Università degli Studi di Padova

Dipartimento di Scienze Storiche, Geografiche e dell'Antichità

Dipartimento di Filosofia, Sociologia, Pedagogia e Psicologia Applicata (FISPPA)

Corso di Laurea Magistrale in Local Development

Rethinking temporary shelter and settlements through participatory design: a proposal for the Samos Closed Controlled Access Centre

Supervisor: Prof. Alessio Surian

Candidate: Sofia Da Riva

Registr. number: 2029012

ACADEMIC YEAR 2020/21

Declaration of Originality

The candidate declares that the present work is original and has not already been submitted, totally or in part, for the purposes of attaining an academic degree in other Italian or foreign universities.

The candidate also declares that all the materials used during the preparation of the thesis have been explicitly indicated in the text and in the section "Bibliographical references" and that any textual citations can be identified through an explicit reference to the original publication.

Sofia Da Riva

Abstract

Quello di campo profughi è un concetto che si materializza nell'immaginario comune come un insediamento temporaneo, inserito in un contesto di emergenza della durata massima di qualche anno. Da questa idea fallace deriva una gestione e una pianificazione dei campi profughi focalizzata sul breve periodo, che non sempre tiene in considerazione il reale ciclo di vita dei campi profughi e delle dinamiche che li abitano. La progettazione partecipata è un approccio che, applicato a questo contesto, permette di trasformare il sito coinvolgendo coloro che lo abitano nei processi di progettazione, modifica e adattamento delle strutture per sviluppare un senso di ownership sulle loro vite e sul luogo che in quel momento identificano come casa.

Nel 2021 il governo greco, con il sostegno della Commissione Europea, ha aperto a Samos un centro di accoglienza, definito Closed Controlled Access Centre. Per la progettazione e la gestione del campo è stato utilizzato un approccio top-down, basato su uno stretto controllo da parte delle autorità locali. Il lavoro di tesi intende delineare una proposta per attuare un approccio partecipativo nel ripensamento delle strutture e degli spazi del campo da parte dei suoi abitanti.

Table of contents

List of tables, figures and boxes

Tables

Figures

Boxes

Acronyms

AGDM: Age, Gender and Diversity Mainstream

ASF: Advocats Sans Frontières

CBA: Community-Based Approach

CCAC: Closed Controlled Access Center

FCRM: Feedback and Complaints Response Mechanism

GBV: Gender-Based Violence

GIS: Geographic Information Systems

IDP: Internally Displaced Person

IOM: International Organization for Migration

MSF: Médecins Sans Frontières

PD: Participatory Design

RHU: Refugee Housing Unit

RIC: Reception and Identification Centers

RIS: Reception and Identification Services

UEAA: European Union Agency for Asylum

UNHCR: United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

VR: Virtual Reality

Preface

Refugee camp is a concept that materializes in the common imagination as a temporary settlement, placed within an emergency context lasting a maximum of a few years. From this conception derives a management and planning of refugee camps focused on the short term, which does not always take into consideration the actual life cycle of refugee camps and the dynamics that inhabit them.

Although practically all refugee camps arise as temporary emergency settlements, having an average lifespan of 17 years as noted by the United Nations, they are then naturally led to change and transform themselves over time. Despite this, the transformations that occur naturally within the camp are not sufficient to guarantee adequate living standards for residents, who are therefore forced to live for years in precarious sanitary, economic and social conditions. This underlines a lack of consideration of the long-term perspective and refugees' needs, culture and background.

Hence the need to rethink the refugee camp concept so that it can be seen as a form of urbanization incorporating sustainable and inclusive parameters at the planning and design stage (Chamma, Mendoza, 2016). The first chapter of this paper is devoted to a critical reflection on the concept of refugee camps as a short-term reality. A picture of the current situation of the shelter and settlement sector from the perspective of the current mainstream is provided, emphasising how this approach based on welfarism is not sufficient even to fulfil the basic rights of residents.

To understand the need to move beyond this approach, the analysis is complemented by a reflection on the concept of home and how it is articulated among displaced people. Moreover, through the explanation of the different dimensions of home - spatial, temporal, relational, material - the need to change the approach to shelter and settlement is underlined.

