

Online Supplement

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**Assessing the Level of Self-Reliance and Livelihood of Encamped
Refugees**

Syrian Refugees in Jordan

Online Supplement 1

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A: CPI – List of Categories of Existing Tools

The table below was the starting point to cluster existing indicators and their categories to identify fitting categories for the Camp Performance Indicator Framework and System. Column 1 “Category B” was to a large extent also used for Online Supplement B. Column 2 shows sub-categories which were partly used for Online Supplement B (mainly for the Additions). They show the first results derived from the clustering of the 11 sources (columns 3-13) used which are presented in Chapter 3.2.1.

Additional to this list, the data carrier contains an Excel sheet which was used to sort the indicators of the existing tools including their categories to downsize and aggregate the existing categories to be able to choose a range of categories relevant for the CPI (file “1. Categories of CPI System”). It further contains its successor – file “2. CPI Indicators and categories sorted” which shows how the CPI categories were clustered and which categories of other tools are included in each CPI category.

In the table below, the numbers of the columns 3 to 13 signify the following:

- 1 – SDG/WDI categories
- 2 – Refugee Self-Reliance Initiative – Refugee Self-Reliance Community of Practice (2018)
- 3 – Durable Solutions Indicator (Library)
- 4 – Durable Solutions Indicator (Library) - subgroups
- 5 – Betts, A., Omata, N., Sterck, O. (2018), Refugee Economies in Kenya (Oxford: RSC)
- 6 – The Hunger Project - Self-Reliance Indicators
- 7 – Well-being Index Report – Women’s Refugee Commission
- 8 – UNHCR Vulnerability Assessment Framework (2015)
- 9 – UNHCR Global Strategy for Livelihoods 2014-2018
- 10 – UNHCR Livelihood Program - Operational Guidelines
- 11 – UNHCR Handbook for Self-reliance (2005), pp. 56-68 (own selection)

A: CPI - List of Categories of Existing Tools and Selection of Category B

| Category B | Subcategories | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|---------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------|---------------------------------|--------------------------------------|---------------|--|-----------|---|--|--|----------------------|
| Demo-graphics | | Demo-graphics Gender Social | | A. Core demo-graphics | A.1 Basic demo-graphics | Demo-graphics | | | | | | |
| Demo-graphics | Displacement and migration history | | | A. Core demo-graphics | A.2 Displacement & mobility history | | | | | | | |
| Demo-graphics | Discrimination | | | A. Core demo-graphics | A.3 Discrimination | | | | | | | |
| Education | Youth/Schooling | Quality Education | Education | 14. Adequate standard of living | 2.1 Access to basic services & goods | Education | GOAL: Improve literacy and education of rural communities | Education | | | Access to training and learning enabled | Social |
| Education | Adults/Training | | | | | Education | GOAL: Empower women and girls in rural communities GOAL: Reduce incidence of poverty in rural communities | | | Skills and vocational training Job information and placement Generating employment | Access to training and learning enabled Access to Information and Communications Technologies enabled Vocational training/ | Knowledge and skills |

| Category B | Subcategories | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|-----------------------|---------------------|----------------------------|-------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------------|---|--|-------------|---|---|---|--------|
| | | | | | | | GOAL: Improve literacy and education of rural communities GOAL: Mobilize rural communities to achieve their own development goals | | | | Technical skills provided Access to wage earning employment facilitated Access to self employment / business facilitated Comprehensive livelihood assessment, strategic planning, and monitoring | |
| Health and well-being | Health care | Good Health and Well-Being | Health Care | 9. Adequate standard of living | 2.1 Access to basic services & goods | | GOAL: Improve access to and use of health resources in rural communities | Health Care | | | | Social |
| Health and well-being | Contagious diseases | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Health and well-being | Mother and children | Good Health and | | | | | GOAL: Empower women | | | | | Social |

| Category B | Subcategories | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|-----------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|---|--------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------|--|---|---|---|----|--------|
| | | Well-Being | | | | | and girls in rural communities GOAL: Improve access to safe drinking water and sanitation facilities GOAL: Reduce the prevalence of hunger and malnutrition, especially for women and children | | | | | |
| Health and well-being | State of (mental) health | Good Health and Well-Being Health | | 4. Adequate standard of living | 2.1 Access to basic services & goods | Health | GOAL: Reduce the prevalence of hunger and malnutrition, especially for women and children GOAL: Reduce the prevalence | | | | | Health |

| Category B | Subcategories | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|-----------------------|---------------------|---|------------|---------------------------------------|----------------|---|---|------------|---|--|--|--|
| | | | | | | | of hunger and malnutrition, especially for women and children | | | | | |
| Health and well-being | Well-being | | | | | Explaining subjective well-being Subjective well-being | | Well-being | Predicted welfare | | | Social |
| Employment | General employment | Decent Work and Economic Growth Social | Employment | 3. Access to livelihoods & employment | 3.1 Employment | Livelihoods | | Employment | Access to wage earning employment facilitated | | Access to wage earning employment facilitated | Employment Ability to generate income |
| Employment | Entrepreneurship | Gender | | | | | | | | Advocacy and policy dialogue Access to self-employment/ business facilitated Entrepreneurship | Access to work facilitated through removal of legal barriers Access to self-employment/ business facilitated | Ability to generate income Market |
| Employment | Employment programs | | | | | | | Employment | | job information and placement Generating | Access to wage earning employment | |

| Category B | Subcategories | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|--|--------------------|--|--------|--|--|-------------------------------|---|-----------|---|--|---|---------------|
| | | | | | | | | | | employment | facilitated Access to self-employment/ business facilitated | |
| Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) | Income and savings | No Poverty Gender Poverty | Income | 17. Access to livelihoods & employment | 3.2 Household economy | Livelihoods Explaining income | GOAL: Reduce incidence of poverty in rural communities | Income | | Provide and safeguard livelihood consumables | | |
| Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) | External aid | | | | | | | Food | | Provide and safeguard livelihood consumables | Access to agricultural / livestock / fisheries production enabled | |
| Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) | Food | Zero Hunger | Food | 17. Adequate standard of living | 2.2 Food security | Living standards | GOAL: Reduce the prevalence of hunger and malnutrition, especially for women and children | Food | | | | Expenditure |
| Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) | Assets | Infrastructure Affordable and Clean Energy | | 25. Access to livelihoods & | 3.3 Access to productive assets, markets & | Living standards | | Utilities | | | Access to Information and Communications | Assets Market |

| Category B | Subcategories | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|---|-------------------|----------------------------|---------|--|---|------------|---|-----------|---|-------------------------------------|---|-------------------|
| on and wealth) | | Environment | | employment | financial services | | | | | | Technologies enabled | |
| Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) | WASH | Clean Water and Sanitation | | 6. Adequate standard of living | 2.1 Access to basic services & goods | | GOAL: Improve access to safe drinking water and sanitation facilities | Utilities | | | | Social |
| Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) AND EMPLOYMENT | Natural resources | Gender | | | | | | | | | | Productive assets |
| Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) | Natural resources | Zero Hunger | | 24. Access to livelihoods & employment | 3.3 Access to productive assets, markets & financial services | Regulation | | | | Ensure access to essential services | Access to agricultural / livestock / fisheries production enabled | Productive assets |
| Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) | Housing | | Housing | 27. Adequate standard of living | 2.3 Tenure security & housing conditions | | | Shelter | | | | Housing |
| Material living standards | Transport | | | | | | | Transport | | | | |

| Category B | Subcategories | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|----------------------------------|---------------|-------------------------------|----------------|---|---|------------------------------------|---|-----------------------|---|---|--|-------------------------------|
| (income, consumption and wealth) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Social capital | | Gender | Social Capital | 6. Long-term safety, security & freedom of movement | | Networks Capital/Access to finance | | Community Involvement | | | | Participation |
| Safety, Security | | Private Sector Climate Action | Safety | 9. Long-term safety, security & freedom of movement | 1.2 Safety & security incidents 1.3 Reporting of safety & security incidents | Regulation | | Safety | | | | Legal protection and security |
| Financial services | | Financial Sector Gender Jobs | | | | Capital/Access to finance | GOAL: Reduce incidence of poverty in rural communities | | | Advocacy and policy dialogue and Financial services | Access to financial services facilitated (formal and informal) | |
| Political voice and governance | | Gender Private Sector | | 12. Participation in public affairs | 7.1 Participation in public affairs 7.2 Participation in reconciliation and confidence | Subjective well-being Regulation | Goal: Mobilize rural communities to achieve their own development goals | | | Assessments | | Inclusion in development |

| Category B | Subcategories | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|---------------------------|---------------------|--|---|---|--|------------|---|---------------|---|---|--|--------------------------------|
| | | | | | -building initiatives | | | | | | | |
| Remedies/ Human Rights | Freedom of movement | Gender Equality | | 11. Long-term safety, security & freedom of movement 8. Access to remedies | 1.4 Restrictions to freedom of movement 8.1 Use of mechanisms for effective remedies, incl. access to justice, reparations and information about the causes of violations | Regulation | | | | | | |
| Remedies/ Human Rights | Access to work | | | | | | | | | Advocacy and policy dialogue Awareness raising and legal aid | Access to work facilitated through removal of legal barriers | |
| Remedies/ Human Rights | | | | | | | | | | | | Finance and financial services |
| Remedies/ Human Rights | Documentation | Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions | | 6. Access to and replacement of personal and other | 5.2 Incidence of documentation loss and access | | | Documentation | | Awareness raising and legal aid | Recognition of diplomas by host state facilitated | |

| Category B | Subcategories | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|--|---------------|----------------------|---|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|----------|
| | | | | documenta tion | to replaceme nt 5.3 Registratio n | | | | | | | |
| Gender Equality | | Gender | | | | | Goal: Empower women and girls in rural communiti es | | | | | |
| Public Sector | | Gender No Poverty | | 2. Adequate standard of living 14. Access to livelihoods & employe nt | 2.1 Access to basic services & goods 3.1 Employe nt | | | | | | | Services |
| Coping strategies | | | | 9. Access to livelihoods & employe nt | 3.1 Employe nt | | | | | | | |
| Sustainabl e Cities and Communiti es | | | | | | | GOAL: Improve land productivit y and climate resilience of | | | | | |

| Category B | Subcategories | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|----------------------------|---------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|----|
| | | | | | | | smallholder farmers | | | | | |
| Partnerships for the Goals | | | | | | | | | | Investment in research Planning | Comprehensive livelihood assessment , strategic planning, and monitoring | |
| Crisis management | | | | | | | Goal: Mobilize rural communities to achieve their own development goals | | | Assessments Evaluation and knowledge sharing Monitoring Rapid socio-economic profiling Investment in research Partnerships with national institutions | Comprehensive livelihood assessment , strategic planning, and monitoring | |
| IDP/Refugee issues | | | | B. IDP's future preferences & plans 5. Access to effective mechanisms to restore housing, land and | B.1 Preferred place of settlement regardless of conditions B.2 Conditions for future | | | | | | | |

| Category B | Subcategories | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|------------|---------------|---|---|--|--|---|---|---|---|---|----|----|
| | | | | <p>property (HLP) or to provide compensation</p> <p>6. Voluntary reunification with family members separated during displacement</p> | <p>settlement options</p> <p>B.3 Concrete plans for future place of settlement</p> <p>B.3 Concrete plans for future place of settlement</p> <p>B.4 Access to information</p> <p>4.1 Ownership/tenancy before displacement</p> <p>4.2 Access to mechanisms for housing, land and property (HLP) restitution/compensation</p> <p>6.1 Incidence</p> | | | | | | | |

| Category B | Subcatego ries | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|---------------|-------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|----|
| | | | | | of family separation and access to family reunificati on | | | | | | | |

B: CPI – Table of Camp Performance Indicator System

Additional to the list below, the data carrier (folder CPI) contains one example (World Development Indicators of the World Bank – data set “Education”) of the data extraction as explained in Chapter 3.3.1 as well as the results of the correlation tests (see file “3. CPI Example_Extract_WDI_Education”). The data carrier also contains file “4. CPI_Indicators_Correlations_all”. This file lists different data sheets, including all lists, all positively or negatively correlating indicators as well as all correlating indicators clustered by their categories.

The table below is structured in the following manner:

- Column 1 uses the same numbers for the indicators as Figures 9 to 18 in Chapter 3.3.2
- Column 2 shows the overall categories used for the CPI Framework (Category A) as well as the titles of all categories in Chapter 3.3.2 and 4.5.2 (for the IIF)
- Column 3 – Category B and Addition: These categories sort the indicators into sub-groups. Were applicable, an Addition was given and is displayed in italics. In rare cases, only an Addition was given as no Category B was applicable. These sub-groups refer to Figures 9 to 18 in Chapter 3
- Column 4 gives out the names of the indicators. If not specified further, the percentage of the total is used to calculate the indicator
- Column 5 indicates the sub-indicator which divides the indicator in sub-groups, such as male/female, if not stated otherwise (e.g., see indicator 5 *Age dependency ratio (% of working-age population)*). If an indicator refers to a special group such as women, no sub-indicator is given, though it must be calculated for that special group (e.g., % of all women)
- Column 6 indicates the sources the indicators derived from. If indicators were changed significantly, either because of the feedback gained by the WFP experts or because changes were relevant for displaying a camp setting, source “12” is inserted behind the original source including the changes which were made. If changes were made to align all indicators, it was not indicated separately (e.g., change from “Target population” to “population” or “household” depending on the indicator).
- Column 7 highlights the rationale, stating why an indicator was included and was created as preparation for Chapter 3.3.2.
- Column 8 gives out any other notes made during the preparation phase.

The sources of the indicators included in column 6 are:

- 1- World Bank (2018c): World Bank data base. Available online at <http://databank.worldbank.org/data/source/world-development-indicators>, checked on 11/7/2018.
- 2- RefugeePoint (2019): Refugee Self-Reliance Initiative. Available online at <https://www.refugeeselfreliance.org/>, updated on 2018, checked on 10/30/2019. CPI created based on Self-Reliance Index. Indicators to measure refugee self-reliance in non-camp settings. Pre-Test Version (13 December 2017, updated 20 April 2018).

- 3- Durable Solutions Indicator (Library) (Indicators), JIPS (2018b): Sharing our global expertise. Building an evidence-base to support durable solutions for IDPs. Available online at <http://www.jips.org/en/news/latest-news/Launching-the-Durable-Solutions-Indicator-Library-Analysis-Guide>, updated on April 2018, checked on 4/24/2018 and The Brookings Institution, IASC (2010): IASC Framework on durable solutions for internally displaced persons. The Brookings Institution - University of Bern, Inter-Agency Standing Committee. Washington, D.C. Available online at http://www.jips.org/system/cms/attachments/1063/original_IASC_Framework_English.pdf, checked on 4/24/2018.
- 4- Betts, Alexander; Omata, Naohiko; Sterck, Olivier (2018b): Refugee Economies in Kenya. Refugee Studies Centre Oxford. Available online at <https://www.rsc.ox.ac.uk/publications/refugee-economies-in-kenya>, checked on 4/13/2018.
- 5- The Hunger Project (2018a): Measuring Self-Reliance. Available online at <http://www.thp.org/our-work/where-we-work/africa/epicenter-strategy/measuring-self-reliance/>, updated on 2018, checked on 4/27/2018.
- 6- Women's Refugee Commission (2009): Building Livelihoods. A Field Manual for Practitioners in Humanitarian Settings. New York (Published May 01, 2009, Modified July 20, 2015). Available online at <https://www.womensrefugeecommission.org/resources/document/281-building-livelihoods-a-field-manual-for-practitioners-in-humanitarian-settings>, checked on 3/27/2018.
- 7- UNHCR Jordan (2015): Vulnerability Assessment Framework. Baseline Survey. Jordan Refugee Response. Amman, Jordan. Available online at <https://www.alnap.org/help-library/jordan-refugee-response-vulnerability-assessment-framework>, checked on 4/20/2018.
- 8- UNHCR (2014a): Global Strategy for Livelihoods. A UNHCR Strategy 2014-2018. Available online at <http://www.unhcr.org/protection/livelihoods/530f107b6/global-strategy-livelihoods.html>, checked on 2/20/2018.
- 9- UNHCR (2012b): Livelihood Programming in UNHCR: Operational Guidelines. Available online at <http://www.unhcr.org/4fbdf17c9.html>, checked on 2/20/2018.
- 10- UNHCR (2005): UNHCR Handbook for Self-reliance. Available online at <http://www.unhcr.org/publications/operations/44bf40cc2/unhcr-handbook-self-reliance.html>, checked on 12/13/2017.
- 11- UNHCR (2019k): Operational Portal Refugee Situation. Zaatari Camp. Available online at <https://data2.unhcr.org/en/situations/syria/location/53>, checked on 6/7/2019.
- 12- Indicator added or changed by author on the basis of self-reliance camp context
- 13- Betts, Alexander; Geervliet, Remco; MacPherson, Claire; Omata, Naohiko; Rodgers, Cory; Sterck, Olivier (2018a): Self-Reliance in Kalobeyei? Socio-Economic Outcomes for refugees in North-West Kenya. July. Oxford RSC.

