

How to Organize Society in a Refugee Camp?

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ABSTRACT

As obligatory immigrant is the outcome of the world's conflicts, displaced population from all unstable regions of world. They stay in camps in long periods and need 'durable solutions' according to their geographic and technical conditions for decades. Prolonged dislocation consequences from procedures in the local and global level. This prolonged condition leads to outcomes that backfire each of these levels, as well as insecurity, over consumption of already limited assets, and tense interstate relations. While immigrants stay in more and more protracted time, circumstances that formerly are impermanent seem to be permanence. Forced displacement all over the world increasingly change to be more in durable life circumstances, expressing different human impacts of conflict and power fights.

By using a qualitative method in various sides of refugee camps, this study connects theory of self-government; social life constructs and work distribution to discover the possible motivation for creating refugee sites durable. House to approximately 2.6 million refugees, camps provide as a microcosm with various and multi-level humanitarian supports and refugee hosting actions. With analyzing data collected from UNHCR (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees) documents, related articles, media resources and NGO (Non-Governmental Organization) reports, this research connects the recreation of state self-government, with features of social construction at the local phase that contribute to prolonged dislocation. Analyses of this data present planned and unplanned factors coming from foreign and local actors, NGO disaster and humanitarian aid principles, as well as refugees' own

opinion of residency, identity, and belonging that leads to contribute to the permanence refugee displacement.

During all these procedures, this study starts on to describe a theory about the approach of hosting refugees and the way that refugees see themselves, and what leads to a form of immigration that turn into more and more long-term.

Keywords: durable solution, prolonged refugee camp, society of refugee camp, refugee camp design.

ÖZ

Zorunlu göçmenlik, dünyanın dengesiz yerlerindeki nüfusun yer değiştirmesi ve dünyadaki anlaşmazlıkların bir sonucu olarak ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu göçmenler, mülteci kamplarında onyıllardır kalmaktadırlar. Buldukları yerin coğrafi konumu ve teknik alt yapısı düşünülerek sürdürülebilir çözümlere ihtiyaç duymaktadırlar. Uzunca süre yerleri değiştirilmiş insanlar (mülteciler) yerel ve küresel işleyen prosedürlerde etkisi olmaktadır. Bu uzatılmış mülteci durumu sonuç olarak güvensizlik, limitli olan kaynakların fazla kullanılması ve ülkeler arası gerilimli durumları ortaya çıkmasına neden olmaktadır. Mültecilerin kaldığı süre uzadıkça, bu oluşan durum geçici durum geçici olmayan bir hale dönüşmektedir.

Bu çalışma, nitel bir yöntem kullanılarak, özerk yönetimlerde insanlardaki motivasyonu yeniden canlandırmak için bir sosyal yaşam oluşturulması ve insanlar arasında iş dağıtımını yapılarak daha sürdürülebilir bir mülteci kampı oluşturulması amaçlanmıştır. Dünyada yaklaşık 2.6 milyon mültecinin barınmaya ihtiyacı vardır, mülteci kampları ise mültecilere küçük bir evren oluşturarak onlara her türlü insani ve barınma desteğini sağlamaktadır. Birleşmiş Milletler Mülteciler Yüksek Kurulundan (BMMYK) temin edilen belgeler, ilgili makaleler, basın materyalleri ve SO (Sivil Organizasyon) toplanıp analiz edilmiştir. Bu çalışma, yerel safhada mültecilerin sosyal yapının özellikleri kullanarak özerk yönetimlerin yeniden canlandırılmasını sağlamaktadır. Analizi yapılan veri yerel ve yabancı aktörlerden gelen planlanmış ve planlanmamış faktörleri ortaya koymaktadır. SO felâketi ve insani yardım prensipleri, mültecilerin kendi ikamet, kimlik ve aidiyet düşünceleri kalıcı mülteci yerdeğişmesine katkı sağlamaktadır.

Bu araştırma bütün bu süreçlerde mültecilerin nasıl misafir edileceğini, kendilerini nasıl görmeleri gerektiğini ve uzun vadede mülteciliğin onları neye doğru götüreceğine anlatan bir teori oluşturmuştur.

Keywords: sürdürülebilir çözümler, uzun süreli mülteci kampları, mülteci kamplarındaki toplum, mülteci kampı tasarımı

This Thesis is dedicated to:

My wonderful parents,

My husband,

And my brother,

Thank you all for your supports along the way and helping to give me the life I
love today.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

There has been an increase of displaced inhabitants because of natural disasters, conflict, and hostility [1]. This fast raise in refugees and internally displaced populace needs considerable growths of camps and improvement in new camps. Meanwhile, many camps turn into durable accommodation [2] as a result of durability of conflicts, ecological poverty and numerous other issues [1]. Furthermore, considering funding limitations, the humanitarian management is obliged to search and execute more efficient and durable solutions to camp systems. Such developed planning technologies are required to involve spatial planning and resource sustainability as the same time supporting integration of refugees and host societies while decreasing tension and disorders of these systems [2].

1.1 Human Migration

Human migration is one of the most discussed phenomenon in international media. It's really hard to define this word completely but though vague definition it happened all along the history of world.

As early human migration, we can give example of upper Paleolithic colonization. Although the reason of first migration is usually climate change but it changed to religious, racial, political and economic in recent centuries. But all these migrations happen to achieve higher quality in life [3].

According to the explanation of International Migration, migration is:

The movement of a person or a group of persons, either across an international border, or within a state; It is a population movement, encompassing any kind of movement of people, whatever its length, composition and causes; it includes migration of refugees, displaced persons, economic migrants, and persons moving for other purposes, including family reunification [4].

Migration has different shapes according to the nature and the reason of the movement.

There are permanent, impermanent and voluntary, forced migration forms. Permanent migration is moving from one region to a different region without returning plan. Impermanent migration is the migration in a limited time. Forced or obligatory migration refers to migrants that leave by force. Voluntary migration is migration that have chance to choose whether to migrate or not.

There are internal and international forms. Internal migration is changing of habitation within the country. International migration or external migration is the change of living place to different countries.

1.2 Different Status of Migration

Human migration is the moving of inhabitants from a place to a different one with the purposes of staying, enduringly or for the short term in a new place. This moving is frequently for long distances and from a country to a new one, but domestic movement is as well possible. Inhabitants may move alone, in relatives or in big crowds.

1.2.1 Refugees

Although there was huge amount of refugees in history but the detailed definition of refugee term is in the prologue in Convention in 1951 that signed in Geneva. Through massive refugee movement in World War II, the situation is really needed to be solved. In year 1967 the convention was regulated by protocol relating on status of refugees. All constraints relating to geography and time were suspended in that protocol and the convention got legitimacy worldwide.

Afterwards refugee is interpreted as any individual:

Who have well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable, or owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country; or who, not having a nationality and being outside the country of his former habitual residence as a result of such events, is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to return to it [5].

1.2.2 Asylum Seeker

The asylum seeker and refugee can be mistaken in meaning. A person who leaves their country because of impendent risk but not categorized completely in refugee term of Convention called asylum seeker. The asylum seeker state is defined according to local refugee agencies as refugee. Thus, having an efficient system is so serious for governments but effective and balanced system is a rare possibility in huge migration conditions [6]. For instance, it is more than four years that Europe's largest arrival of asylum seekers after the Second World War happened but pressures on EU (European Union) members over how to handle this influx is still high [4].

1.2.3 Internally Displaced Person

This status is for person who abandons their accommodation but doesn't pass their countries border. The reasons are generally battles, conflicts, natural disasters,

injustice, religious desecration and social desecration. The government protects internally displaced people according to national laws [6].

1.2.4 Migrant

Migrant is a person who left his country and lives in other country provisionally or for life time. The reason of this migration is generally gaining higher living standards. Unlike refugees, migrant can choose about destination of migration, the duration and time of returning to home country [6].

The classification of migrant people is done from various aspects.

Temporary Labor Migrants

This state is for people who leave their country temporarily to work in destination country and generally send earned money home [6].

Highly Skilled and Business Migrants

This status is for skilled and qualified people who travel as expertise employee. They are generally welcomed in destination country according to their cooperation for state development [6].

Irregular or Illegal Migrants

This group of migrants is controversial because they enter the country without sufficient documents or permits [6].

Forced Migrants

This group includes refugees, asylum seekers and forcibly émigrés because of factors like wars, famine [6].

Family Reunification Migrants

This is the state of people who join their family members in destination country; however, this right is not accepted for some countries. For example, family reunion is not recognized in Jordan for Palestine origin families after Arab League resolution in 1965 [6].

Return Migrants

This term is used for migrants who return their home country after a time in immigration country [7].

1.3 Immigration Factors

In any immigration there are factors in both home country and destination country [7].

1.3.1 Abandoning Reasons

- Populace increase, Populace congestion
- Deficiency in economic opportunities
- Suppression in politic related issues

1.3.2 Immigration Country Capacities

- Requirement of labor
- Political liberty
- Accessibility for economic opportunities

1.4 Immigration Crises

Among the countries that were in World War II, there was a massive immigration. Large part of it took place in Central and Eastern Europe. Even there was mass evacuation among Japanese people.

After the influx migration of people in World War II, nowadays world face its highest migration rate due to conflicts, violence and natural disasters.

Forced displacement of 68.5 million people from their home is unprecedented [1]. 25.4 million are defined as refugees, which half of the refugees are under the age of 18 [1].

Moreover 10 million people don't have nationality, thus no right for education, healthcare, employment and even freedom of movement.

According to statistical data of UNHCR, forced displacement population increases 1 person each two seconds because of violence or affliction [1].

Thus, the effect of international organizations, NGOs, universities and research centers are essential and highly needed in this international phenomenon.

1.5 Refugee management

Since 2011, the population of refugees has been doubled. Particularly after 2015, this influx increases significantly and it seems that it won't step down in near future [1].

This fact has lots of impacts on destination countries and makes logistical complexities in them, though the governments should manage these crises with the co-operation of leaders, NGOs and businesses. To manage different aspects of refugee lives, it's divided to four phases:

Fast, agile decision making: Escaping from war or where life has become unsustainable, transiting through countries to get to the desired country of choice. This is the most unsecure phase, where refugees do not have any safe haven. They are vulnerable not only to the elements but also to smugglers and traffickers.

Arrival phase: Reaching safety and security. Refugees are given temporary shelter and support and can register and apply for asylum in the protective country of choice.

Protection, settlement and integration phase: Once in the country of choice, refugees apply and are assessed for asylum – and are accepted or refused. They receive protection and support facilities throughout the application process. If accepted, they are provided with housing and integration into communities through work and education.

Repatriation phase: Refugees are returned to their country of origin if refused asylum. In the longer term, refugees are granted asylum and are repatriated when it is safe to be returned to their home country [8].

1.6 Refugee Camp

As described in refugee management part, refugees spend at least two or even three phases in refugee camps.

Refugee camps are mostly designed for agile and temporary services and placing so permanent facilities are banned in most of these camps. But in fact, refugees often spend long years there because of unpleasant condition of their country of origin. In this case, the risk of diseases, sexual and physical violence, child abuse, security and inefficient facilities is growing.

1.7 Protracted Refugees

Protracted refugee situations are those refugees who live in another state for more than five years [9]. Forced immigrants generally depart their houses thinking that their parting from houses will not last long. Continuing wars, political insecurity, and difficulty of legitimate residency claims in the home country, more and more extend the time spent in host country. Meanwhile, these obligatory emigrants tolerate the burden of the label “refugee” and in most cases transfer to different geographically restricted places and in the shelter of the international settings. Through various estimations, prolonged refugees who live in this scheme for more than five years are

almost 70 percent of all refugees of whole world [10] by the average of around 20 years in protraction [11].

They signify a worldwide phenomenon of refugee “wasted lives” of human [12] [13]. The importance of this protracted circumstances inspired this research to explore theories about permanency in migration.

Long lasting refugee situations is usually outcome of “long-lasting local insecurity” and political impasse [10].

Many analyses of prolonged emigration concentrate on security propositions, politic reactions, and humanitarian plans. These studies investigate into the role of local and international players with a few considering experiences of refugees themselves [12].

This study searches for the interaction among various performers and involve analysis over different aspect study of three refugee sites to discover interactions that may contribute to prolonged displacement. By considering the systems of a lengthened existence, this research proves evidences that these camp settings are the prolonged; they are actually becoming long-lasting type of dislocation.

This research is a considerable contribution to the sector of obligatory immigration in that at first it begins with connecting the factors of the refugee camps and link them in the management of long-lasting, more than impermanent movement.

Furthermore, by investigating the different aspects of camps as a small-scale version of the bigger refugee condition, the research presents widespread explanation about

locations, infrastructures and its adjacent socio-economical systems. This may assist all performers in the international refugee system, involving refugees themselves. This leads to improved employ in the peacemaking, self-governing, self-managing, and long-lasting answer generating methods that can direct humanitarian actors for reaching several up-to-date prolonged refugee systems. By considering in what way each performer deliberately or not deliberately acts in prolonged settings, refugees, governments, and international organization can more consciously manage systems that possibly lessen the wasted human lives gathering in refugee camps all over the world.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Historical Context

The present structure of the refugee camp date back to after World War II in Europe. In reaction to the thirty million populations who were displaced from their houses and outer of their state after the conflicts, governments required an immediate and all-inclusive plan to supply refugees with aid. Because the crisis of refugee management had not turn into a big issue for the global humanitarian organizations and societies, what turns out from this requirement was a “standardized, generalized technology of power in the management of mass displacement” that gave managing as a responsibility of the military [14]. Unfortunately, such “generalized” methods of organizing did not get from considerate arrangement or contemplation, but more from the requirement to manage in a short time as a solution to “the unprecedented scale of displacement” [14].