The tool identified for overcoming this mainstream is the participatory approach: a design method that, applied to the context of refugee camps, allows the transformation of the camps from temporary settlements to places to live in the long-term respecting basic human rights and involving people preferences. This approach rethinks the idea of the camp involving those who live within it in the processes of designing, modifying and adapting structures. Involving residents and making them an active part in the decision-

making processes, regarding the structure of the camp in which they live, ensures that they have control over their own lives and over the place that at that moment means home. Therefore, the second chapter analyzes the participatory design approach, its applicability to emergency contexts and the importance it has in guaranteeing sustainable solutions that respect people's rights. The purpose of this chapter is to demonstrate how rethinking the refugee camp concept is possible and offers a tool, that of participatory design, as the first means of change.

The first two chapters lay the theoretical foundation for the development of the proposal presented in the third chapter. Following the approach and reflections developed in the paper, the third chapter then proposes a proposal for the application of the participatory design in the Samos Closed Controlled Access Centre. After an initial assessment phase that presents the context of migration policies in which the Samos shelter system is set and te general situation of the island, the methodology for a participatory design process is proposed with the aim of producing alternative shelter models elaborated by residents on the basis of their needs.

Research questions and objective

The purpose of this study is to investigate the pathways and tools to overcome the current mainstream in the management and planning of refugee camps in Europe.

The construction of refugee camps categorised as Controlled Access Centres is a new phenomenon, which is why the literature on it is almost totally absent. Furthermore, a participatory approach in these contexts has never been taken into account, which is another reason why no studies on this subject can be found to date.

To explore this matter, this study relies on an analysis of the context conducted on the Closed Controlled Access Centre in Samos between February and May 2022 and other case studies analyses outside the European context, with the aim of proposing a participatory design proposal applicable to the context.

This investigation revolves around two main research questions:

1. Is participatory design a valuable tool to change the current mainstream in refugee camp planning and management?

2. Is it possible to apply a participatory approach in the context of refugee camps in Europe?

   2.2. What impact, if any, does this approach have on residents and the community?

Moreover, for the correct understanding of the following paper, some terminological premises must be considered.

In this paper, the term "refugee camp" is used in reference to different types of camps. Although the different natures of possible camps are considered, such as planned ones, self-planned, informal and many others, the generic term "refugee camp" is preferred as the paper presents characteristics that are at least partly similar to all types of camps. Due differentiations will be made when necessary.

The same approach will be used for the term "refugee". Recognizing the importance of knowing the difference in meaning between terms such as "asylum seeker" and "refugee", the latter will be used to describe a displaced person, beyond his/her legal status, who finds himself in the condition of seeking protection in a camp inside or outside its country of origin.

Note that this paper does not advocate for the existence of the camps; on the contrary, it distances itself from the conditions in which people are forced to live. However, since camps exist and persist, and the protracted nature of refugee crises suggests that they will remain for the foreseeable future (Bender, 2021), in this paper there will be no discussion on whether camps should exist or not. But it aims to raise a reflection on how the lives of those residing in the camps could be improved through a participatory approach that starts from planning and designing the camp, up to aspects of internal governance.

Methodology

The research is an empirical study conducted using qualitative analysis and implemented through different research tools that allow facing the topic through an interdisciplinary approach. The complexity of the situation under consideration required a study from different perspectives, in which the participatory aspect and observation in the field play a fundamental role.

The research work began in November 2021 with an analysis of the Greek context and more generally of the functioning of the hotspot approach implemented on a European directive. In this case, field analyses were conducted in the Malakasa facility. The information gathered in this situation, mainly through group conversations with residents and staff, was not used for the drafting of the participatory proposal but contributed to enriching the literary review regarding the situation of the reception facilities and framework implemented in Greece.

This moment of data collection was followed by a period of re-elaboration and analysis of the literature, which anticipated the second part of the participant observation work in Samos from February to May 2022. In this phase, through group and individual conversations with camp residents and NGO staff on the island, the work of data and information gathering was conducted for the elaboration of the participatory design proposal in the shelter and settlement sector in the Closed Controlled Access Centre.