B: Camp Performance Indicator System including sources, rationales and notes

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|-------------|--|--|
| 1a | Demographic data | Demo-graphics | Population by age | young children (0-4 years) | 11 | Knowing who lives in a camp is essential to target the residents with the 'right measure of aid: a higher number of vulnerable people needs more humanitarian assistance, a higher degree of educated people needs more investment in building up business opportunities (Werker 2007, pp. 14-16). On the contrary, the higher humanitarian assistance, the more this camp attracts broken families and vulnerable people. Children who have lost their parents are at risk of forced labour, abduction or sexual abuse (Jacobsen 2002, p. 98). In general, vulnerable groups tend to be represented to a higher degree in settlements and camps (Werker 2007, p. 13). | Age of respondents, incl. also in Betts et al.(2018a, p. 36) |
| 1b | Demographic data | Demo-graphics | Population by age | children (5-11 years) | 11 | | |
| 1c | Demographic data | Demo-graphics | Population by age | youth (12-17 years) | 11 | | |
| 1d | Demographic data | Demo-graphics | Population by age | adults (18-59 years) | 11 | | |
| 1e | Demographic data | Demo-graphics | Population by age | elder (60+ years) | 11 | | |
| 2 | Demographic data | Demo-graphics | Population by sex | male/ female | 3 | For household-leading girls and women it can get difficult to engage in education and trainings or to gain access to necessary resources or the labour market. They often do not have the time besides childcare and household activities to engage in livelihood activities (Jacobsen 2002, p. 98). To replace the lost breadwinner of the family, some women remarry in order to survive (Al Ajlan 2018, p. 29). | Gender also incl. in Betts et al. (2018a, p. 36) |
| 2a | Demographic data | Demo-graphics | Population of household-head | male/ female | 3 | see justification for No. 1 for children and No.2 for women | Categories in Betts et al. (2018a, p. 36): marital status – married, divorced, widowed, single |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|------------------|--|--|--------------------|-------------|--|---|
| 2b | Demographic data | Demo-graphics | Population of household-head | children/ youth | 3 | | |
| 3 | Demographic data | Demo-graphics <i>Camp funding - Programs for disadvantaged (disabled, stigmatised, ill)</i> | Population with disabilities | male/ female | 3 | People injured or disabled by conflict and war (e.g., through land-mines) are less productive or perceived as less productive and quickly become a liability to households (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 33). | |
| 4 | | Demo-graphics <i>Desired labour force</i> | Labor force, female (% of total labor force) {SL.TLF.TOTL.FE.ZS} Population included in labor force (employed, seeking employment, first-time job seekers, age 15+) | male/ female | 1, 12 | In different societies, women are not meant to make a living (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 29). With the loss of a husband, many women also lose their identity. They are socially marginalised, face discrimination and difficulties regarding access to credit, aid supplies, assets or productive land and face a significant increase in economic burden (Jacobsen 2002, p. 98). Refugees face challenges to find employment. One of the reasons is that employers lack knowledge of the refugees' right to work. Even though not required by law, potential employers might demand identity papers, which the refugees cannot present. Consequently, refugees do not get the job they were applying for (Bilgili and Loschmann 2018). Initiatives, such as cash-for-work programmes, were designed to prevent uninterrupted long-term unemployment; however, people employed by organisations are rarely able to build sustainable livelihoods as employment is only short-term and local minimum wages are paid (Del Carpio et al. 2018; | Engaged in agriculture before displacement? Incl. in Betts et al. (2018a, p. 38) |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|------------------|-------------------------|--|------------------------------|-------------|---|------|
| | | | | | | <p>Women's Refugee Commission 2009, pp. 58, 71). Engagement in economic activity (% of refugees); who employs you? (NGO, same nationality, different nationality) (Betts et al. 2018a, pp. 16-28).</p> <p>Working prior to flight: Some refugees, especially from higher social classes, find it difficult to engage in activities which were carried out by citizens of lower social classes in their home countries (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 29). The same accounts for men refusing to carry out tasks which are traditionally tasks completed by women, like cooking or collecting firewood.</p> | |
| 5a | Demographic data | Demo-graphics | Age dependency ratio (% of working-age population) | by other household member(s) | 1, 3, 12 | Refugees become dependent, because they are denied access to arable land, assets (tools, seeds, etc.) and natural resources (water) necessary to cultivate crops (Jacobsen 2002, p. 106). Then, during the often long going emergency phase, many refugees get used to depending on humanitarian aid. | |
| 5b | Demographic data | Demo-graphics | Age dependency ratio (% of working-age population) | by NGO/UN | 1, 3, 12 | <p>“Large numbers of unaccompanied elders or minors will encourage programmes that, again, increase the attractiveness of the camp area to broken families” – this affects the market as well as the camps security (Werker 2007, p. 14).</p> <p>Dependency on NGO for support incl. in (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 24).</p> | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|--|--|--|---|-------------|---|---|
| 6a | Demographic data | Demo-graphics | Arrival date | last year | 4, 13 | As refugees see their life in a refugee camp as a temporary situation or lack the imagination of a future, many do not want to start something with a permanent character, such as a business or engage in livelihood activities at all (Azorbo 2011, p. 5; UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 33). | Arrival date (by year) incl. in Betts et al. (2018a, p. 37) |
| 6b | Demographic data | Demo-graphics | Arrival date | 2-5 years | 4, 13 | | |
| 6c | Demographic data | Demo-graphics | Arrival date | 5+ years | 4, 13 | | |
| 7 | Demographic data | Demo-graphics | Households with concrete plans to remain in current location | | 3 | Refugees can block themselves in becoming self-reliant as their minds are occupied completely by thoughts of resettling. Some refugees actively avoid engaging in livelihood activities as they do not want to risk their chances of resettlement. Surveys might be biased through false statements of refugees, making themselves more vulnerable in order to increase their chances for resettlement. UNHCR faces great difficulties in assessing the true scale of a situation (UNHCR 2012b, p. 17). | |
| 8 | Demographic data | Demo-graphics | Population with separated household members | male/ female | 3 | See justification No. 1 – vulnerable people % of spouses living in country of origin incl. in (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 31). | |
| 9 | Demographic data | Demo-graphics | Unaccompanied and separated children (of all children) | | 3 | See justification No. 1 - children | |
| 10 | Children’s education and political voice | Education <i>Child labour (unwanted labour force)</i> | Out-of-school children (6-15 years) | % of male/ female school-age population | 12 | When refugee children are not granted school education, a better life for the refugee children in any future durable solution is not given (Vriese 2006, p. 8). Education can prevent violence, create economic opportunities and give | Indicator derived from different indicators like school enrolment and educational attainment (source 1) |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|--|-------------------------|---|--|-------------|---|---|
| | | | | | | refugees the option to become self-reliant – as refugees and in durable solutions. % of households with at least one out-of-school-children incl. in (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 23). | |
| 11 | Demographic data | Education | Years of education (% of population 16+) Population of working-age with vocational training | male/ female | 4, 12 | See justification for No. 10 | Expert feedback: Change indicator. The quality of education can vary heavily, so knowing about the skills of refugees is better Years of education and Vocational training (percentage) incl. in Betts et al. (2018a, p. 37) |
| 12 | Demographic data | Education | Target population above 15 years of age by literacy Population of working-age who is literate | male/ female | 3, 12 | | Expert feedback: Change indicator |
| 13 | Child labour (unwanted labour force)/ Children/Youth in education Demographic data | Education | Share of youth not in education, or training Population of working-age having worked in a formal profession prior to flight | % of male/ female youth population male/female | 1, 12 | | Expert feedback for #13: indicator is probably difficult to assess. Thus, indicator was changed. Interesting is to know who had worked in a professional job (b) Engaged in agriculture before displacement incl. in Betts et al. (2018a, p. 38) |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|--------------|--|---|-----------------|-------------|--|--|
| 14 | Camp funding | Education <i>Trainings and advice</i> | Population of working-age provided with language training for livelihoods purposes | male/ female | 9 | Language barriers are very often the reason for missed opportunities on higher level of education or employment (Mottaghi 2018; Werker 2007, p. 10). | Language proficiency incl. Betts et al. (2018a, p. 37) |
| 15 | Camp funding | Education <i>Trainings and advice</i> | Population of working-age provided with e-learning/education/skills training in CTA (Community Technology Access) | male/ female | 8 | When people with a low socio-economic status and thus, usually a low level of digital skills are forcibly displaced, their chances to enter the host labour market are rather low, even if they are provided with access to the internet (Peromingo and Pieterse 2018, pp. 32-33). With the time being, their chances to employment decrease further, as workplaces require employees to stay up-to-date with relevant technology. As education and training opportunities, but also communication services for refugees or general access to information (e.g., on housing, employment, legal rights) are also more and more technology-driven, it gets harder for people with low technology skills to ever catch up. Skills training and education in general are no luxuries. The higher the level of education and training of a community, the more it grows and prospers (Vriese 2006, p. 21). Its provision should be equal to material basic needs. They help to avoid future conflicts and can be a key to escape poverty. | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|--------------|--|--|-----------------|-------------|--|------|
| 16 | Camp funding | Education <i>Trainings and advice</i> | Population of working-age provided with vocational training appropriate to needs, capacities and local market conditions | male/ female | 9 | See justification for No. 15 | |
| 17 | Camp funding | Education <i>Trainings and advice</i> | Population of working-age provided with entrepreneurship/business training | male/ female | 8 | See justification for No. 15 | |
| 18 | Camp funding | Education <i>Trainings and advice</i> | Population of working-age provided with financial literacy training for livelihood purposes | male/ female | 8 | See justification for No. 15 | |
| 19 | Camp funding | Education <i>Trainings and advice</i> | Population of working-age provided with guidance on labour market opportunities | male/ female | 8 | Some refugees tend to try reconstructing their old lives, not considering that this might be unrealistic (Belghazi 2018). Especially highly educated refugees desire to continue working in their professional fields (Mozetič 2018). For professional groups which are regulated by law, like medical doctors or teachers (rather than IT specialists, which account to non-regulated groups), this attempt is often challenging, especially when important documents are missing and hard, if not impossible, to regain. | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|--------------|--|---|-----------------|-------------|--|------|
| | | | | | | <p>In many countries, the access to labour markets for refugees is limited as the host labour market is already under stress. When high numbers of refugees enter the country, constraints to the labour markets are built or increased (Zetter and Ruadel 2018).</p> <p>Areas hosting a high number of refugees are even more disadvantaged on average as they, besides even higher unemployment rates, suffer from a lower density of formal businesses, a lower formal job creation, less educated population as well as lower labour force participation than the country's average (Del Carpio et al. 2018). Where refugees are provided with more or higher services than hosts, refugees – perceived as privileged – face xenophobia and envy by their hosts (Vriese 2006, p. 25).</p> <p>The better workers know about their rights, the better they can comply to law (Razzaz 2017, p. 15).</p> | |
| 20 | Camp funding | Education <i>Trainings and advice</i> | Population of working-age community members targeted in livelihood-support projects | male/ female | 9 | <p>Livelihood interventions and recovery programmes are important to ensure self-reliance in order to create opportunities for displaced populations (to become more self-reliant) and returnees (to rebuild their home countries). Coupled with higher security standards around camps, such investments can also increase agricultural activities (Bozzoli et al. 2011, p. 21).</p> | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|------------------|--|--|-----------------|-------------|---|---|
| 21 | Camp funding | Education <i>Trainings and advice</i> | Population of working-age receiving life-skills training for livelihood purposes | male/ female | 8 | See justifications for No. 19 | |
| 22 | Basic needs | Health and well-being | Population with access to good quality and affordable health care services | male/ female | 13 | The economic costs of malnutrition are high as it prolongs the cycle of poverty and impedes growth (Mottaghi 2018, p. 34). Poor physical health leads to low productivity and increase in diseases. Further, malnutrition causes stunting and wasting in children, leading to cognitive deficiencies. Affected children miss years of schooling leading to lost employment in adulthood. There is a correlation between couples deciding to have fewer children when less vulnerable (DFID 2000). | Access to affordable and good quality healthcare incl. in Betts et al. (2018a, p. 21) |
| 23 | Demographic data | Health and well-being <i>Camp funding - Programs for disadvantaged (disabled, stigmatised, ill)</i> | Prevalence of HIV, total (% of population ages 15-49) {SH.DYN.AIDS.ZS} Population with contagious and stigmatised disease | | 1, 5, 12 | See justification No. 3 | |
| 24 | Demographic data | Health and well-being | Fertility rate, total (births per woman) | | 1 | See justification No. 22 | |
| 25 | Demographic data | Health and well-being | Adolescent fertility rate (births per 1,000 women ages 15-19) | | 1 | Strategies to survive are commercial sex or forcing young daughters into early marriages (UNHCR 2012b, p. 131). | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|------------------|--|---|-----------------------|--------------|--|---|
| 26 | Demographic data | Health and well-being <i>Camp funding - Programs for disadvantaged (disabled, stigmatised, ill)</i> | Population with psychosocial trauma (as reported by returnees and by medical staff) | treated/ untreated | 10 | Many refugees are deeply traumatised and feel constant sadness, not few even have suicidal thoughts (Chen 2018). People with mental health issues often develop physical pain, such as headaches and chest pains. “The headaches happen because there is a lot of thinking”, describes a traditional healer in a Rohingya refugee camp to IRIN News. Trauma, anxiety, despair and depression, among others, influence the general well-being and thus, the effectiveness of becoming self-reliant (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 33; Mottaghi 2018). Traumatized and mental stress can be a reason why refugees become vulnerable and are not able to provide for themselves anymore (Vriese 2006, p. 1; Mottaghi 2018, p. 34). | |
| 27 | Basic needs | Health and well-being | People using basic sanitation services (% of population) {SH.STA.BASS.ZS} Population with access to improved sanitation facilities | | 1, 3, 5, 12 | Interactions between water and sanitation provision, health, nutrition and social factors are underlined in Cronin et al. (2008, p. 2). See justifications for No. 22 | |
| 28 | Basic needs | Health and well-being <i>Basic needs extended (to increase working opportunities)</i> | People using basic drinking water services (% of population) {SH.H2O.BAS.W.ZS} | | 1, 5, 10, 12 | See justifications for No. 22. Good water and sanitation provision is important in refugee camps (Cronin et al. 2008, p. 3): - if not adequate, water points can become a source of power which can be | Basic needs 1 if water is enough for own well-being, Basic needs extended if water is enough for livelihood activities (e.g., laundry |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|-----|--------------|--|--|-------------------|-------------|--|--|
| | | | Population with access to enough basic drinking water services | | | <p>abused for sexual or commercial exploitation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - safe access can minimise SGBV and conflict - appropriate and sufficient water containers ensure proper water storage - access and distance affects the energy expenditure spent to collect water – too many calories are lost when water points are far away - sufficient water enables livelihood activities, e.g., agriculture, livestock - distance and amount of water affect level of dignity and well-being <p>Lack of drinking water increases the risk of respiratory and communicable diseases, especially for women, the elderly and children (Mottaghi 2018).</p> | services, agriculture, livestock, etc.) |
| 29a | Camp funding | Health and well-being <i>Basic needs extended (to increase working opportunities)</i> | Time to collect drinking water | less than 30 min | 13, 12 | See justifications for No. 29 | If collecting drinking water costs too much time, livelihood activities are prevented or disturbed. Thus, categories change from Basic needs 1 to extended |
| 29b | Basic needs | Health and well-being | Time to collect drinking water | 1-2 hours | 13, 12 | | |
| 29c | Basic needs | Health and well-being | Time to collect drinking water | more than 2 hours | 13, 12 | | |
| 30 | | Employment <i>Employment matrix</i> | Households with businesses registered | | 8, 9 | Businesses are less successful in markets with little demand. Limited market demands can make it difficult to open businesses (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 121). Reasons for low local | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|----------------|--|--|---------------|-------------|--|--|
| | | | | | | demand are, e.g., social division, distrust and conflicts. Conflicts decrease the security of small businesses. | |
| 31 | Camp location | Employment <i>Availability of markets</i> | Existence of public market within a reasonable distance from the production sites (yes/no) | | 10 | Refugees often live isolated from host communities or far from work opportunities and thus have less access to basic amenities or cannot afford the travelling costs to the workplace (Azorbo 2011, p. 5; Bilgili and Loschmann 2018). | |
| 32 | Legal issues | Employment <i>Access to markets</i> | Households with access to and use of markets | | 10 | Where refugees do not have or have only uncertain access to (external) markets, e.g., because of leave permits they may or may not get, they cannot plan usefully – costs of uncertainty are compounded by transaction costs in the form of waiting and inflexibility (Werker 2007, p. 5). | |
| 33 | Camp funding | Employment <i>Financial programs</i> | Households receiving conditional grants for business start up | | 8 | | Currently has a loan? Incl. in Betts et al.(2018a, p. 29) |
| 34 | Social capital | Employment <i>Cooperation</i> | # of small business associations formed/ supported Households participating in small business associations | | 8, 12 | When communities build powerful networks, they can help each other and newcomers in a resilient way (Larkin and Clark 2017, p. 28). | Participation in community-based associations incl. in Betts et al. (2018a, p. 15) |
| 35 | Social capital | Employment <i>Cooperation</i> | # of worker's associations formed/ supported | | 9 | | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|-----|--------------|---|---|--|-------------|---|---------------------|
| | | | Households participating in worker's associations | | | | |
| 36 | Camp funding | Employment <i>Trainings and advice</i> | Population of working-age registered in job placement services | | 9 | Refugees might not participate in the formal economy as they simply do not know how to obtain a work permit, how to apply for a job or even which jobs are available for them (Del Carpio et al. 2018). | |
| 37 | Camp funding | Employment <i>Trainings and advice</i> | Population of working-age using business development services (marketing, networking, info on business market, incubator) | | 9 | | |
| 38a | | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>Income</i> | Households having paid utility bills in the past year | by income male/female | 1, 12 | | |
| 38b | | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>Income</i> | Households having paid utility bills in the past year | by other source (remittances, loans, etc.) male/female | 1, 12 | | Sub-indicator added |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|-----|--------------|---|---|--|-------------|---|--|
| 39a | | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>Income</i> | Households coming up with emergency funds: not very possible | by income male/female | 1, 12 | No or low salaries result in the inability to provide for basic needs. If basic needs are not met, results are, e.g., malnutrition, lack of resilience, negative coping mechanisms, including survival sex, child labour, early and forced marriage (UNHCR 2014a, 2012b, pp. 43-48-49; Mottaghi 2018). Whole generations can become trapped in a vicious cycle. The social costs, including welfare systems, where available and loss in human capital, are high – for the local, but also the global communities. In crisis times forced and early marriage and domestic violence as well as SGBV increase (Zetter and Ruaudel 2014, p. 9). Refugees are often forced to work for a lower salary than locals do (Bilgili and Loschmann 2018). Reasons are the urge to survive as well as the lack of a voice. Others, e.g., organisations need to step out and advocate less exploitation. | Sub-indicator added |
| 39b | | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>Income</i> | Households coming up with emergency funds: not very possible | by other source (remittances, loans, etc.) male/female | 1, 12 | | Sub-indicator added |
| 40a | | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>Income</i> | Households coming up with emergency funds: very possible | by income | 1, 12 | | Sub-indicator added Monthly income incl. in Betts et al. (2018a, p. 18) |
| 40b | | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>Income</i> | Households coming up with emergency funds: very possible | by other source (remittances, loans, etc.) | 1, 12 | | Sub-indicator added |
| 41 | Camp funding | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>Agricultural equipment</i> | Households receiving production kits or inputs for agriculture/livestock/fisheries activities | | 8 | For people all over the world animals are of enormous importance to generate income, to serve as mean of transport, for security and cultural activities (Pollock 2018; Alshawawreh 2018). For refugees in particular, keeping animals can improve people's health and well-being as well as have positive psychological | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|--------------|---|--|---------------|-------------|--|---|
| 42 | Camp funding | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>Cash/Vouchers</i> | Households receiving cash/vouchers for agriculture/lives tock purposes | | 8 | effects, besides being a source of food and a commodity (Owczarczak-Garstecka 2018). | |
| 43 | Camp funding | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>Cash/Vouchers</i> | Population with specific needs provided with cash/vouchers for livelihoods purposes | male/female | 8 | | |
| 44 | Basic needs | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) | Population with prevalence of undernourishment | | 1 | See justifications for No. 22 | Food insecurity (%) incl. in Betts et al. (2018a, p. 13) |
| 45 | Camp funding | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>Basic needs extended (to increase working opportunities)</i> | Household is able to eat 2-3 meals per day without assistance Population with access to a sufficient, balanced diet without assistance | male/female | 2, 12 | See justifications for No. 22 | Expert feedback: insert “balanced diet” Average numbers of meal per day incl. in Betts et al. (2018a, p. 13) |
| 46 | Camp funding | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) | Household has access to electricity | | 1, 4, 6 | | Access to electricity (%) incl. in Betts et al. (2018a, p. 24) |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|---------------|---|---|---------------|-------------|--|---|
| | | <i>Basic needs extended (to increase working opportunities)</i> | | | | | |
| 47 | Camp funding | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>Basic needs extended (to increase working opportunities)</i> | Electric power consumption (kWh per capita) | | 1 | | |
| 48 | Camp location | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>% able to work in agricultural sector/ Employment matrix</i> | Households engaged in some form of income generation based upon local resources or assets | | 10 | When a high number of new inhabitants arrive at an area with already scarce natural resources, pressure on these resources grows. Deforestation, destruction of plant cover, water pollution, overburdened water supplies, over-fishing and overuse or destruction of rangeland by refugees' livestock are all problems host communities face (Jacobsen 2002, p. 107). | Involved in agriculture (%) incl. in Betts et al. (2018a, p. 19) Distribution of agricultural and household allotments square meters incl. in Betts et al. (2018a, p. 9) |
| 49 | Camp location | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>% able to work in agricultural sector/ Employment matrix</i> | Households with access to arable land or other productive natural resources | | 8 | See justifications for No. 48 Government regulations might prevent refugees from accessing land for productive purposes, natural resources or deny them access to markets and financial services, etc. (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 26). When refugees do not have legal access to much needed natural resources, they are likely to engage in illegal activities or unsustainable use of natural resources, | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|---------------|---|---|---------------|-------------|---|------|
| | | | | | | for instance, through exploitative farming practices or unsustainable harvesting of woodland (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 27). | |
| 50 | Camp location | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>% able to work in agricultural sector/ Employment matrix</i> | Households with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land | | 3 | Research in Uganda proved that access to land and the right to use is important for the livelihoods of rural communities (Vriese 2006, p. 8). | |
| 51 | Camp location | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>% able to work in agricultural sector/ Employment matrix</i> | Households having livestock for commercial purposes | | 10 | See justifications for No. 41. | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|---------------|---|--|--|-------------|---|---|
| 52 | Camp location | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>% able to work in agricultural sector/ Employment matrix</i> | Households with access to irrigation water and who rely mostly on agricultural production in irrigated lands | | 10 | | Access to enough water & quantity fetched per day (litres) incl. in Betts et al. (2018a, pp. 21-22) |
| 53 | Camp funding | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>Basic needs extended (to increase working opportunities)</i> | Target population residing in sufficient living space Population residing in adequate living space | male/female | 3, 12 | Crowded and noisy living situations and thus hampered routines such as bathing, studying, eating or sleeping can impede with working hours (Ekren 2018). | |
| 54 | Camp funding | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>Transportation means</i> | Population with subsidised or free access to transport equipment | | 8 | Land mines, destroyed infrastructure and insecurity severely limit livelihood activities, as it is difficult to access farming land, grazing areas, markets, etc., especially when there are no transportation means (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 33). High transportation costs increase the isolation of camps and settlements (Werker 2002; Werker 2007). If refugees have access to vehicles, goods and people can be moved better and profit remain in the refugee communities. However, this is not always feasible due to high investment costs. | |
| 55 | Camp funding | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>Transportation means</i> | Population with access to transportation Population with access to transport and mobility | no access to transportation, public or private | 6, 12 | | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|-----|--------------|---|--|--|-------------|-----------|------|
| 56a | Camp funding | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>Transportation means</i> | Population with access to transport and mobility | transportation is available but unaffordable | 6, 12 | | |
| 56b | Camp funding | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>Transportation means</i> | Population with access to transport and mobility | transportation is available and affordable but limited and/or inconvenient | 6, 12 | | |
| 56c | Camp funding | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>Transportation means</i> | Population with access to transport and mobility | transportation is generally accessible to meet basic travel needs | 6, 12 | | |
| 56d | Camp funding | Material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) <i>Transportation means</i> | Population with access to transport and mobility | transportation is readily available and affordable | 6, 12 | | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|----------------|---|--|-----------------|-------------|--|---|
| 57 | Social capital | <i>Remittances</i> | Households received domestic remittances in the past year | male/ female | 1 | Remittances send from other countries around the world help to expand the economy in and around camps and help refugees to gain stability (Larkin and Clark 2017, p. 23). Remittances can be used for different purposes. As social security, capital to invest in businesses (helping to become self-reliant), for education purposes, to obtain assets to rebuild one's livelihood or simply to assist others (Vriese 2006, p. 14). | % frequently receiving remittances incl. in Betts et al. (2018a, p. 32) |
| 58 | | Social capital <i>Income</i> | Households sent domestic remittances in the past year | | 1 | | |
| 59 | Social capital | <i>Relationships (hosts, community, external)</i> | Households borrowed any money in the past year | | 1 | | Possibility to obtain a loan? Incl. in Betts et al. (2018a, p. 29) |
| 60 | Social capital | <i>Cooperation</i> | Population participated in cooperatives, production groups and community-based organisations | male/ female | 10 | See justifications in No. 34. In many countries, social networks and social institutions are the only way to engage successfully in livelihood activities. If such networks are destroyed through conflict or flight, it might become impossible to accumulate assets (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 33). | |
| 61 | Social capital | <i>Relationships (hosts, community, external)</i> | Population has reliable family relationships to turn to for needed support | male/ female | 2 | Social capital and ethnic or linguistic ties can facilitate access to the labour market significantly (Zetter and Ruauadel 2018). Refugees are interested in living in a stable and secure camp (Larkin and | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|-----|----------------|---|--|-----------------------------------|-------------|---|---|
| 62 | Social capital | <i>Relationships (hosts, community, external)</i> | Population has reliable relationships with members of refugee to for needed support | male/female | 2 | Clark 2017, p. 27). They want to make a new home, even though they are not recognised as citizens. Refugees interact with host communities, especially when ethnicity of refugees and host communities are similar and/or | |
| 63 | Social capital | <i>Relationships (hosts, community, external)</i> | Population has reliable relationships with members of host community to turn to for needed support | male/female | 2 | when camps exist for a longterm (Larkin and Clark 2017, p. 17; Enghoff et al. 2010, p. 25). Social networks based on solidarity can be safety nets to face together social insecurity and limited income-generated opportunities (Vriese 2006, p. 14). | Refugee – host interaction (shared a meal, business, personal) incl. in Betts et al. (2018a, p. 43) |
| 64a | Basic needs | Safety, Security | Safety | Feeling (very) safe male/female | 2 | Camps set up in poor areas are more likely to be targeted by bandits and criminals. In camps “there are simply more items to steal, more people to rob and more women to rape in and around the camps [...]” (Crisp 2000, p. 20). | Expert feedback: what is safety, what security? His opinion: safety connected to emotions, security to technical issues |
| 64b | Basic needs | Safety, Security | Safety | Feeling (very) unsafe male/female | 2 | In violent and/or very poor areas, the accumulation of assets or maximisation of profit and production attracts criminals and thieves, so refugees avoid producing more than needed for surviving (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 33). | Based on this feedback No 64-68 were changed from Basic needs extended to Basic needs 1 |
| 65 | Basic needs | Safety, Security | Population suffered losses due to theft and vandalism | male/female | 1 | In general, violence and instability are not conducive to engage in economic activities (Werker 2007, p. 13; Vriese 2006, p. 31). “Refugee’s pursuit of livelihoods can increase human security because economic activities help to recreate social and economic interdependence within and between communities, and can restore social networks based on the | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|-------------|-------------------------|--|---------------|-------------|--|------|
| | | | | | | exchange of labour, assets and food” (Jacobsen 2002, p. 95). In some man-made crises, refugees are very unsafe if they leave the camp which prevents them in participating in external markets (Werker 2007, p. 10). | |
| 66 | Basic needs | Safety, Security | Population who reported an incident of victimisation by institution/mechanism used (formal/informal/traditional) | male/female | 3 | Non-existent or too scarce natural resources create tension between host communities and refugees (Agblorti and Awusabo-Asare 2011). Xenophobia has taken over in many refugee situations, when the number of refugees increase over time, when host populations feels a rise in economic competition with refugees, or when host communities and refugees do not share gender norms and culture. Refugees experience this xenophobia in discrimination by local authorities, higher fees, rents and bribes from landlords, landowners, employers or public services (UNHCR 2012b, p. 39). Integration is not desired by many host communities, even when refugees have lived in the host country for a long period of time (Kibreab 2003). In many cases, refugees are not aware or too frightened to claim their rights (Zetter and Ruaudel 2018). Authorities do not protect them or are even a threat to them. These obstacles can be lowered by training, education and the development of language and skills, which also can open labour markets in general. Refugees accept the government exercising power over them by | |
| 67 | Basic needs | Safety, Security | Target population who experience a safety and security incident and did not report at all by main reason for not reporting Population who experienced a safety and security incident and did not report it | male/female | 3, 12 | | |
| 68 | Basic needs | Safety, Security | Population reporting having personally felt discriminated against or harassed in the previous 12 months on the | male/female | 3 | | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|---------------|---|---|---------------|-------------|--|--|
| | | | basis of their displacement status | | | complying with this denial of rights (Larkin and Clark 2017, p. 16). They could speak out in protest, but do not want to jeopardise the benefits of humanitarian aid (food, shelter, safety). In some cases, refugees – besides having legal working permits issued by the national government – are discriminated by local authorities or employers and are not allowed to carry out economic activities where they live (Vriese 2006, p. 9). | |
| 69 | Camp location | Safety, Security <i># natural disasters</i> | Droughts, floods, extreme temperatures (% of population, average 1990-2009) [EN.CLC.MDA T.ZS] Population suffering by natural disaster, extreme weather conditions | | 1, 12 | Natural disasters have a huge impact on the aid provision as transportation of food and non-food items can be interrupted (Harrell-Bond 1986, p. 179), but also on businesses, local markets and products (Montclos and Mwangi Kagwanja 2000, pp. 217-218). | |
| 70 | Camp funding | Financial services <i>Financial programs</i> | Automated teller machines (ATMs) (per 100,000 adults) [FB.ATM.TOT L.P5] Population with access to money transfer systems (ATMs, Hwala, etc.) | male/female | 1, 12 | | e.g., Zaatari has no ATMs but many use other systems |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|--------------|---|--|-----------------|-------------|---|---|
| 71 | Camp funding | Financial services <i>Financial programs</i> | Population being clients in national MFIs or banks | male/ female | 9 | Conflicts decrease the security of small businesses. They also scare away potential entrepreneurs to make investments as well as microfinance institutions to start giving out loans. Many refugees can only make investments by using loans of microfinance institutions (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 121). Development funds need to benefit simultaneously refugees and the local population to avoid tensions among both groups (Vriese 2006, p. 32). Giving out loans might backfire and endanger women's financial and personal physical security. Examples of gender-related risks are that debt can impoverish women, it can increase the already high burden on women or lead to negative mechanisms like prostitution in order to pay back loans. If women are granted access to loans more easily, suppressed women might be forced by their husbands or male relatives to get loans (Azorbo 2011, p. 7). | |
| 72 | Camp funding | Financial services <i>Financial programs</i> | Population being clients (nationals and PoC) of the partner institution for all financial services | male/ female | 9 | | |
| 73 | Camp funding | Financial services <i>Financial programs</i> | % of money loaned to and repaid by population being clients (repayment rate) | male/ female | 9 | | |
| 74 | Camp funding | Financial services <i>Financial programs</i> | % of money loaned to and repaid by national clients (of same institution - repayment rate) | male/ female | 9 | | Indicator interesting to compare with camp population |
| 75 | Camp funding | Financial services <i>Financial programs</i> | Average loan taken by population per capita (%) | male/ female | 9 | | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|----------------|---|--|-----------------|-------------|-----------|---------------------------------------|
| 76 | Camp funding | Financial services <i>Financial programs</i> | Average loan taken by a client (nationals and PoC) of MFIs | male/ female | 9 | | |
| 77 | Camp funding | Financial services <i>Financial programs</i> | Percentage of returnee families who claim to have a debt (either to individuals or agencies) Level of debt (% residents having debt) | male/ female | 10, 12 | | |
| 78 | Camp funding | Financial services <i>Financial programs</i> | Population receiving loans through UNHCR partners (in current year) | male/ female | 9 | | |
| 79 | Camp funding | Financial services <i>Financial programs</i> | Population receiving other financial services through UNHCR partners (in current year) | male/ female | 9 | | |
| 80 | Social capital | Financial services <i>Cooperation</i> | Population participating in community-based group savings/loans/insurance schemes | male/ female | 8, 9 | | See justifications for No. 34 and 61. |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|---|--|---|-----------------|-------------|---|------|
| 81 | Social capital | Financial services <i>Cooperation</i> | Population saved using a savings club or a person outside the family | male/ female | 1 | | |
| 82 | Social capital | Political voice and governance <i>Cooperation</i> | Number of cooperatives, production groups and community-based organisations (community level) | | 10 | Refugee-led organisations and initiatives are able to advocate for better lives for the refugees (Musenga Tshimankinda 2018). Awareness-raising campaigns can make sure they are heard. The media, for instance, might be able to help gaining more attention, leading to more power, so these groups might change their space from claimed to invited. | |
| 83 | Social capital and Children's education and political voice | Political voice and governance <i>Cooperation/ % socially, politically active</i> | Population who actively participated in community, social, or political organisations in the last 12 months | male/female | 3 | | |
| 84 | Legal issues | Political voice and governance <i>National regulations enforced in camps/ Gender equality – Law</i> | Law prohibits or invalidates child or early marriage (1=yes; 0=no) | | 1 | See justifications No. 25 and 39. | |
| 85 | Legal issues | Political voice and governance | Businesses paying taxes | | 4 | Paying taxes can be positive if taken to invest in infrastructure and services or negative, if used inappropriately (see justifications No 89). | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|--------------|---|--|---------------|-------------|--|------|
| | | <i>National regulations enforced in camps</i> | | | | | |
| 86 | Legal issues | Remedies/ Human Rights | Population facing restrictions to their freedom of movement by type/cause of restriction | | 3 | <p>Not being able to rely on human rights means to have only limited opportunities to become self-reliant (Azorbo 2011, p. 5).</p> <p>As the impact of refugees being hosted for a long time has big social and economic impacts on these areas, refugees face restrictive regulations and denial of human rights as well as xenophobia and discrimination (UNHCR 2005, pp. 13-14).</p> <p>In some countries, refugees have to endure a waiting period until their legal status is resolved. During this stressful period, sometimes up to a year, refugees do not have other options than engaging in illegal or criminal activities (Vriese 2006, p. 9).</p> <p>Where economic freedoms such as freedom of movement, is restricted, participation to outside markets is limited and business environment inside is weakened (Werker 2002).</p> | |
| 87 | Legal issues | Remedies/ Human Rights | Population with work permit | male/female | 8, 9 | <p>Refugees and IDPs often face exclusion from labour markets, no access to educational facilities and health services. Negative coping mechanisms, economic exploitation, arrest and detention are part of the day-to-day challenges, which refugees experience (UNHCR 2014a).</p> <p>Even if refugees have the right to obtain a work permit, it is not given that they can receive it, as administrative processes can be costly and burdensome</p> | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|--------------|--|--|---------------|-------------|---|--|
| | | | | | | (Zetter and Ruaudel 2018). In some countries, refugees have to endure a waiting period until their legal status is resolved. Where work permits are expensive (transportation costs, bureaucratic costs, etc.), people might not be able to obtain one due to insufficient capital (Werker 2007, p. 6). | |
| 88 | Camp funding | Remedies/ Human Rights <i>Trainings and advice</i> | Population provided with legal advice for accessing work opportunities | male/female | 8, 9 | See justifications No. 87. | |
| 89 | Legal issues | Remedies/ Human Rights <i>National regulations enforced in camps</i> | Number of instance of illegal taxation in refugee/returnee - affected communities Population affected by illegal taxation | | 10, 12 | In Kyangwali, refugees faced three types of taxes which were used to check individual prosperity and created corruption (Werker 2002, p. 14). | |
| 90 | Legal issues | Remedies/ Human Rights <i>Documentation</i> | Population recognised diplomas from their country of origin | | 8, 9 | Livelihood programmes, which are poorly designed, limited in scale and/or are not aligned with government institutions, might fail getting formally recognised (Del Carpio et al. 2018). This results in refugees earning diplomas they cannot use for formal job seeking or obtaining legal work permits. The refugees' access to markets is influenced negatively, when host governments or | |
| 91 | Legal issues | Remedies/ Human Rights <i>Documentation</i> | Population with recognised diplomas working in a related sector | | 8, 9 | | Expert feedback: At what point are people asked about their professions and diplomas? |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|-----|-----------------|---|---|---|-------------|--|------|
| 92 | Legal issues | Remedies/ Human Rights <i>Documentation</i> | Population provided with information on diploma recognition processes | | 9 | <p>host communities do not recognise diplomas or certificates (Vriese 2006, p. 31).</p> <p>Not having an identity card can lead to many problems for the refugees, like arrests, beating and property confiscation (Harrell-Bond 1986, pp. 169-170).</p> | |
| 93a | Legal issues | Remedies/ Human Rights <i>Documentation</i> | Documentation | no members of the household have UNHCR/government registration or residence permit | 6 | | |
| 93b | Legal issues | Remedies/ Human Rights <i>Documentation</i> | Documentation | all family members have legal documentation to remain in the country (residence permit, visa, and/or UNHCR documentation) | 6 | | |
| 94 | Gender equality | <i>Culture</i> | <p>Women participating in the three decisions (own health care, major household purchases, and visiting family) (% of women age 15-49) Women (15+) participating in major decisions regarding their or their children's' lives</p> | | 1, 12 | | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|----|--|---|---|---------------|-------------|---|------|
| 95 | Basic needs | Gender equality <i>Law, Culture</i> | Number of reported rapes and other forms of gender-related violence (either as victims or perpetrators) | | 10 | <p>Living in conflict areas is dangerous for women and girls as they are more vulnerable to sexual gender-based violence. To avoid SGBV, some women do not dare to visit dangerous places and do not leave home after dark (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 31; Jacobsen 2002, p. 117).</p> <p>Harming livelihood through SGBV can happen by, e.g., preventing access to education or inheritance, destroying women's property or depriving money from them. A Congolese woman being raped and having fled to Uganda states that she is traumatised. "I am physically, emotionally and psychologically affected. I can't forget the terrible experience"(Okiror 2018b). Another woman says that she is incontinent, suffers pains in her abdomen and from a whitish secretion coming from her genitals after being raped.</p> <p>Women and children who have to leave the camp for firewood, food and other resources are especially vulnerable to SGBV (Aubone and Hernandez 2013).</p> | |
| 96 | Gender equality and Children's education and political voice | Gender equality <i>Culture/ % socially, politically active</i> | Number of animator trainees in women's empowerment Women participating in activities of empowerment | | 5, 12 | | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|-----|--|--|--|---------------------------------|-------------|---|---|
| 97 | Gender equality and Children's education and political voice | Gender equality <i>Law, Culture/ % socially, politically active</i> | Proportion of women serving in executive positions in committees | | 5 | | Expert feedback: Compare % of participating men and women: Who does what and why? |
| 98 | Legal issues | Public Sector <i>National regulations enforced in camp</i> | Target population covered under social security schemes (public or private) Population benefiting from social security systems (by government, organisations or private funding) | male/female | 3, 12 | Individuals and households that also after the emergency phase are not able to become self-reliant must be supported long-term with essential services, food and other supplies, integrating the emergency approach with the livelihood approach (UNHCR 2014a, pp. 23-25, 2012b, p. 12). The challenge for the implementing partners is to identify vulnerable people. In general humanitarian assistance alters the economic outcome inside the camp as well as its demographic makeup (Werker 2007, p. 14). | Expert feedback: Who is beneficiary, who isn't? What do people do if they have no access to any social system? |
| 99a | Camp funding | Partnerships for the Goals <i>Management</i> | Engaged in strategic planning and implementation | # of public sector partners | 8, 9 | When UNHCR or other organisations engage private companies, such as microfinance institutions for loans or suppliers of microwork, the different perspectives of the two entities might collide as UNHCR sees the refugees as beneficiaries and private companies as clients or employees, depending on their purpose (Azorbo 2011, p. 17). Thus, the refugees' needs might not be met accordingly. Planning, developing and supporting livelihood activities need experience and coordination among humanitarian agencies, government authorities, development actors, national and | Expert feedback: What do these indicators have as outcome? More questions needed like what they do and how long the partnership exists? When starts a partner being a partner? More important would be to measure strategic/sustainable partnerships (medium-long term/long term) |
| 99b | Camp funding | Partnerships for the Goals <i>Management</i> | Engaged in strategic planning and implementation | # of private sector partners | 8, 9 | | |
| 99c | Camp funding | Partnerships for the Goals <i>Management</i> | Engaged in strategic planning and implementation | # of development agencies | 8, 9 | | |
| 99d | Camp funding | Partnerships for the Goals <i>Management</i> | Engaged in strategic planning and implementation | # of humanitarian organisations | 9 | | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|-----|--------------|--|--|---------------|-------------|---|------|
| 100 | Camp funding | Crisis management <i>Management</i> | # of livelihoods interventions with a planned or implemented external evaluation | | 8 | international NGOs, Community Based Organisations, donors and beneficiaries (Vriese 2006, p. 32). The needs of the communities have to be understood by the implementing partners. Even if UNHCR has increased its budget for livelihood activities, it has reached only a small percentage of refugees (UNHCR 2014a). The agency sees its biggest gap in acquiring and assessing available data related to the refugees and host economies to better target relevant interventions, select partners, monitor and evaluate stronger and for a long period of time. Organisations often do not understand wider market contexts. Such a lack of data also prevents training providers to design useful programmes (Omata 2017; Del Carpio et al. 2018). UNHCR and its partners as well as other NGOs try to overcome these hurdles by better understanding market dynamics (Ayoubi and Saavedra 2018). They aspire to generate more targeted, market-based and results-oriented programming. | |
| 101 | Camp funding | Crisis management <i>Management</i> | # of livelihoods interventions with a functioning monitoring system | | 8 | UNHCR requests consistency, but field manager not always meet these requirements. One of the reasons might be that there are no or not enough templates for livelihood programmes. The required assessments and analyses are outlined, but not strictly dictated. | |
| 102 | Camp funding | Crisis management <i>Management</i> | # of project evaluations published and disseminated | | 8 | Providing templates might be difficult as every refugee situation is different. However, every person understands and interprets the guidelines and documents | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|-----|--------------|--|---|---------------|-------------|---|------|
| 103 | Camp funding | Crisis management <i>Management</i> | Strategic plan for livelihoods programming informed by assessment (yes/no) | | 8 | differently, focusing on other activities or engaging different partners (UNHCR 2012b, p. 17). Nonetheless, development programmes bring direct benefits to host communities and refugees. Refugees must be able to provide food, water, shelter, personal safety, health and education for themselves and not through donations (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 14). | |
| 104 | Camp funding | Crisis management <i>Management</i> | Socio economic profile and livelihood capacities of PoC (women, men, youth) defined and monitored | | 8 | One of the reasons why this change towards more self-reliance takes so many years is the staff's fear that the switch from receiving aid to becoming self-sufficient might reduce own employment potential within operations (UNHCR 2005, Book 2, p. 30). Working with the different reports and guidelines has brought many insights regarding UNHCR's livelihood strategy. However, the documents are rarely cross-referenced and each document has a completely different structure. In order to follow more than one document at once, field management needs to work thoroughly with the different reports and guidelines to build a detailed strategy for the situation on-site. Such an approach requires also building new checklists and assessment templates. These tasks are time-consuming and seem rarely feasible as work in refugee camps often signifies firefighting (<i>author's conclusion</i>). The better camp managers understand the complex economic dynamics of a refugee camp, the better they understand | |