From the point of physical setting of the camps, the military had a huge effect on how these settings seem nowadays. Refugee camp systems were copied from military camp systems, which were planned to manage huge crowds of population well, whether it was for more convenience for camp population to survey and documentation or it was to efficiently isolation of inhabitants from infections. Though this structure for accommodation of refugee saw criticism and disapproval,

the military approach camps continued and implemented the method of using similar spaces as a structure of managing [14].

2.2 Camp Design

For the structural design phase of refugee camp settings, one specific author is Jim Kennedy, was known for his researches concerning about camp structural plan. He investigated camp structural design from an urban planning feature. He indicted a version in the UNHCR Handbook for Emergencies that fits for all condition and showed that these camps are alive and growing systems where development must be predictable and measured. In the majority of camp structures, there are big differences among the public and private places and just suggest place that approached in two different sizes: a single household plan and much larger public structures [2]. Kennedy searched to solve this crisis from an architectural viewpoint. He also identifies the importance of considering wide-ranging and more flexible settings in refugee systems and intended to study how this flexibility in settings that the majority of camps need can positively effect in improvement social relations [2]. Kennedy and Johansson, reasonably, look at this issue from the built setting point of view while Al-Nammari states some foundation why a strictly strategy oriented resolution may not fit if the real social and economic settings that are already happening in refugee system [15].

2.3 Protractions

Prolonged refugee situations are in those issues that put resources and administration of the UNHCR in the challenge. While durable refugee cases are not a new fact, it gets growing media and academic attention in current decades. These refugee cases expand more than the humanitarian emergency crisis by obligatory immigrants live in short-term situations for long periods with no resolution in view. The UNHCR

categorize prolonged refugee cases using “crude measures” that justify inhabitants more than 25,000 in deport for five or more years [9]. Around 17 million or two of third of worldwide refugees are in protracted situations [7]. The UNHCR team that suggested the standards for categorizing protraction reminded, “if it is true that camps save lives in the emergency phase, it is also true that, as the years go by, they progressively waste the same lives because of deficiency of economic and social chances to develop their states” [9]. According to UNHCR “The vast majority of protracted refugee cases are found in the world’s poorest and most unstable regions, and are frequently the result of neglecting by regional and international actors” [5]. The social and economic difficulties on these deprived and unsteady host states make crisis. These contain struggle for insufficient resources and threats to regional and national security [5] [9] [11]. Because of reaction to these possible pressures of protraction, host governments imprison refugees more and more in camp settings to keep control over the situation [16]. It leads to a series of wasted lives and unfortunately increases security issues like militarization, human trafficking, and misuse of children as soldiers in conflicts and these leads to violence [11].

2.4 Camps as Cities

Refugee camp settings have been seen as cities because of their resemblances in complexity. Camps usually have large number of inhabitants and high congestion, linked with generally high authority formations, economic action and legal schemes. Peter Grbac has a theoretic way to explore the connection that linking camp and city and researches, “How does the reimagining of the refugee camp as an urban space contribute to a new and better understanding of the built environment of the camp and the practices this environment engenders?” [17]. In his research, Grbac mostly applies Henri Lefebvre’s “right to the city” idea to claim that by re-conception of

refugee camps as a city-like setting, we can see it as a space where definite rights and liberties are realized and recovered. This idea originates from presumptions that refugee camps set some limits on refugees, which Grbac clarifies. Camp settings can be seen as “space of paradox” since it puts the refugee in a condition that neither fits in nor is accepted by their host country. This shows that refugees should alter their environment, and also motivates them to change the injustices that are against them. By setting the refugee camp as an urban set, it “enables the refugees themselves to claim ownership over their own geographic and social spaces” [17]. In addition, “this reimagining gives rise to a right-based discourse defined not by an institutional authority or power but rather redefined through political action and social relations” [17]. This idea will motivate and give power to refugees as owners of their space who can change their lives. Grbac stated that when refugees are able to modify their place, they can modify their lives.

2.5 Participation in Camps

While humanitarian organizations and host administrations are in designing and construction of new refugee camp systems, it is found in the literature that it is complicated to integrate participating development of refugees at these accomplishments [18]. As a result, there have been a lot of projects in current camps to test various participating techniques of concerning refugees. In the research “Capacity building lessons from a decade of transitional settlement and shelter,” Leon presents a 4section outline that he promotes organizations to apply from their planning phase. He states, “Fair and equitable consultation with beneficiaries is an important component of such capacity,” showing that it is essential to use “indigenous and scientific knowledge bases” together in strategic planning [19]. In other words, refugees should be a fundamental element in the development of camp

systems and “capacity should be built and made available to actively seek out the views of all groups within each community to ensure an adequately fair and equitable consultation process” [19]. Leon’s suggestions came as result of a decade of working in different cases. Though the proposal of Leon has in it the most meaning for the population, Al-Nammari expressed in her research “Participatory urban upgrading and power: Lessons learnt from a pilot project in Jordan” how complicated it was in her situation to apply comprehensive social-economical setting in a camp system. Though she illustrates the similar fact as Leon, stating “Thus, sustainable development cannot be achieved unless the process included mechanisms that encourage local ownership, empowerment, and social equity,” [18], she describes the difficulties in applying self-governing plans to societies. There are many local powers and hierarchies that obstruct a truly democratic development, for example the local leaders who jobs were like “gatekeepers to the community” and resisted participating methods that her team was struggling to apply [18].

Chapter 3

AN OVERVIEW OF THIS STUDY

The rising number of prolonged refugee cases with the complicated circumstances that challenged long-lasting answers inspires this research. Nobody has a durable answer that fits completely in all prolonged conditions; nonetheless maybe by attracting attention on some specific cases, this thesis can demonstrate aspects that contribute to this issue. Thus, this study may contribute to recognition of formerly unknown codependent prolonged systems that possibly will lead to answers and resolutions.

This study starts with analyzing three case studies and investigating the procedures of refugees, governments, and organizations acting in refugee system. Chapter 4 begins with describing the situation of case studies, also the challenges for durable solutions of these refugees' prolonged emigration. By presenting the historical background, I begin with exploring the complexities of conflicts and other reasons of migration that leads to how these refugees' situation becomes more and more durable. I chose to investigate these macro level camp systems by focus on three different camps which are residence of thousands refugees. These camps, as I explain in more details later, are microcosm systems in their regions.

Then the research explores self-reliance and related factors in considered refugee camps in chapter 5.

Chapter 6 begins with similarities of durable camps with cities. We argue this idea by exploring characteristics of protracted refugee camps and comparing with city structure. Then we demonstrate the facilities and infrastructures that every urban area need and try to implement these to refugee camps. We represent that refugee participation in camp development is essential factor that should not be underestimated. Finally, I illustrate the actions that can be done by refugees with considering their resources and skills.

Chapter 7 proposed an engineering model for designing refugee camp settings.

In chapter 8 the effects of participation are explored and it is shown that how participation has a huge role in managing the refugee systems.

These chapters are most concentrate on UNHCR data and organizations reports to express circumstances of refugees in camps. The chapters indicate the procedures that direct to permanence of migration, suggesting durable solutions to lives of refugees and contributing to an issue of wasted lives.

This study presents conditions for developing theories about planning of long-lasting displacement that I predict implementing to other camps or even urban developments in the future. These camps case studies provide a starting position for future research projects to apply them to long-lasting displacement more generally in other circumstances. Future research can explore other particular refugee camps and different aspects of social engineering of them in more details.

Chapter 4

REFUGEE CAMPS AND THEIR SPECIFICATIONS

In this chapter we will give an explanation about reasons of displacement in several emigration crises and show the distribution of emigrants. Afterwards three refugee camps are exemplified. Each camp will be described from different points of views such as infrastructures, population, social and economic structures.

4.1 Syrian Refugees

4.1.1 Syrian Crises

Latest Arab spring movements affect many countries since 2011. This mass movement happens because of low living conditions, unfair policies and political conditions and protests the government of these countries.

Syria is one of these countries, this movement led to civil war that makes huge loss on urban lives and definitely human lives. United Nations states 470,000 death, 55000 among them were children in 2016 [1].

The major three urban parts of Syria including Damascus, al Ladikiah and Aleppo cities have been ruined during this civil war. Six of Syria's historic sites that are submitted in world's heritage sites have been destroyed [20].

Similar to other countries, many artifacts of museums have been stolen in this conflict. It is a huge loss of historical and cultural heritage of Syria, and of course the whole world [20].

Human loss is the most important loss that we can't neglect at all in these conflicts. 13.5 million people are in need; it means more than half of the 22 million population of Syria. As mentioned in Table 1 among them 5.6 million forcibly displaced people, 5 million are in near countries as Lebanon, Jordan and Turkey. And nearly 1 million is in European countries, mostly Germany and Sweden [1].

Table 1: Total Persons of Concern by Country of Asylum- Syria [1]

Location name	Source	Data date	Population
Turkey	Government of Turkey, UNHCR	27 Dec 2018	3,622,366
Lebanon	UNHCR	30 Nov 2018	950,334
Jordan	UNHCR	9 Dec 2018	671,148
Iraq	UNHCR	31 Dec 2018	252,526
Egypt	UNHCR	30 Nov 2018	132,553
Other	UNHCR	30 Nov 2018	35,713

There is a crucial point that among this displaced population, if there are people that want to return home, there isn't much left in their homes. Syrian cities and urban life needs lots of restoration. Therefore, they won't return home in the near future.

This unbalanced condition in Syria makes the Syrians highest in number among refugees [1].

4.1.2 Zaatari Refugee Camp

Due to Syrian civil war and 1.4 million Syrian influxes to Jordan, 5 refugee camps were built there: Zaatari refugee camp, Majreeb al Fhood refugee camp, Azrag refugee camp, Rukbah refugee camp and Hadallat refugee camp. The first three are official while the other two are temporary based. Nearly 630,000 of this population are registered in UNHCR as refugees; merely 280,000 live in these camps [6].

Among these camps, the biggest one is Zaatari with nearly 80,000 populations. It's located near to northern border of Jordan and Syria [6].

A year after Syrian civil war, the Zaatari camp construction began in a dry region in desert of Mafrag territory [6].

A UNHCR official told that the construction took 9 days. The camp is the largest refugee camp in Jordan, and because it has been changing to a permanent settlement, it can be ranked fourth largest city in Jordan [21].

The camp has twelve sub districts; each sub district contains twenty-five blocks and nearly 60 caravans. These khaki colored caravans with small windows were built in Jordan with 18,000 dollars cost for each caravan. The camp is near and connected to road network of highway 10 with a short road [21].

The layout of Zaatari refugee camp with 12 district and infrastructures is shown in Figure 1 [21].

JORDAN

Al Za'atari Refugee Camp - General Infrastructure Map

as of 06/04/2017



Figure 1: Zaatari Camp Infrastructure Map [1]

The infrastructure of camp includes protection, education, health, water and sanitation, community empowerment, self-reliance and energy [1].

Protection in Zaatari Refugee Camp

The responsibility of protection services is with humanitarian partner organizations. They guard the right of equal access to asylum, safety, services for each person, help persons with special needs to get considered with assists and services, protection of children from any violence and abuse is among their responsibilities. They should reduce the sexual and genders based violence, SGBV (Sexual and Gender Based Violence) and protect the right of ownership in camps territory [1].

Education in Zaatari Refugee Camp

There are 28,600 children, 5-7 years, in the camp. Among this population 21400 take part in schools. This student population includes 54 percent girl and 46 percent boys. These statics are taken after the increasing of school registration by 3.4 percent in 2017-18 [1].

UNICEF (United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund) innovated Makani centers to help children to get different kinds of education under one roof. Children learn life skills like self-protection in Makani centers. Among Zaatari's children 5,500 of them enroll in Makani activities. A total of 102 youth gained the DAFI (Albert Einstein German academic refugee initiative scholarships). 11 schools and 27 community centers provide population with education and different activities.

Health in Zaatari Refugee Camp

The refugee camp contains two 55 beds hospital and 9 health care centers. 120 volunteers work in health services. Health services include activities like health care, health education with integration of HIS (Health Integration System) [1].

Water and Sanitation in Zaatari Refugee Camp

Three water wells were constructed with 3,800m³ capacity per day. The 3,600 m³daily wastewater plant was also established in 2016. Water distribution pipe system has been under construction. This technology extension will ensure every household with water and also link them into sewerage network. Future priorities will be solid waste management and recycling systems [1].

Self Reliance and Self-Management in Zaatari Refugee Camp

The main priority of camp management is to ensure whole populations' needs to food, household equipment and other essential services. But fortunately recently they focus on self-management, household skills and establish CFW (Cash for Work) program according to individual's experiences and interests. These achievements will promote life standards and will decrease social and economic vulnerabilities of refugees [1].

Energy in Zaatari Refugee Camp

A Solar Photovoltaic, PV, plant has been used since November 2017 with the capacity of 12.9 Megawatt. This system increased electricity network access of refugees from 8 hours to 14 hours. The technology provides families higher life condition like better food storage and more time to homework for students [1].

As families all facilities will benefit from this solar plant, the UNHCR save nearly 5.6 million dollars per year via this technology, thus this money can be used for other services of refugees [1].

Population in Zaatari Refugee Camp

The population of camp is 78,552. As it is shown in Figure 3 that 19.9% of this population has less than 5 years old. In every five households, one is headed by a woman. The complete demographic figures and the origin of Zaatari camp refugees are shown in Figure 2 and Figure 3 [1].