The paper follows a deductive reasoning, meaning that, starting from the proven positive impacts of the participatory approach in other contexts and through the integration of the assessment conducted on the specific case study, conclusions and expected results are outlined.

Locations

Greece is one of the "gates of Europe", one of the first European countries that migrants fleeing from Syria, Afghanistan, Turkey and other Middle Eastern countries - but not only - manage to reach.

Although the number of sea arrivals to Greece has decreased in the last year, the crisis persists, showing all the flaws in the European reception system for migrants. According to UNHCR (December 16, 2021), 3,131 people arrived in Greece between January and October 2021, far fewer than the more than 59,000 arrivals in 2019. Despite this, the conditions of those arriving in Greece remain critical and their future uncertain. Asylum-seeker camps have developed both on the Greek islands, such as Lesbos and Samos and on the mainland, with different roles, which will be explained in the last chapter of this paper.

> Malakasa camp:
>
> the asylum seeker camp in Malakasa is a government structure located one hour from Athens. It is under the control of the Greek Ministry of Foreign Affairs, which relies on the United Nations, in particular on IOM, the Agency for Migrants, and other organizations for the daily management of the camp. The camp develops within an area surrounded by a fence wall a couple of meters high at the top of which there is barbed wire. 864 people including 325 children (IOM, March 2022), many of whom unaccompanied, live inside containers or tents and share kitchens, bathrooms and any other services.

> Samos:
>
> on the Greek island of Samos, located a few kilometres from the Turkish coast, there are 2 camps for asylum seekers. The first, called the *old camp* or "*jungle*" is now uninhabited, due to the opening of the new camp. Initially born as a small fenced camp, managed by IOM, it has grown day by day, transforming itself almost into an

informal camp, in the years between 2016 and 2019 when the great migration waves to Greece were recorded and thousands of people were living in Samos.

In September 2021 the new camp was inaugurated, defined as a "Closed Controlled Access Center" (CCAC) and financed entirely by a European Union fund. With a capacity of 3,000 people, the new camp has replaced the *jungle* and has become the new official camp where asylum seekers reside while waiting for the asylum application process to be completed. At the moment (August 2022) the camp hosts about 1200 people and unlike the aforementioned Malakasa camp, this one is equipped with sophisticated technology systems, such as cameras for facial recognition and deposition of inbound and outbound fingerprints, to monitor its residents.

Tools

Participant observation:

the prolonged stay in the camps for asylum seekers and the relationships established with their residents allowed the understanding of the internal functioning mechanisms and dynamics.

Through this approach, an analysis of the context of the camps from the point of view of residents and personnel, was conducted; thus, also exploring the emotional component, habits and non-verbal language of places and people.

Group and individual conversations:

the daily contact and the sharing of many moments of the day with the camp's residents allowed for group and individual conversations that formed the solid basis of the study. The moments of dialogue were built starting from the question "What is the camp for you?"; from this starting point personal stories were developed. Daily annotations were therefore taken to note the similarities and differences in the stories; moreover, when allowed by the participants, the conversations were recorded.

The age range of the participants was from 18 to 35.

Case study and literature analysis:

the field research was accompanied by an important study of the literature on the topic of participatory design, in particular applied to the context of refugee camps. The analysis of case studies, in particular of projects carried out in Lebanon and Jordan, made it

possible to develop important reflections, which were then have been used to make broader reasoning on the applicability of the participatory design approach also in camps in Greece.

1. Introduction: the concept of refugee camp

Due to the increasing number of displaced people the humanitarian response in providing shelters has been increasing in recent years. In 2020, according to the Global Shelter Cluster (2021), the different typologies of conflicts in progress around the world produced 11.2 million newly displaced, of which 1.4 million outside their country of origin and 9.8 internally displaced. Moreover, 30.7 million people have been categorized as displaced due to natural disasters, such as storms, floods, and droughts. At the end of 2020, therefore, the number of people displaced around the world was 82.4 million. To cope with these emergencies, numerous refugee camps, both formal and informal ones, have developed over the years.