| No | Category A | Category B and Addition | Indicator (% of total) | Sub-indicator | Source 1-13 | Rationale | Note |
|-----|--------------|--|---|---------------|-------------|--|------|
| | | | | | | the poverty or prosperity of the residents (Werker 2007, p. 18). Funding disruptions have to be avoided by all means to not endanger the programmes' success (Vriese 2006, p. 32). | |
| 105 | Camp funding | Crisis management <i>Management</i> | # of livelihoods interventions with economic baseline data | | 8 | | |
| 106 | Camp funding | Crisis management <i>Management</i> | # Projects supporting livelihood capacities of men, women, and youth defined and implemented | | 9 | | |
| 107 | Camp funding | Crisis management <i>Management</i> | # of plans that incorporate lessons from previous evaluations | | 8 | | |
| 108 | Camp funding | Crisis management <i>Management</i> | # of research projects developed or supported | | 8 | | |
| 109 | Camp funding | Crisis management <i>Management</i> | # of vocational and technical training institutions that waive or reduce tuition fees for PoC | | 8 | | |

C: Interview Guideline

Interview guideline for Phd topic:

Assessing the level of self-reliance and livelihood of encamped refugees with a focus on Zaatari camp and Azraq camp in Jordan as well as refugee women

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Introduction

My name is Anna-Mara Schön. I am a Phd candidate from University Kassel (Professor Scherrer – Political Sciences) and University of Applied Sciences in Fulda, Germany (Professor Schumann, currently Vice-President of German-Jordanian University – humanitarian logistics, economics), Amman, Jordan. Since 2016, I work on my Phd topic “Assessing the level of self-reliance and livelihood of encamped refugees with a focus on Zaatari camp and Azraq camp in Jordan as well as refugee women”. Although this study focuses on the refugee camps in Zaatari and Azraq, any other insights from recent/modern, larger camps with established infrastructure are very welcome.

Research Objective and Purpose

The focus of my research is to identify **tangible** (e.g., certain infrastructure) **and intangible** (e.g., power relationships, policies) **influential factors for self-reliance in a refugee camp**¹. To gain insights on this topic directly from the field, I aim to conduct expert interviews, face-to-face or via Skype.

An interview may take as long as 2 hours and will be recorded. The interview guideline is divided into 7 sections with an average of 2 to 4 questions in each. Your expert statements is of high value for the research project, as the insights shared might reveal why the level of self-reliance in refugee camps is still rather low (or is it not?), even though the international community, organisations and academia have declared the importance and relevance of self-reliance and livelihood activities for decades.

Process of data gained by interviews

Expert interviews were chosen as research method to give the interviewee the chance to talk freely about his/her experiences. The data gained by the expert interviews will be made anonymous, only the institution and/or the job title will be used. The findings statements will be used for the Phd research project as well as for additional publication(s). If requested by the interviewee, the thesis as well as texts for publications will be made available.

Declaration of consent

¹See Annex for short definitions on Stakeholders, Power and Power relationship and self-reliance

- I, the interviewee, agree to be interviewed by Anna-Mara Schön for the purpose of her research project. All insights I share with her will be used for her Phd thesis as well as further publications.
- I allow the researcher to reveal my job title and the organisation I work for, but not my name.
- I allow the researcher to reveal my job title, but not my name or the organisation I work for.
- The researcher is allowed to contact me for further questions regarding the interview I have given.
- The researcher is allowed to contact me for follow-up questions for this and connected future research projects.
- I wish to receive an anonymous summary of all expert interviews.
- I wish to receive any publications which contain my statements via email.

Date and signature by interviewee

Interview questions:

The following questions are a guideline for a semi-structured interview. Depending on the experiences and insights of the interviewee, not all questions will be asked.

For each question, please give short explanations and reasons.

1. Personal questions

- 1.1 What is your name and for which organisation/institution do you work? (*only relevant for researcher, anonymised later*)
- 1.2 In which context have you gained experiences in regards to the self-reliance of encamped refugees?
- 1.3 Briefly describe your personal experience(s) with refugee camps, refugees and power relationships regarding the lives/self-reliance of refugees?

2. Specifying self-reliance

- 2.1 When do you personally consider a person as self-reliant?
- 2.2 In your opinion, what is good/bad behaviour of refugees who try to be self-reliant?
- 2.3 When do you or your organisation rate self-reliance (programs) successful?

3. Tangible influential factors

- 3.1 In your opinion, which tangible influential factors have the power to increase the level of self-reliance in a refugee camp and, in general, in a host country?

- 3.2 What benefits do these factors have for the level of self-reliance of encamped refugees?
- 3.3 If you have worked with or in Zaatari and/or Azraq camp or in another recent/modern, larger camp with established infrastructure: Which investments in infrastructure and services as well as in livelihood activities have significantly increased the level of self-reliance?
- 3.4 What else do you think would be necessary for these camps to achieve a higher level of self-reliance?

4. Intangible influential factors:

- 4.1 In your opinion, what kind of difficulties do refugees and, in particular refugee women, have when they try to engage in livelihood activities?
- 4.2 In your opinion, which power relationships influence refugees and refugee women in particular concerning their level of self-reliance?

5. Personal experience with power relationships

Regarding self-reliance of refugees, but also in general, regarding the improvement of refugees' lives...

- 5.1 Which issues of power arise in your work with the government, donors, but also with refugees and host communities?
- 5.2 What kind of change would you like to see happening?
- 5.3 What enables or prevents these changes from happening?

6. Measuring indicators to assess level of self-reliance

Section for experts (e.g., UNHCR staff or partner organisations) engaged in creating livelihood activities.

6.1 Which of the following assessments have been undertaken in the refugee camp/settlement you have been engaged with? *Please, tick box on the right side (yes) if assessment was undertaken.*

| No | Type of assessment | Purpose of assessment | yes |
|-----------|--|---|------------|
| A | Identification of livelihood zones, refugees' interests and capabilities | To categorise refugees demographically, geographically, socio-economically and regarding their skills and interests | |

| | | |
|---|--|---|
| B | Analyses of different social and cultural customs of refugees | To understand the context of the refugees living in the camp |
| C | Analysis of policies in host country | To understand the legal framework in which the organisation can plan its livelihood strategy |
| D | Mapping of potential humanitarian partners and their projects | To understand, which organisations work in and around the camp including past, present and future projects for collaboration and to avoid parallel activities |
| E | Mapping of private businesses, including financial services and value chains | To learn about the different private actors and which opportunities they can give to refugees regarding formal and informal jobs and trainings |
| F | Assessment of economic situation of region | To know which resources are available for refugees and host communities, like water, electricity, farmland, woods, etc. as well as the economic power of the region |
| G | Analyses of markets and value chains in local region | To identify financial services, existing formal and informal employment opportunities and to understand existing markets as well as value chains |
| H | Analysis of financial services for locals and refugees | To comprehend which financial services are already in use and how; for which ones refugees have access to and for which services a demand exists |
| I | Assessment of social and cultural context of host community | To understand the social and cultural situation the refugees have to live in while being in the host country including the challenges and opportunities, they face in regards to this situation |
| J | Power dynamics in refugee and host communities | To identify vulnerable individuals, households and communities as well as those being in danger due to exploitation or violence |

Others (*please, specify*):

6.2 Which guidelines and/or documents do you use to prepare strategies for livelihood activities in the camp you work/have worked? *Please specify source.*

6.3 Which livelihood interventions have you/your organisation started in the camp?

6.4 Which assets have you provided to the refugees to increase the level of self-reliance?

6.5 What were the outcomes of these interventions/assets?

6.6 Which assets did you want to provide, but could not?

6.7 Which were the most successful livelihood interventions you, your organisation or partners started?

6.8 How is the performance of the different interventions monitored?

6.9 Who monitors the performance?

7. Comments, statements, stories

Is there anything else you would like to share with me, which was not asked in this questionnaire?

Thank you very much for your time and your valuable contributions.

Interview Guideline - Annex

Please, see the following definitions for clarification.

Stakeholders:

Stakeholders can be refugees, refugee women, organisations, aid workers in the camp, government and policy makers, soldiers and police force, donors/international community, host community, media (if you have other stakeholders in mind, please specify).

Power and power relationships:

In this research, power relationships can have two outcomes for self-reliance – a positive and a negative. Power relationships always include two or more persons/groups. Negative power relationships means that a person/group has power over another person/group, meaning the latter is repressed or forced to do something against his/her will. Positive power relationships

mean that a person/group motivates another person/group to improve his/her own living situation.

Self-Reliance:

UNHCR defines self-reliance as “[...] the ability of an individual, household or community to meet essential needs and to enjoy social and economic rights in a sustainable manner and with dignity. By becoming self-reliant, refugees and displaced persons lead active and productive lives and are able to build strong social, economic and cultural ties with their host communities. Self-reliance can assist in ensuring that persons of concern are better protected by strengthening their capacity to claim their civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights.”

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In other words, in this research, self-reliance is the ability to make a living – legally and voluntarily – using one’s skills and knowledge in given circumstances. It does not include receiving remittances or donations. Further, it excludes prostitution if it is illegal in the host country and/or if the person feels forced to engage in sex work.

D: IIF – Clustered Answers of Expert Interviews

As stated in Chapter 4.2.1 all interviews were transcribed, sorted and clustered. Each step can be retraced by the files on the data carrier (folder IIF) and the list below. The first steps conducted to obtain table D were:

- Transcription of interviews in Word (audio files and transcriptions available on data carrier – folder “Interview Files”)
- Paragraphs from Word documents inserted in Excel sheet and paraphrased (see Excel sheet “1. IIF_Paraphrased and numbered interviews” on data carrier in folder IIF)
- “Real word” paragraphs deleted and paraphrases newly sorted (“2.IIF_Analysis of interviews” on data carrier in folder IIF)
- The table below shows the numbered influential indicators sorted by topic. The numbers were also used in Chapter 4.5.2. The last column reveals the source of the influential indicator.
- Simultaneously to the creation of the table below, an Excel sheet was developed (“3. Table IIF_Clustering Interview Findings” on data carrier in folder IIF) to sort the categories of the influential factors. The numbering in column 1 is identical to the influential factors in Chapter 4.5.2 and the table below.

