).

In addition, the report also stressed the need to reduce tensions between host communities and the refugee camp population. Historically, the lack of firewood has been identified as the cause of violence between the two factions. In particular, violence against women who venture outside
the camps to gather firewood has been identified as a contributing factor to the decline in relations between members of the host community and the refugee population. It is also feared that a lack of firewood among the refugee population will result in increased levels of child morbidity and an overall decrease in health conditions in the camps. Attempts at providing adequate supplies of firewood must also be addressed concomitantly with the need to address the environmental degradation that has occurred. The need to increase soil fertility levels and rehabilitate the environment through more appropriate harvesting and planting schedules has not gone without notice (UNHCR 2008).

As previously stated, the Tanzanian outlook towards the refugee situation is increasingly negative. The Tanzanian Government, recognizing this, has requested that the UNHCR accelerate programs to assist in repatriation. The UNHCR, for its part, recognizes the increased tension regarding the issue, understanding that delays in repatriation will only exacerbated the situation. According to the UNHCR, the majority of the refugee population in Tanzania will seek to repatriate to their home countries in 2008 and 2009. As such, the UNHCR is seeking to maintain its existing staff in Tanzania for 2009. However, those unwilling or unable to repatriate will have to be properly assess to determine the best possible solution; a solution that may include naturalization or resettlement into Tanzania permanently, or resettlement to a third country (UNHCR 2008).

While the refugee situation in Tanzania has been improved by the programs initiated by the UNHCR, it is quite evident that further progress is needed. As such, further intervention is warranted.

**Sport for Development**

[30]
According to the Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group (2008). Sport for Development and Peace “refers to the intentional use of sport, physical activity and play to attain specific development and peace objectives, including, most notably, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).” Designed to be inclusive, the successful program will also integrate sports with non-sport components in an effort to enhance the overall effectiveness of the program.

Seeking to establish a definition of “sport” vis-à-vis development, the United Nations, in 2003, settled on the following: “all forms of physical activity that contribute to physical fitness, mental well-being and social interaction, such as play, recreation, organized or competitive sport, and indigenous sports and games” (Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group 2008).

The notion of utilizing sport for development and peace is rooted in attributes found in sport and valued by many. These attributes include:

- The universal popularity of sports;
- The ability of sport to connect people and communities;
- The ability to utilize sport as a communication platform;
- The cross-cutting nature of sport;
- The potential to empower, motivate, and inspire;

(Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group 2008, 5-6).

In addition, the right to sport can be found in various Human Rights Covenants and Treaties that have been implemented from 1965 to the present. These human rights include:
• Right to highest attainable standard of physical and mental health;
• Right to education directed at the fullest development of human personality;
• Right to take part in cultural life;
• Right to rest and leisure;
• Right for children to engage in play and recreational activities;
• Women’s right to participate in recreational activities and sports;
• Right of persons with disabilities to participate in sport on an equal basis with others.

(Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group 2008, 8).

The potential for Sport to positively impact development and peace efforts globally has been officially recognized by many governments as well as the United Nations. In 2001, then UN Secretary General Kofi Annan appointed Adolf Ogi as the first Special Adviser on Sport for Development and Peace. On March 18, 2008, current UN Secretary General Ban Ki-Moon appointed Wilfried Lemke of Germany to succeed Mr. Ogi (United Nations Office on Sport For Development and Peace 2008).

According to the United Nations Office on Sport For Development, the core functions of the Special Adviser on Sport for Development and Peace are:

1) Advocate:

   a. Lead the efforts of the United Nations system at a high political level;

   b. Promote understanding and support for sport as a tool for development and peace;

   c. To build bridges between the United Nations and Member States, international sports organizations, the civil society, the private sector, and the media.
2) Facilitator:

   a. To act as broker with convening power;

   b. To encourage dialogue, collaboration, and partnerships around sport for
development and peace between actors from different sectors of society and
within the United Nations system;

3) Representative:

   a. To represent the Secretary-General and the United Nations system at global
   events.

   (United Nations Office on Sport For Development and Peace 2008).

Recognizing the impact Sport for Development could have on the overall achievement of the
Millennium Development Goals, the United Nations has, on several occasions, adopted
resolutions related to the movement. Specifically, resolution 58/5 proclaimed 2005 as the
International Year of Sport and Physical Education. In September, 2005, the United Nations’
General Assembly adopted resolution 60/1, a.k.a. “World Summit Outcome Document.” This
resolution stated:

   “We underline that sports can foster peace and development and can contribute to an
atmosphere of tolerance and understanding” (Office of the Special Adviser to the United Nations
Secretary-General on Sport for Development and Peace 2008).