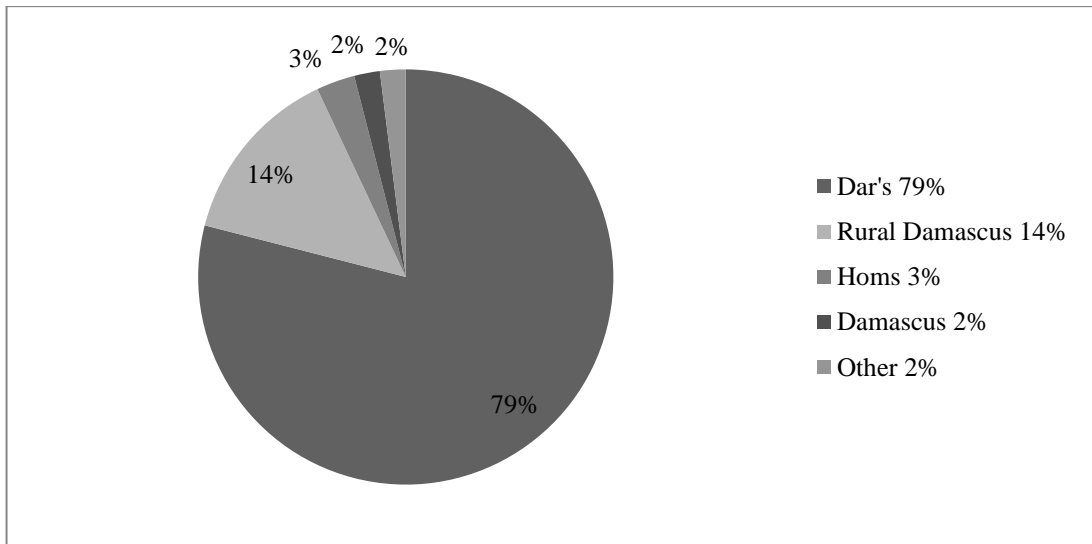


Figure 2: Place of Origin in Zaatari Camp [1]

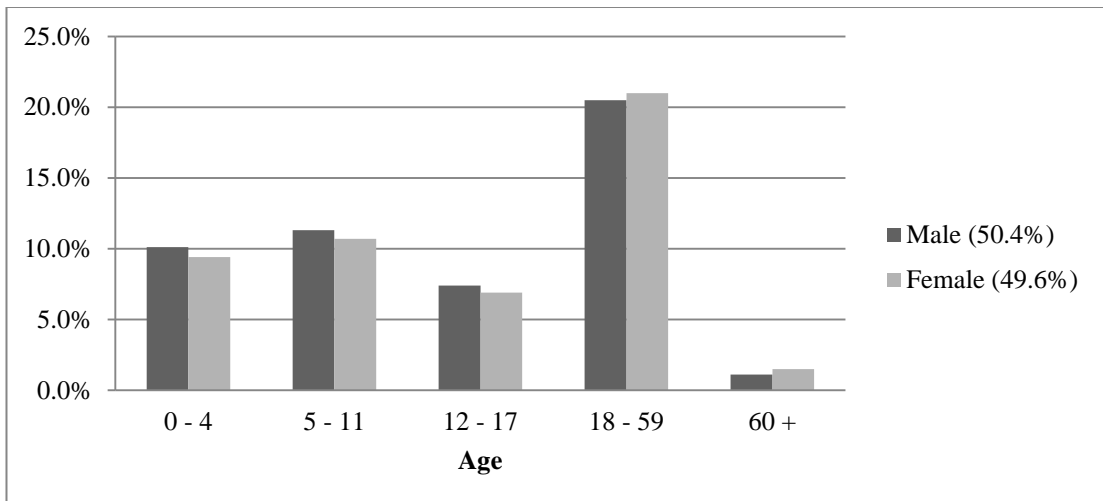


Figure 3: Demographic Breakdown of Zaatari Camp [1]

Social Structures in Zaatari Refugee Camp

The social structures of Zaatari camp with a metropolitan are very alike. Like city population dispersion, the first and second named streets are overcrowded. The wealthier refugees often from Damascus region mostly live on 11 and 12 streets like American urbanization. These two streets are far from shops or society centers; therefore, they are less crowded.

As Champ ELYSES Street in Paris, the camp has a safe way with a similar name. This street includes very different shops and shown the inner soul of this camp with wedding gown shop, billiard, pet shop, flower store, ice-cream vender and even electrical shops with solar panels to sell.

The refugees of Zaatari camp are different according to their education, wealth and origin. But most of them are middle class people with Syrian high criteria. They are mostly educated and skillful. One of aid workers said, “They all have better cell phones than I have” [21].

The fleeing of families from Syria costs a lot to refugees. Moving is the last option. Over half of the families lost a number or their household. Sometimes a village was destroyed completely, and the whole village migrates together.

Syrian refugees didn't trust to authority and staff. NGO and UN workers complain about their high expectations. As said before they are middle class families which were not accustomed to free public goods. They complain about low quality of food and bread. All they need is a stove, garlic and onion as a NGO worker said. The food culture of Syrian is very rich with Ottoman, French, Armenian and Jewish origin [21].

The other complain of refugees is about idleness. They try to spend their time with quality. A house wife recycles used tomato cans to decorative teacups. A satellite TV was built with electronic components by a creative vegetable seller. [21]

The authorities of camp planned it in arranged rows of caravans, but after the opening of camp in 2012, the view of camp has changed according to moving or assembling caravans with each other according to better quality life or is near relatives and friends. In spite of discouraging of them to move, it is not prevented so they change the view of camp and shift it to a real social society [21].

4.1.3 Lessons from Zaatari Refugee Camp

Zaatari's fast growth into the fourth major metropolitan in Jordan [22] is frequently credited only to the flexibility of its entrepreneurial camp inhabitants. But the camp's humanitarian authorities also have a great part in this. NGOs prepared public places and services for refugees for example schools, distribution centers and health centers. The earliest influx uses regular safe way beside the camp's central path to launch self-governing shops, forming what is known as the Shams Elysees similar to the name of the Avenue des Champs Elysees, a high-status avenue in Paris, replaced with *Sham* means Syria in Arabic. UNHCR did not close it but instead talked with storekeepers to adjust its size and electricity using. Actually, NGOs make regular concessions to permit some extent of camp development that can be standardized because of security but that tolerates circumstances to remain livable for inhabitants. Previous camp director Kilian Kleinschmidt tried his best to get to be familiar with the heads of Zaatari's informal networks, which several of them had moved from Dara, to launch trust among humanitarian and refugee management. He discussed with the leaders of the camp and understood the camp's interior social and economic systems that consequences to recognizing and respecting human relationships and combined teamwork [22].

The blueprints of Zaatari had pictured tents and caravans, arranged in orderly symmetrical rows that seem to be easy to direct and better for visiting donors [1]. But

while refugees changed their temporary houses to be closer to relatives or to join with other caravans, the plan turned to more asymmetrical, unplanned house growth and irregular crowding. As Zaatari shows nowadays, no two caravans seem to be similar, most of the infrastructure has been covered to copy Daraa's green environment, and a lot of small private and public gardens were planted in the desert landscape.

Zaatari's humanitarian settings motivate refugees in an individual point. Even though humanitarian regulations in the camp fit better to men's needs, a lot of women are being supported in providing their families. Young women who go to NGO trainings and programs find the guts to stand firm for early marriage and prefer education or job. Young men who require making money be trained about technology, barbering and tailoring so they do not be required to work in physically hard and often unfair labor for little money, for example moving bags of gravel in the camp. Aid workers are like mentors for kids to motivate them to go to school on a regular basis and work on the way to the career they desire.

4.2 Somalia Refugees

4.2.1 Somali Crises

The Somalia civil war began from late 1980 and has been continuing up to now. This ceaseless violence led to huge displacement in Somali. Somali itself was the host country of nearly 650,000 Ethiopian refugees from border war of Somali and Ethiopia in 1977-78 [3].

1990s are the peak years of refugee displacement in Somali but the huge emergency has shown itself between 2012 and 2017 not only because of conflicts but this time because of drought [3].

This two-and-a-half-decade conflict, natural disasters and poor economic conditions of region leads to emigration of nearly 1.5 million Somali people to neighboring countries. Beside this 2.1 million are internally displaced population [1].

Table 2 shows the distribution situations of Somalia displace people in host countries.

Table 2: Total Persons of Concern by Country of Asylum- Somalia [1]

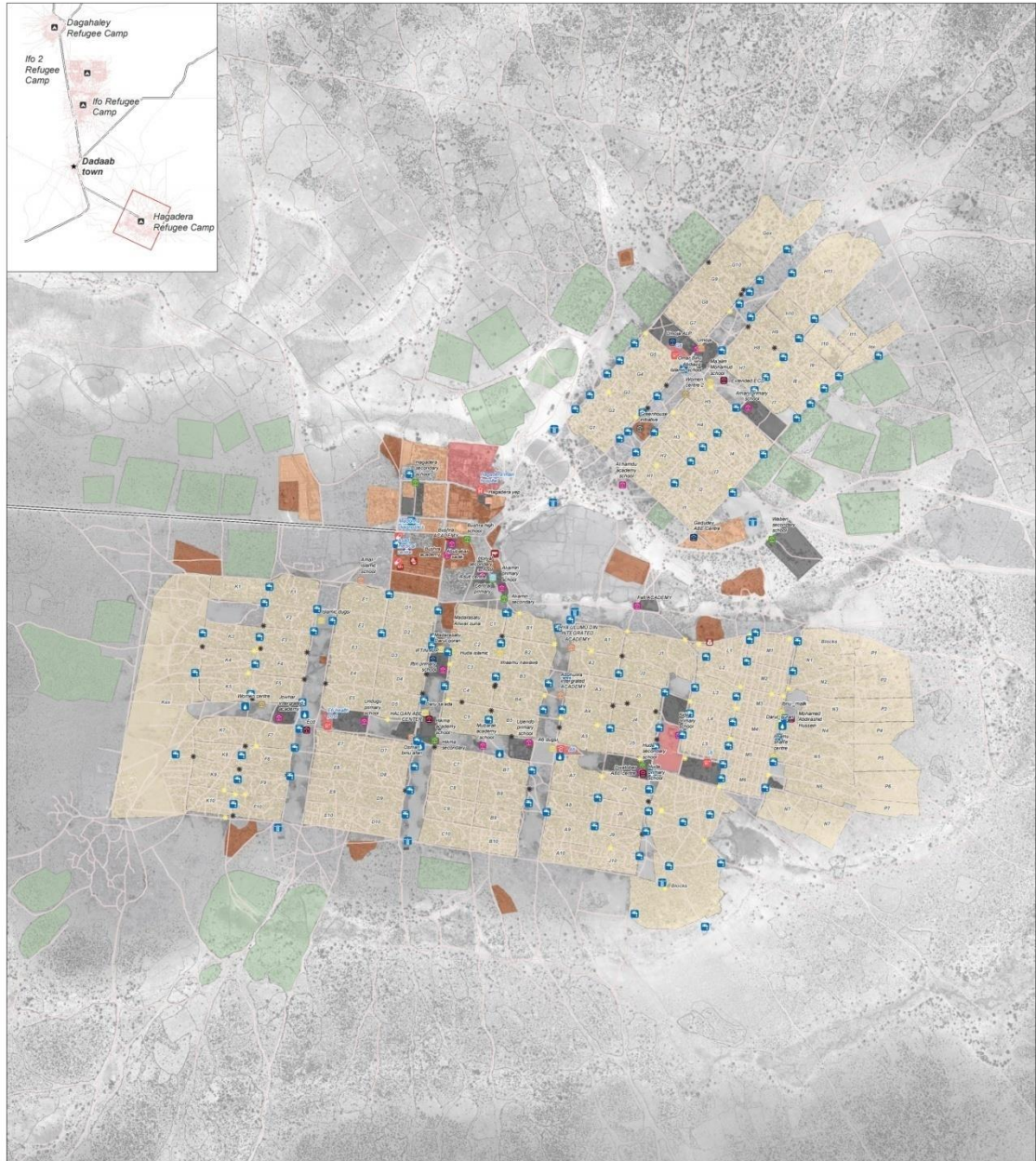
Location name	Source	Data date	Population
Ethiopia	UNHCR	31 Aug 2018	257,283
Yemen	UNHCR	30 Jun 2018	256,363
Kenya	UNHCR	31 Oct 2018	255,980
Uganda	UNHCR, Government of Uganda	31 Oct 2018	22,064
Djibouti	UNHCR	30 May 2018	12,139
Eritrea	UNHCR	30 May 2018	2,149

4.2.2 Dadaab Camp

Dadaab is site of UNHCR in semi-arid area of Kenya with 5 districts and 235269 populations that makes it 3rd biggest refugee camp. The first three phase of it established in 1992 while the other two opened after the huge drought of Somalia that leads to 130,000 new refugees [1].

The majority of this 235,269 population came from Somali due to conflict in that geographical zone.

Although this camp has an age more than 20 years, because of overcrowded situation, refugees live in plastic tents. Beside these tents, some residents build temporary home to protect from the sun. The infrastructure map of Dadaab camp is shown in Figure 4. Averagely four people live in a household. Infrastructures that increase life quality of refugees are explained below.