In the collective imagination, refugee camps are configured as temporary and short-term solutions. Even if this cognitive bias is disproved by the data provided by UNHCR which, in fact, reports 17 years as the average lifespan of a refugee camp, refugees are framed within what Peter Nyers has framed as a 'problem-solving discourse' (Nyers 1998, 2006 in Turner, 2015: 140). This leads to a conception of refugees as exceptions and unforeseen phenomena to be dealt with as crises and/or emergencies. One such emergency measure is indeed the refugee camp (ibid).

To begin addressing this issue, it is important to try to outline the concept of a refugee camp.

First of all, it is articulated around two dimensions: spatial and temporal.

The spatial dimension is in turn articulated around three pillars: extraterritoriality, exception, and exclusion (Agier, 2014: 20). The camps are often located in remote areas, far away and disconnected from other settlements, and rarely appear on maps and location systems. Even when they are located closer to other urban realities, the differentiation between inside and outside is marked by 'defensive' walls. Despite this, the limits of the camp are porous, allowing goods, people, and ideas to move in and out of the camp (Turner, 2015: 141), symbolically, the barbed wire surrounding the camps underlines all the differences between those who live inside and those who live outside.

The temporal dimension is articulated around the concept of 'indeterminate temporariness' (Turner, 2015: 142). Therefore Turner (2015) emphasizes how it is a

contradiction to use the term 'protracted refugee crisis' but still use an approach that sees refugee camps as short-term structures.

This paradoxical situation raises several questions about the current approach to camp planning and management. Being considered only a temporary and "transitional" accommodation, often and especially at the beginning by the displaced themselves, the camps do not take into account the long-term needs of their residents, thus forcing them to live for years in critical situations, which often do not even guarantee basic human necessities and rights.

This short-term approach is defined by Al-Husban and Adam (2016) as a "containment and charity approach". It revolves around the concept of a refugee camp as a reality confined and controlled by an authority that provides for residents through different forms of *welfarism*.

Through this approach, a tendency emerges to consider people 'inside' only as victims to be helped and rescued. The resulting problem is the loss of any possibility for refugees to make their voices heard: refugees can no longer voice their political rights but rather appeal to a common humanity by showing their wounds (Fassin 2005 in Turner 2015: 143). Camp residents consequently lose control of their lives, which are administered in every aspect by third parties[1].

Indeed, although the camp is a limbo conducive to confinement, Agier argues how it can become a place of vibrant social and cultural change, where new cultures and habits emerge. Especially if a long-term participatory vision is what guides the design and planning of camps, they can become 'cosmopolitan crossroads' (Agier, 2014: 19), social arenas, where people can start thinking and building a new present and future.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a reflection with the aim of overcoming the current view of refugee camps, through an analysis that, as argued by Turner (2015: 146), goes beyond the logistics of its (the camp) creation and its pure material existence.

Taking for granted the need to overcome the political impasse on migration issues and renew the framework on refugee camp management, the paper will focus on the Shelter and Settlement sector, through a participatory approach that puts people at the centre and

---

[1] It must be noted that the "containment and charity" model presents positive aspects as well, especially at the beginning, when a rapid and effective emergency response is needed. Nevertheless, it can only last in the short term since it has an unsustainable nature.

allows them to meet their own needs and start building a reality as close to what they consider 'home' as possible.

The reflection will therefore be tackled with an approach that goes beyond the temporary conception of camps and instead categorizes them as a form of urbanization to which to apply "sustainable parameters at the planning and design stage in order to provide refugees with a good quality of life and better living conditions" (Chamma, Mendoza, 2016: 77).

Although the intention of this paper is to provide a rethinking of the camp concept that abolishes symbols such as defensive walls and surveillance equipment, it must be acknowledged that for several political, economic and cultural reasons this paradigm shift will not happen anytime soon.