D: Clustered and Sorted Interview Findings

| No | Topic | Argument |
|-----|-----------------------------|--|
| 1.1 | Remote areas | <p>As already mentioned in Chapter 2.2, camps are likely to be set up in remote areas where natural resources are limited. This governmental behaviour was confirmed by one interviewee (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018):</p> <p><i>"Many refugees worldwide are often located in the most hostile environments. So having initiatives, creating projects, are always, always, always difficult, not only from a financial point of view. We did the same when I was the representative in Mauritania, we used to have something like 50,000 Tuareg refugees from Mali again in the middle of the desert, the same environment as the Sahrawi refugees in Nigeria, so we did organise schools, we did support gardens, small gardens, for the local production, but at high cost and with strong difficulties with the land, with the water, with the environment, with the heat, with sandstorms... We had sandstorms very frequently. So at the end refugees were able to produce vegetables, but it did not go very far."</i></p> <p>Besides living in hostile environments, the remoteness of camps adds challenges to the situation of refugees. Setting up and maintaining food pipelines in such environments is difficult, but still cheaper than creating, promoting and supporting long-term income generating activities (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). For instance, in Mauritania, the interview partner and colleagues set up traditional workshop productions, where refugees made traditional items by using animal skins. In the region, the market was limited as the capital city of Mauritania was 1,200 km far from the camp and exporting the products was difficult. Trucks which had brought in food aid were used as they returned empty, but not for free, which limited the success of the business significantly.</p> |
| 1.2 | Natural resources (limited) | <p>In Djibouti, a big camp for nationals of Somali ethnicity was built due to the Ogadan war. But, it was not conducive to large-scale self-reliance activities. Djibouti has a very unfriendly natural environment with high temperatures, stone deserts, so finding practical solutions for people of nomadic culture is challenging. Nomads are usually not open to activities for sedentary people. In addition, Djibouti itself is not self-reliant – the country has no agriculture and only small amounts of cattle (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018).</p> <p>Further, the Sahrawi refugees were supported in maintaining small gardens, which was difficult as water and fertile land had to be found where vegetables could be produced. The input of energy was high and the success limited (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018).</p> |
| 1.3 | Dependency | <p>Other experiences from the expert in Guinea, Sierra Leone and Cote D'Ivoire where refugee situations became protracted, lasting for more than 15 years, show the dependency on humanitarian assistance because of limited natural resources: "Again the activities of self-reliance activities were very limited. Local food production, small gardens, small workshops here and there, but certainly not to a level that would allow refugees to become really on their own. They were still depending on international humanitarian assistance" (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018).</p> <p>Besides limiting self-reliance and livelihood activities, camps create dependencies. In Mauritania one Tuareg refugee woman approached the interviewee saying "Listen gentlemen this... my husband is now completely useless. Before, he used to feed the family to work for the family so it was helpful, but now in the refugee camp my husband is useless. My real husband is the warehouse where the food distribution is made." (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018) This interviewee admits that though from the side of humanitarian assistance, providing support for refugees in host community is more difficult, integration into families and communities is much better from a human point of view.</p> <p>As mentioned above, the dependency syndrome of refugees towards UNHCR and other organisations creates power relationships which can lead to totally inactive refugees who only wait to be fed and taken care of by the organisations, "their mother and their father" (IV: 05 - UNHCR Copenhagen 12/18/2018; IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018).</p> |
| 1.4 | Fragile Places | <p>Chapter 2.2 also mentioned the connection between safety, well-being and job opportunities. The places with the lowest level of job opportunities are linked to the highest fragility (IV: 01 - Irish NGO 9/24/2018).</p> |
| 1.5 | Move and work freely | <p>If and how refugees are treated depends on the good will of the national governments. In many cases, refugees are not allowed to move freely and/or to work legally. When</p> |

| | | |
|-----|-----------------------------------|---|
| | | <p>economic activities of refugees cannot be connected to the national economy or with the local population, activities cannot go very far (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). For organisations, such as UNHCR and the donor community, the decisions of the government have to be accepted and respected as countries have their own sovereignty and are the decision-makers as host countries. They can advocate for the refugees and appeal on the government's self-interest showcasing them that "happy, self-reliant and integrated refugees are not a threat, but benefit the economy" (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018; IV: 05 - UNHCR Copenhagen 12/18/2018)</p> <p>However, as mentioned in Section 1 – Main Findings, the most important intangible influential factor, it seems is the denial of human rights, especially the right to move freely and the right to work (IV: 05 - UNHCR Copenhagen 12/18/2018; IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). This can also be seen in the case of Jordan, where self-reliance only started to exist with issuing work permits. Interviewee no. five gets it to the point: "The big difference is the freedom of movement and right to work for self-reliance. If they have it, good. If not, bad. The complexity with these legal barriers is that they can be both de jure and de facto. So, in theory refugees can have these rights, but in practice they are not recognised by anyone. Or vice versa, they have a de jure ban on right to work, but in practice the country is so informal in their economy, that nobody cares and the police does not enforce the law as everybody works in the informal sector" (IV: 05 - UNHCR Copenhagen 12/18/2018).</p> <p>The possibility for encamped refugees to work legally outside of the camp is also important to stop isolating people. In camps, people's options are very limited (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). They hardly become self-reliant on a larger scale and putting people's capacities to sleep is a psychological burden on any refugee (or person in general). Thus, interviewee no. four notes how important UN and NGO programmes are to make people stop sitting around being bored and interviewee no. five emphasises on the importance of collective advocacy for refugees and their rights by the UN, NGOs, refugees and host communities in direction of national governments (IV: 05 - UNHCR Copenhagen 12/18/2018; IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018).</p> |
| 1.6 | Pressure from donor | <p>Donors sometimes have more power than organisations, as was shown at the London conference in 2016, where the donor community persuaded the Jordan government to issue work permits for Syrian refugees, if the government wanted to keep funds flowing into their country (IV: 02 - UNHCR Amman 9/26/2018). This example shows that donors are sensitive to the topic of self-reliance as well as to protecting target groups such as women at risk and they can be used to advocate on behalf of the UN and the refugees (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018; IV: 05 - UNHCR Copenhagen 12/18/2018). This can be successful, but the UN does not control the donors, so this strategy has its limitations.</p> |
| 1.7 | Isolation | <p>If the government cannot be persuaded to let refugees work formally, refugees are forced to try generating income in the informal and/or illegal sector or can only work in small projects (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). In Rwanda, for instance, the government decided to settle refugees in a camp in the hunting area of the National Park. They did not want them close to the population. The refugees had to remain isolated and surrounded by wild animals. UNHCR had no choice but to play along, so they put up tents in a military way. Still, refugees started to do small things, like planting herbs, beans, tomatoes and such things around their tents. <i>"Camps are inherently bad. The more closed a camp is, the worse it is. When people live among the host community, it is much easier for them to become self-reliant."</i> (IV: 05 - UNHCR Copenhagen 12/18/2018)</p> <p><i>Refugees should not be put in camps but live with host communities. As soon as you have a camp you have to think of how to get rid of it. "One of the obvious things is try not to set up camps in the first place."</i> (IV: 01 - Irish NGO 9/24/2018)</p> |
| 1.8 | Killing resilience and capacities | <p>Interviewee no. four was impressed by the resilience capacity these people showed, but points out that every situation becoming protracted blights this capacity. In Turkey, the government started putting refugees in closed camps surrounded by fences, to control the situation. When more and more people entered Turkey, the government had no choice than allowing refugees to move freely within the country.</p> |
| 1.9 | Election cycles | <p>Interviewee no. one tried to give an explanation for this behaviour. He points out that governments are always tied into election cycles. The government does not want to admit that they could not solve insecurity issues and thus declare that places are save</p> |

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| | | again, even if they are not (IV: 01 - Irish NGO 9/24/2018). For instance, in Nigeria, the government declared on the back of military campaigns that Boko Haram was defeated, though it was not. In order to prove this declaration, they started to send refugees back to their home countries, However, UNHCR can only support repatriation, when safe and dignified. |
| 1.10 | Field officer's mindsets | As indicated in table x in Chapter 2.2, camps have more disadvantages than advantages. One of the major questions attempted to be answered in this research project, is why camps still exist. The answer is manifold. In Benin, for example, in the mid-1990s a camp was set up, only because some “old-school UNHCR colleagues were still thinking ‘UNHCR – refugees – refugee camp’” (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018), though the country itself was open to refugees, allowing them to work, going to school and universities and moving around freely. The camp which was set up was still a nice place with real building and small houses, but it was still a ghetto for refugees and in “ghettos there is no future” (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). Setting up a camp in a country open to refugees was – in the opinion of interviewee no. four, a strategy mistake, because money was invested in a place not conducive to integration and self-sufficiency of refugees. To avoid such planning mistakes, agencies and organisations should always ask the following questions: "What will the duration of a camp be and what happens afterwards? Does the government provide land, especially when refugees plan to stay for longer-term? Does it want that the people stay? Does it provide schooling and what type of schooling? Does it provide the typical government services, which can be a foundation for some sort of self-reliance? What about employment options and what do people need to engage in livelihood activities? " (IV: 01 - Irish NGO 9/24/2018). |
| 1.11 | Cultural understanding | However, as the outcome of every refugee situation is uncertain, plus in many cases international NGO and UN workers neither know or understand the cultural background nor the context of livelihoods of the beneficiaries, answering such questions is nearly impossible. |
| 1.12 | SGBV | So more difficult, providing aid to refugees in host communities, is essential for the well-being and even lives of refugees. For instance, in Lebanon, were they do not allow refugee camps, people live in very poor conditions. They easily become victims of sexual abuse, prostitution, child labour, human trafficking, etc. “People are literally sold as slaves” (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). In Ankara, for instance, the interviewee witnessed in 2011 at the gates of UNHCR, how Turkish recruiters were looking at newcomers, trying to take single women or isolated children as prostitutes, to exploit them. An act much more difficult, though not impossible, in a refugee camp as entrance and exit is usually strictly regulated. This point will be deepened in the Jordan case study. |
| 1.13 | Obsession of resettlement | Not always it is the government to blame, sometimes it is the refugees themselves standing in their own way towards self-reliance. “The idea of resettlement can prevent self-reliance completely. Many refugees become obsessed with the possibility to go somewhere like Europe, California, Australia, Canada. They think every effort to become self-reliant could close the door for resettlement. Which is true in principle - if you can become self-reliant, there is no reason for you to resettle. But this obsession can also go too far” (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). In the French speaking Benin there was a small refugee community for many years called the Ogunis, which is an English speaking tribal group from Nigeria. The tribe forbid their children to go to the school, because the language of teaching was French. They feared to not be resettled to the US if their children would be able to speak French. “Their obsession was going to the US and not anywhere else, only the US” (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). According to the interviewee, the this small group was very politicised and hostile to anything that would improve their own life by generating income or anything else by themselves in the camps. The parents forbid their children to go to French speaking schools and there were no English-speaking schools. “It's terrible to lock children to prevent any possibility of learning, of discovering, of improving, just because of this obsession of resettlement" (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). |
| 1.14 | Supporting livelihood activities | Promoting, supporting and initiating income generating activities by the humanitarian community is an important task. It can help to prevent SGBV regarding women and in general, prevent refugees to become exploited as it decreases their vulnerability (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). Thus, cases exist, where UNHCR and other organisations |

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| | | invest – sometimes even seemingly inappropriate – amounts of money in livelihood projects. In the case of the Sahrawis in Algeria, for instance, UNHCR set up a poultry production unit to employ several dozens of refugees and contribute to the food production with eggs and chicken (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). Setting up such a plant was difficult – the heat was in summer and the cold in winter was a big challenge, the equipment, buildings, prefabs, ventilation, animals, etc. had to be imported from very far. The interviewee did not know if the farm still exists, as it was very expensive and financially unsustainable. |
| 1.15 | Infrastructure | Interview partner no. four, summarised the questions about infrastructure well: <i>“In regard to infrastructure, the better it is, the better the ability of the refugees. Good infrastructure, like good roads, good schools, access to internet can all indirectly benefit refugees to become self-reliant. For refugees it is the same as for the rest of the world, good schools give people good education, access to internet helps to grow their businesses or find jobs”</i> (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). This opinion is supported by the answer of interviewee no. one, pointing out the usefulness of infrastructure on the one hand, but emphasising that it is not THE answer, only a foundation (IV: 01 - Irish NGO 9/24/2018). Other infrastructure mentioned were – most importantly - shelter create a certain level of security followed by WASH services. When WASH services reach a certain level and are closer to the refugees homes, safety and comfortability increases, leading to people thinking about other issues, like engaging in livelihood opportunities (IV: 03a - UNHCR Zaatari Camp 10/21/2018). According to this interviewee, infrastructure like roads and electricity are coming after WASH services. He knows both Jordan camps – Zaatari and Azraq. Thus, he could witness that because in Azraq camp people moved in only when all facilities were set up, people started immediately to think about what to do regarding livelihood activities. Whereas in Zaatari for many people this phase only started, when WASH services reached a more programmed level and had come out of the emergency phase. The importance of security was also mentioned by interviewee no. four. He stated that insecurity kills everything, not only self-reliance, but also humanitarian aid, general access or only speaking to the beneficiaries (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). The answers of the experts fit to the statements made in Chapter 2 about infrastructure and self-reliance or at least well-being: The better the infrastructure of a place (a camp, a town, etc.), the better the well-being of its residents. However, the statement <i>“the better the infrastructure, the better the level of self-reliance”</i> , cannot An interesting point regarding infrastructure was mentioned by interviewee no. 11: Whenever it is raining heavily in Zaatari camp, the whole camp is flooded, impeding not only organisations to work properly, but also businesses by refugees to work. The construction of a drainage system, which is planned for about 2.5 million Euro in April 2019, would stop those floods (IV: 11 - ACTED 1/16/2019), cp. also Chapter 2.4.1. be confirmed, as this does – as it seems – depend mainly on the intangible influential factors as described hereafter. |
| 1.16 | Confidence | Regarding markets, roads and banking systems allow markets to function, but only if people are also farming and trading, if they have the confidence to do it. This confidence is an intangible factor and explained in Section 4. When people are ready to engage in longer-term projects, they need confidence regarding different terms, such as in safety and security, in social reconciliation, but also that they can stay in the place where they have started for instance farming or building a business (IV: 01 - Irish NGO 9/24/2018). |
| 1.17 | Community-based approaches | First of all, on the part of the organisations, they have to be convinced that the projects they start can be successful. <i>“Livelihood opportunities are important, they help to make an income, to give people a better life. But, if you sit in a meeting and you realise that the staff training the people is not convinced that the project is going to work, how can you convince refugees that the project will not fail”</i> (IV: 10 - NGO Zaatari Camp 1/15/2019). The interviewee as well as interviewee no. four emphasise on the importance of the community-based approach. <i>“Before, UNHCR used a mechanical reply - 10,000 people fleeing means x tents, y blankets, z jerry cans, etc.; a local partner implementing the program. Done. Listening to the refugees was not a priority. Now it has become essential. Now, you listen to the people you are supporting, discuss, understand, question them - you have a permanent dialogue with the refugee communities, with special care for groups at risk”</i> (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). |

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| | | <p>NGOs and UN organisations have to make sure that their projects fit to the needs of the people. People – no matter if refugees or other beneficiaries – need the feeling that whenever they engage in a project, such as building infrastructure, they need to see the need. If they only participate for the sake of the project, it will not be sustainable (IV: 01 - Irish NGO 9/24/2018). In Ethiopia, for instance, roads were built through food for work projects who nobody used at the end, because people used better routes. If building public assets, they have to be good, genuine public assets. "If you build infrastructure or public assets nobody cares for or nobody wants, there will be no long-term impact. Instead of using cash or food for projects to build such unwanted public assets, food could have given out for free – there would be no difference for the people" (IV: 01 - Irish NGO 9/24/2018). In the case of Ethiopia, the tree planting schemes had a negligible success rate with a survival rate of 4% or 5%, as nobody wanted those trees.</p> <p>Taking up the importance of community involvement, the question remains, why if it is a "slogan in almost every meeting" (IV: 10 - NGO Zaatari Camp 1/15/2019), so many NGOs – apparently – do not listen to the opinion of the refugees. "What NGOs need to do more is sit with the people involved and get to know their ideas and what they believe will work." (IV: 10 - NGO Zaatari Camp 1/15/2019) Interviewee no. ten attempts an explanation: First of all, in his opinion, NGOs have their own ideas what is best for the refugees, they think of themselves as experts knowing best what refugees need. Second, when donors pay for certain trainings or services, NGOs provide them also if not considered as potentially successful. Third, when NGOs plan their projects, the opinion of refugees is often not included. Contradicting himself, the interviewee points out that considering the refugee's opinion is better now than it has been before, when it was neglected completely.</p> |
| 1.18 | Penalties | <p>In contrast, the Tigrinya-led government used a discipline approach. Instead of paying the people to plant trees people did not want, they decided which areas people were allowed to graze and where they were not. Penalties had to be paid if people disobeyed these rules. As a result, the vegetation came back. Enforcing those rules worked and was much more effective than "cooking out some cash based scheme that people didn't have a vested interest in" (IV: 01 - Irish NGO 9/24/2018).</p> |
| 1.19 2.12 | Quick results | <p>In Zaatari camp, the first livelihood projects, started by NRC also were unsuccessful (IV: 10 - NGO Zaatari Camp 1/15/2019). Reasons pointed out by the interviewee where the low quality of soil, lack of water and also the lack of motivation regarding the people. Apparently, the camp residents do not care about small projects, where they have to invest lots of energy long before they can generate an income by their efforts. People who have lost everything by war, are maybe even separated from family members and have an uncertain future in terms of their residents in the camp, want to make a living quickly, without investing first and being patient. Thus, they prefer working for Cash for Work projects, at the market or outside of the camp, where they are certainly paid after a short period of time (IV: 10 - NGO Zaatari Camp 1/15/2019).</p> |
| 1.20 | Motivation to start again | <p>Further, to start – short- or longer-term – livelihood activities, refugees need to be willing to take action in order to get additional money to sustain extra needs (IV: 02 - UNHCR Amman 9/26/2018). Therefore, they have to understand that they are happier when they are occupied and take action to use their time while living in a camp instead of sitting around, doing nothing (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). As mentioned above, in the interviewee's opinion, too many people only focus on resettlement. Only very few people can actually resettle, so all individuals gain more, if he/she participates in the camp's life, preferably jointly with other refugees, family, the community to create a sense of participation.</p> |
| 1.21 | Social capital | <p>NGOs should not only understand the refugees' needs, but also understand the (cultural) relationships within the communities, but also between the hosts and the refugees. Social capital, such as relationships and social hierarches often remain when people flee (IV: 01 - Irish NGO 9/24/2018) and – as pointed out in Chapter 2.4.2 – can directly influence people's income and well-being, etc. If field officers neglect or do not understand such relationships, their projects are less likely to be successful.</p> |
| 1.22 | Empowering women | <p>In many refugee situations, women are at a higher risk to become exploited or to be victims of SGBV (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). Self-reliance or at least the engagement in livelihood activities can empower and protect them from such threats, but only when a certain level of security is given. Remote camps are often insecure,</p> |

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| | | unsafe and thus, uncomfortable places in terms of moving around. Women not feeling comfortable lack of confidence to go out, leading to more challenges related to work or receiving trainings, etc. (IV: 01 - Irish NGO 9/24/2018). As organisations usually try to support the most vulnerable, women are targeted especially in many programmes (cp. Case Study Jordan). |
| 1.23 | "Worthless" women | The main difficulty is that most societies are male-dominated and it is difficult for women to initiate things beyond the control of people and it is even more difficult in religious societies. In very conservative Muslim societies, helping women is a big challenge and should be initiated by women themselves to have a change of being successful (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). The interviewee witnessed one scene in a refugee camp in Mauritania, where he was asked by a deputy government official not to talk to women from a sub-group of the Tuareg community called Bellas, which is about 15% of the population, with the words: "You don't have to waste your time speaking to them, they are slaves" (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). He continues, "In many situations women are treated like slaves. The just obey instructions and orders coming from male authority to the male managing group in the community. Providing special care to these women is difficult, but a very important work taking a long time" (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). This difficulty was witnessed by many interview partners (IV: 03b - UNHCR Zaatari Camp 1/13/2019; IV: 10 - NGO Zaatari Camp 1/15/2019; IV: 08 - ILO 1/15/2019; IV: 06 - GIZ 1/14/2019) and will be discussed further in the Jordan Case Study. |
| 1.24 | Cultural norms | It is a cultural norm that men provide for their families in many countries, especially in the Arab world. This cultural norm can also be embedded in women, so many women are not willing to work, even though they were allowed by their male family members (IV: 02 - UNHCR Amman 9/26/2018). Culturally, the wife takes care of the children and the husband goes out to find working opportunities (IV: 03a - UNHCR Zaatari Camp 10/21/2018). |
| 1.25 | | For women, seeking official work can be a big challenge. Jobs do not match their skills, payment is unacceptably low, childcare is not available and the responsibilities at home demand the woman to stay at home (IV: 02 - UNHCR Amman 9/26/2018). "Competition on opportunities are challenging, especially the self-created ones (note by author: women seeking work), as everybody is in a non-conventional life condition (note by author: a refugee camp). Due to the struggle of power, for women, the competition on opportunities can be more challenging than for men" (IV: 03a - UNHCR Zaatari Camp 10/21/2018). These struggles lead to high drop-out rates of female training participants when it actually comes to employment, as committing to an activity consuming a huge part of the day is often impossible or not in the mindset of a woman (IV: 02 - UNHCR Amman 9/26/2018). On the one hand, cultural norms and standards make working in specific sectors, like the construction sector, unattractive. In Jordan, at date of the interview, no woman had applied to work in the carpentry sector. For many women, gender mixed working places are culturally unacceptable. On the other hand, typical female-dominated sectors, like the garment sector, attract women. |
| 1.26 | Role models | Engaging in even small livelihood activities, can change how women are looked at – for the good and the bad. When women achieve something and can benefit their community, it can generate jealousy and conflicts in the community and at home, but also be seen as a model and other women want to follow their example (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). The challenges organisations face when supporting women to work is not different for refugee women than for other communities (IV: 05 - UNHCR Copenhagen 12/18/2018). The difficulties depend on the context of culture and hierarchies of the people. |
| 1.27 | Hierarchies | The main points the experts mentioned regarding power relationships were the power dynamics coming up between self-appointed clan leaders and humanitarian field officers. As mentioned above, hierarchies usually remain in place also when people flee. Interviewee no. one explained: "When tens of thousands of people flee from places to places with tenuous security, it is the easiest, maybe not best or wisest, thing to run with the self-appointed leaders, who speak (or might speak) for the refugees, who have lists of everyone who is seeking refuge. Such situations create particular dynamics who are very difficult to understand for field officers who come into such a |