Additionally, the United Nations has acknowledged its commitment to Sport for Development
and Peace annually since 2003. In 2006, the Secretary-General issued a report in which he

As stated above, the United Nations’ commitment to Sport for Development and Peace has its roots in the ability for such a program to assist in the overall outcomes of the Millennium Development Goals. It is anticipated that Sport for Development will specifically aid in the following areas:

1) Education: Physical education has been found to increase school achievement, improve school attendance, and contribute to social and personal development.

2) Health: The benefits of sport include savings in health-care costs, increased productivity, and improved maternal health.

3) Development: Sport helps to promote gender equality, universal education, disease prevention, and environmental sustainability.

4) Peace: Sport can unite people, transcending national boundaries, cultures and religions. Sport can aid in post-conflict education and counseling programs.

(Office of the Special Adviser to the Secretary-General on Sport for Development and Peace 2008).

Seeking evidence of this, the finding of the United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace was as follows: “well-designed sport-based initiatives are practical and cost-effective tools to achieve objectives in development and peace. Sport is a powerful vehicle
that should be increasingly considered by the United Nations as complimentary to existing vehicles” (United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace 2003, V).

Accordingly, the United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace provided the following key considerations regarding Sport and Development:

- In order to maximize the economic potential of sport, development strategies should take an integrated, coherent approach, with emphasis placed on the value of stimulating growth at the local level;

- Sports programs aimed at supporting social development must be well designed, led by trained personnel, focused on the development of the individual, and inclusive of all groups regardless of age, race, gender, or ability;

- Consideration must be given to the potential harm or adverse effects of sports activities on the environment. The positive environmental achievements of sports organizations and the organizers of sports events should be recognized, as this can inspire others to increase their efforts in support of a sustainable environment;

- Volunteers are a strategic resource that should be mobilized when implementing sport-for-development programs. Furthermore, sport is a key site and natural draw for volunteer involvement.


**Right to Play International Organization**

The “Right to Play” organization, with locations throughout Africa, is dedicated to the principle of Sport for Development. This humanitarian organization aims to use “sport and play programs
to encourage the healthy physical, social, and emotional development of the world’s most disadvantaged children” (Right to Play 2003, 5). The organization began to integrate sport for development programs in refugee camps in 2001. After its success in Ghana, Angola, and Cote d’Ivoire, Right to Play expanded to 18 countries in 2003. The organization’s philosophy is: “Look after yourself; Look after one another” (Right to Play 2003, 31).

The Right to Play Organization has three main components: training of coaches; setting up community-based sport and play groups; the implementation of play activities that will teach and enhance skills needed for healthy lifestyle choices. According to the organization, their programs also assist in building:

- Leadership
- Self-confidence
- Teamwork
- Conflict resolution
- Discipline
- Respect
- Fair play

(Right to Play 2003, 10)

The Right to Play Organization has two core programs: SportWorks and SportHealth. The SportWorks Programs have volunteer coaches assist communities (primarily refugee communities) in the implementation of sport and play programs. According to the Right to Play Organization’s 2003 Annual Report, the objectives of such a program are as follows:

- To enhance healthy child development;
- To build both individual capacity and community-based partnerships and networks that will facilitate the transition to local community ownership.

(Right to Play 2003, 11).

The SportHealth program enables the organization to further its efforts to assist in development. The SportHealth program adds to the overall importance of the program by implementing a communications component. This allows for information regarding such local and national
health issues as HIV/AIDS prevention, the benefits of childhood vaccinations, as well as the overall importance of physical fitness (Right to Play 2003, 11).

One of the enduring symbols of the involvement of the Right to Play Organization is its usage of the “red ball.” According to the Right to Play Organization, the red ball symbolizes the following qualities that it attempts to convey:

- Respect
- Inclusion
- Integrity
- Sense of fair play.

(Right to Play 2003, 31).

The concept of the Red Ball was developed by Ric Young. According to Mr. Young, the idea was to make the Red Ball “a symbol of hope, of the power of play and connection – of people’s capacity to overcome hardship …” (Right to Play 2003, 31).