Camp Infrastructure (Collected 12 June 2018)

- Waterpoints**
- Borehole (7)
 - Tapstand (117)
 - Water storage tank (8)
- Health Facilities**
- Health centre (3)
 - Primary health care unit (1)
 - Pharmacy (2)
 - Referral centre (1)
- Streetlights**
- Functioning (57)
 - Not functioning (48)

- Education Facilities**
- Early childhood education (5)
 - Primary school (16)
 - Secondary school (7)
 - Accelerated learning programme (3)
 - Vocational training center (2)
 - Youth education programme (1)
 - Adult education programme (1)
 - Quranic school (10)
 - Islamic school (7)
 - Vocational training center (not functioning) (1)

- Markets**
- Food market (2)
 - Livestock market (1)
 - Main market (1)
 - Non-food items market (2)
- Roads**
- Primary road
 - Other roads

- Camp Land Use (UNHCR 2013)**
- Administration
 - Community facility
 - Education
 - Green belt
 - Health
 - Uncategorised
 - Residential area

Data sources:
Infrastructure: REACH (2018)
Roads: REACH (2017)
Camp Land Use: UNHCR (2013)
Satellite Imagery: Phleades from 31 October 2017
Copyright: ©CNES 2017

Coordinate System: GCS WGS 1984
Contact:
reach.mapping@impact-initiatives.org

File:
REACH_KEN_MAP_UNHCR_Hagadera_RefugeeCamps_JUN2018_A1

Note: Data, designations and boundaries contained on this map are not warranted to be error-free and do not imply acceptance by the REACH partners, associates, donors mentioned on this map.



Figure 4: Dadaab Camp Infrastructure Map [1]

Protection in Dadaab Refugee Camp

Due to lack of protection of government of Kenya, refugees face dangerous conditions and violence. This lack of protection and not having Kenyan national card leads to frequent arresting of refugees.

Although all refugees may encounter violence, but UNHCR and Care, Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere, see women and children more vulnerable. It results to establishing of a department called Vulnerable Women and Children, VWC.

Protection of refugees from SGBV and caring about persons with specific needs is among the protection programs in the camp.

Education in Dadaab Refugee Camp

According to the Kenya Commissioner for Refugees, when emigrants arrived in Dadaab from Somalia, they were all educated at the beginning. An evaluation survey done in 2011 initiate that access to education in Dadaab was significantly restricted, limiting the ability of refugees to have jobs and become less dependent on aid organizations. Dadaab had one secondary school; those who educated there could have jobs in aid agencies such as CARE (Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere, formerly Cooperative for American Remittances to Europe), WFP (World Food Program) or GTZ, (German Agency for Technical Cooperation) which distribute assets to refugees. Those that are untrained could have jobs in restaurants or serving in shipment of trucks. In 2011, about 48% of children in Dadaab were going to school [1].

In reaction, the Ministry of Education of Somalia stated that all high school students at camp who were Somalian would be qualified for high education scholarships.

To more improvement of the education standards, a new European Union-funded project was initiated in 2013. The plan was in execution for three years, with \$4.6 million allocated toward its programs. The plan contains new classrooms for all neighboring schools, adult plans, girls' particular education, and scholarships for influential students. 75% of the finances were used for refugees at the camp, and 25% were set aside for local population in Lagdera and Fafi [1].

Health in Dadaab Refugee Camp

The GTZ proposes essential medical care. Almost 1,800 refugees are treated in hospitals of the camp in a normal day. Local medical threats are complex because of congestion.

As mentioned before one of the reasons refugees enter the camps is dislocation caused by natural disasters. At the end of 2011, more than 25% of inhabitants in the camp came because of the drought in Africa. Refugees that arrive in these conditions were already underfed, and at the camps they could face extra food shortage. While starvation is an important cause to high death rates amongst children, it has been observed that life hope at the camp is positively correlated with years of residency [1].

Refugees are given food supplies include cereal, legumes, oil, and sugar from the World Food Program, WFP. The food is in general first distributed to children under five because they are at the maximum health danger. Marketplaces at the

camp have fresh food. But due to limited earnings, the majority of people can't afford them.

Water and Sanitation in Dadaab Refugee Camp

UNHCR cover 31.3 liters of water per day for each person from 27 wells to the whole refugee inhabitants in Dadaab camp. 26 of these run by Solar PV Diesel hybrid systems. The water supply plans carry water to 47 tanks with a total capacity of 5,550 m³, distributed with pipe system of 300 km and go to 850 stands includes about 4,000 taps [1].

With these technology refugees can get the minimum essential amount of water. As well, the solar technology has a useful impact on the location; it makes less noise and generates no smoke because the solar power is changed to electrical energy. This changing in energy system leads to less carbon releasing and less pollution in the neighboring environment.

Self-Reliance and Self-Management in Dadaab Refugee Camp

Norwegian Refugee Council, NRC, accomplished attention increase operation about the 2018 YEP (Youth Employment Program) program in the camp. Totally 820 applications for access were received in camp. Because of other continuing Peace Building project, vocational skills are training among the population of camp. At this time 371 students, 160 females, 211 males are getting training from DRC (Democratic Republic of the Congo) about electrical, plumbing, tailoring, welding and information and communications technology [1].

Population in Dadaab Refugee Camp

Most of the inhabitants in Dadaab have escape from different conflicts in Eastern Africa area. The majority of them come as a result of the civil war in southern Somalia and because of droughts.

In 2005, around 97% of refugees at Dadaab were Somalian Muslims.

According to the UNHCR, 80% of inhabitants were women and children and 95% were from Somali in 2015. Among refugee population from Somalia, population of men and women is the same, and only 4% of the residents are over sixty. Every year, thousands of children are born in the Dadaab. There are numbers of population that spent their whole lives as refugees. Origin of inhabitants of Dadaab camp and their demographic breakdown are shown in Figure 5 and Figure 6 [1].

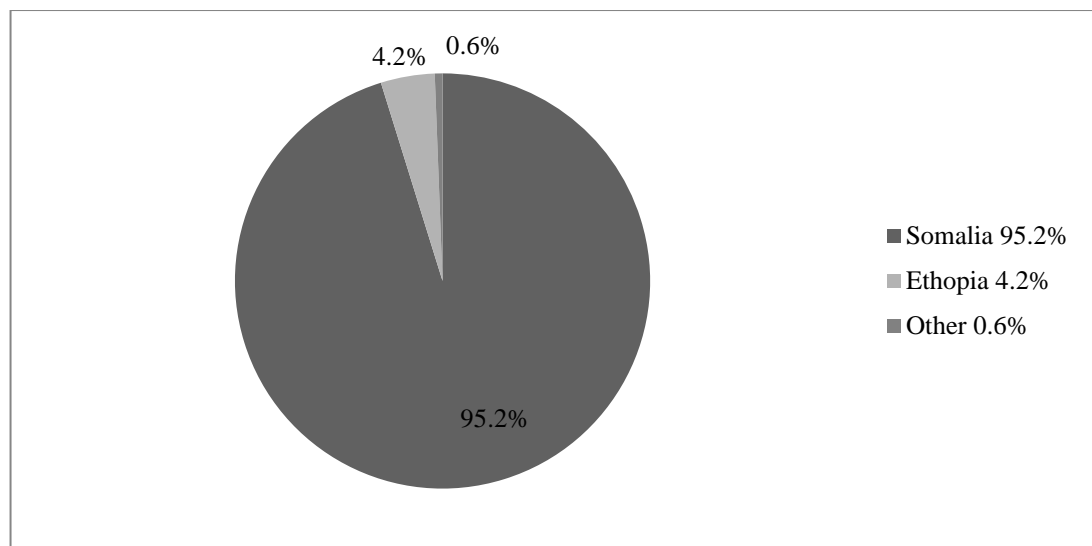


Figure 5: Place of Origin in Dadaab Camp [1]

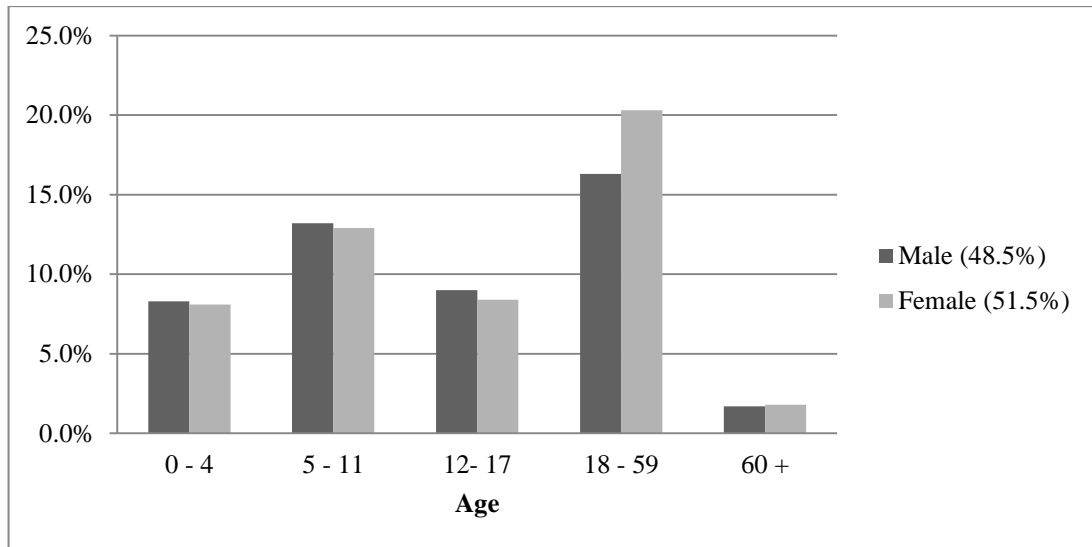


Figure 6: Demographic Breakdown of Dadaab Camp [1]

Social Structure in Dadaab Refugee Camp

The refugees come with skills, and others obtain skills in the camp: either during on the job training or throughout vocational training of the organizations.

Some of the socio-economic activities of refugees supported by funding organizations; while others are started with their own financing. Most of the money making activities was self-initiated.

In camp there are number of sportive activities planned by the organizations, most popular of them football and volleyball. These activities arranged as part of society peace and unity training and also to stop the youth from harmful actions such as drug abuse, enrollment in gangs and armed force groups, and other illegal actions.

4.2.3 Kakuma Camp

Kakuma is a UNHCR refugee camp in Kenya. In 1991, the camp set up to be home for alone youth who had run away the war in Sudan and walking from camps of Ethiopia [1].

Kakuma is in the second poorest area of Kenya and because of this deficiency, there are constant tensions between the refugees and the local population that seldom resulted in conflict. Kakuma is the second largest refugee camps in Kenya; the larger one is Dadaab.

The camp is controlled by the Kenyan government and UNHCR.

Each ethnic society lives in a discrete area. Each area constructs its own markets, coffee shops, library, and holy places. The infrastructures of Kakuma camp are shown in Figure 7 [1].

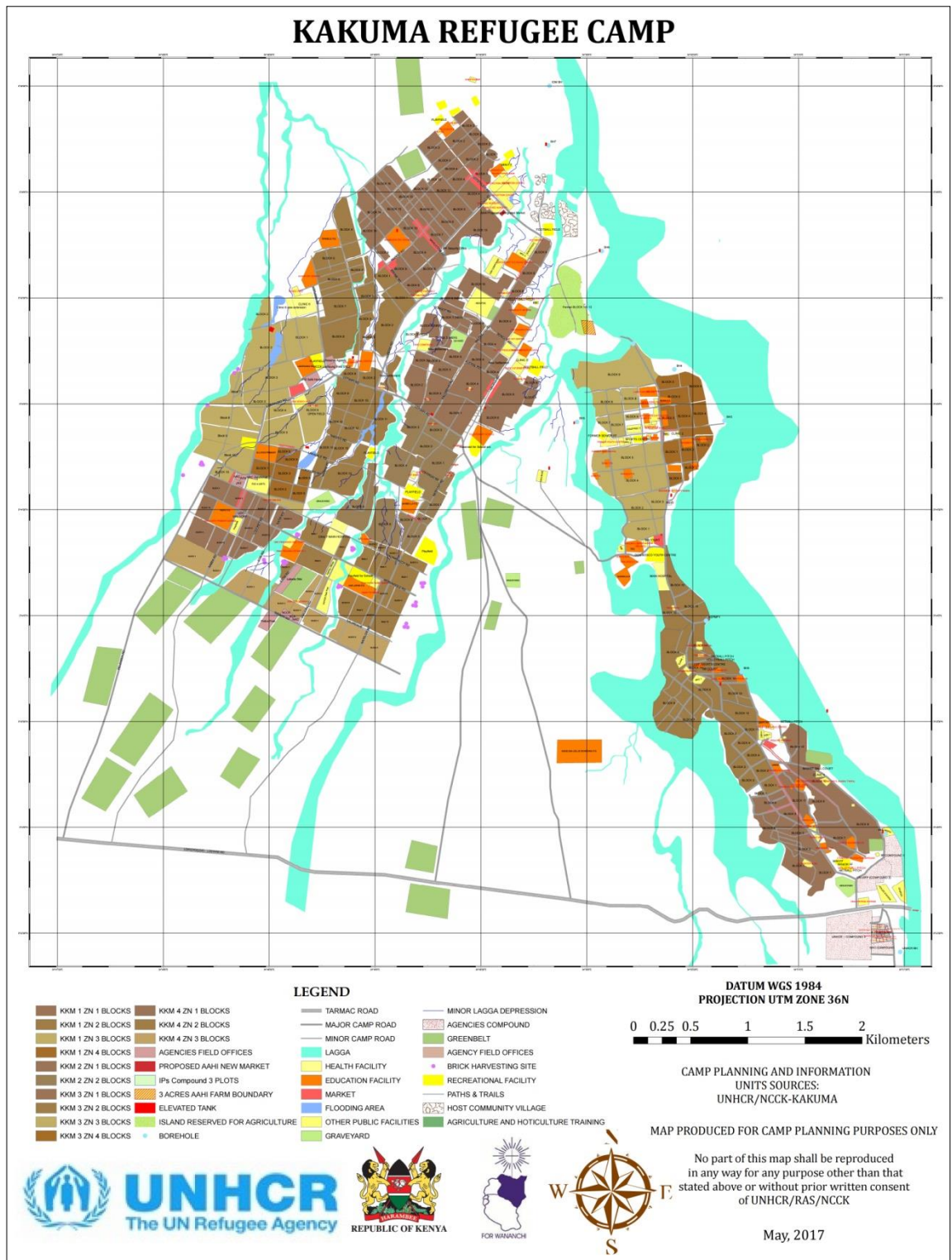


Figure 7: Kakuma Camp Infrastructure Map [1]

Protection in Kakuma Refugee Camp

A Kenyan police station is outside the entry of the camp. Kenyan police do not normally work after sunset. They search the major streets at sunset, asking all non-refugees that they bump into to depart the camp. In the camp, The Lutheran World Federation, LWF, is responsible of security. LWF use several Kenyans, mostly ex-military people who guard the camp and all security matters should be informed to them.