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| | | situation without seeing such dynamics being set up. It was difficult to judge if the self-appointed people were really representing the people” (IV: 01 - Irish NGO 9/24/2018). |
| 1.28 | Understanding power dynamics | Further, it is also difficult for people coming from outside to understand the power dynamics between refugees and hosts, especially when they are linked culturally. |
| 1.29 | Opening political doors for more self-reliance | The experts had not too many experiences to share in the regard of power relationships, thus all answers for this section are presented combined hereafter. They did point out the political challenges they regularly face with national governments. Expert no. four votes for more creativity to open political doors in order to convince governments facilitating self-reliance or legal work for refugees in general (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). |
| 1.30 | Improvement of humanitarian system | Expert no. one opts for improving the humanitarian system in general to give governments better tools in order to prevent crises happening at all. He gave the example of Ethiopia, where food insecurity is a chronic problem. Usually, when the next food crisis is noticed and identified, it takes up to nine months until food grains are sourced and shipped from a third country. By then often the crisis has past and the markets are slowly recovering, but disturbed again when the grain is flooded in from the third country. A different strategic approach could be that the country itself keeps big grain reserves, so they release the assistance when needed and replenish when it is over. This way timely assistance is possible and grain can be released with less or even without distortion on the local grain markets (IV: 01 - Irish NGO 9/24/2018). |
| 1.31 | Proper planning | Interviewee no. four indicated the importance of proper planning from the start of an emergency. If at an early stage of an emergency, humanitarian organisations think of scenarios should the situation become protracted, refugees could take care of themselves more easily. However, he also clarifies that such planning is difficult: “It is a dream, because the challenges at the early stage of an emergency are so huge that spending time and investing in longer-term plans are often not realistic. You have to negotiate with the government, you have to recruit staff, you have to set up camps in many cases, though refugee camps are certainly not the best human situation and should be avoided” (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). |
| 1.32 | Chronic underfunding | Such planning would also demand more resources and respectively, more funding. To date, organisations all over the world face chronic underfunding, very difficult political situations and are in the constant state of firefighting as new crises come up regularly and unplannable. Investing time, funds, energy and resources to make people self-reliant is often not priority when other people are dying of hunger. |
| 1.33 | Crisis-affected countries | Further, humanitarian organisations act in many countries hit chronically by disasters. Former success stories are easily destroyed again when the next humanitarian crisis hits the country and the people (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). It could be asked if doing more than firefighting in such places is worth the effort. The requests and demands coming from refugees regarding the coverage of their support can change over time. For instance, Tuareg refugees came to Mauritania as nomads and left back to Mali as sedentary people. Suddenly important for them were schools, money for small projects, such as workshops, garden, food production. The change of their way of living, their aspirations, their needs and requests, all had changed a lot. UNHCR was very involved in supporting self-sufficiency, now for the people being citizens, not refugees, anymore. This example could be seen as a success story, but everything was destroyed again by the reactivation of the war in Northern Mali, which is still prevailing today. In 2013, when the crisis restarted with a religious connotation, all successes have been put down (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). |
| 2.1 | Natural resources (limited) | According to interviewee no. six, this hospitality diminished over the years, not because of cultural differences, but because of lack of natural resources. When already vulnerable, sharing the little resources available with newcomers easily creates anger or even hatred. However, regarding the experience of the interviewee, the Syrian refugee situation has not created hatred as in other countries, but the situation has certainly changed over the year towards less deep friendships. Some Jordanians even tend to blame the Syrians for all their problems (IV: 06 - GIZ 1/14/2019). |
| 2.2 | Size of camp (too small) | King Abdullah Park which is very small (about 1500 residents) and apparently rather for vulnerable and elder people (IV: 10 - NGO Zaatari Camp 1/15/2019). The Arab Emirates fund it and solely take care of it. Because of its size, it is not part of this research topic. The care seems to be very good, but the interviewee has not been there so cannot say for certain. |

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| 2.3 | Location and size of camp | <p>The main big difference between the camps, according to interviewee no. 10, is that Azraq camp and King Abdullah Park are “boring” (IV: 10 - NGO Zaatari Camp 1/15/2019) as they lack of shops, markets, restaurants and even CfW initiatives. Further, the weather is more extreme, so very hot in summer and very cold in winter (sources).</p> <p>Jordan also provides land for the two Syrian refugee camps Zaatari and Azraq (check sources: Saliba 2016 or ILO 2017b)</p> |
| 2.4 | Facilities in a camp | <p>(From Paper) Zaatari camp opened on 29 July 2012 and covers some 5.3 square kilometres (km²). The camp is located 10 km from the Syrian border and is near the city of Mafraq. Currently, it hosts about 80,000 refugees, but more than 460,000 people have cumulatively passed through the camp (UNHCR 2016a). Thus, Zaatari camp is one of the biggest refugee camps in the world. Over the years, it has faced various challenges, ranging from violent riots to the development of unique infrastructural improvements, like a water and recycling system as well as the implementation of an iris-scan payment system and innovative projects like a ‘Fab Lab’ (IPA switxboard no date; Kleinschmidt 2015). Its shelter conditions have improved significantly since its beginning. Every household has received a pre-fabricated caravan/container and tents are only used as canopies or to provide shade (Field visit 2016). Additionally, the average number of people housed has decreased from 8.2 to 3.31 per household per caravan (UNICEF, Save the Children 2014; UNHCR 2016b, 2017).</p> <p>Access to next market (6): The camp is well connected with other cities, like Amman (time to commute: approx. 75 min) and Mafraq (time to commute: approx. 30 min) through a new, tarred road (Field visit 2016).</p> <p>Inhabitants-shop-ratio (7): Over the last years, Zaatari’s inhabitants set up about 3,000 (illegal, but tolerated) shops using the provided containers (Field visit 2016). These shops are supplied by Jordanian mass traders, which are allowed to enter the camp to supply the shops with a vast variety of goods. Even if the shop owners do not pay taxes to the Jordan government, their businesses are tolerated, as it helps to create some income and keeps the flexibility of the Syrian population. In addition to the 3,000 shops and a daily bread distribution, two supermarkets of different brands are based on the camp ground (‘Tazweed Commercial Solutions’ and ‘Jordanian Investment and Supply LLC’). The supermarkets are allowed to sell 300 different necessary food items, like chicken, vegetable, oil, rice, etc. Including variations, e.g., different tastes of sauces, the total number of different sold items is 500. One supermarket has 45 employees; around 30% are Syrians from the camp, earning around 200 JD per month. The other 70% are Jordanians, earning around 300 JD per month. Its turnover is approx. 80,000 JD per month. The prices of the supermarkets’ goods are comparable to the ones outside. Every registered Syrian refugee in Jordan receives JD 20 (approx. USD 28) per person per month instead of receiving food rations. Since October 2016, this money can be spent via iris scanning in the supermarket as well as in 200 shops outside the camp. Within seconds, the system confirms the identity of the refugee, checks the bank account with Jordan Ahli Bank and the Middle east Payment Services, confirms the purchase and prints out the receipt (WFP 2016). By getting the choice what to consume, there is no urgency in selling unwanted food. The greater choice given to refugees increases their dignity and reduces misuse.</p> <p>No. of shops owned by refugees (8): Only 1.5% to 3% of the 3,000 shops within Zaatari camp are owned by refugees (Kattaa 2015).</p> <p>Refugees with sufficient income to meet basic needs (9): Despite receiving 20 JD per person per month, over 40% of Zaatari camp dwellers have an annual monthly deficit of some JD 84 (WFP, Unicef, UNHCR 2014).</p> <p>Access to electricity (10): A solar power plant is planned for construction in 2017, funded by KfW Development Bank (Lahn et al. 2016). At the time of the field visit, UNHCR provided 8 hours of constant electricity in the afternoon/evening to all camp residents, at a cost of USD 500,000 per month (Field visit 2016). Apparently, the solar power plant will be the largest electricity grid ever built in a refugee camp. Benefits are to reduce the pressure on the existing grid, to save costs on the long run and to provide constant electricity to the camp residents.</p> <p>Health</p> |

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| | <p>Availability of health facilities (13-15): Patients find health support in two hospitals with 55 beds and nine health care centres as well as one delivery unit. 120 community health volunteers support these facilities. The neonatal mortality rate is slightly higher than in Jordan (26.6 vs. 14.7).</p> <p>Waste water (16): On a daily basis, sewage trucks collect some 2,100 cubic metres (m³) of sludge and approximately 80% of this wastewater is treated in a treatment plant.</p> <p>Well-being</p> <p>Available drinking water (17): Every camp dweller receives 35 litres of water per day. The infrastructure of the camp counts three internal boreholes, providing an estimated 3.2 million litres of drinking water daily, which are distributed by 82 trucks (UNHCR 2016b; Field visit 2016).</p> <p>Community centre-inhabitants ratio (19): 27 community centres provide psychosocial support and recreational activities.</p> <p>Quality of school (20-21): In terms of education for youth, the number of available schools has greatly improved in the last three years. In Zaatari camp alone, the number of schools has in-creased over the last three years from three to 24 schools. Nine of them are formal schools (Human Rights Watch 2016; LIVED 2017; The Jordan Times 2016). Still, this does not seem to be enough with each teacher taking care of an average of 50 students and schools working double shifts to cover all children. This has also led to a lower quality of education, as children have less school hours (Human Rights Watch 2016). Schools in the camp cover primary and secondary education, but tertiary education is unavailable in the camp (UNHCR 2016b).</p> <p>Safety (27): The camp has a police station (Field visit 2016). In addition, the number of security staff increased from 37.7 stationed per area in 2013 to 42.8 in 2016, which influenced the perceived security in percentage terms from 64% in 2013 to 80% in 2016. The intimidation of humanitarian staff has decreased by 83% between 2013 and 2014, according to UNHCR (Castro Serrato 2014; UNHCR 2015b).</p> <p>Zaatari camp improved a lot over the years. At the beginning of the camp, the WASH sector of UNHCR provided portable latrines and water tanks as water points at minimum standards - SPHERE standards in emergency contexts (IV: 03a - UNHCR Zaatari Camp 10/21/2018). Later communal latrines were built to improve standards. Now they have built a water and waste water network. Also, at first there were tents and people were moving around, before the more fixed caravans came. According to the experts having worked in Zaatari, the level of standard is very high as everything necessary was and is provided for the camp residents, food, non-food items, shelter, CfW initiatives (IV: 03a - UNHCR Zaatari Camp 10/21/2018; IV: 10 - NGO Zaatari Camp 1/15/2019). In the interviewees no. ten opinion life is good in Zaatari camp. People can easily get out of the camp and get back, they receive 15 hours or so of electricity, can easily find jobs, have the black market and two malls. Zaatari camp is like a city (IV: 10 - NGO Zaatari Camp 1/15/2019). Further, in Zaatari camp, people receive 35 l per person per day and that is enough if you are living in a camp. This amount is because at the beginning the organisations made a mistake, explained interviewee no. ten. They started providing 35l and now cannot go back - they have to stick with this amount to avoid problems and protests</p> <p>Azraq camp:</p> <p>When the population of Zaatari camp grew constantly, the government decided to build a second camp – Azraq camp. Azraq camp was different, because here the camp was first designed and set up and then people moved in. WASH facilities as showers and toilets were built at a smaller level and were well established. Also, households were properly built with fixed assets. They set up water points with stationery tanks and networks - since day one (3a_Schön 21.10.2018, 8am). Since Azraq camp has been set up, refugees cannot choose if they rather want to live in Azraq camp or in Zaatari camp. Only if you have family in Zaatari camp you might be sent to Zaatari camp (10_Schön 15.01.2019, 1pm) (source). Azraq camp is situated in the East of Jordan, far away from any relevant city and infrastructure (3a_Schön 21.10.2018, 8am). In</p> |
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| | | <p>comparison to Zaatari camp, Azraq camp is different – it is more the idea of a real camp (10_Schön 15.01.2019, 1pm). People cannot go out that easily - outside is only desert. If they want to go to the city, they have to wait in the sun for a long time, get a taxi, pay for it. Life is much harder for them than for those living in Zaatari camp. The camp has very strict security issues. External people, like researchers, cannot enter the camp. Also, for field officers, entering can be challenging. The reason is village 5, which is for detainees who are thought as a risk to Jordan. Work there is mainly Cash for Work initiatives as there is not a lot around it. Opening markets was difficult (3b_Schön 13.01.2019, 1pm).</p> <p>In a next step, ILO wants to provide transportation inside the camps. This step will be important as Azraq camp is bigger and more fragmented than Zaatari camp. For many residents it is not feasible to get to the main gate on time. They were hoping to get the first 15 women starting their work at a garment factory in the area of Azraq in February/March 2019 (9_Schön 15.01.2019, 10:30am).</p> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2.5 | Signatory of 1951 Convention | Jordan is not part of the 1951 Convention on Refugees or its 1967 Protocol (Saliba 2016). Thus, it treats its refugees as ‘visitors’ or ‘guests’, not having a legal meaning under domestic law. Nevertheless, UNHCR and Jordan signed a memorandum of understanding in 1998 in order to provide international protection to persons being defined as refugees according to UNHCR. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2.6 | Pressure from donors | In the beginning, the Jordanian government was quite restrictive with handing out working per-missions, but the pressure of donors as well as the increasing problem of illegal work and thus precarious working conditions, supported the decision of the Jordanian government to open their labour market to Syrians (ILO 2017b). | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2.7 | Demographics | Camp inhabitants (1-5, cf. column ‘Indicator’, Table 7): In comparison to Jordan, the number of children is significantly higher in Zaatari camp, decreasing the percentage of working-age inhabitants. About 57% of the refugee population are adolescents and almost 20% are under the age of five. Women head approximately 20% of all households and each week about 80 children are born (UNHCR 2016b). | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2.8 | Employment opportunities | <p>Income generating inhabitants (11-12): Of the 60% engaged in work, 6,500 refugees have found some kind of labour opportunity (like cash-for-work activities). About 8% participate in cash for work (CfW) activities (UNHCR 2015d). 74% of those working under these activities are carrying out semi-skilled labour, like committee volunteering, cleaning or guarding; they earn 1.0 Jordanian Dinar (JD) per hour as an incentive rate. A far smaller proportion (26%) of those working in CfW earn 1.5 JD per hour since they work at skilled levels, e.g., as tailors, hairdressers or teachers. CfW jobs, with the exception of guards and cleaners, rotate regularly on a weekly, bi-weekly or monthly basis. The rest of the 60% of the working-age refugee population either have legal work permits (this amounts to an estimated 10% of Syrian refugees across Jordan) or work illegally outside of the camp (Stave und Hillesund 2015).</p> <p>Employment situation in 2014 of Zaatari inhabitants (Stave und Hillesund 2015; REACH 2014)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">in Syria in Zaatari</p> <table border="0" style="margin-left: auto; margin-right: auto;"> <tr> <td>Agricultural production</td> <td>23%</td> <td>1%</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Agricultural waged labour</td> <td>12%</td> <td>0%</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Teacher or public servant</td> <td>11%</td> <td>2%</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Skilled daily labour</td> <td>23%</td> <td>2%</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Unskilled non-agricultural daily labour</td> <td>11%</td> <td>2%</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Begging (incl. Relying on friends and family)</td> <td>0%</td> <td>23%</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Dependent on cash from charities</td> <td>1%</td> <td>32%</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Shop owner</td> <td>7%</td> <td>3%</td> <td></td> </tr> </table> <p>When considering the indicators 25-28 with the employment situation the encamped refugees had in Syria, the figures are put into perspective since only a small proportion of these jobs require better education. It reaffirms the reason why 23% earned their living in agricultural production, 12% in agricultural waged labour, 23% in skilled daily labour and 11% unskilled non-agricultural daily labour. Only 11% worked in teaching and public service. Most people in Zaatari camp come from the Dara’a region,</p> | Agricultural production | 23% | 1% | | Agricultural waged labour | 12% | 0% | | Teacher or public servant | 11% | 2% | | Skilled daily labour | 23% | 2% | | Unskilled non-agricultural daily labour | 11% | 2% | | Begging (incl. Relying on friends and family) | 0% | 23% | | Dependent on cash from charities | 1% | 32% | | Shop owner | 7% | 3% | |
| Agricultural production | 23% | 1% | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Agricultural waged labour | 12% | 0% | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Teacher or public servant | 11% | 2% | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Skilled daily labour | 23% | 2% | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Unskilled non-agricultural daily labour | 11% | 2% | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Begging (incl. Relying on friends and family) | 0% | 23% | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Dependent on cash from charities | 1% | 32% | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Shop owner | 7% | 3% | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

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| | | <p>which is considered Syria's 'breadbasket'. Back in Syria, the rather low level of education did not seem to have been a problem in comparison to their current living situation – living in a camp, situated in a desert (Stave and Hillesund 2015; REACH 2014). Now, their job situation changed dramatically. For instance, of the 23% who formerly were farmers, only 1% currently work in agricultural production. This small percentage working in the agricultural sector (1% instead of 35%) is due to the lack of farms within the camp as well as to the lack of land possession in and outside of Zaatari (REACH 2014; Human Rights Watch 2016).</p> |
| 2.9 | Child labour | <p>Child labour (18): About 13.3% of all Syrian refugee children work (whereas the number of working Jordanian children (aged 9 to15) is 1.6%). Usually, child labour is part of households' coping mechanisms when money is scarce. Of the percentage of working Syrian refugee children, 94% are boys and only 6% are girls. Nevertheless, girls frequently work up to 17 hours on household chores or get married off at a very young age (UNICEF, Save the Children 2014; Save the children 2014b; Kattaa 2017).</p> |
| 2.10 | Motivation to start again | <p>Witnessing how people who had come with nothing started their own businesses after only a short period of time was an interesting experience for interviewee no. three (3a_Schön 21.10.2018, 8am). Interviewee no. three also experienced the emerging of the Shams Élysées market, which happened "more or less over night" (3a_Schön 21.10.2018, 8am). People used whatever they could find to start their businesses. They started money exchange systems, they sold cigarettes from cardboard boxes, used tents and later caravans which they bought, for instance, from people leaving the camp. One shop owner, who sold coffee and spices, showed the interviewee pictures from his home in Syria before the war - it was a nice house, with swimming pool and expensive cars. He had lost everything to the war and came with nothing. Quickly, in the camp he found some partners to go into business with him. Since he knew the business, he found some investors to give him seed money and he started that shop. The interviewee watched the shop grow bigger and bigger until it was like a mini-market, a proper city market. He bought shops next to him to expand his business. Strange businesses, like a pool place, a billiard place with billiard tables started and somebody even opened a swimming pool. This pool business was only revealed by the WASH workers, because water tankers were coming into the camp which were not working with UNHCR. For WASH officers this is a big concern as they need to know the source of the water and also test it. Drinking water is a red line as UNHCR cannot jeopardise people's health. Tracking down the tanker, they found out about this swimming pool, a public swimming pool, where people could buy their tickets and go in. At the beginning and because people were going back, they did not know that what was happening in their country was a real crisis. They thought it was a passing incident. So they were collecting their non-food items (NFIs) and tents, thinking that they could sell them any time soon and go back to Syria. Some people made their businesses by selling such UNHCR items outside to make some profit, which often was used to start their own businesses. Creating markets and starting businesses are important to create "normal life" in a camp, especially for the youth (3a_Schön 21.10.2018, 8am). Different interviewees affirmed that Syrian people are self-reliant and very innovative. They do not just sit around (3a_Schön 21.10.2018, 8am; 10_Schön 15.01.2019, 1pm).</p> |
| 2.11-2.13 s. 1.19 | <p>Short-term livelihood projects in camps (CfW)</p> <p>Long-term livelihood projects in camps (CfW)</p> <p>s. 1.19</p> | <p>Implementing livelihood programmes and projects successfully is challenging, as different aspects have to be in line (cp. Chapter 2.5.4). Regarding to Table 6 in Chapter 2.5.4, all ten assessments should be conducted beforehand. It was not possible to verify which assessments have been conducted for Zaatari camp as none of the interviewed experts had this information and experts who would have this knowledge did not reply to emails. Interviewee no. three, how-ever verified, that there were many working groups being set through UNHCR and partner agencies and implementing organisations. UNHCR led the sector of livelihood and did many consultation meetings with people, with representatives from all sectors of the camp. They did assess the conditions in the camp and the different aspects related to livelihoods in Syria and in Jordan. They did also work out some guidelines for working inside the camps, for skilled labour and non-skilled labour (3a_Schön 21.10.2018, 8am). The experts interviewed mentioned several livelihood projects, like sewing bags from old tents by vulnerable people (2_Schön 26.09.2018, 12am) or letting refugees paint the caravans and create addresses for each caravan and get paid for it by refugees (10_Schön 15.01.2019, 1pm). The latter was not well accepted as refugees did not or could not pay</p> |