The Right to Play Organization has also reached out to many Olympic and Profession athletes. Some of their U.S. Athlete Ambassadors include Olympians Summer Sanders (swimming), Picabo Street (skiing), Michael Johnson (track) and Timothy Goebel (figure skating). According to its 2003 Annual Report, the Right to Play Organization had 4,316,786 in assets as of December 31, 2003. It reported liabilities of 4,035,615 (Right to Play 2003, 32). In its 2004 Annual Report, total assets listed were 4,983,000 and liabilities listed were 3074000 (Right to Play 2004, 38).

**Sport for Development and Uganda**

In Uganda, several sport programs have been implemented. The “Friends of Orphans” aims to use sport to relieve human suffering through soliciting for assistance and creating awareness. It
lists as its main objectives the use of sport as a vehicle for community development (Friends of Orphans Uganda). Other objectives of the program are as follows:

- To use games and sports activities to strengthen psychosocial well-being. It is anticipated that this will enhance the ability of former child soldiers, abductees, child mothers, and orphans to socially integrate;

- To help with the re-integration of war-affected children into the community;

- To foster friendship and the concept of teamwork;

- To aid in physical and mental health;

- To break the circle of violence in the community

(Friends of Orphans Uganda).

Located in southwestern Uganda in the Mbarara District is the Oruchinga SportWorks refugee camp. Here, schools lack equipment, space, and trained physical education teachers to accommodate the children. Despite this, the strong desire to participate in sport aids in combating the fear associated with the notion of being separated from one’s family, the overcrowding of the camps, as well as the fear of prolonged exposure to violence (International Platform on Sport and Development).

With a target population of 2,496, the International Platform on Sport and Development lists the following methods in which the sport is introduced into the Oruchinga refugee camp:

- Coach2Coach: This program is intended to offer coach training. It further lays the foundation for community leadership. The focus on such a program is to enhance
leadership skills, communication, project management, event organization, conflict
resolution and peace building;

- Red Ball Child Play: Assists in child development. Five different colored balls target a
  specific aspect of child development: mind, body, spirit, health, and peace.

- Live Safe, Play Safe: skills-based program intended to assist in the fight against
  HIV/AIDS. Physical activity and active discussion engage children in the development of
  knowledge, attitudes, and skills that can influence future lifestyle choices.

The Nakivale SportWorks refugee settlement is also located in the Mbarara District in Uganda.
This camp has a substantial population in relation to other camps – approximately 15,000. While
the challenge of building skills and confidence among individuals that is present in other camps
exists in Nakivale as well, the unique challenge of reaching all the children in the camp exists in
such a large setting (International Platform on Sport and Development).

An even greater challenge exists in the Imvepi SportWorks refugee camp. With a population of
approximately 26,000, issues related to overcrowding, such as fighting among the refugee
population, acts of violence, the spreading of disease, etc., present significant barriers to any plan
to promote sport as a potential developmental tool. This is consistent with the report issued by
the United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace. The report
concluded that sports programs, “serve as a positive and productive activity for refugees and
internally displaced persons, easing many of the problems they face, including violence, limited
access to education and broken family structures” (United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on
The Right to Play Organization has had a dramatic impact in Uganda. In 2002, Alice Kansiime joined Right to Play and was trained to teach children about HIV/AIDS. She now runs programs designed to teach the necessary skills and attitudes that will assist those in the Kampala slums to make sound decisions regarding lifestyle choices. The benefits of such a program are obvious – those living in the slums of Kampala are unable to access the health messages transmitted on the radio and television and may not attend school, thereby preventing them from receiving the information at school as well. In fact, the statistics bear this out – while initially only reaching 30 children per week, Alice now reaches over 200 children per week through her programs. (Right to Play 2004, 11).

The results of the programs run by Alice Kansiime are consistent with the key considerations regarding sport and HIV/AIDS of the report on Sport for Development and Peace issued by the United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace. These key considerations are as follows:

- Sports organizations and associations should be incorporated into the global fight against HIV/AIDS and actively brought in as partners by the United Nations system;

- Sports programs aimed at tackling HIV/AIDS must include all elements necessary for effective HIV/AIDS programming, especially the four pillars: knowledge, life skills, a safe and supportive environment and access to services;

- The full capacity of sport-for-development initiatives must be realized on both the international and local levels, for the purposes of raising awareness about the disease, increasing knowledge about prevention and directly tackling stigma and discrimination in a positive, participatory manner;

- The organizers of sport-based HIV/AIDS prevention programs should be trained effectively in the issues surrounding HIV/AIDS. In addition to sports coaching and how
to work with young people. A generic curriculum on HIV/AIDS, for local adaptation, should be elaborated for sports coaches, trainers, and others involved in sport.