Refugee inhabitants have their own securities after sunset and in several of the residential areas, securities hold machetes on their shifts. A Protection Area is in the camp, which includes about 120 families [1]. It is planned as a short-term way when a refugee's security cannot be guarantee in the camp.

Education in Kakuma Refugee Camp

In addition to pre-primary, primary, secondary education and high school, numerous vocational training and other courses are educational lay out of the camp.

Because cultural and traditional customs do not prefer girl's education, girls only are 20% of students in primary and secondary schools. Compulsory and early marriage ban girls' education. Some parents say no to daughters' school because they could be taught about family planning. Still girls are more eager to participate in education because education is a way to free from family domination [1].

Boys and girls should eat together at school because of a rule that encouraged the coeducational thought that is quite the opposite of traditional customs, above all for the Sudanese.

Kakuma Distance Learning Centre presented students the opportunity to get university courses with the University of South Africa.

E-Learning project was another project that initiated in a secondary school and the public library in 2015. It is a portable solution that eases students educational participating by using mobile educational software.

Health in Kakuma Refugee Camp

There is a core hospital of 90 beds with the option of transfer to other hospitals in Kenya. A public psychological health service was set up by International Rescue Committee, IRC, and UNHCR. Nearly less than 1% of the camp people used it between 1997 and 1999 [1].

Self-Reliance and Self-Management in Kakuma Refugee Camp

DRC, Democratic Republic of the Congo, is applying self-reliance and livelihoods activities in Kakuma aiming both refugee and host population to help them for their financial empowerment.

DRC's training program give refugees and the host population with specialized and vocational training scholarships that provide them the skills and information to succeed in formal employment or self-reliant activities.

Population in Kakuma Refugee Camp

About 85 % of the camp's 150,000 refugees arrived within the last 10 years. Kakuma camp is now a well-known, urban settlement and if combined with the town can be

considered as a single place. Almost 220,000 inhabitants lived in Kakuma camp and town united, making it similar to Kenya's 10th largest urban region [1].

The camp is mixture of nationalities and ethnicities. The demographic reports show that most of the populations are South Sudanese, 53.7 percent, and Somali, 22.6 percent. Origin and demographic breakdown of Kakuma camp are shown in Figure 8 and Figure 9. Other refugees are from Burundi, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, and Sudan. The camp's variety is bigger when looking at ethnicity in nationalities. For example, the South Sudanese camp residents are separated to Nuer and Dinka, and the Somali residents to Somali and Somali Bantu [1].

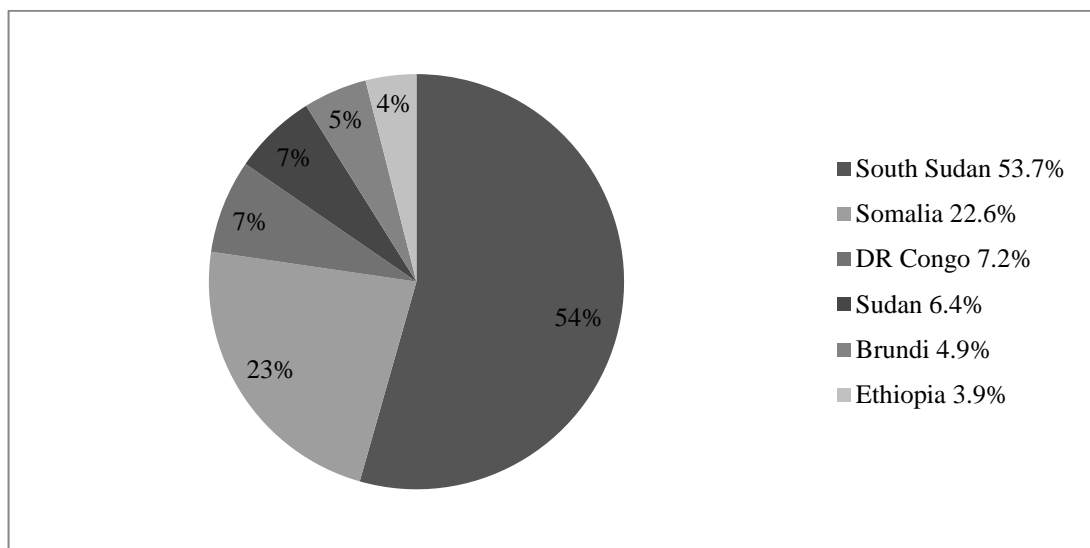


Figure 8: Place of Origin in Kakuma Camp [1]

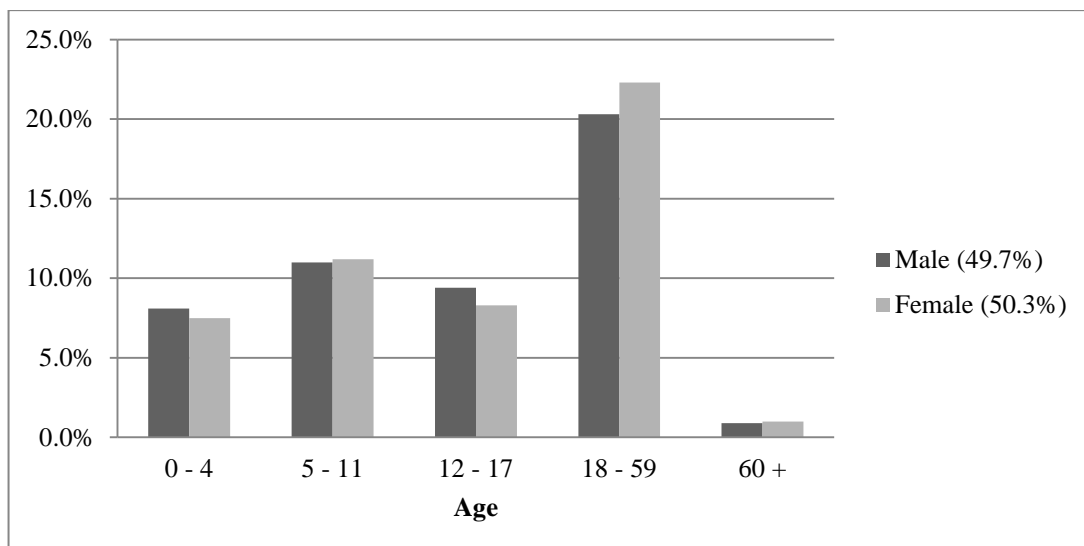


Figure 9: Demographic Breakdown of Kakuma Camp [1]

Social Structures in Kakuma Refugee Camp

Compared with the wider region, the Kakuma camp has better health settings and a higher percentage of children in education, which resulted in a general idea that the refugees were more comfortable than the local population. The host population is mostly wandering pastoralists who obey their customs and don't collaborate with refugees. Camp is becoming a normal part of the local socio-economic setting and a part of living choices available in the state.

The refugee camp has four districts, named in the order they were opened. The districts are more than rows of tents; they are like small cities, with a mix of mud and cement houses, tents, and business centers.

4.2.4 Lessons from Kenyan Camps

The twenty years old Kakuma refugee camp has in various aspects build up to an accidental city, and challenges the aspect of refugee camps as isolation places, places of immunity and center of wasted lives. Though the refugee residents change in number and origin, the camp as a humanitarian construction has turned into more and

more normal social system. Theoretically, the camp is not only a physical setting, but also a system that aid actors and beneficiaries to interact together in this system. In Kakuma, this interaction is more obvious, and refugees and the UNHCR and NGOs try to contact each other better in the process of aid distribution and services like education, training and medical services, and other opportunity for help, in a complicated aid setting. But the relation linking refugees and humanitarian actors does not prevent at the camp's limitations.

Aid actors and the administration of Kenya know that the refugee camps in Kenya are changing more and more to 'normal' in the local socio-economic of the region [23]. Inhabitants are sometimes in the site, sometimes in the city and sometimes in neighboring countries like South Sudan, Uganda or the DRC, where they relate in various kinds to humanitarians. The Kenyan camps are accepted as piece of living choices available for inhabitants.

After twenty years of refugee camps life in Kenya, the refugee camps have remarkable challenges. In Kenya, the perception of the Dadaab camp has been changing because of growing of the urban aspects of the camp. Kenya refugee administrations states that 'the Dadaab camps are very much a feature of the North Eastern Province, and they represent its most significant city', and declares that the camp grants around 14 million dollars to the region yearly and the yearly income of self-governed camp businesses in Dadaab is about 25 million dollars [24]. Organizations use the name 'boom towns' to indicate Kakuma and Dadaab as growing societies and markets that businesses are looking for.

In Dadaab, it is discussed that, in spite of a negative effects in the environment from political view and terrorist spill over, the camp has a constructive impact on the economy of the region by supplying employment, financial aid and opportunities to host societies, more than restraining them. Many of Kenyan population that effected by drought and poor societies registered as refugees. The Kenyan administrations stated that 27 percent of the populations in 50 km radius have refugee cards [24].

An UN official stated that 30 percent or more of the refugees may be Kenyan residents, saying that Kenya Somalis, the host people in the region of Dadaab, have the similar national background as Somalis, and as a result combine with Somalia refugees easily [25]. This fact is more limited in Kakuma camp, but seen in Kakuma camp, too. It is presented as one type of 'digging aid' [25]. It shows that camps similar to these offer living opportunities to region inhabitants while making some unfavorable changes and limitations.

Chapter 5

SELF-RELIANCE AND REFUGEE LIFE

Host countries often see refugees a problem for community's system [26]. They say that refugees boost up the demands on resources, mainly after human emergencies increase and influxes intensify. As a result, host administrations often oblige limitations that lead to refugees feeling "warehoused" On the other hand organizations like NGOs plan to develop life of refugees as well as host people, and as a result provide infrastructures and services funds [27]. These kinds of investments will, as said by global donors, save funds in the long period of time, strengthen neighborhood facilities and infrastructures, avoid clashes, and also raise refugees' self-reliance [27].

5.1 Self-reliance in UNHCR Policy

Self-reliance means the person's capability to afford their requirements. A lot of academicians and development researchers have identified the advantages of permitting refugees to follow plans which endorse economic involvement and sustainable occupations because these kinds of activities are important to human self-respect and long-standing welfare. The UNHCR describes self-reliance as the social and financial capability of a person, a family or a society to meet vital requirements in a sustainable approach and with pride [6]. Increasing self-reliance leads to increasing and intensification livings of people and lessening their vulnerability and long-standing dependence on humanitarian and outer aid.

The idea of self-reliance is encouraging, accenting the requirement of caring for human rights which are the basis for acceptable lives which let “individuals, households and communities to cope with or recover from stress and shocks, maintain capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable opportunities for the next generation”. In addition, the importance of self-reliance on the durable implementation is well-matched with the long-lasting aspect of the majority refugee circumstances. Therefore, actual and significant self-reliance and self-dependency can create a real involvement to refugee life comfort.

5.2 Self-Reliance in Refugee Camps

Plan of hosting refugees in selected areas, usually camps, is common in the majority of nations [26]. A refugee camp is described as a set where refugees live and, usually, host administrations and humanitarian organizations supply aid in a centralized approach. They usually have reception parts, public accommodation and tents or containers [6]. Although the majority of refugees camps are administered by UNHCR, camps differ in size, features, kind of infrastructures, place, etc., because the system generally depends on the financial support the camp gets and on the hosting nation’s decisions. Because there are a different range of policies about camps, there are as well big variations in the level of independency and self-reliance in camps. We can divide camps to three types, because of different amounts of self-reliance:

- The traditional camp: Traditional camps have a lowest self-dependence. These camps only supply the vital requirements at a lowest standard, so people can live but do not have the chance to decide which and service they want. They have markets, but they are restricted because of the lack of funds.

- The urban camp: Urban camps cover a standard amount of self-reliance. Urban camps supply permanent facilities, like manufactured houses (rather than tents), schools, hospitals, and an effective security setting. The camps as well have water, sanitation and hygiene, sewage, and energy systems in addition to a marketplace, where inhabitants can acquire the goods they require and desire. Market opportunities are more in these camps, but yet lots of refugees depend on exterior supports.

- The city-like camp: City-like camps are not yet real, but would have a greatest stage of self-reliance. They have every settlement urban camps have with improved education systems, productive work opportunities and refined working setting for refugees and host society people looking for job. In this utopian system, inhabitants can care for themselves and have the financial income to pay for the services they make use of.