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| | <p>for such redesigns. In general, camp residents are interested in cash for work projects as payment is good. The short periods are appreciated by some and complained about by others, depending on their personal life stories. All seem to appreciate earning extra money. Still, almost all experts interviewed report of challenges they faced, like decreasing numbers of participants, when projects get into longer-term phases (2_Schön 26.09.2018, 12am; 3a_Schön 21.10.2018, 8am; 10_Schön 15.01.2019, 1pm). The next project is described in-depth to give explanations about the reasons of decreasing numbers of participants over the lifespan of a project.</p> <p>According to interviewee no. ten, one livelihood project was to teach women how to sew and how to repair damaged clothes (10_Schön 15.01.2019, 1pm). These clothes were brought into the camp from outside, so the women could repair them and sell them on the camp market. However, not a lot of women applied for this project. Reasons are, according to interviewee no. ten, especially the Arab Culture. He explained that Arab men, especially the more traditional one, do not accept the idea of their wives going outside. She is supposed to stay at home, take care of the children, cook, clean. Most of the people living in Zaatari camp come from Dar'a, a traditional area with villages.</p> <p>To solve this issue, field officers walked around to talk to the husbands to let their wives attend at these livelihood sessions and many of them rejected the proposal. In some cases, they allowed their wives to attend the sessions, but got impatient after a couple of sessions, when there was no immediate return on cash. Field officers explained that during the training sessions no income could be generated. Income, they clarified, would flow in after the training sessions. Still, in many cases, the husbands could not be persuaded. In other cases, women could participate while their husbands were outside working, but as soon as their contract ended and they were sitting at home again, they complained when their wives were outside attending the training sessions. For those who continued their training, they started making their own clothes by using the damaged ones. At the beginning, the organisation gave them the materials. After a while, they started to work on their own, including sourcing all materials by themselves. However, they had to compete with the cheap prices of the black market products coming mainly from Asia. Refugees, like most people not having a lot of money to spend, tend to buy the cheaper products, or if both products cost the same, people buy the ones with higher quality, which are usually the ones made in factories, as sizes and design have less mistakes than the home made clothes (10_Schön 15.01.2019, 1pm). If women sell cheaper than on the black market, refugees come and buy from them. For a short period, the organisation supported them for motivation purposes. At that time, selling for a cheaper price was possible. As the goal of this project was to make women independent – to create self-reliance, the project's goal was to slowly reduce and finally stop support. When the women had learned everything, they needed to start their own sewing business, most participants quit the project. According to the participants, they neither had the money to source the materials from outside, nor could they travel outside of the camp to source their materials by themselves. Others simply did not want to work on their own. The interviewee continued his explanations: Setting up one's own business means to run risks. If a person invests in materials to make her own products, she cannot be sure that people like it and buy it or - in a refugee camp - can afford the prices she has to ask for. The organisations in the camp organised a bazar and staff was buying their products, not always because they liked them, but to support the refugees. This kind of support can other refugees not give, as they simply cannot afford it. Usually, if people cannot sell their products, they stop their businesses and look for other opportunities.</p> <p>Another significant project was training plumbers for the new water and wastewater network in Zaatari camp. According to interviewee no. 10, having plumbers was necessary when the water and waste water networks were built. Funds reduce slowly, so organisations think about how to make refugees more independent from organisations. One way to spend less money is to hire less Jordanians and more Syrians/refugees, as their salaries are lower (25 JD per week) than of Jordanians (source). In CfW programmes, skilled refugees can work up to a year, non-skilled can work up to six months (source). In the “plumber project”, refugees were trained as plumbers. A hotline was set up for those residents having a problem regarding their pipes (10_Schön 15.01.2019, 1pm). The plumber went to fix the problem and the</p> |
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| | | <p>organisation paid for it. In order to fix the issue, the plumber got the material from the organisations' warehouses. At the end of the week, the worker got his money according to the number of cases he has fixed. After a while, the payment shifted from organisations to refugees. This shift however caused many problems. One was that the refugees could not understand why the organisations would stop paying for things they had financed before. Although, the organisations did raise awareness about this shift, it was hard for the residence to accept the idea of paying. What is the reaction of the organisations, if people simply do not pay their bills? What happens to the vulnerable people? Shifting a project from being paid by the organisations to the refugees is difficult also for the organisations. When vulnerable households have a plumbing problem, but need a plumber, what can the organisation do? They pay. If this gets public, others act as being vulnerable. Thus, the organisation's strategy was to pay for the first time, but not sending somebody to the household immediately, when there is a new problem – they sent somebody a couple of days later. The household then either tries to fix it by themselves, get help from other refugees or call the plumber and pay for the service. Syrians are good in mending things. They rather fix their issues themselves than calling the plumber. This decreased his salary and demotivated him. The organisation's reaction was to pay him a fixed salary, so he still would earn 25 JD per week. He then collected receipts and got a topping regarding the number of services he provided. This worked well in the beginning, when only the organisations provided the plumbing material. Soon, however, the material could be found at the black market. Then people called the plumber directly and not through the organisation, so the price for mending decreased. After a while, all plumbing issues were handed over fully to the plumbers. Some stopped working as a plumber and tried to find something else. For the ones who stayed in the business, to date it works, because competition has decreased significantly. Organisations support them by providing a hotline, post announcements, names and phone numbers of the plumbers. The plumbers are well known and trusted. Comparing people living outside of camps and inside Jordanian camps: People working on farms make an income on a daily basis, which makes them better off than camp residents. Findings work on farms is easy, so they do not have to wait for the next working opportunity like camp refugees have to wait for CfW opportunities. Their main challenges consist of lack of infrastructure as they only have portable sanitary facilities and water tanks (IV: 10 - NGO Zaatari Camp 1/15/2019).</p> |
| 2.14 | Safety for host country | <p>The lower number of issued work permits in Azraq camp compared to Zaatari camp is due to the more difficult situation (IV: 09 - ILO 1/15/2019). Interviewee no. nine mentioned the security issues of village 5 and village 2. People living in village 5 cannot leave the camp, so they cannot apply to work outside, or if they apply, their applications are rejected. Village 2 residents are former village 5 inhabitants and for them, working outside is difficult, too. The rejection rate for applications was about 15% because of security issues. This high rate made ILO's work challenging. For instance, ILO organised a job fair or promoted job matching for which people applied to, but the refugees were rejected as they could not leave the camp. To improve this situation, an agreement was reached between ILO and the camp management, SRID – ILO would consult prior to such events to get a list with those residents who can be invited and are allowed to go outside (IV: 09 - ILO 1/15/2019).</p> |
| 2.15 | Move and work freely | <p>All experts who know the insides of Zaatari camp said that the residents live well (for refugees). However, they also explained the limitations of their lives without work permits. Without such a permit, Zaatari residents can only go outside for a short period of time. If they have a work permit, they can go out for a month and then they have to get back to resign. Residents who are caught without a leave or a work permit are sent back to the camp and are prohibited to leave the camp again for a period of time (IV: 10 - NGO Zaatari Camp 1/15/2019). People who live outside of a camp can move around freely. For this, they have received a permission card for the police.</p> |
| 2.16 | Unfair salaries in host country | <p>The population is mixed and people work formally and informally. The unemployment rate – also among academics – is high and salaries are low in comparison to the expenditures necessary to live a decent life. Interviewees no. two explain that the most important factor to reach self-reliance is the wage. Jordan, for instance, is an expensive country and if the wage is not enough, the livelihood interventions are unsustainable. People living outside of the camps earn about 220 JD, but have to pay for rent, electricity bills, water, schools, health, to buy</p> |

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| | | medicine, transportation, etc. Their wage is not enough for all expenditures. Refugees in the camp have their caravans, they do not pay rent, hospital/health service bills or for the school. All these services are free, as is electricity and water. For them, 220 JD makes sense, according to the interviewees (IV: 02 - UNHCR Amman 9/26/2018). Self-reliance as defined above cannot be reached by neither group. The first, because they can only survive if they put different salaries together and live in indecent circumstances, the others because of the low wages, they keep being dependent on organisations. |
| 2.17 | Remittances | To live a decent life or even to survive, most families depend on remittances sent from family members living in the US or a European country. It is a big factor for the economy. |
| 2.18 | Informal market | To avoid paying high taxes, many people work in the informal market (source). Apparently, the government does not punish those working informally, but they try to formalise the market (IV: 02 - UNHCR Amman 9/26/2018). To avoid paying high taxes, many people work in the informal market (source). Apparently, the government does not punish those working informally, but they try to formalise the market (IV: 02 - UNHCR Amman 9/26/2018). |
| 2.19 | Employment for hosts | One of the government's prerequisites for organisations to employ Syrians is to always employ Jordanians as well as many are as (or more) vulnerable as Syrians. The ratio is 50% Syrians, 50% Jordanians if the project is a development project (cf. Chapter 2.3.3) and 70% Syrians and 30% Jordanians in humanitarian projects (IV: 06 - GIZ 1/14/2019). |
| 2.20 | Opening political doors for more self-reliance | As mentioned above, at the London conference in 2016, it has pushed the Jordanian government to issue work permits also for the Syrian refugees (source). |
| 2.21 | Supporting livelihood activities | ILO work (job centres, trainings, work permits in farming sector, etc.) |
| 2.22 | Transportation system inside/outside of camp | Further, ILO provides transportation inside the camp to bring - especially women - to the manufacturing centres. Buses pick them up at certain points in the camp and bring them to the main gate, where they take factory buses leaving to the manufacturing centres. This way, women could a) find a job and b) keep this job. Before, this solution had been found, transportation was holding women back to go to work (IV: 09 - ILO 1/15/2019). Zaatari and Azraq camp are spilt in districts. To get to the main gate from which busses of employers leave to bring workers to factories or their job places, it could take an hour of walking. Prior to the camp bus services, women had to walk long distances, also in winter before sunrise. This prevented women to work, as they did not feel safe due to water puddles, dogs or other safety issues. Now, busses pick up people from their districts to the main gates and return them after work (IV: 02 - UNHCR Amman 9/26/2018). |
| 2.23 | Informal market | As up to date, work permits inside the camps are not required by the government, formal jobs can only be found outside, besides short-term CfW jobs by NGOs. The community and thus, the job opportunities, inside the camp are small (IV: 09 - ILO 1/15/2019). |
| 2.24 | Empowering women | As in many families, childcare is left solely to the women, this task prevents many women to engage in livelihood activities or obtaining work permits (IV: 10 - NGO Zaatari Camp 1/15/2019) source. Further, it even constrained their ability to receive work permits by the camp management (IV: 09 - ILO 1/15/2019). At the beginning, the camp management was very concerned for childcare. They did not want the women to leave for a month, but only for a week. ILO promoted for the women to give them the same rights as were given to men. "If families manage to find someone to take care for their children, why should women not be able to leave the camp also for one month? Camp management finally agreed to this and the number of workers increased" (IV: 09 - ILO 1/15/2019). |
| 2.25 | Cultural norms | The number of work permits issued to women is low (4%) in comparison to men (Syrian Refugee Unit at the Ministry of Labour 2018, p. 3). The reasons for this are manifold. Interviewee no. seven indicated three different reasons. a) Work permits can be obtained mainly for construction and farming. Especially construction is not an area where (Arab) women tend to work. The same accounts for waste picking, driving taxis or working on farms, unless it is a family business, etc. b) Many women do work, but |

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| | | <p>in the informal sector, as the sectors for which work permits are issued are mainly male sectors (construction, farming, etc.). c) Refugees living in a camp are on average less educated and less well trained. Encamped refugee women tend to be less independent and have other, probably more constrained, cultural backgrounds than non-camp refugees (IV: 07 - Intern. NGO 1/14/2019).</p> <p>Although organisations provide external childcare for children even at the age of kindergarten in Zaatari camp (The Jordan Times 2019), childcare opens not before 8am and closes around 4pm, as only during this time externals can enter the camp (IV: 11 - ACTED 1/16/2019). As buses to workplaces leave earlier and return later, women have to find care takers for their children for these hours or cannot work at all (IV: 02 - UNHCR Amman 9/26/2018).</p> |
| 2.26 | Rejection of project proposals | <p>The NGO has to write a project proposal and get it approved by the government. However, in many cases this approval is delayed or even dismissed by the government, until the NGO has re-written it (IV: 08 - ILO 1/15/2019; IV: 10 - NGO Zaatari Camp 1/15/2019; IV: 03b - UNHCR Zaatari Camp 1/13/2019). If the government does not want to sign a paper, the project cannot continue properly. Project delays happen easily. The cabinet meets every two weeks, but if they do not meet, do not have the time for a case or refuse to sign papers, projects are quickly delayed by many weeks or months (IV: 08 - ILO 1/15/2019). Interviewee no. eight reported about hiccups at the beginning of working with the ministries at national government level. The minister did not believe in labour intensive projects until the interviewee had explained in depth what it was about and how they would handle potential problems. Since then, the minister was very supportive until his position was taken over by another minister. This change delayed the project start for five months, because the project could not be registered in the juri system. All the ministries refuse to sign any agreement unless the project is registered. When it was registered, the ministers changed again, which delayed the project even further. When the ministry refuses to work with an organisation, they cannot start their projects. Until their project was signed, ILO, for instance, could not do anything, but conducting some workshop training and planning. Only the minister of public works, apparently the most powerful minister of the country, signed it shortly before he left his position, as he had found out that ILO was behind their project agenda. By now it is starting to move again (IV: 08 - ILO 1/15/2019).</p> |
| 2.27 | Arbitrary problem solving | <p>Further, in Jordan, many rules set by the ministries, like the ministry of labour, is not set in writing (IV: 08 - ILO 1/15/2019). This means that solving problems can take some time until the ministry has come up with a plan.</p> |
| 2.28 | Clan hierarchies bias fair support | <p>About struggles experienced on the regional level, interviewee no. eight mentioned a mayor, who belonged to a certain tribe. When recruiting workers for the ILO cleaning project, he apparently only recruited workers from his tribe. The other tribe members complained and ILO told the mayor to recruit the people from the town where the work is done. This way he cannot recruit only people from his tribe. The mayor complained that he made election promises to his tribal people. As he did not fulfil the new conditions, ILO stopped working with this municipality until the issue is solved internally.</p> |
| 2.29 | Relationships between stakeholders | <p>Regarding UNHCR, the interviewees working in Jordan for this UN organisation, mentioned the good relationship between both UNHCR and the government. According to them, the relationship is on eye-level (IV: 02 - UNHCR Amman 9/26/2018). The government is usually present on discussions and both entities consult each other on a regular basis.</p> |
| 2.30 | Frustration creates resistance | <p>Only one expert from Jordan mentioned power struggles between NGOs and encamped refugees (IV: 03a - UNHCR Zaatari Camp 10/21/2018): “Power relationships emerged especially in the camp between NGO staff and residents who denied access to certain points in the camp. People were generally frustrated; they had lost everything and now have to live in another country. So, this frustration led to resistance, only to make a statement.” The work-around the interviewee and some colleagues used was to find community leaders of the area they had to go to, explain him what has to be done. The community leader then consulted with the other people and they were planning together how to solve the issue. So, consulting with the beneficiaries for their services helped a lot to break this resistance and get the tasks done.</p> |

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| 2.31 | Fair payment | If ILO had paid less, they would not have been able to make such payments. A lower salary means living day to day, pay check to pay check - surviving on feeding the family. |
| 2.32 | Headquarter specifications | The percentage of women who have to be employed or reached is specified by indicators. Among others, a certain amount of women have to be included into each job creation project (usually Cash for Work initiatives). |
| 2.33 | Cultural norms | “It is a cultural thing that the woman’s place is at home, especially in the view of traditional, less open-minded people. Also, if a woman has studied and a university degree - as soon as she is married or gives birth to her first child, her place is at home”(IV: 10 - NGO Zaatari Camp 1/15/2019) and (IV: 07 - Intern. NGO 1/14/2019). |
| 2.34 | Creating work opportunities for women | <p>However, sometimes this is a major challenge, for instance, in water CfW projects where water dams had to be protected, women were not willing to work. Planting trees, which was one main task, is not a typical task for women, so they were included by sewing safety/protective vests for the workers. Another project was the plumbing project. Here, women were trained to become plumbers. One major advantage is that female plumbers can visit households also when only the household woman is at home (and not the man). However, especially at the beginning, this project had many opponents, at the governmental level as well as in the communities. Women, they said, cannot and should not work as plumbers, women should not work at all, etc. Media attention, though, was so huge that this silenced the opponents. Now, these women built cooperatives and work normally as every other plumber does: They can be called and come to solve the issue.</p> <p>Besides “silencing opponents”, another way to reach women is to create a welcoming surrounding for women who have to take care of their children and the household. This is done by choosing family-friendly settings for training session, awareness campaigns and community meetings, etc. If the women can easily reach such events, thanks to available transportation, times not colliding with sleeping hours of the children and – especially at the beginning – female-only spaces to be able to speak freely, a high number of female participants is likely (IV: 06 - GIZ 1/14/2019).</p> <p>Besides engaging in empowering women, further GIZ projects in Jordan are to improve and increase vocational training and handcraft jobs. It is best to create jobs and increase employment, so people can be less depending on remittances. Thus, GIZ tries to raise reputation of training professions, also among parents at school events. Further, vocational training is adapted to the labour market and labour market platforms are created to match job seekers with companies. Further, GIZ offers trainings for those working in CfW initiatives and support them to receive work permits in order to facilitate Syrians to get a full-time job.</p> |
| 3.1 | Exclusion of labour market and common facilities | Facing restrictions that “ordinary citizens” do not, such as freedom of movement and the right to work, affects the economy of a refugee camp negatively (Werker 2007). When refugees and IDPs face exclusion from labour markets, have no or limited access to educational facilities and health services, they have to use negative coping mechanisms. Thus, refugees face economic exploitation, arrest and detention, among others (UNHCR 2014a; Jamal 2003). |
| 3.2 | Power struggles with government | <p>If no suitable legislative environment, hence right to work, exists in the host country, it is very difficult to implement successful livelihood programmes (UNHCR 2005, Book One, p. 10). A fundamental challenge is their deprivation of human rights, because not being able to rely on these rights means to have only limited opportunities to become self-reliant (Azorbo 2011, p. 5).</p> <p>Government regulations might prevent refugees from accessing land for productive purposes, natural resources or deny them access to markets and financial services, etc. (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 26). When refugees do not have legal access to much needed natural resources, they are likely to engage in illegal activities or unsustainable use of natural resource, for instance through exploitative farming practices or unsustainable harvesting of woodland (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 27).</p> |
| 3.3 | Illegal market | Refugees (and locals) sometimes find no other possibility for surviving than engaging in illegal or involuntary livelihood activities, such as smuggling, stealing or prostitution (Jacobsen 2002, p. 96). This ‘behaviour’ puts the refugees’ and the region’s security at stake and evokes tension between hosts and refugees. |

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| 3.4 | Lack of basic needs | <p>Refugees arrive at camps often without any possessions (Jahre et al. 2018). Without initial assets, like skills, access to financial capital and physical health, refugees cannot increase their options to safe and productive work. Too often, refugees lack such assets from the start or due to protracted displacement. (UNHCR 2014a).</p> <p>Malnutrition or poor nutrition have high economic costs as the cycle of poverty is prolonged (Mottaghi 2018). Poor nutrition as well as poor water and sanitation leads to poor physical health and well-being (Mottaghi 2018; Cronin et al. 2008). Poor physical health leads to low productivity and high rates of disease. Overcrowded shelters, lack of healthy food, safe drinking water and poor hygiene lead to respiratory and communicable disease, especially for children under five, elderly and women. Further, children suffering from malnutrition, tend to suffer also from wasting and stunting as well as other cognitive deficiencies. Cognitive deficiencies lead to lower level of education which can be followed by lower payments or no employment at all. Low salaries result in the inability to provide for the basic needs, meaning malnutrition, lack of resilience and negative coping mechanisms, which include survival sex, child labour, early and forced marriage (UNHCR 2014a; Mottaghi 2018). Generations can become trapped in a vicious cycle. The social costs, including welfare systems, where available and loss in human capital, are high – for the local, but also the global communities. Cronin et al focusing on water and sanitation elaborated similar relationships between insufficient provision of basic needs and an increase of malnutrition, morbidity and mortality (Cronin et al. 2008).</p> <p>Crowded and noisy living situations and thus hampered routines such as bathing, studying, eating or sleeping can impede with working hours (Ekren 2018).</p> |
| 3.5 | CfW is not sustainable | <p>Initiatives, such as cash-for-work programmes, were designed to prevent uninterrupted long-term unemployment; however, people employed by organisations are rarely able to build sustainable livelihoods as employment is only short term and local minimum wages are paid (Del Carpio et al. 2018; Women's Refugee Commission 2009, pp. 58, 71), Chapter 2.5.5 Programme planning).</p> |
| 3.6 | Benefits of livestock | <p>For people all over the world animals are of enormous importance to generate income, to serve as mean of transport, for security and cultural activities (Pollock 2018; Alshawawreh 2018). For refugees in particular, keeping animals can improve people's health and well-being as well as have positive psychological effects, besides being a source of food and a commodity (Owczarczak-Garstecka 2018). Especially for encamped refugees situated in the desert (e.g., Sahrawi refugees in Algeria), the only mean to live self-sufficiently is by living (their traditional) nomadic practices (Angeloni and Carr 2018). Losing livestock is a tragedy to displaced pastoralists (Jacobsen 2002, p. 107). Restocking cattle is priority, but often impossible, as well as keeping it alive. Encampment and thus, enforced sedentarism, disrupts nomadic lifestyles, leading, for instance, to high rates of anaemia, especially among children and women of childbearing age. Reasons therefore are underfunding, malnourishment and UNHCR food baskets, which are based on calories not on a balanced diet.</p> <p>As human welfare is the priority, animals are hardly part of planning humanitarian assistance, especially in camp design. Appropriate shelters are not part of the design of refugee camps, veterinarians and vaccination programmes are not available in the camp or are unaffordable (Hoots 2018; Alshawawreh 2018). Hygienic facilities for slaughtering animals and preparing meat are not provided, fodder, grazing land and water sources are inadequate or insufficient, etc. (Owczarczak-Garstecka 2018; Hoots 2018; Pollock 2018; Alshawawreh 2018; Jacobsen 2002, p. 107). Ignoring the existence of animals and their needs in refugee situations leads to a series of problems. Animals of refugees die in host communities or camps due to poor health and fodder conditions, leaving refugees without any means (Pollock 2018). Unsuitable shelter situations, proximity to overcrowded human shelters and unhygienic slaughter conditions can cause an increase in animal diseases and the transmission of certain illnesses to humans (Owczarczak-Garstecka 2018). Further, animals can be exposed to new diseases or carry new diseases to which local animals are not immune (Owczarczak-Garstecka 2018). Tension with the host community disrupts in many refugee situations due to damaged crops by the refugee animals or degraded grazing areas and water sources (Hoots 2018).</p> |

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| | | <p>It depends on the camp and the management, how and if animals are integrated into a camp setting. Zaatari camp, for example, hosts chickens which are kept for food and income, donkeys and horses transport goods and people and birds are kept for a sense of home (Alshawawreh 2018). The animals are sheltered close to the residents' houses in a similar type of housing (corrugated sheets and canvas). In Azraq camp on the other hand, residents are not allowed to keep animals besides caged birds.</p> |
| 3.7 | Dependency of UN | <p>Gender and age vulnerability are often the result of displacement. Children who have lost their parents are at risk of forced labour, abduction or sexual abuse (Jacobsen 2002, p. 98). Not everybody is able to make a living. Individuals and households that also after the emergency phase are not able to become self-reliant must be supported on the long term with essential services, food and other supplies, integrating the emergency approach with the livelihood approach (UNHCR 2014a, pp. 4, 23-25, 2012). The challenge for the implementing partners is to identify vulnerable people.</p> <p>People injured or disabled by conflict and war (e.g., through land-mines) are less productive or perceived as less productive and quickly become a liability to households (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 33).</p> <p>Conversely, it can also be – supposedly – be beneficiary to refugees to not put efforts into rebuilding a new life or at least not revealing officially what efforts were invested to not run the risk of losing humanitarian assistance (Vriese 2006, pp. 12-13). In probably every camp setting, refugees can be found who present themselves as needier as they are, who defraud with the ration cards or split households into smaller groups to receive more aid to receive more aid.</p> <p>Refugees become dependent, because they are denied access to arable land, assets (tools, seeds, etc.) and natural resources (water) necessary to cultivate crops (Jacobsen 2002, p. 106). Then, during the often long going emergency phase, many refugees simply get used to depending on humanitarian aid. Thus, implementing microfinance programmes might not always be welcome or accepted as people have to pay back their loans, often including interest rates (Azorbo 2011, p. 5). This might be seen as unfair as more vulnerable people might still receive charity from organisations, leading to exploitation of microfinance programmes. Such exploitation might not always happen maliciously, as sometimes refugees simply get confused about loans and grants. The lack of knowledge leads to difficulties in differentiating between the two models, leaving some loan takers with repayment problems. Thus, microfinance institutions are likely to rank camps as high-risk investments not willing to engage in such locations (Azorbo 2011, pp. 5-6).</p> |
| 3.8 | Psychological problems | <p>Trauma, anxiety, despair and depression, among others, influence the general well-being and thus, the effectiveness of becoming self-reliant (Mottaghi 2018; UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 33). How can women suffering from SGBV engage in self-reliance without having their trauma nor their physical pain treated due to underfunding?</p> <p>Many refugees are deeply traumatised and feel constant sadness, not few even have suicidal thoughts (Chen 2018; Jahre et al. 2018). People with mental health issues often develop physical pain, such as headaches and chest pains. “The headaches happen because there is a lot of thinking”, describes a traditional healer in a Rohingya refugee camp to IRIN News. “They (note: his patients) describe that they feel scared all the time and that there’s the pain in their chest. I think it is happening because of the persecution they faced, the troubles that they have encountered, the loss of their things.”</p> <p>Mental health issues need time to heal before a person is able to find employment (Belghazi 2018).</p> |
| 3.9 | Dependent women | <p>In different societies, women are not meant to make a living (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 29). With the loss of a husband, many women also lose their identity. They are socially marginalised, face discrimination and difficulties regarding access to credit, aid supplies, assets or productive land and face a significant increase in economic burden (Jacobsen 2002, p. 98). Girls are often first taken out of school or face early marriage (Vriese 2006). Thus, teenage pregnancies are common (e.g., among Syrian girls and women in Jordan, four out of ten marriages are underage (HPC Jordan 2017, p. 2). For household-leading girls and women it can get difficult to engage in education and</p> |