As mentioned earlier, the spatial dimension of refugee camps is extremely porous and barbed walls and fences are not sufficient to contain the ever-increasing number of people in need of assistance. There are numerous examples around the world that show how the boundaries of refugee camps have been demolished by people seeking shelter, creating huge informal settlements around the original core where any protection of human rights is lacking. See the case of the Moria Camp in Lesvos in the image below.
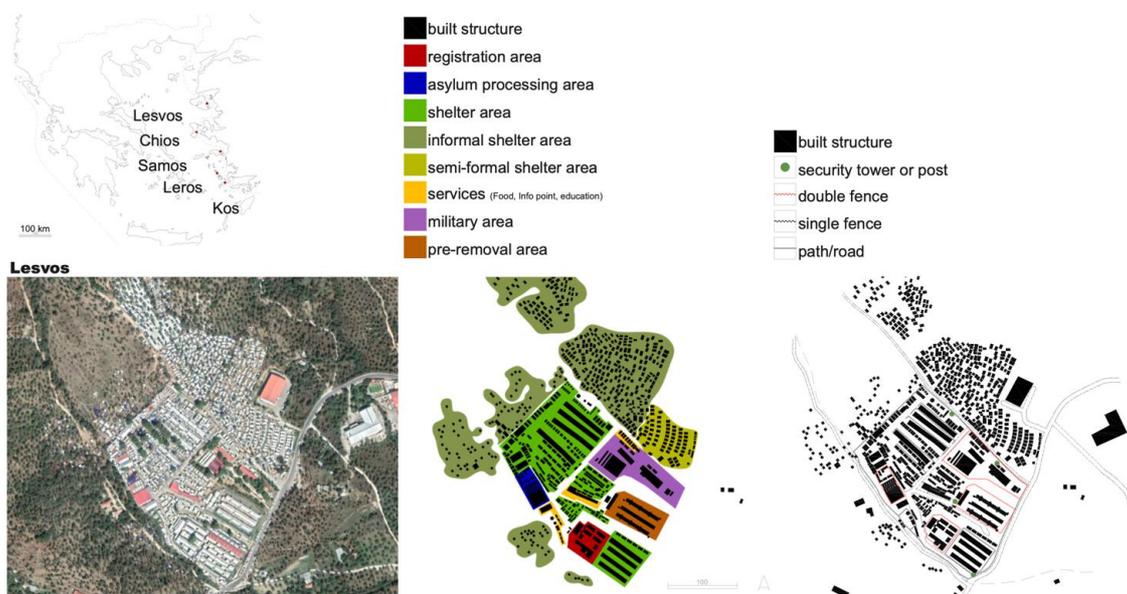
Figure 1: Structure of Lesvos' hotspot
Source: "The Implementation of the EU Hotspot Approach
in Greece and Italy:

11

Therefore, in this chapter I will not focus on the political and economic issues that to date do not allow the overcoming of the idea of the refugee camp as a closed and controlled temporary settlement, but rather on a reflection on the empowerment of camp residents through participatory design in the shelter and settlements sector as the first step to change the current reality inside refugee camps.

1.1 "The right to city"

The concept of "right to the city" was formulated by Henri Lefebvre in 1960 and developed from the interrelation of two rights:

> (i) "the right to participate in the conception, design and implementation of the production of urban spaces, shifting decisions about the production of these spaces away from the state, towards urban residents; and (2) the right to appropriate - through access, occupation and use - urban spaces and produce them in ways that would meet the needs of urban inhabitants"(Fawaz, 2009: 831).

According to Lefebvre (1974), dwellers must be the main actors in the planning and management of urban spaces, having the power to create and modify social spaces according to their own needs and culture without having to conform to the standards provided by society. Emphasis is put over the term "dwellers" and not "citizens", to overcome the concept of national citizenship, which acts as an instrument of division between those who fall into the category of citizens, as holders of national citizenship, and those who do not fit.

Starting from this concept, the United Nations itself has launched a proposal for a 'World Charter of the Right to the City, which provides for a participatory and inclusive system in urban planning and design processes.

Lefebvre (1974) proposes an interesting reflection on the "right to the city" applied in marginalized contexts such as slums and ghettos.