Refusing refugees to work has an effect on their self-respect. If refugees stay jobless in the lasting, needy to exterior help, or are mostly incapable to take part in social organization, they are likely to increase associated troubles. Those troubles contain mental and health issues, down-skilling that means the loss of qualifications that they had before, social isolation problems, family pressures feeling of guiltiness, violence and poverty [28]. Therefore, improving the employment should be a main concern to camp administrators, host managements, and the global community.

For achieving the city-like camp, it is crucial to recognize features and conditions of refugees in prolonged camps to evaluate self-reliance. Through gathering data related to these factors we can evaluate self-reliance in different camps.

For evaluating self-reliance, Zaatari camp was selected as a case study. This study will state 7 dimension, 27 indicators and information about Zaatari camp. Each dimension is explained in Table 3.

Table 3: Dimensions and Indicators of Self-Reliance [1]

Dimension	No. Indicator	Variable/ Illustration	Objective and examples for relation to self-reliance and/or other dimensions	Constraints	Zaatari
Demographics	1	Camp Inhabitants all	Number of inhabitants (in total numbers)	To compare differently sized camps; to calculate ratios	80,000
	2	Camp inhabitants women	Percentage of women (in %)	To compare differently sized camps	50%
	3	Camp inhabitants men	Percentage of men (in %)	To compare differently sized camps	50%
	4	Camp inhabitants 0-14 years	Percentage of minors age 0-14 (in %)	Demographics: To compare differently sized camps Education: to assess the no. of Inhabitants in need of an education Well-being: to assess no. of vulnerable inhabitants	49%
	5	Camp inhabitants in working-age (15-64 years)	Percentage of inhabitants aged 15-64 (in %)	To compare differently sized camps	48%
Material living standards	6	Access to next market	Time to get to next market (in hours)	To assess external business opportunities refugees have	30 min
	7	Inhabitants-shop-ratio	No of shops in relation to inhabitants (as a ratio)	To assess the level of material living standards through the availability of different commodities Material living standards: high no of commodities	27 Inhabitants per shop

(continued)

Dimension	No. Indicator	Variable/ Illustration	Objective and examples for relation to self-reliance and/or other dimensions	Constraints	Zaatari
			Personal activities: no. of available jobs Well-being: no. of shopping opportunities and thus choices to make which increases dignity, time needed to run errands To assess level of self-reliance.	indicate the time inhabitants need to run their errands; it can just be assumed that if number of shops is high, shops are located more decentralized	
	8	No of shops owned by refugees	Percentage of shop owners in camp (in %)	Does not indicate the number of people working in a shop or their salaries	2%
	9	Refugees with sufficient income to meet basic needs	Percentage of refugees who can meet basic needs (in %)	Including remittances and aid does not objectively display level of self-reliance	60%
	10	Access to electricity	Hours per day a household has electricity	Indicator does not imply that all households have this amount of electricity per day; how it is generated (e.g., environmental friendly-SDG 7) or who pays for it (refugees or organizations); facilitated domestic work only if further appliances are available (white goods, etc.)	8
			To assess market and job opportunities Material living standards: the longer people have electricity the more market opportunities they have as they can set up a higher variability of businesses than without Education: children can also learn when dark, schools with electricity are of higher quality Well-being: domestic work is facilitated (by, e.g., usage of white goods)		

(continued)

Dimension	No. Indicator	Variable/ Illustration	Objective and examples for relation to self-reliance and/or other dimensions	Constraints	Zaatari	
Personal activities including work	11	Camp inhabitants with income	Percentage of working-age refugees earning any kind of income	To assess income generating inhabitants, incl. self-employed, formally and informally employed as well as employed by organizations (cash for work) People engaged in work earn at least some kind of income, even if not able to live self-reliantly	This indicator does not indicate the type or quality of work, if employees are exploited, the amount of income is sufficient, nor if the source of income is related to the employee's level of education	60%
	12	Camp inhabitants with job permit	Percentage of working-age refugees with job permit (in %)	The more people are engaged in legal work, the higher the level of self-reliance in the camp People with legal work permit can more easily find a job suitable to their education; this has an impact on their well-being; do not have to use negative coping mechanisms (e.g. child labor for their children)	The indicator does not state if refugees with work permission also have found an appropriate job	10%
Health	13	Hospital- inhabitants ratio	No. of inhabitants per hospital (as ratio)	To assess quantity of health facilities Physical health is important to be able to engage in work	Indicator does not provide information about quality of hospitals	40,000 inhabitants per hospital
	14	Health care center- inhabitants ratio	No. of inhabitants per health care center (as ratio)	To assess quantity of health facilities Physical health is important to be able to engage in work		8,888 inhabitants per health care center

(continued)

Dimension	No. Indicator	Variable/ Illustration	Objective and examples for relation to self-reliance and/or other dimensions	Constraints	Zaatari
	15 Neonatal mortality rate	No. of death that occurs in the first 28 days of life per 1,000 lives (as ratio)	To assess the level of health within the camp The overall level of health can be assessed by the number of babies born healthily – the healthier a camp, the more working-age people can engage in work	A vast variety of indicators could help to assess the level of health in a camp, e.g. the no of malnourished or undernourished children, maternal mortality rate, etc.	26.6
	16 Waste water removal and treatment	Percentage of waste water collected (in %)	To assess the situation of waste water, as uncollected and untreated waste water increases water-borne diseases, which affects people engaging in work	Also not collected waste can increase water-borne diseases as can the quantity and quality of sanitation facilities	80%
Well-being	17 Available drinking water	Liters of drinking water per person (in l)	To assess the amount of drinking water available per person; to assess time needed for domestic work Health: a certain amount of drinking water per day is necessary for a person's state of health; an abundance of water facilitates domestic work, like washing clothes and dishes (if white goods available) Education: availability of drinking water improves quality of schooling	Assessment of time for domestic work difficult to assess, as also influenced by other factors (e.g., washing machine available, time necessary to fetch water)	35+

(contin ned)

Dimension	No. Indicator	Variable/ Illustration	Objective and examples for relation to self-reliance and/or other dimensions	Constraints	Zaatari
	18	Child labor Percentage of children aged 5-14 engaged in work (in %)	To assess level of negative coping mechanism within the camp; to assess children who do not attend school; to assess level of vulnerability of households Education: children who work, do not attend school or only occasionally Well-being: households sending children to work do this usually to cope with poverty	Does not include children (usually girls) engaged in domestic work (SDG 5 indicators)	13%
	19	Community center-inhabitants per center ratio	No. of inhabitants per community center (as ratio)	Indicator does not provide information about quality of center or about quantity of offers Indicator does not assess no. of traumatized or vulnerable people - not every body traumatized or vulnerable goes to center	2,962 inhabitants per center
Education	20	Children-school ratio	To assess quality of schools Education can raise aspirations, set values, and enrich lives	Indicator does not provide information about quality of school, e.g. Zaatari: only 9 schools are formal schools	865 children per school
	21	Children-teacher ratio	To assess quality of schools Education can raise aspirations, set values, and enrich lives	In order to really assess quality of set school, more information would be necessary, like training of teachers, hours of schooling, abilities of children per class etc., which are partly difficult to assess	50 children per teacher

(continued)

Dimension	No. Indicator	Variable/ Illustration	Objective and examples for relation to self-reliance and/or other dimensions	Constraints	Zaatani	
Education (adults)	22	Camp inhabitants without education	Percentage of inhabitants who never attended school (in %)	To assess level of education of inhabitants to create suitable jobs Education: to assess the level of additional training needed Well-being: the closer a job is to the skills one has, the higher the degree of feeling self-worthy	Does not indicate which non- educational skills a person has achieved before	10%
	23	Camp inhabitants completed only elementary school	Percentage of inhabitants who completed only elementary school (in %)	To assess level of education of inhabitants to create suitable jobs Education: to assess the level of additional training needed Well-being: the closer a job is to the skills one has, the higher the degree of feeling self-worthy	Does not indicate which non- educational skills a person has achieved before	51%
	24	Camp inhabitants completed basic or intermediate school	Percentage of inhabitants who completed basic or intermediate school (in %)	To assess level of education of inhabitants to create suitable jobs Education: to assess the level of additional training needed Well-being: the closer a job is to the skills one has, the higher the degree of feeling self-worthy	Does not indicate which non- educational skills a person has achieved before	25%
	25	Camp inhabitants completed secondary or vocational training	Percentage of inhabitants who completed secondary or vocational training (in %)	To assess level of education of inhabitants to create suitable jobs Education: to assess the level of additional training needed Well-being: the closer a job is to the skills one has, the higher the degree of feeling self-worthy	Does not indicate which non- educational skills a person has achieved before	10%

(continued)

Dimension	No. Indicator	Variable/ Illustration	Objective and examples for relation to self-reliance and/or other dimensions	Constraints	Zaatari	
	26	Camp inhabitants who completed college or university	Percentage of inhabitants who completed college or university (in %)	To assess level of education of inhabitants to create suitable jobs Education: to assess the level of additional training needed Well-being: the closer a job is to the skills one has, the higher the degree of feeling self-worthy	Does not indicate which non-educational skills a person has achieved before	5%
Insecurity	27	Safety (perceived or real)	Percentage of inhabitants feeling safe (in %)	To assess if inhabitants feel safe in the camp People not feeling safe, try to stay at home and are more cautious in terms of engaging in work and setting up businesses People not feeling safe, try to stay at home and are more cautious in terms of engaging in work and setting up businesses	Indicator has to be assessed by interviews and do not automatically display reality, only perceived safety	80%

Education, health, and financial systems should stay in the administration of organizations. The main duties of the organization would not be to perform all these, but to trying to find finest appropriate team for each system, largely from camp inhabitants and the neighboring population. If appropriate staff cannot be found, the organizations could perform trainings and in consequence generate occupations, increasing self-reliance.

For creating jobs, the correct settings must be on hand. Construction of infrastructures needs logistical systems like resource and process engineering, information management and project management.

Camp managers become “administrations” of the camp, making decisions such as which infrastructure should be built and which businesses are permitted or even focus for the camp location. For a camp similar to Zaatari, these duties are simpler than for camps located in isolated regions, like lots of African camps.

Without water and electricity networks, it is hard to attract businesses to the camp system. It is the same if the laws of the roads between the camp and the near larger marketplaces do not permit an expected flow of cargoes.

Frequently refugees are rejected to have the fundamental human rights, particularly the rights to work and move without restraint. Lacking these rights, it can be stated that not any of the attempts made by humanitarian organizations to achieve more self-reliance will ever have practical results. This may also be the reasons that in a camp like Zaatari why self-reliance is low down even with all efforts and funding.

Therefore, organizations could discuss more steadfastly with the host governments to give refugees their human rights.

Increasing self-reliance needs to make circumstances for inhabitants to have quality jobs, so the economy progress without destruction the system. Inhabitants, as well as refugees, should find jobs with respectable working circumstances. To increase development, a country requires industrialization and innovation systems.

Innovation systems does not only concern to organizational settings, but can and should also be used by refugees themselves. In refugee camps, this could indicate on the one hand to enhance the opportunities of occupational educations. On the other hand, the execution of innovative plans with giving out micro credits and required funds and infrastructure to initiate a business, like electricity network, transportation systems, telecommunication technologies, and internet access will help to achieve the explanation of a city-like camp.

Chapter 6

URBAN PLANNING IN REFUGEE CAMPS

6.1 Urban Planning

Urban planning is the investigation of the connection among people and the physical spaces around the people. Since the appearance of the world's oldest metropolitans in Mesopotamia era about 4,500 years ago, there have been challenging versions of the organizing and possession of cities. The derivation of the word "city" shows this dynamic specifically: got from the Latin word Civitas. Cities are both spaces of state control, civilization, and mutual functions, citizenship. Urban planning was a swing among these two patterns.

In the first decades of the twentieth century, human settings were directed by the view of city as civilization. The formation of the city was inflicted from the top down by civil engineers and planners. This approach to the city was used by its most famous engineer, Le Courbusier. His view of the house as a "machine for living" was applied to his impressive urban planning schemes, including a plan of downtown for Paris that never executed and Chandigarh of India. The arrangement of streets and buildings was exactly planned. Each city element had a strictly clear role in the structure. Different functional parts, like accommodation, office building blocks, and industrial districts, were divided and were in an arranged distance from each other.

There was slight opportunity to think about that how inhabitants might want to live in their metropolitan, because of planners' rigid regulation of the construction outline. It was obvious that this approach has little concern about life quality of urban inhabitants. The modernist approach as well led to social separation, while its residents required cooperating with each other. Roads were constructions just for vehicles and walkers; with slightly consideration of the other utilities of a road for example markets or a social meeting space to gather with neighbors.

This malfunction to consider the variety of uses for urban places is possibly the most serious deficiency of this approach, and modernism's disappointment to understand the complication of the metropolitan led to increasing disapproval of this approach.

The scripts of Jane Jacobs are descriptive of the confront that began to increase in opposition to modernism in the 1960s. Jacobs doubted the highest perspective of the modernist planner. She started to see cities from the bottom up by exploring that how inhabitants use urban places in reality. In searching her own locality, which was supposed to be "disorganized, inefficient, and economically backward," she saw a complex organized group of the streets. This accidental district of the city was rich, lively and secures, in complete differences with the modernists' firm arrangements that led just to "the mild boredom of order" [31]. Jacobs created the expression "eyes on the street," showing that inhabitants worked as informal supervises for those around them, not only restriction to unsafe activities, but also generating a sense of belonging and neighborhood.