(United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development 2003, 23).

Given the success Right to Play has had in Uganda, an expansion of the Sport for Development movement is clearly warranted. The outcomes needed for success in the Sport for Development programs are mirrored by those needed for success in the refugee camps.

**Sport for Development and Tanzania**

The 1995 National Sports Policy of Tanzania places emphasis on the role of sport as a tool for development by calling for the participation of all citizens. According to President Jakaya Mrisho Kekwete, sport should be looked upon as a national priority. Additionally, it is recognized that sport should play a prominent role in any poverty reduction plan. The lead agency promoting sport as a tool for development is the Sport Development Department, located within the Ministry of Information, Culture, and Sports (Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group 2007, 1).

The Tanzanian Government is taking ambitious steps to incorporate sport into their overall development strategy. These steps include:

- The incorporating sport and physical education into the national education curriculum;
- Ensuring that all schools and universities have qualified physical education teachers;
- The establishing of women’s committees within each of the country’s 25 National Sport Associations;
• The establishment of grassroots programs targeting youth at risk;

• Public events used to promote peaceful relations among diverse ethnic groups;

• The designation of September 21st as “National Sports Day.”

(Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group 2007, 1).

In 2005, the Government of Tanzania began a program of integrating the game of soccer into its program to fight Malaria. With between 14 – 19 million cases of Malaria per year among the 34 million individuals living in Malaria, it is easy to see how it drains 3.4% of the country’s annual GDP. Additionally, it is the leading cause of death in Tanzania, claiming approximately 100,000 lives annually. According to Joel Bendera, Deputy Minister of Information, Culture and Sports for the Government of Tanzania, “The Ministry began organizing soccer matches in rural areas last year [2005], alerting fans about the need to use insecticide-treated nets through public address announcements, leaflets, and banners.” Members of the winning teams were also awarded jerseys and soccer balls with anti-malaria announcements on them. Given the success of such a program, the Ministry is looking in to other avenues to advertise its anti-malaria campaign (United Nations Development Programme 2006). With goal 6 of the United Nations Millennium Development Goals calling for increased efforts to combat AIDS, Tuberculosis, and Malaria, it is evident the sport can play an integral role in the campaign.

The Ngara SportWorks project involves the Lukole A & B refugee camps, located in the Kagera District in northeastern Tanzania. Approximately 70,000 refugees, mostly Burundians, live there in mud houses constructed with either grass or banana leaves used as roofing material. The camps were established in 1993 in response to the crisis in Rwanda, but have since morphed into
an asylum for refugees from Burundi. The refugee population faces similar barriers to health that were discussed regarding the Ugandan camps: separation from loved ones, overcrowding, temporary shelters, and the violence and uncertainty typical of the refugee lifestyle. However, there do exist some issues specific to the Lukole A &B camps within Ngara. These issues include:

- A shortage of space;
- Inadequate facilities;
- Inadequate equipment;
- Lack of trained teachers and coaches.

(International Platform on Sport and Development).

In keeping with the overall agenda of the Tanzanian Government vis-à-vis Sport for Development, the provision for regular, inclusive sport is integrated into refugee life. A holistic approach to child development is also stressed, with the understanding that the healthy development of children is an essential component of a healthy society. Collaboration of locals provides for increased capacity building strategies (International Platform on Sport and Development).

The Grumeti SportWorks project is similar in both needs and objectives. Focusing on the Mugumu, Kyambahi, and Natta wards of the Serengeti districts, its aims is to train coaches in an effort to integrate regular sport and play activities for children. Furthermore, a holistic methodological approach to child care is being sought. It is anticipated that this will promote healthy development of children, build individual capacity, and to strengthen community
partnerships. The coaching-based approach used in this method is anticipated to encourage local organizational collaboration, and enhance individual self-help skills by involving individuals in decision-making processes (International Platform on Sport and Development).

The need for such a program stems from significant barriers to health and health programs in the Serengeti District. According to the International Platform on Sport and Development, the Serengeti District can be characterized as one lacking in sports facilities and equipment, as well as a limited capacity for organization of leagues and sporting events. The absence of equipment, training, and facilities plays a role in the overall lack of wellbeing of the children in the District. As a result of decreased ability to engage in sporting activities, the physical development of the children in the District has been negatively affected.