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| | | <p>trainings or gain access to necessary resources or the labour market. They often do not have the time besides childcare and household activities to engage in livelihood activities. To replace the lost breadwinner of the family, some women remarry in order to survive (Al Ajlan 2018). Strategies to survive are commercial sex or forcing young daughters into early marriages.</p> |
| 3.10 | Vulnerability, SGBV | <p>Living in conflict areas is dangerous for women and girls as they are more vulnerable to sexual gender-based violence (SGBV). To avoid SGBV, some women do not dare to visit dangerous places and do not leave home after dark (Jacobsen 2002, p. 117; UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 31). Others find no other solution to survive or to provide for their children than forming alliances with soldiers or other men in power (Jacobsen 2002, pp. 98, 117). Such alliances expose them to HIV/AIDS, more abuse, abandonment by their sexual partners as well as expulsion from their own communities. Those women who are left pregnant or with a baby have often no power to complain or to receive adequate financial support (Kleinfeld 2018). Gender roles lead to unequal power (UNHCR 2012, p. 131). Thus, girls and women are predominantly affected by gender-based violence (SGBV), such as sexual exploitation and abuse, rape and domestic violence. Harming livelihood through SGBV can happen by e.g., preventing access to education or inheritance, destroying women's property or depriving money from them. A Congolese woman being raped and having fled to Uganda states that she is traumatised. "I am physically, emotionally and psychologically affected. I can't forget the terrible experience" (Okiror 2018b). Another woman says that she is incontinent, suffers pains in her abdomen and from a whitish secretion coming from her genitals after being raped. Nine out of 10 women fleeing from the violence wave in Ituri, DRC to Uganda have suffered rape or sexual violence states the article.</p> |
| 3.11 | Risks from livelihood projects | <p>Microcredit can empower women (Azorbo 2011, p. 3) as their access to economic opportunities, to health care and education for themselves and their children increase. This gives women confidence and well-being (Azorbo 2011, p. 7). However, microfinance does not automatically bring benefits to women – the implementation of microfinance programmes always needs to be supported by strengthening women's rights. Worse, giving out loans might backfire and endanger women's financial and personal physical security. Examples of gender-related risks are that debt can impoverish women, it can increase the already high burden on women or lead to negative mechanisms like prostitution in order to pay back loans. If women are granted access to loans more easily, suppressed women might be forced by their husbands or male relatives to get loans (Azorbo 2011, p. 7).</p> |
| 3.12 | Risks from livelihood activities | <p>Further, women and girls have to get themselves into dangerous situations, for example, by informally hawking goods on unsafe places (UNHCR 2012, p. 131). Aubone and Hernandez (2013) revealed a connection between the habits of civilians, like unaccompanied travelling and sexual violence due to insecurity outside the camp. Women and children who have to leave the camp for firewood, food and other resources are especially vulnerable to SGBV (Aubone and Hernandez 2013). However, they also found out that rapists find new opportunities when firewood gathering decreases.</p> |
| 3.13 | New role of men | <p>General causes for SGBV are manifold. For instance, can culture and tradition allow, or at least not prosecute, violence and discrimination against women. Men suffering from their loss of status or a feeling of uselessness, for instance due to power dynamics through displacement or women becoming breadwinners, get frustrated and vent their anger on the female household members. Reasons for domestic violence can also be power games on the household level, trying to maintain control over others (UNHCR 2012, p. 131). Further, SGBV might be increased when refugees are pushed into the informal economy without access to justice and legal recourses and where exploitation and abuse are more common or by depending on others to survive.</p> |
| 3.14 | Motivation to start again | <p>Some refugees tend to try reconstructing their old lives, not considering that this might be unrealistic (Belghazi 2018). Especially highly educated refugees desired to continue working in their professional fields (Mozetič 2018). For professional groups which are regulated by law, like medical doctors or teachers (rather than IT specialists, which account to non-regulated groups), this attempt is often challenging, especially when important documents are missing and hard, if not impossible, to regain.</p> |

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| | | <p>The dream of resettlement hinders many refugees throughout the world to invest in rebuilding their lives in their current location (Vriese 2006, p. 12); (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). This can happen up to a point, where refugees not only damage their own future but also the future of their children.</p> <p>As refugees see their life in a refugee camp as a temporary situation, many do not want to start something with a permanent character, such as a business (Azorbo 2011). Lacking the imagination of a future within a camp might hinder refugees to engage in livelihood activities (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 33). Microcredit provider fear their clients' traceless moving (Azorbo 2011).</p> <p>Where resettlement programmes exist, refugees can block themselves in becoming self-reliant as their minds are occupied completely by thoughts of resettling. Some refugees actively avoid engaging in livelihood activities as they do not want to risk their chances of resettlement. Surveys might be biased through false statements of refugees, making themselves more vulnerable in order to increase their chances for resettlement. UNHCR faces great difficulties in assessing the true scale of a situation (UNHCR 2012b, p. 17). But not only the place can be meant as temporary, also the state of mind can perceive the new situation as only temporary, leading to people postponing important stations of their lives as, e.g., weddings (McClelland 2014). Further, refugees can fear to be classified as settled, thus, jeopardising their right of being refugees and thus, returning home as in case of Palestinians (Achilli 2016, 2015a).</p> <p>Some refugees, especially from higher social classes, find it difficult to engage in activities which were carried out by citizens of lower social classes in their home countries (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 29). The same counts for men who refuse to carry out tasks which are traditionally tasks of women, like cooking or collecting firewood.</p> |
| 3.15 | Lack of education and skills | <p>Refugees with no or only basic education have more difficulties in finding employment than higher educated refugees (Bilgili and Loschmann 2018). Thus, poorly educated people have less income and are less productive as higher educated people, making it very hard to break out of poverty (Mottaghi 2018).</p> <p>This also counts for digital skills which are increasingly important for employment seekers (Peromingo and Pieterse 2018). They suggest that digital skills are correlated with people's level of education and not with, for instance, age and gender. When people with low socio-economic status and thus low level of digital skills are forcibly displaced, their chances to enter the host labour market are rather low, even if they are provided with access to the internet. With the time being, their chances to employment decrease further, as workplaces require employees to stay up-to-date with relevant technology. As education and training opportunities, but also communication services for refugees or general access to information (e.g., on housing, employment, legal rights) are also more and more technology-driven, it gets harder for people with low technology skills to ever catch up.</p> <p>Language barriers are also very often the reason for missed opportunities on higher level of education or employment in both formal and informal labour markets (Mottaghi 2018; Werker 2007).</p> |
| 3.16 | Information gaps | <p>Refugees might also not participate in the formal economy as they simply do not know how to obtain a work permit, how to apply for a job or even which jobs are available for them (Del Carpio et al. 2018). Strongly correlated to high transportation costs, is the gap of information regarding market prices and other important information for sellers, as refugees cannot learn (or it is rather difficult) about important information when he/she cannot travel to the market (Werker 2007).</p> |
| 3.17 | Market size and terms of trade | <p>(Werker 2007, pp. 8-9) compares a camp market with Adam Smith theory: Where markets are too small, people cannot specialise in what they can best – instead everyone has to take care and produce his/her own goods. But when every person builds his/her own house, grows his/her own food, grind his/her own grain and mend his/her own clothes, productivity and purchasing power remain low. This leads to low wages and that people cannot pay external market prices due to their low-income level and – in the case of a refugee camp, where managing organisations also function as employers – residents are paid less than their hosts. This situation, combined with restriction of movement and work, high transportation costs and information gaps, encamped refugees have difficulties to compete with outside markets and have to leave trade to few traders, who have the power to buy produce from refugees for less than</p> |

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| | | market average and sell them external products more expensive than for average (external) market prices. A Congolese shop owner in Kyangwali explained her situation the following: “Few traders come in from Hoima. They hike the price – they are not fair in pricing their stuff. They always like to take a lot of produce and when we compare the exchange with them it’s unfair. They are doing it to us because we don’t have means of looking for other markets.”(Werker 2007, p. 9) |
| 3.18 | Fragile places | Trying to establish, for instance, microfinance programmes in conflict affected areas, is difficult due to different reasons (Azorbo 2011, p. 3; Nagarajan 1997). On the one hand, there can be a general lack of confidence in the local government and in society often caused by uncertain, violent political and social circumstances as well as disrespect in law and order. On the other hand, the range of possibilities to engage in livelihood activities is low due to weak economies. Weak economies exist because of a lack of assets (that can be used as collateral), unstable governments, high insecurity as well as low foreign and domestic investments, which are mainly caused by the previous reasons (Jahre et al. 2018; Azorbo 2011; Nagarajan 1997). Land mines, destroyed infrastructure and insecurity limit livelihood activities severely, as it is difficult to access farming land, grazing areas, markets, etc., especially when there are no transportation means (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 33). Poor infrastructure in general make camp operations and especially their expansion difficult (Jahre et al. 2018). In such environments, people tend to focus rather on survival and short-term planning than on building long-term livelihood activities (Azorbo 2011, p. 3). In many countries, social networks and social institutions are the only way to engage successfully in livelihood activities. If such networks are destroyed through conflict or flight, it might become impossible to accumulate assets (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 33). In violent and/or very poor areas, the accumulation of assets or maximisation of profit and production attracts criminals and thieves, so refugees avoid producing more than needed for surviving. |
| 3.19 | Isolated refugees | Refugees often live isolated from host communities or far from work opportunities and thus have less access to basic amenities or cannot afford the travelling costs to the workplace (Azorbo 2011, p. 5; Bilgili and Loschmann 2018). Large groups of refugees are frequently found in rather poor countries (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, pp. 13-14). They are put in remote areas which are not part of national development plans. As the impact of refugees being hosted for a long time has big social and economic impacts on these areas, refugees face restrictive regulations and denial of human rights as well as xenophobia and discrimination (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, pp. 13-14). Living far away from cities and thriving markets means also that high transportation costs have to be paid when refugees want to sell on such markets (Werker 2007). When these costs exceed the potential earning of sales, people have to rely on external traders and middlemen, who they rely on. If business becomes unprofitable, refugees are excluded from any business outside camps, which leads to even further isolation. |
| 3.20 | Natural resources (limited) | Non-existent or too scarce natural resources create tension between host communities and refugees (Agblorti and Awusabo-Asare 2011). Agblorti and Awusabo-Asare (2011) interviewed indigenes close to the Krisan refugee settlement in Ghana who were not happy with refugees felling trees for fuelwood and the production of charcoal for sale as this led to deforestation. Where natural resources are limited and the quality of soil not appropriate for agriculture, agricultural and pastoral opportunities for refugees are low, no matter if legal issues are in favour for the refugees (Vriese 2006, p. 15). Still, refugees might try engage in agriculture, even if they have not the right to do so. When, additionally, they hope to return quickly, their farming practices might be unsustainable, damaging the soil unnecessarily. Such practices usually lead to tensions between hosts and refugees (Hovil and Werker 2001). When a high number of new inhabitants arrive at an area with already scarce natural resources, pressure on these resources grows. Deforestation, destruction of plant cover, water pollution, overburdened water supplies, over-fishing and overuse or destruction of rangeland by refugees’ livestock are all problems host communities face (Jacobsen 2002, p. 107). |
| 3.21 | Xenophobia | Xenophobia has taken over in many refugee situations, when the number of refugees increase over time, when host population feels a rise in economic competition with |

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| | | <p>refugees, or when host communities and refugees do not share gender norms and culture. Refugees experience this xenophobia in discrimination by local authorities, higher fees, rents and bribes from landlords, landowners, employers or public services (UNHCR 2012, p. 39). Integration is not desired by the host community, even if refugees live in the host country for a long period of time (Kibreab 2003).</p> <p>Corresponding compliance and enforcement mechanisms - Granting refugees the right to work is a first step into the right direction. However, it is not enough if corresponding compliance and enforcement mechanisms are not in place (Zetter and Ruaudel 2018). In and around Rwandan refugee settlements, for instance, it is difficult for refugees to find employment besides their right to work (Bilgili and Loschmann 2018). The reason for this is that employers do lack knowledge of the refugees' right to work. Even if not required by law, potential employers demand identity papers which refugees cannot present. Consequently, refugees do not get the job they were applying for.</p> |
| 3.22 | Insecurity | <p>Reaching beneficiaries in conflicts is especially difficult when the area is insecure, as humanitarian organisations do not want to endanger their staff (ALNAP 2015, p. 47). Domestic violence, child labour, prostitution and begging are negative coping mechanisms for poor households or when under high pressure or stress. They can be highly influenced by force of culture or necessities, can change over time and expose refugees to different protection risks. Protection risks are manifold and not only affect people with no or little assets, but also people having assets as they might become targets of criminals and theft, especially when they do not have access to saving accounts or similar (UNHCR 2012b, pp. 43, 49, 89).</p> <p>Camps set up in poor areas are more likely to be targeted by bandits and criminals, as in camps "there are simply more items to steal, more people to rob and more women to rape in and around the camps [...]" (Crisp 2000, p. 20).</p> <p>Businesses are less successful in markets with little demand. Limited market demands can make it difficult to open businesses (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 121)</p> <p>Reasons for low local demand are, for instances, social division, distrust and conflicts. Conflicts decrease the security of small businesses. They also scare away potential entrepreneurs to make investments as well as microfinance institutions to start giving out loans. Many refugees can only make investments by using loans of microfinance institutions.</p> <p>Werker (2001) even elucidated random beatings and arbitrary behaviour regarding movement permissions in Ugandan camps. Here refugees could often not sell their crops generated inside the camps, because they could not rely on receiving the necessary exit permits.</p> |
| 3.23 | Proper planning | <p>Livelihood programmes, which are poorly designed, limited in scale and/or are not aligned with government institutions, might fail getting formally recognised (Del Carpio et al. 2018). These results in refugees earning diplomas which they cannot use for formal job seeking or obtaining legal work permits.</p> <p>Even if refugees have the right to obtain a work permit, it is not only given that they can receive it, as administrative processes can be costly and burdensome (Zetter and Ruaudel 2018). Some countries, like Lebanon and Zambia, ask refugees for residence permits and/or job offers from employers, in Pakistan local partners are required to obtain real estate, Ecuador and Turkey allow only limited access to financial institutions to obtain loans and Zambia asks for high fees to start a business. South Africa, according to Zetter and Ruaudel, slow down access to formal labour markets and Venezuela has opened its immigration offices in remote areas which are hard to access.</p> |
| 3.24 | Move and work freely | <p>Another obstacle to participate in external market opportunities can be obtaining permits to leave the camp (Werker 2007). In the case of Kyangwali Refugee Settlement in Uganda, studied by Werker (2007, p. 5), refugees could acquire a permit to leave to camp only twice a week and refugees could not be sure to obtain a permit when visiting the commander's office at one of these days, making it very difficult to plan ahead regarding profit making business opportunities.</p> <p>To obtain a working permit, refugees in Uganda had to travel to Kampala, the country's capital (Werker 2007). Before travelling, they had to get a travel permit from the commander of the settlement. Further, they had to make sure to come back before the permit expires. Besides being time restricted, obtaining a work permit was also costly,</p> |

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| | | <p>not only due to the costs of the permit, but also because of high travelling costs. These hurdles hindered many refugees to obtain legal opportunities to work.</p> <p>Further, Werker (2007, pp. 6-7) discusses the freedom of speech, another human right. Refugees in Uganda were frequently transferred out of the camp when trying to empower themselves. Thus, many refugees did not dare to speak up for their rights or to express disapproval regarding disadvantages for their business opportunities, like seemingly arbitrary collection of taxes in the camp.</p> |
| 3.25 | Social capital (access) | As already identified for the CPI system, social capital and ethnic or linguistic ties can facilitate access to the labour market significantly (Zetter and Ruauadel 2018). |
| 3.27 | Host labour markets under pressure | In many countries, the access to labour markets for refugees is limited as the host labour market is already under stress. When high numbers of refugees enter the country, constraints to the labour markets are built or increased (Zetter and Ruauadel 2018). The Turkish economy, for example, has an unemployment rate of 19% in 2017 (youth unemployment rate even around 19%) (Del Carpio et al. 2018). Areas hosting a high number of refugees are even more disadvantaged on average as they, besides even higher unemployment rates, suffer from a lower density of formal businesses, a lower net formal job creation, less educated population as well as lower labour force participation than the country's average. |
| 3.28 | Budget constraints | <p>One of the biggest challenges, organisations such as UNHCR face are short-term relief interventions including short-term budgeting and measures. To give refugees access to livelihood opportunities, agencies need to transform its culture, allowing refugees to help themselves as quickly as possible as experience shows that refugees depending on aid for a long time have more difficulties in becoming self-reliant. Refugees who quickly become self-reliant to a certain degree can obtain assets and access opportunities quicker and more sustainable (UNHCR 2014a).</p> <p>Many refugee situations, as, e.g., the crisis of Congolese refugees fleeing to Uganda, are underfunded (Okiror 2018b). Governments and donors cannot keep up with the high number of refugees streaming into the host country. If added by scandals of mismanagement and exploitation, like the one of the Ugandan government in early 2018 which has exaggerated refugee figures (Okiror 2018a), donors are more unlikely to fund refugee situations. When underfunded, basic needs cannot be met such as proper medical treatment (Okiror 2018b), yet alone well planned livelihood programmes (Jamal 2003).</p> <p>Funding sufficiency for conflict settings reached a new low (ALNAP 2015, pp. 46-47). The volume of funding still grows, but the funding needed grows exponentially faster (ALNAP 2015, p. 49). Long-running crises, where assistance is needed for many years, face more difficulties in generating funding as competition about donor priorities is high (ALNAP 2015, p. 69). For instance, the response right after typhoon Hayan hit Philippines was very high, but when it came to restoring housing and livelihoods, considerable funding gaps appeared, as donors prioritise this kind of aid less (ALNAP 2015, p. 80). In addition, crises touching national security interests of donor countries have higher possibilities in achieving necessary funding. Nonetheless, chronic emergencies with a multi-year humanitarian funding exist, witnessing better planning and longer-term programming.</p> |
| 3.29 | Lack of data | <p>Even if UNHCR has increased its budget for livelihood activities, it has reached only a small percentage of refugees (UNHCR 2014a). The agency sees its biggest gap in acquiring and assessing available data related to the refugees and host economies to better target relevant interventions, select partners, monitor and evaluate stronger and in the long term. Organisations often do not understand wider market contexts. Such a lack of data also prevents training providers to design useful programmes (Del Carpio et al. 2018; Omata 2018). UNHCR and its partners as well as other NGOs try to overcome these hurdles by better understanding market dynamics (Ayoubi and Saavedra 2018). They aspire to generate more targeted, market-based and results-oriented programming. For instance, training that does not meet market demands, is hardly improving the refugees' welfare (Werker 2007).</p> <p>Initiatives, such as the Strengthening Economic Opportunities for Syrians under Temporary Protection and Host Communities in Turkey, were established to fill this gap – it is a data-based system assessing employers' demand for occupations and skills focusing on Turkish provinces where refugee numbers are greatest (Del Carpio et al.</p> |

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| | | 2018). Thus, training providers can design their programmes related to the actual demand of employers. The approach UNHCR has taken globally are presented in Chapter 2.7 – UNHCR approach regarding Livelihood and Self-reliance. If these adjusted approaches really bring the promised changes has to be analysed in a couple of years. |
| 3.30 | Differences within collaboration partners | When UNHCR or other organisations engage private companies, such as microfinance institutions for loans or suppliers of microwork, the different perspectives of the two entities might collide as UNHCR sees the refugees as beneficiaries and private companies as clients or employees, depending on their purpose (Azorbo 2011, p. 17). Thus, the refugees’ needs might not been met accordingly. |
| 3.31 | Field officer’s mindsets | Even if UNHCR requests consistency, field manager not always meet these requirements. One of the reasons might be that there are no or not enough templates for livelihood programmes. The required assessments and analyses are outlined, but not strictly dictated. Providing templates might be difficult as every refugee situation is different. However, every person understands and interprets the guidelines and documents differently, focusing on other activities or engaging different partners (UNHCR 2012b, p. 17). Nonetheless, development programmes bring direct benefits to host communities and refugees. Refugees must be able to provide food, water, shelter, personal safety, health and education for themselves and not through donations (UNHCR 2005, Appendix One, p. 14). One of the reasons why this change towards more self-reliance takes so many years is the staff’s fear that the switch from receiving aid to becoming self-sufficient might reduce own employment potential within operations (UNHCR 2005, Book 2, p. 30). Working with the different reports and guidelines has brought many insights regarding UNHCR’s livelihood strategy. However, the documents are rarely cross-referenced and each document has a completely different structure. In order to follow more than one document at once, field management would have to work thoroughly with the different reports and guidelines to build a detailed strategy for the situation on-site. Such an approach requires also building new checklists and assessment templates. These tasks are time-consuming and seem rarely feasible as work in refugee camps often signifies firefighting. |
| 3.32 | Field officer's background | Many humanitarian actors do not seem to be engaged in developing strategies at higher levels, they have weak linkages to governments and development actors and lack communication on that stage (ALNAP 2015, p. 85). Reasons therefore might be that humanitarians do not fully understand the political agendas, lack of strings to powerful and influential politicians and actors or are not invited to participate in important debates. Trying to get access can be dangerous and put humanitarians at risk. It can also question independence, impartiality and neutrality, leading to loss of access to the affected population (ALNAP 2015, p. 89). Many organisations are not equipped properly to plan, design and implement self-reliance activities, trainings and workshops. Their key competencies are traditional humanitarian aid and not livelihood activities. |
| 3.33 | Political backing | Not everybody agrees that investing in livelihood activities in refugee camps is a task for humanitarian organisations. ALNAP report, for instance, does not specify livelihood activities in its report, but it does demarcate traditional crisis response from building resilience to which self-reliance can be accounted to (ALNAP 2015, pp. 47, 53). Resilience programming means to “break out of the reactive cycle of humanitarian action and build local capacity to prepare for, withstand and mitigate the effects of crises” (ALNAP 2015, p. 80). When funding is already insufficient, should building resilience be a central point stretching funds for traditional humanitarian aid even more? Especially as it is harder to draw a clear line between development and relief aid, governmental work and humanitarian action and becomes highly political. If there is no political backing at higher level regarding self-reliance and livelihood programmes, the chances for success are very limited (Vriese 2006). |
| 4.1 | Infrastructure Programme planning Basic needs | For the first time the planning and design of a refugee camp included separate market areas fur businesses (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 8). Further, the whole settlement is subdivided into three villages (1, 2 and 3). Each village has a certain number of neighbourhoods consisting of multiple 28-house compounds. Each compound has a centrally located solar light post, water tank and space for kitchen gardens. Besides this |