These researches updated the present principle of urban presumption that planning is not only about choosing where stuff should set, but also a procedure of education,

and improving. Also the United Nations' Local outline of the planning has changed from the top down scheme of the modernists' approach to a bottom up, participatory, and residency based scheme of urban planning [32]. In this structure, participatory planning is a common method in which society members have a chance to represent their citizenship in decisions that relate to their environment construction.

This new advance motivates city planners looking for participation of the inhabitants about new structures in their region; how a new housing improvement might be outline, and even how localities should build up in long term. The key advantage of the participatory scheme is that it can lead to construct more proficient cities than the top down planning because population can recognize their requirements more correctly than a planner doing a methodological estimation. For example, many towns require park space that should be granted per inhabitant. Planners can identify quantitative insufficiencies in park, but they cannot evaluate qualitative deficits. Does the neighborhood want a calm garden in which to relax or an open place for sport activities and playing?

It has been stated that with no inhabitants' participation, funds can be misused on facilities that do not satisfy the requirements of the population, as a result growing the possibility of these amenities being broken or got poor condition. Besides of forming a setting that is better fitted to its inhabitants, the proof is irresistible that participatory plans also have a constructive social effect on those who participate in them. One of the observers of this planning stated that "when dwellers control the major decisions and are free to make their own contribution ... both the process and the environment produced stimulate individual and social well-being" [33]. It is generally represented that "when people feel they 'belong' to a neighborhood which

is theirs through their own efforts, then ... people will safeguard what they have helped to create” [34].

Participatory plan is as well a significant statement that leads to wider governance developments. As represented by an administration member:

Community planning gave us the opportunity to work alongside the powers that be, have our say and feel, for the first time, which we were really being listened to. Residents now feel much more connected with decision-making and things are really beginning to improve around here [35].

These detections from participatory urban approach motivate to search in the refugee camp framework. The next sections will explain using the urban participatory planning to the camp circumstances.

6.2 Urban Infrastructures

Urban infrastructures need a variety of physical systems and places needed for transport, water using, energy, activities, and community purposes [36]. Infrastructures generally have a fundamental role in a metropolitan's ability for financial activity and development, supporting the residents, in addition to technical, commercial, business, and social actions [36] [37].

Extra large plans such as the building airports, energy plants and railways need huge funds and so need financial support from state government or sometimes powerful private sector [38] [39].

Urban infrastructures ideally provide service to all inhabitants equally but in fact may show unequal.

With considering the demand of inhabitants, the various needs of individual life to be served by material infrastructure are shown in Table 4. [40] [41]

Table 4: Infrastructures to Satisfy Needs of Human Life [40] [41].

Need	Infrastructure Output (Good Or Service)	Material Infrastructure
Water	Drinking Water, Water For Industrial Use, Irrigation Water, Water For Generating Hydro-Electric Power	Reservoirs, Canals, Waterways, Pipes, Irrigation Facilities, Water Distribution Plan
Energy	Gas, Oil, Electricity, Coal, Nuclear Energy, Energy Distribution	Drilling Platforms, Pipelines, Generation Plants, Coal Mines, Circuits, Energy Distribution Plans
Health	Medical Care, Refuse Collection, Waste Water Disposal, Solid Waste Disposal	Hospitals, Emergency Services, Dumps, Sewerage Systems, Fire Fighting Stations
Protection Against Nature	Accommodation, Working Places, Flood Protection	Houses, Buildings, Plants, Barriers
Security	Legislation(Laws), Judiciary, Stability Of The Money Value, Protection Against Crimes, Outward Defense, Military Goods	Public Buildings, Police Stations, Military Installations, Military Goods
Information	Usage Of Telephones/ Mobile Phones/ Radios/ Television/Internet/ Newspaper	Telecommunication Facilities, Post Offices, Radio And Television Stations, Newspaper Production Facilities
Education	Child Care, Lectures, Research, Lending Out Books	Kinder Gardens, Schools, Universities, Research Institutions, Libraries, Museums, Cinemas, Theatre
Mobility	Using Transportation Tools	Roads, Highways, Bridges ,Mass Transit System, Tracks, Train And Bus Stations, Airports, Ports, Cars, Buses, Trucks, Trains, Airplanes, Ships
Environmental Protection	Clean Air, Water Resources, Fertile Soil, Nature Connecting Activities	Laws And Regulations About Air / Water And Soil, Green Areas, Parks, Playgrounds
Trading	Retail Trade, Wholesale Trade, Monetary Trades	Bazaars, Shops, Banks, Exchanges
Industries	Production, Services	Agriculture Forms, Marine Fishing, Food Industries, Restaurants, Agents Like Insurance And Company Branches, Factories

6.3 Urban Planning and Refugee Camps

Extensive discussions surround the issue of whether or not camps can be “cities.” If it was an issue of population numbers, then in a number of situations for example Chad and Darfur, camps would possibly be seen as city because numerous refugee camps have larger inhabitants than the cities [42]. However, number of inhabitants is not sufficient to persuade performers that camps form urban settings. The primary discussion against seeing the camp as an urban is the impermanence of it, a concept that simply challenged. As The Camp Management Toolkit represents “Camps may be needed for only a matter of months. Often the reality is that camps last for years and sometimes even for decades.” [43].

Media discussed this phenomenon similarly: “Camps are only meant to be temporary solutions ... However; organizers have learned to plan for the long haul because refugees often end up living in the camps for much longer than expected.” [44]. Certainly the data proves that a prolonged refugee condition is common issue [45]. UNHCR report emphasizes that there are more than 25 million refugees in prolonged conditions [10]. Also, the common duration of live in these prolonged conditions raised from 9 to 20 years from 1993 to 2009 [11].

Although a decade may appear unimportant in a city’s life, it is an important and impressive number of years in a person’s life. Kids grow up to be matures, people get married and have children, the aged individuals pass on. An explanation of Kakuma camp in website stated that “Inside this small city at the edge of the desert, children age into adulthood and hope fades to resignation.” [46]. Prolonged camps that were explained in previous chapter are examples of this phenomenon.

6.4 Host Country Policies

Refugees, in general, receive different treatment from nationals in the country of asylum. Two restrictions that refugees often face are limitations on movement and on employment, even though this practice is contrary to the 1951 Refugee Convention. Restrictions on employment outside the camp have obvious effects on refugees living in the camps. First, refugees are excluded from legitimate labor markets outside the camps, just as illegal immigrants in an industrialized nation are excluded from many jobs. Related to this, refugees who remain in the camp labor market may have a difficult time matching their skills to labor demand, especially if the camp allows only agricultural production, for example. Restrictions on movement are subtler, yet still of first-order importance: refugees engaged in productive activities will have reduced access to outside markets, which may affect the effective price they receive for their labor inside the camp. Regarding the Kakuma camp for example, refugees ‘are not allowed to move freely outside of it, and they may not seek education or employment outside of it’ [23]. In addition, informal practices of discrimination by citizens of the host country against refugees can exacerbate the distortions caused by the formal arrangements put in place by the host country [24].

Describing isolation as a factor differentiating refugee camp economies does not imply that all refugee camps are isolated: many camps are located near urban centers; have free entry and exit and access to primary materials. What distinguishes an isolated refugee camp from a remote indigenous village is that the refugees have not chosen to be isolated, and in most cases the separation may be quite suboptimal for their particular skill sets

Chapter 7

ENGINEERING DESIGN OF REFUGEE CAMP

SETTINGS

Refugee camps are regarded as temporary settlements, planned according to the functionality of humanitarian operations. According to this view, properties of life in the camps remain hidden. Instead, refugee camps should be seen as developing urban settings.

With taking into consideration the needs of residents in refugee camps and Table 4, the various requirements of living to be supplied by material infrastructures are shown in Table 5:

Table 5: Infrastructures to Satisfy Needs of Human Life in Refugee Camps

Need	Infrastructure Output (Good Or Service)	Material Infrastructure
Water	Drinking Water, Water For Industrial Use, Irrigation Water	Reservoirs, Canals, Waterways, Pipes, Water Distribution Plan
Energy	Gas, Oil, Electricity, Coal, Energy Distribution	Pipelines, Coal Mines, Circuits, Energy Distribution Plans
Health	Medical Care, Refuse Collection, Waste Water Disposal, Solid Waste Disposal	Hospitals, Emergency Services, Dumps, Sewerage Systems, Fire Fighting Stations
Protection Against Nature	Accommodation, Working Places, Flood Protection	Houses, Buildings, Plants, Barriers
Security	Legislation(Laws), Judiciary, Protection Against Crimes, Outward Defense, Military Goods	Public Buildings, Police Stations, Military Installations, Military Goods
Information	Usage Of Telephones/ Mobile Phones/ Radios/ Television/Internet/ Newspaper	Telecommunication Facilities, Post Offices, Newspaper Production Facilities
Education	Child Care, Lectures, Lending Out Books	Kinder Gardens, Schools, Libraries, Cinemas, Theatre
Mobility	Using Transportation Tools	Roads, Bridges , Cars, Buses, Trucks
Environmental Protection	Clean Air, Water Resources, Fertile Soil, Nature Connecting Activities	Laws And Regulations About Air / Water And Soil, Green Areas, Playgrounds
Trading	Retail Trade	Bazaars, Shops, Banks
Industries	Production, Services	Agriculture Forms, Marine Fishing, Food Industries, Restaurants, Factories, Companies

According to Table 5 and both UNHCR and Sphere guidelines, Figure 11 proposed a 6 block camp layout that could be easily and continually developed, in response to the changing needs of protracted refugee systems [6].

According to the guidelines, each person needs 30-45 m² land and each family that consists of 6-10 persons is entitled to one house. Every 16 houses comprise a camp

community. One section of four section block is shown in details in Figure 10. There are 16 camp communities per camp block [6].