The emotional development of the children in the district has been negatively impacted by the absence of sport. According to the International Platform on Sport and Development, it would be anticipated that the introduction of sport into refugee camps in Tanzania would play a significant role in the reduction of the stress of everyday life in the children. Overall, the need is clear – while the government of Tanzania has made strides to reduce the overall negative effects of refugee life, increased introduction of sport into refugee camps will enhance the quality of life among the inhabitants of the camps.

**Sport for Development and Zambia**

Zambia is truly a country in despair. While politically stable, it suffers from poverty, disease, and an economy that does not appear capable of self-sufficiency. Seventy-Five percent of the Zambian population lives below the poverty threshold of $1/day set by the World Bank. Additionally, 85% of Zambians work as subsistence farmers where the typical farmer is
confronted with infertile soil. Twenty percent of the adult Zambian population is living with AIDS (Right to Play).

The country’s children are also impacted by the socio-economic issues confronting the adult population of Zambia. Over 700,000 Zambian children are orphaned as a result of the AIDS epidemic. While more than 50% of the population in Zambia is under the age of 16, the literacy rates in Zambia are stagnating. Educational infrastructure and teacher training are just some of the issues confronting the Zambian Government vis-à-vis its children (Right to Play).

In June, 1999 the Mwange Refugee Camp in northern Zambia was established to take in those fleeing from The Democratic Republic of Congo. This camp quickly filled to capacity and in 2000, the Kala refugee Camp was opened in an effort to accommodate the overflow. Relations between the locals and those being housed at Mwange can be characterized as calm. However, tense moments have been noted as refugees have on occasion been accused of stealing food from locals. Additionally, there is a perception among some locals of a higher quality of services being made available to the refugee population (Right to Play Organization).

The Kala refugee camp in the Luapula Province in northern Zambia is home to over 15,000 children under the age of 18. Many of the refugees to this camp, as well as others in northern Zambia fled the fighting in the Democratic Republic of Congo in 1999. According to the Right to Play Organization, the desire and interest level for sport among the children is high. However, they are confronted with issues similar to those in the other refugee camps profiled in this study: inadequate facilities, shortage of space, lack of equipment, as well as a lack of trained teachers and coaches.
The year 2008 witnessed some success in refugee camps in Zambia. In the first quarter of 2008, the following achievements were noted:

- Coaches/Teachers/Leaders Trained: 122 (64 female);
- Total Active Coaches/Teachers/Leaders:192 (86 female);
- Participation of approximately 7,941 (2780 female) children in regular activities;
- Participation of approximately 570 (250 female) children in Sport and Play celebrations. (Right to play Organization).

The ability to reach out to so many is only part of the success story. As outlined above, many of the participants are female. Shattering the age-old stereotypes regarding gender is a task unto itself. Gender activists have been fighting for women’s rights in Zambia. Gender Minister Patricia Mulasikwanda echoed the sentiments of many when she commented recently on the potential for engaging women in sports,

“Engaging women and girls has a far reaching impact in an age when sports is being used to deliver health information and to mobilize communities for development programmes and it is through sport that women can access reproductive health education, exercise their sporting skills and contribute to social projects. With this and other things, we cannot afford to marginalize women.” (Mulonga).

The sentiments made by the Zambian Gender Minister mirror those included in the report issued by the United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace. According to the report, “The skills and values learned through sport are especially important for girls, given that they have fewer opportunities than boys for social interaction outside the home and beyond family networks…” (United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace 2003, 8).
It is evident that Zambia has had some success as indicated by their achievements in 2008 with respect to increased training and participation among refugees in its camp as well as the acknowledgement of the impact sport can have on women. As has been argued with the cases in both Uganda and Tanzania, increased exposure to sport will have positive health and emotional outcomes on refugees in Zambia. As such, the expansion of sport for development programs in Zambia is warranted.

**Conclusion**

This study has shown both the horrors of the refugee lifestyle in Uganda, Tanzania, and Zambia as well as the potential that exists. Beset with overpopulation, disease, poverty, and violence, refugee camps offer little hope for their inhabitants. The introduction of sport into refugee camps offers clear benefits to one’s physical well-being. In addition, the confidence, ability to communicate with others, leadership skills, and the removal of biases (racial, gender, ethnic, etc.) clearly establish the socio-economic benefits of the introduction of sport into refugee camps. Expansion of programs to introduce sport into refugee camps as a means of development has shown to be warranted.

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