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| | | <p>infrastructure, the settlement is also built more spatial. The kitchen gardens were used by 458 households in August 2017.</p> <p>The Kalobeyei Integrated Social and Economic Development Programme (KISEDPP) seeks to implement ‘(1) Sustainable integrated service delivery and skills development; (2) Spatial planning and infrastructure development; (3) Agriculture and livestock; (4) Private sector and entrepreneurship’. The EU’s Regional Development and Protection Programme (RDPP) contributed with 15 million Euros to ‘enhance self-reliance opportunities and integrated service delivery’ on ‘evidence-based, innovative and sustainable actions’ (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 6). The programme is meant to consider the host community equally to the refugees. The programme’s overall objectives are to catalyse sustainable development and improve protection for refugees and the host communities through an integrated settlement area, where people live in a peaceful co-existence, share social services and develop economic ties to build livelihoods that are sustainable (EC Europe 2016). These goals are meant to be achieved by improving health standards, ensure food and nutrition security, increase school enrolment of children, improve safety and wellbeing of children, enhance economic resilience and well-being and increase social cohesion as well as reduce conflict over resources. Each goal is meant to affect the population in and around Kalobeyei. The logic behind this 15 million programme is ‘by improving protection, enhancing self-reliance opportunities and integrated service delivery and building the capacity of local authorities to deliver such services, refugees and their host communities will benefit from a safer and more favourable environment, increasing their livelihoods opportunities sustainably and decreasing the incentives for irregular secondary movements.’ (EC Europe 2016).</p> |
| 4.2 | Crises affected countries | <p>However, due to emergency assistance for newly arriving South Sudanese and the possibility of closing Dadaab camp, the initial plans could not be implemented as foreseen (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 6).</p> <p>National and international stakeholders agreed to build a self-reliant settlement when planning Kalobeyei. However, the self-reliance approach changed to ‘emergency provision’ as South Sudanese refugees arrived in great numbers in Kenya (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 44).</p> |
| 4.3 | Subjective well-being | <p>The overall subjective well-being of refugees in Kalobeyei is rather negative (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 12). This feeling is influenced negatively, when refugees have lived a better life before their flight or they came to the settlement on false promises.</p> |
| 4.4 | Lack of basic needs | <p>Further, food security is rather low with refugees eating on average 1.8 meals per day as is the availability of cooking fuel. However, due to Bamba Chakula, the diversity of the diet is better than in the neighbouring Kakuma camp (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 13).</p> <p>Access of public goods, which include healthcare, education, water, sanitation, transport, security and aid, have a great impact on the level of self-reliance. Probably due to the unplanned influx of South Sudanese, access to public goods is limited to the refugees in Kalobeyei (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 20). The number of clinics is limited, received care inadequate. Rural dispensaries are mainly unstocked and inadequately staffed. One of the biggest challenges is lack of adequate water with long queuing times and shortages for agricultural activities (Betts et al. 2018a, pp. 21-22). Tension between the local population and refugees is common when the latter use hand-dug shallow wells of the Turkana, but also because some host community members think their access to water is handled secondary to that of the refugees, even if the overall water situation already improved.</p> <p>Also, the level of education is not satisfying, yet. Overall school attendance in Kalobeyei and Kakuma is about 88.6%, with Kakuma rating better (Betts et al. 2018a, pp. 22-23). As schools have to accommodate refugee and host community children, classrooms with more than 300 students exist. Not every village has its own school; hence, refugees established informal schools with voluntary teachers. Nevertheless, for some the schooling situation improved – South Sudanese stated that the school situation is now better than it was in their war-like home country. Also, the level of adult education is better in Kakuma than in Kalobeyei (50% in Kakuma, between 5% and 30% in Kalobeyei, depending on ethnic group).</p> |

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| | | <p>Electricity is another public good which achieves only small rates of coverage (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 24). As agencies do not provide electricity in Kenya, only between 2% and 7.2% of households have access to this good.</p> <p>The (job) market situation, the low level of public goods and the problems refugees face regarding their kitchen gardens lead to a high dependency on external aid, mostly on food rations coming from organisations (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 24). Without changes in the system, this dependency is unlikely to decrease.</p> <p>Most refugees own a mobile phone, even if the number of women owning a mobile phone is generally lower than their male counterpart (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 33). Contacts in Kalobeyei are made mostly to people living in Kenya or in the refugees' home countries. Email addresses are also used by refugees, but to a much lower degree. One of the reasons for this is the low degree of access to the internet or to computers – in 2017 there was no internet café in Kalobeyei. Another reason is that especially women do not even have an email address.</p> |
| 4.5 | Access to livelihood assets | In terms of assets, refugees have only very few assets, although almost everyone has an own mobile phone. South Sudanese had to flee without warning, so this group also has the smallest number of assets, whereas refugees settling from Dadaab or Kakuma camp managed to bring some assets (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 15). |
| 4.6 | Community-based associations | The study reports that – besides a low participation of men – the participation of women in leisure and community-based associations is very low. The groups which are most visited are those offering access to health and education. |
| 4.7 | Too low salaries in camps | About 80% of the refugees generate an income by working for the UN or a NGO. They accept these rather low salaries due to the difficulties they face in obtaining a class M work permit with which full salary could be received. Concerning ethnic groups, especially Burundians are more engaged in income-generating activities, because they tend to be employed by other Burundians. However, their payment is below average (USD 22 for Burundian refugees, overall median USD 39). |
| 4.8 | Low development and high competitiveness of camp markets | Even with Kalobeyei being a planned settlement specifically to promote self-reliance, two years after its foundation the level of self-reliance is low (Betts et al. 2018a, pp. 17-18). Reasons for this are – very probably – the unexpected influx of South Sudanese and therefore the (interim) transition to emergency assistance, but also the low level of development and competitiveness of the markets in the camp. |
| 4.9 | Limited natural resources | <p>Self-reliance can also mean to produce food even if it is only meant for personal consumption. In Kalobeyei, kitchen gardens are part of the settlement design in order to improve the level of self-reliance. However, only 26% of the refugees interviewed by Betts et al. (2018) is involved in agriculture, most of them having a kitchen garden. The biggest obstacles for producing food are lack of water and seeds, lack of equipment and poor quality of soil (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 19).</p> <p>The environment plays a significant role regarding the well-being of refugees. Weather, soil and the location of a camp or a settlement have a major impact of the possibilities to become self-reliant. In Turkana County, where Kakuma and Kalobeyei are, the climate is arid, with poor quality of soil and scarce water resources (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 40).</p> |
| 4.10 | Power struggles - livestock | Keeping livestock is not allowed for refugees, even if experienced. Reasons are to avoid tensions with Turkana people who live nomadic lives. |
| 4.11 | Creating purchasing power through cash-based interventions | Due to the Bamba chakula programme, refugees receive monthly credit on their phones which they can spend at registered shops (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 25). This programme makes the refugees to consumers instead of being recipients and led to the development of several commercial markets in a short period of time. Nonetheless, only 16 refugees from Kalobeyei and 16 refugees from Kakuma (as well as 29 Kenyan hosts) are registered as traders. On the one hand, WFP restricts traders to register to prevent the number of shops exceeding demand. This way, new traders can compete with existing businesses and everyone can make a profit. On the other hand, WFP does not control the prices of Bamba Chakula items, as it advocates 'free market' principles. Thus, some refugees sell cheaper than their host counterparts, which leads to tensions between the traders (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 26). Besides Bamba Chakula also cash-based shops have opened informally and are run by refugees as well as Turkana hosts. |

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| 4.12 | Restricting markets for refugees | Refugees also face restrictions in the production of certain items, such as livestock and forest resources or brewing alcohol, as these are reserved for the host communities. |
| 4.13 | Cultural norms | Even if the job opportunities are very limited in Kalobeyei, especially women do not seek employment as they are fully engaged in domestic work and childcare activities (43% women) or are studying (12% women, 57% men) (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 27). |
| 4.14 | Lack of (access to) financial means | For those, who would like to start a business, the most important obstacles is lack of access to credit and finance. Only about 1.2% of the interviewed refugees have a loan from a bank, a MFI, a private lender or a friend/family member (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 28). |
| 4.15 | Social capital - missing family members | Refugees separated from family members often face manifold disadvantages regarding self-reliance. Not only can separation lead to severe trauma, but also to the loss of the former breadwinner or simply to help in agricultural, domestic or childcare activities. About half of the South Sudanese adults interviewed by Betts et al. (2018) lost their spouse, making it – especially for women – hard to survive (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 31). Further, the level of remittances is low in Kakuma as well as in Kalobeyei. Betts et al. estimate that one reason, especially for South Sudanese, is the low level of resettled refugees (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 32). |
| 4.16 | Social capital (access) | Even if refugees are not allowed to move freely in Kenya, they are allowed to move freely between Kakuma and Kalobeyei, which many use as survival strategy (Betts et al. 2017; Betts et al. 2018a, p. 34). They visit narrow or extended networks, engage in businesses with people from the other settlement or simply visit family and friends. |
| 4.17 | Demographics | <p>The characteristics of the inhabitants of a camp are an important factor regarding the economic development of the camp. Major factors are the date of arrival, age, gender, language skills as well as educational and business background of the refugees. People tend to seek livelihood activities in the work they were engaged before arrival, as this is what they know best (examples and sources).</p> <p>In the study of Betts et al. (2018, p. 35), the South Sudanese in Kakuma had the highest educational level with five years of education on average. Only about 20% of all people have attended school for more eight years or more. Ethiopians in Kalobeyei came rather from business background, whereas South Sudanese and Burundians came from farming. Women from the regions of which most refugees come from stop education early and take over household activities or get married (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 36).</p> <p>About 80% of the refugees from South Sudan or Burundi engaged in farming, livestock activities or fishing before flight and come from a background with lower socio-economic status (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 37). In contrast, especially Somali Ethiopians had their own businesses in Dadaab, where they were living for many years. By using a regression model, Betts et al. found out positive correlation between skills, the years of education, vocational training in the past and the ability to speak Swahili on the one side and the likeliness of having an employment on the other side. This does not count for being engaged in agricultural activities. Rather, those refugees take care of a kitchen garden in Kalobeyei who formerly worked in the agricultural sector (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 38).</p> <p>Probably not surprising have those people a higher variety of food who are engaged in agriculture and/or are economically active. In addition, women have a more varied diet than men and refugees living in Kalobeyei than in Kakuma, especially Ethiopians (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 39). On influential factor is probably the Bamba Chakula system in Kalobeyei.</p> |
| 4.18 | Understanding power dynamics | The relationship between the host community and the refugees is difficult. Reasons are limited interaction between both groups and the employment situation, especially when refugees get jobs instead of locals or – worse – when locals get replaced by refugees. Some Turkana also feel excluded from the Bamba Chakula programme, even if some of them are included in the Hunger Safety Net Programme which is based on socio-economic indicators assessed by the National Drought Management Authority. For many refugees, the typical person counting to the group of host community belongs to the Turkana and is a 'traditional' pastoralist with a semi-nomadic lifestyle (Betts et al. 2018a, pp. 41-43). They are rarely seen as good or trustworthy. Further, the cultural differences nurture misunderstandings and are an obstacle for integration, even though only half of the refugees think integration as being important. However, for social and economic development, integration plays a significant role. |

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| | | <p>Some refugees buy local products from Turkana, like charcoal, firewood, construction materials, but only if they do not know the local plants (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 42). Lotuko and Didinga people of South Sudan are more accustomed to the plant variety of the region and thus are capable to obtain them by themselves. This 'self-service attitude' calls feelings of resentment in locals.</p> <p>In contrast to rural Turkana, the opinion of urban Turkana regarding refugees is rather better as they benefit more from refugees, the presence of organisations and refugee markets (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 42).</p> <p>In Kakuma, there is a strong economic interaction between both groups. Urban Turkana sell their products on camp or WFP markets, locals are employed by refugees, refugees foster children from impoverished Turkana families and in general, both groups benefit from each other (Betts et al. 2018a, p. 41). As Kalobeyei is still a new settlement, such relationships do not (yet) or rarely exist.</p> <p>Interestingly, especially South Sudanese refugees men and Turkana women intermarry or rather intermarried. As South Sudanese men did not allow female family members to marry Turkana men, the relationship between both groups changed.</p> |
| 4.19 | No legal ownership of assets | <p>Not only this influx bears the blame, also the restriction on movement plays a major role in a low level of self-reliance as is shown by other scholars (Hartmann 2013a, p. 86; Werker 2007, p. 4). People who plan to stay in Kalobeyei are more motivated in building livelihoods than people who expect to resettle or relocate. Especially, because they have no legal ownership of the assets they invest in.</p> |
| 2.35 | Lack of coordination among organisations | <p>Interviewee no six has talked about the big challenges regarding coordination (IV: 06 - GIZ 1/14/2019). If organisations and especially donors exchanged information regarding their projects and initiatives and cooperated more, money and time could be saved. But each organisation is working on its own, not knowing what the others do. Regarding CfW projects, regular meetings with UNHCR and others exist, but, for instance, regarding gender, communication is very limited.</p> <p>Interviewee no. ten is disappointed because in his opinion there is not enough cooperation between the organisations. Because of that, many projects, like livelihood projects are not working and cannot work. For instance, regarding the plumbers project, all agreed to start in January, but some do, others start three months later, the rest starts five months later. The refugees see that the organisations could not agree on the plumbers project. They also see that different organisations treat problems differently. ACTED is paying for the plumbers, why is OXFAM not doing the same thing? Why is ACTED providing these things for free, whereas OXFAM asks the communities to pay for the same things? "The involved staff is participating in meetings, but still there are always delays and no real cooperation. NGOs look very bad in front of refugees...[...] All NGOs focus on money and media - who is most media attention looks like being the best. It does not matter what happens in reality, how well organisations cooperate, how they coordinate between them. Refugees in Zaatari camp or in the ITSs are not living bad. But the current level could have been achieved in 2015 or 2016, if there were not so many delays because of miss-coordination"(IV: 10 - NGO Zaatari Camp 1/15/2019).</p> |
| 2.36 | Lack of proper exit strategies | <p>Regarding Jordan, interviewee No. 6 fears that a quick drop out of international organisation and their donors would put Jordanians in a huge crisis and would not be sustainable (IV: 06 - GIZ 1/14/2019). Knowing that other crises are eventually more pressuring, leaving Jordan without a clear exit strategy could damage the country, the economy and its local and foreign citizens deeply.</p> |
| 2.37 | Lack of funding (government) | <p>Funding is an increasing issue for all humanitarian organisations - finding money and competing for it. However, the source of this money is the same for all (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018).</p> <p>Funding is also a challenge for governments. In the municipalities, ILO started with 100 workers and reduced this amount every two months by twenty as the first pile of rubbish was removed and citizens became aware of it and fouled less. According to the municipalities there would be no fund available when ILO pulls out. They could not even afford to employ sixty workers (IV: 08 - ILO 1/15/2019).</p> |
| 1.34 | Host labour markets under | <p>Displaced people are often happier to work for less than people who are permanently there (IV: 01 - Irish NGO 9/24/2018). The mixture between self-reliance and</p> |

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| | pressure by refugees | undermining or affecting markets and labour markets is a big factor, especially in regions like the Middle East. |
| 2.38 | Mismatch between labour markets and refugees skills | Interviewees no. two observed a mismatch between the labour market needs and the skills available of the refugees (IV: 02 - UNHCR Amman 9/26/2018). |
| 1.35 | Basic needs - Education | In Guinea, the Jesuit Refugee Services (JRS) tried to do trainings with some success. In Sierra Leone distance education was tested - a place in the camp with computers gave refugee students the possibility to study university courses while staying in the camp (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). |
| 2.39 | Child labour | In Jordan, including the camps, child labour is an issue. Interviewee no ten attended a lot of meetings, always discussing that child labour needs to stop. But, he states, nothing changes. One time he witnessed children cleaning police cars in Zaatar camp. They reported it to UNHCR. "UNHCR did talk to the police, but it happened again and again. Go to the black market, you will see so many children working"(IV: 10 - NGO Zaatar Camp 1/15/2019). He continues "NGOs are good with planning and creating new ideas, but they are really bad in taking action". All NGOs did against child labour is to raise awareness, but nothing more. Children work to support their families. If adults could make enough money, they would not send their children to work in restaurants or to farms. NGOs want this to stop, but, due to the interviewee, do not know how. In his opinion it would help to increase opportunities as well as monitoring of the markets. People, shop owners, have to be charged a fee when they hire children. |
| 1.36 | Cultural norms | Refugees are not different to any other grouping of people in that regard. "If you have a group of refugees, who are from a part of the world, where ethnic power relationships are very big then you see that in the refugees as well. If the gender roles are very big then you see that in the refugees and if well-status matter. Refugee women face the same as non-refugee women - it all depends on the context of culture and hierarchies of the group of people (IV: 05 - UNHCR Copenhagen 12/18/2018).Some people are rich, some are very poor. Some refugees manage to take their belongings or money, others have to leave everything behind. Some groups are bound to their home hierarchies, some are not. Some were fleeing from the civil conflict and had very little with them. Many were malnourished and needed supplementary feeding. Others clearly had access to finance and things (IV: 01 - Irish NGO 9/24/2018). |
| 1.37 | Exploitation(?) of aid | Tricky: food distributions - people understand and use quickly and well rules and regulations of registering for food distribution, they exploit such systems for their benefits. This makes it difficult for NGO staff to fairly distribute food rations (IV: 01 - Irish NGO 9/24/2018). |
| 1.38 | Global Compact | Regarding host communities, the UNHCR Global Compact hopefully creates a more synergetic relationship, because that is key (IV: 05 - UNHCR Copenhagen 12/18/2018). |
| 1.39 | Government policy | There is a clear link between what people can do and need to do and government policy as well as donor policy (IV: 05 - UNHCR Copenhagen 12/18/2018). Further, 200 to 300 quick impact projects (QIP) were financed in Mauritania to help resetting Mauritians who had fled to Senegal in '89. A financial budget line allowed field officers to quickly, sometimes in a couple of hours, finance a project generated by refugees themselves. They ask for support, like financing a small boat for fishing, so they can start working and be active. In countries where refugees are not allowed to work, such QIPs are limited to activities inside the camps. In the example of Mauritania, UNHCR negotiated painfully with the Mauritanian government to let these refugees come back. QIPs helped those returnees to start small business projects to give them the capacity of caring for themselves. The success rate was 60-65% two to three years after being initiated" (IV: 04 - UNHCR HQ 11/26/2018). Regarding Jordan, as a middle-income country, most international organisations would not be in the country if it wasn't for the Syrians. Most of the Syrians interviewee no eight has talked to do not want to go back to Syria as they have nothing left behind. In order to invest in their country, they need to save a lot of money before going back. In Jordan they are refugees, though having less money than before, at least they have some income. As many have found some kind of a job, they will stay here at least until the infrastructure is improved in Syria. If the organisations draw out, then for many there might not be another alternative than going back. To avoid that migrant workers |

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| | | take over some of the jobs which are now supported by the organisations, such as road construction by ILO, the Jordanians need to take over these sectors. |
| 2.40 | Budget constraints | Though the decrease of funding is accompanied by many problems, some interviewees agree that the investments made in Jordan, but especially for Zaatari, were high. Interviewee no. ten even states that it is time for the organisations to support people in other parts of the world who suffer more than the residents from Zaatari camp |

E: IIF – Analysis

The file “4. IIF_Evaluation of Results” on the data carrier (folder IIF) contains the Excel sheet which was used to calculate the results presented in Chapter 4.5.2 – IIF – Evaluation of Results.

The list below shows the overview of all power relationships which were identified in that chapter (Figures 25 to 35).

E: List of all power relationships for Evaluation of Results

| Number | Category | Form of Power | Superordinates | Subordinates |
|---------------|-----------------|----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| 1 | 1.1 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 2 | 1.2 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 3 | 1.3 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 5 | 2.1 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 18 | 4.5 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 20 | 5.1 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 21 | 5.2 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 22 | 5.3 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 23 | 6.1 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 27 | 6.5 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 29 | 7.1 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 30 | 7.2 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 32 | 7.4 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 33 | 7.5 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 34 | 7.6 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 37 | 8.3 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 38 | 8.4 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 42 | 8.8 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 63 | 11.8 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 64 | 11.9 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 65 | 11.10 | Action-environment | / | / |
| 43 | 8.9 | Authority | Headquarters | Field officers |
| 54 | 10.8 | Coercion | Donors | Government |
| 7 | 3.2 | Domination | Refugees | Refugee women |
| 7 | 3.2 | Domination | Hosts | Refugee women |
| 49 | 10.3 | Domination | Government | Refugees |
| 50 | 10.4 | Domination | Government | Refugees |
| 51 | 10.5 | Domination | Government | Field officers |
| 52 | 10.6 | Domination | Government | Field officers |
| 55 | 10.9 | Domination | Government | Field officers |
| 56 | 11.1 | Domination | Government | Field officers |
| 8 | 3.3 | Empowerment | Field officers | Refugee women |
| 8 | 3.3 | Empowerment | Refugee women | Refugee women |
| 9 | 3.4 | Empowerment | Field officers | Refugee women |

| Number | Category | Form of Power | Superordinates | Subordinates |
|--------|----------|-----------------|----------------|----------------|
| 9 | 3.4 | Empowerment | Refugee women | Refugee women |
| 10 | 3.5 | Empowerment | Field officers | Refugee women |
| 10 | 3.5 | Empowerment | Refugee women | Refugee women |
| 16 | 4.3 | Empowerment | Field officers | Refugees |
| 16 | 4.3 | Empowerment | Private sector | Refugees |
| 31 | 7.3 | Empowerment | Field officers | Refugees |
| 39 | 8.5 | Empowerment | Field officers | Refugees |
| 39 | 8.5 | Empowerment | Headquarters | Refugees |
| 39 | 8.5 | Empowerment | Donors | Refugees |
| 6 | 3.1 | Force | Refugees | Refugee women |
| 6 | 3.1 | Force | Hosts | Refugee women |
| 6 | 3.1 | Force | Field officers | Refugee women |
| 11 | 3.6 | Force | Refugees | Refugee women |
| 11 | 3.6 | Force | Hosts | Refugee women |
| 11 | 3.6 | Force | Field officers | Refugee women |
| 12 | 3.7 | Influence | Field officers | Refugee women |
| 12 | 3.7 | Influence | Government | Refugee women |
| 13 | 3.8 | Influence | Refugee women | Refugee women |
| 17 | 4.4 | Influence | Field officers | Refugees |
| 17 | 4.4 | Influence | Private sector | Field officers |
| 17 | 4.4 | Influence | Refugees | Private sector |
| 36 | 8.2 | Influence | Field officers | Refugees |
| 40 | 8.6 | Influence | Refugees | Refugees |
| 40 | 8.6 | Influence | Field officers | Refugees |
| 46 | 9.3 | Influence | Field officers | Refugees |
| 46 | 9.3 | Influence | Refugees | Refugee women |
| 61 | 11.6 | Influence | Refugees | Refugees |
| 61 | 11.6 | Influence | Field officers | Refugees |
| 61 | 11.6 | Influence | Hosts | Refugees |
| 62 | 11.7 | Influence | Refugees | Refugees |
| 62 | 11.7 | Influence | Field officers | Refugees |
| 62 | 11.7 | Influence | Hosts | Refugees |
| 35 | 8.1 | Manipulation | Refugees | Field officers |
| 14 | 4.1 | Marginalisation | Government | Refugees |
| 14 | 4.1 | Marginalisation | Field officers | Refugees |
| 14 | 4.1 | Marginalisation | Hosts | Refugees |
| 15 | 4.2 | Marginalisation | Field officers | Refugees |
| 4 | 1.4 | Power-over | Hosts | Refugees |
| 4 | 1.4 | Power-over | Field officers | Refugees |
| 4 | 1.4 | Power-over | Refugees | Refugees |
| 19 | 4.6 | Power-over | Government | Refugees |
| 19 | 4.6 | Power-over | Field officers | Refugees |
| 24 | 6.2 | Power-over | Government | Refugees |

| Number | Category | Form of Power | Superordinates | Subordinates |
|---------------|-----------------|----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| 24 | 6.2 | Power-over | Field officers | Refugees |
| 25 | 6.3 | Power-over | Government | Refugees |
| 26 | 6.4 | Power-over | Government | Refugees |
| 28 | 6.6 | Power-over | Government | Refugees |
| 41 | 8.7 | Power-over | Government | Refugees |
| 44 | 9.1 | Power-over | Government | Refugees |
| 44 | 9.1 | Power-over | Field officers | Refugees |
| 44 | 9.1 | Power-over | Donors | Refugees |
| 45 | 9.2 | Power-over | Government | Refugees |
| 45 | 9.2 | Power-over | Field officers | Refugees |
| 45 | 9.2 | Power-over | Donors | Refugees |
| 47 | 10.1 | Power-over | Field officers | Refugees |
| 47 | 10.1 | Power-over | Refugees | Field officers |
| 48 | 10.2 | Power-over | Field officers | Refugees |
| 48 | 10.2 | Power-over | Refugees | Field officers |
| 53 | 10.7 | Power-over | Field officers | Field officers |
| 57 | 11.2 | Power-over | Field officers | Refugees |
| 58 | 11.3 | Power-over | Headquarters | Field officers |
| 58 | 11.3 | Power-over | Headquarters | Refugees |
| 59 | 11.4 | Power-over | Government | Field officers |
| 60 | 11.5 | Power-over | Field officers | Refugees |
| 66 | 11.11 | Power-over | Donors | Headquarters |