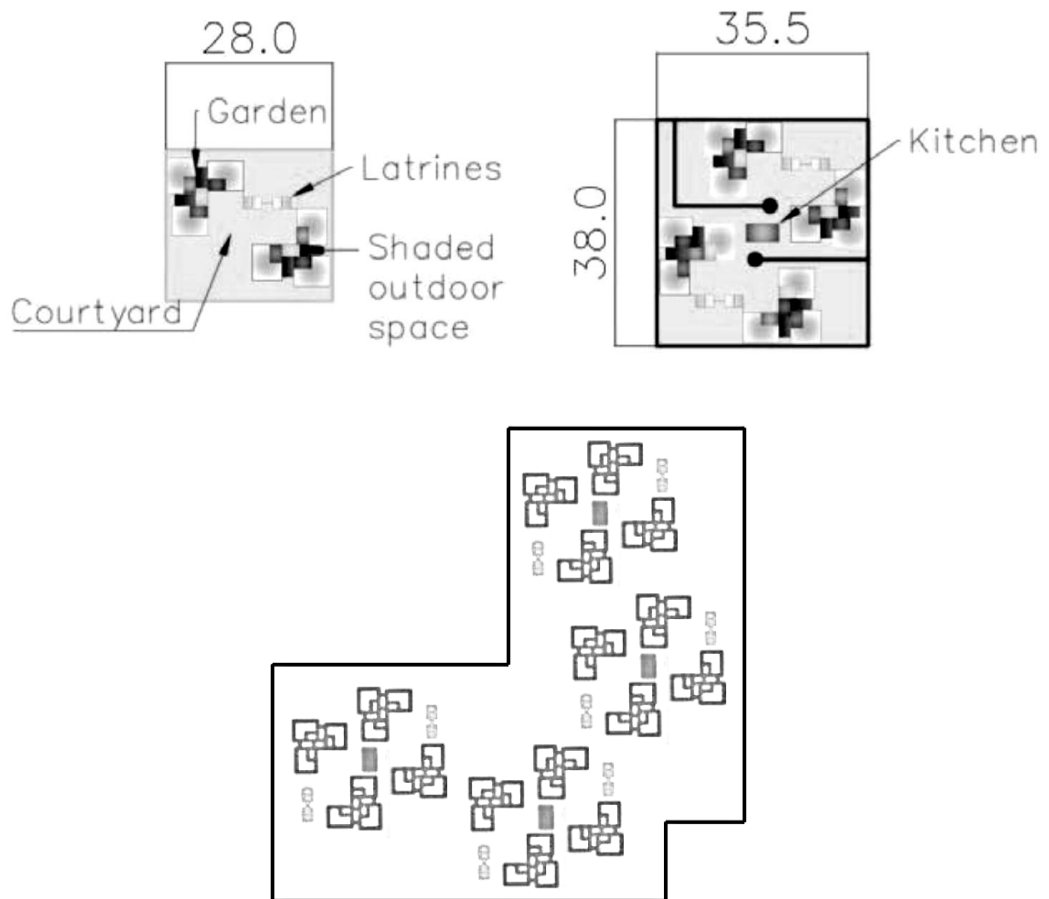


Figure 10: Detailed Design of a Camp Block for Protracted Refugee Camp

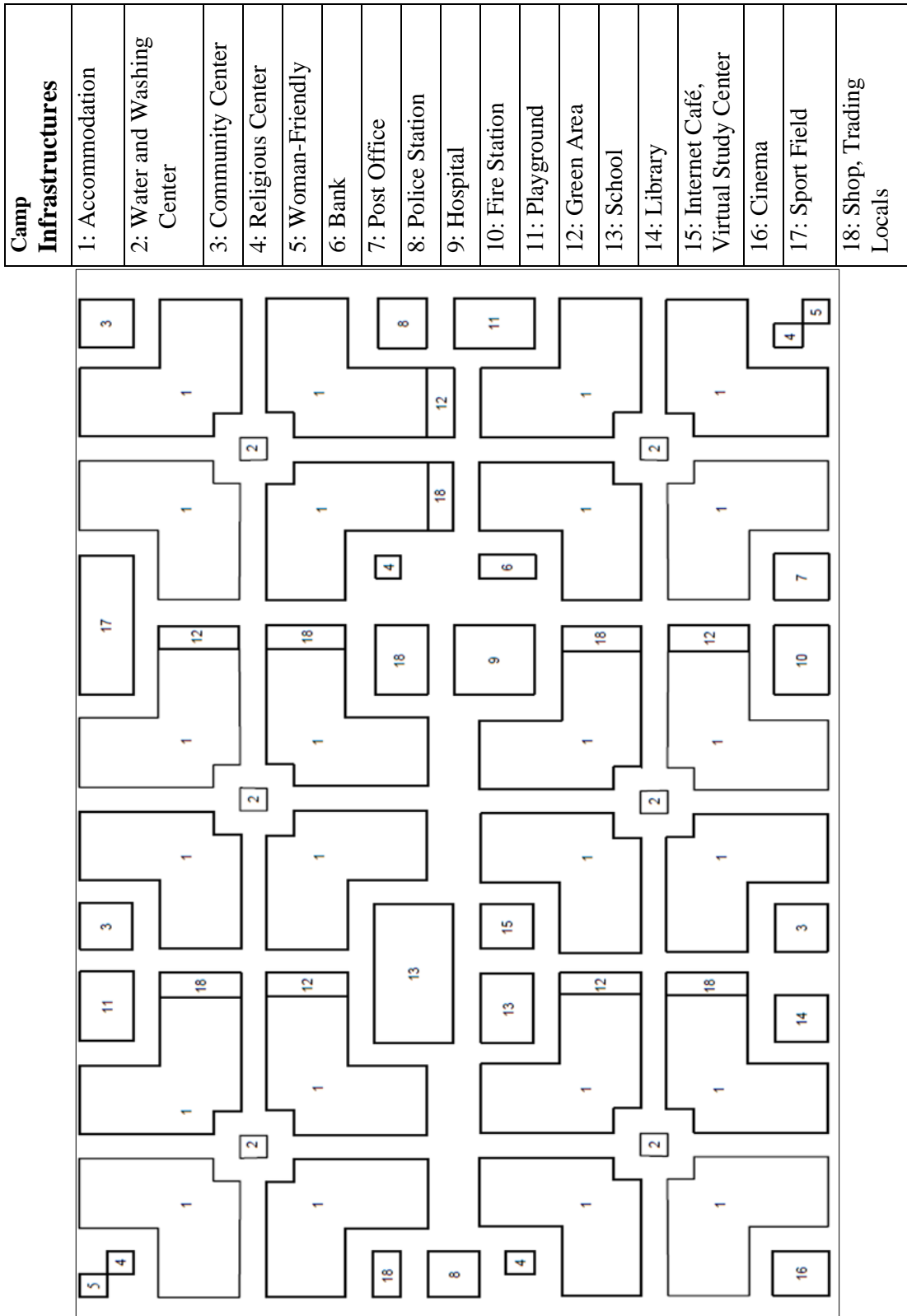


Figure 11: Engineering Design for Protracted Refugee Camp

The camp consists of sewage, water and electricity networks that can't be displayed in the proposed model. These networks consist wires, pipes and water and electricity sources. Source of electricity network system vary in different regions. It may be supplied from region's electricity, generators or solar power systems in the camp.

As stated formerly, refugee camps involve different inhabitants from different origins, religions and cultures. Hence the block planning setting will be effective. This layout provides the required flexibility for these different societies with offering refugees through different religious centers and community centers.

As well it contains woman-friendly settings due to restrictions in several nations and religions.

Figure 11 presents settings as bank and post offices since these infrastructures will be compulsory in prolonged form of refugee camp systems.

The proposed model involves police stations to ensure the security and protection in the camp.

Health center and fire station infrastructures will guarantee safety and care in the setting. In addition, each urban setting needs green areas.

Each refugee camp has child populace and as time passed, in protracted circumstances; locations like playgrounds should be established.

Every single urban setting needs educational system to train the inhabitants and ensure its development. Thus refugee camps should involve school and library infrastructures. Furthermore, the internet access will offer everybody with acquiring different expertise and educational programs through virtual study center. Occupational training programs can be held in religious centers, community centers and also woman-friendly canters due to different cultures.

The youth generation requires education, proficiency training and also activities for their leisureliness times. Through establishing library, cinema and sport field they can spend their time in these accomplishments. It leads to more educated, accomplished, skilled and much more self-reliant generations that will guarantee their future life and diminish life wasting and violence.

This refugee camp model offers productive work opportunities and refined working setting for refugees with consisting shops and trading locals. These shops also include restaurants and service shops such as mechanics, electricians and etc. In this system, inhabitants can have the financial income to increase self-reliance.

While proposing the application of Table 5 in refugee camp layout model, we are aware to skip the emergency phase of refugee settings because it's been assumed that refugees are already provided with emergency shelters and their current situation is proceeding toward protracted refugee circumstances. This situation requires more developed, industrialized and urbanized model.

These needs and the infrastructures that will supply them disprove the concept that camp is "temporary" for its residents.

Camps are frequently described as insecure spaces like the security risks that affect refugees, hygiene issues or epidemics of infectious illnesses. Although lots of the inhabitants have complicated circumstances in the camp but they will live in these continuing difficulties. Considering Lefebvre's view of social settings, camps get meaning as living places as residents manage and regulate their own daily habits and schedules to the camp situations [47].

As a result, refugee camps are ground for the use of urban planning and that significant results in the administration of camps can be got through this participation approach.

7.1 Refugee's Role in Camps

As known from in Maslow's hierarchy of needs, physiological and protection requirements are fundamental and will often have priority in conditions of emergency or insecurity. The hierarchy includes human being requirements of love and fitting in, belonging, self-respect, and self-actualization. With inadequate funds on hand and the stated function of refugee camps, only some would believe that it is the responsibility of the camp to present "love" for its residents, or to aid inhabitants to "reach their full potential." The important tip to get from Maslow's hierarchy is identification of the hidden need of inhabitants to participate in daily life.

As it is obvious from infrastructure table, Table5, there are different kinds of services and materials to obtain. Refugee participation can be applied in these services. The services can be divided to two groups. The first group is the services that need larger resources but the second group are tasks that can be done by refugees' stocks, skills and initiatives. Although there are some infrastructures and setting that can only be

provided by government and organizations but services of second group can be purveyed either by refugees themselves.

Barbara Harrell-Bond states that camps provoke a sense of weakness and hopelessness, which interpreted by aid organizations as reliance and idleness [48]. Lacking this important participation, in the camp framework, it is a possible that residents suffer from disempowered, estranged, insulted, and offended.

Chapter 8

PARTICIPATION OF REFUGEES IN CAMPS

The top-down solution of the 1980's in the humanitarian systems leads to a dependence mentality [44]. The free of charge supply of food, water and services in refugee settings was stated to damage the dynamic prospective of refugees, band them of their prospective as broadminded people and encourage tendencies to violence and wickedness.

The dread of a dependence disorder among refugees contributed to the implementation of participatory solutions in humanitarian in the 1990s. As articulated in the UNHCR Handbook for Emergencies “It is important to involve the refugees in the provision of assistance and allow the community to share the responsibility of caring for itself and its vulnerable members. This minimizes dependency and encourages self-reliance” [6].

The quote above undoubtedly demonstrates that participatory systems were begun in the 1990s as a solution to the issue of refugee dependence and were considered to present more efficient methods to distribute humanitarian support and managing refugee populace.

Inhabitants will have a better sense of possession over parts of the infrastructure settings that they are in charge of or believe a part of. It is stated that “experience

shows that water distribution to small, socially cohesive groups of 80 to 100 people considerably reduces water wastage and destruction of taps, stand posts and concrete aprons.” [49].

Although such theories are acknowledged, generating a sense of possession on bigger scale systems may be complicated to develop. This research proposes a series of processes beneath that could be functional in camp development and management.

Decentralization of infrastructures could be a first factor in this method. As stated above, people had more ownership over decentralized and self-managed water networks. This is example of a known fact of people are concerned and associated more to facilities, spaces, and people that are physically near to them. With more distribution facilities, community would have better access to them and would expected to have more ownership. It would also offer chances for inhabitants to work in those settings. One might disagree about proposed idea that this would make more chances for thievery, phenomenon which are already happen in camp settings. On the opposite, we can answer the more the people have sense of ownership on the facility, the more potential they are to value and guard it from maltreatment.

One more phase would be to have people concerned in the planning and manufacture of their area, again with different scales as getting inhabitants engaged in the manufacture of their commodities.

A subject logically appears here about the possible outcome of a successful participation system. If the residents have such a strong ownership sense on their

setting in the camp, might they be unwilling to abandon it, in consequence making even more prolonged camp circumstances?

It was noted that involvement increases skills for living after dislocation. The requirement for reconstruction both physical and social systems is something that almost all returning people will probably encounter on their return. Offering inhabitants applicable development skills as in the camp will better prepare them for their homecoming.

Gaventa states that “power gained in one space, through new skills, capacity and experiences, can be used to enter and affect other spaces.” It can be noted that if participation systems can generate a sense of ownership in the camps, it may also motivate people to reinvest in their home cities after returning. Above all, if camp inhabitants can constantly believe that the quality of their camp settings is the outcome of their own effort, it may provide them the self-confidence that they can attain the similar positive results in their home cities or places of relocation. This is why the consequence of participation and involvement system in the camp settings is considerable and influential.

Chapter 9

CONCLUSION

The refugee camp is not only a place for physical aid and benefit, but also a form of protection and also large amount of limitations. The camp is a gathering of constructions, houses, inhabitants, organizations and social relations that have developed from a congregation of deprived refugees living in tents and caravans. The camps are places in which social patterns from the origin countries are repaired and continued in immigration, and in which customs and cultures are reestablished. The camps are not only authoritatively organized places but also develop with the origin country society, supporting and effecting the region. The camps are not place for complete powerless and empty lives but places of social activities, struggle and working. This last point is fundamental.

We must perceive the camp as a ground in which the physical, social and economic patterns form and define each other.

In this thesis, I have presented the exploring and recognizing how the camp works as a region. This thesis stated three logical analyze for camp setting:

- It is a space of omission in which is because of the host state's rule.
- It is a collection of social and organizational relations and practices.
- It is a place of durable situations but mostly with particular temporary insights.

No particular method is sufficient, but together, these three aspects of examination present a convincing account of the conditions in which refugees spend their life in exile.

This thesis proposed a new refugee camp design that considers various contextual, cultural, and economic variables of the refugee situation in question.

The engineering model adapted the minimum space requirements, provided by the UNHCR guidelines, to ensure that the design will abide by those requirements not only at the time of the design, but years after the establishment of the refugee camp.

In addition, the proposed design also provides a stronger sense of a community living to its residents by providing usable open spaces between the shelter units, which offers room for customization of immediate living environment for individual families, thereby improving the overall livability within the camp. This hierarchy plan of the open spaces, allows refugees to gain a sense of ownership to the small area that is shared among neighboring shelter units.

A complete living plan and program should be planned and developed to offer a detached, self-governing program. The program should contain key skills and life training as language learning, numeracy skills and profession trainings for refugees, that leads to psychosocial support. NGO and international performers in the occupational training should make possible internship and apprenticeship chances to improve the learning.

It is stated that if left inactive in main decisions that influence their environment in the camp, refugees find themselves lacking the skills to alter their circumstances in the camp and yet after departure the camp. On the other hand, active involvement of refugees in camp development represents opportunity for residents to learn skills that can be applied in their protracted life of camp and even offers more opportunities for their livelihood after the camps.

These opportunities for engagement in camp development must, of course, be considered in the situation of the challenging conditions and realities that is in camps. Even when service suppliers and help agencies attempt to surpass the typical mode, they may be obstacle by one or all of the constraints like limitations from donor organizations, resource shortage, time restrictions, budget limitations, and an insufficient understanding of the regional circumstances.

This thesis undoubtedly does not suggest in a model of all refugee camp based on three cases, but rather some analyzes to identify circumstances that are going on in the camps. Why are camps constructed and how do they perform the services? How are camps restrained in a temporality? Attracting attention to camps as physical, social and cultural places, not only as tools of international organizations to distribute assets, is necessary for understanding the circumstances and living of refugees.

This study recognized practices that contribute to an organization of dislocation where impermanent conditions turn into more and more permanent and long-lasting. Based on previous chapters, two areas of future research are recommended. First, researches of substitute hosting systems for organizations in the camps, such as security, education, and health, would support the durable features of camp

situations. Second, researches in the psychological consequences of removing refugees from long-lasting dislocation to normal society are necessary to guarantee the success of these people in the future. It does not mean to put them in a new situation and suppose everybody to succeed. How do refugees from prolonged circumstances that engage in durable settings to relocation or repatriation? How do they settle in the host country after long period if they repatriate? Who will help in this impressive psychological change?

Kenyan refugee camps, and many others refugee camps, has established for almost twenty years, and camps like Zaatari will be home to refugees for longer years because of Syrians current conditions; So there will be lots of lives living in these circumstances while new children are born in these camps. So there is no way that we can see a human life can twenty years be considered as 'temporary.' With identifying durability, circumstances and planning protracted systems of displacement, we can start on to improve the livings of those stuck in these circumstances and diminish the potential human lives that have been wasting in camps all over the world.

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