According to the author, this principle finds the first form of application in low-income countries and in marginalized groups, as they create and shape space not conforming to social norms, but according to their conception of space and place. However, it is this *freedom of expression*, which in this context is not meant as a fundamental right, quite more a situation that conceals the carelessness on the part of the authorities, that ends up labelling these groups as "different".

A more in-depth reflection that takes into consideration the "right to difference", as a way to reject the forced classification into predefined categories, is what should mark the

starting point for an inclusive rethinking of the structure of urban spaces.

By embracing Lefebvre's vision and bringing, not the citizen, but the dwellers at the centre of the discussion, the residents of the refugee camps have the right to appeal to the "rights to the city", which would allow them to be the subjects in power to choose how to live, manage and change their space.

It is evident that to guarantee the "right to the city", the "right to diversity" and self-determination in contexts such as those of refugee camps and informal settlements, it is necessary, as mentioned in the previous paragraph, to holistically review the approach used up to now. In particular, a reflection on who has the power and/or the right to exercise control over these urban spaces is necessary.

Box 1: Zaatari: from camp to city

Camp data sheet: January 2022 (UNHCR):

- People: 81,817
- Families: 19,500
- Children: 55%
- Shelters: 26,000
- Schools: 32
- Medical clinics: 8
- Community centres: 58

Figure 2: Evolution of Zaatari Camp
Source: Reliefweb 2012 in Chamma & Mendoza 2016: 78

Zaatari camp emerged in 2012 following waves of Syrian refugees who sought refuge in Jordan. In the early years, it saw rapid and uncontrolled growth, reaching 200,000 inhabitants in 2013. The surface area of the camp is 5.4km^2 and is divided into 12 districts (Chamma, Mendoza, 2016: 78).

Since its creation the camp has gone through a transformation process, which can be divided according to four different phases; in each phase, a different management model has been applied: (i) Emergency Level Service Provision Model, (ii) Time Responsive and Agile Service Provision Model, (iii) Coordinated Service Provision Model and (iv) Sustainable Service Provision Model (Al-Husban and Adams (2016).

During this process of transformation shelters, WASH facilities, communities and public spaces have been modified according to residents' needs and preferences.

Two main roads run through the camp and connect public markets, as well as shops, social spaces and different types of services that have developed over time within the camp.

This approach presented several benefits. (i) The possibility of being able to manage a business has proved to be a strong tool of empowerment for refugees, who have been able to rediscover a sense of ownership and leadership (Chamma & Mendoza, 2016: 78). An attitude which lacks in a reception system based purely on *welfarism*.

(ii) The development of commercial activities within the Zaatari camp in Jordan demonstrated the influence that this new camp business model has brought to the hosting community as well. Coexistence between different communities can be very complex and can put difficulties in mechanisms that are already cracked, especially at the beginning.

The example of the Zaatari camp shows how the hosting community has faced greater competition in the local job market. Especially among Syrians and the poorest sections of the Jordanian population competing for low-income jobs. At the same time, however, the local population was able to benefit from economic relations with the activities of the camp. Al-Husban & Adams (2016: 4) report that the camp's economic activity extends outside with a travel agency, pizza delivery service, and more interestingly, a fine bakery, the Damshqi Bakery, providing a good example of outreach capabilities providing trade to many in the local host community.

The small-scale entrepreneurs are currently generating an estimated 10 million Jordanian dollars in revenue per month.

(iii) In addition, the ability to work and earn by working allows families to improve the shelters they lived in. The possibility of modifying and embellishing the *home* according to personal and cultural taste, rather than living in identical prefabricated

structures, allows refugees to bring themselves closer to the concept of home and strengthen their sense of identity. The concept of home is fundamental when analyzing the situation of displaced people and it is essential to take it into consideration in the design and planning phases of the camps.

It must be noted that Zaatari is still a difficult reality where there is room for improvement regarding the protection of human rights and the empowerment of its residents. However, it is a stimulating and challenging starting point for a broader reflection on the approach to be used in the planning and management of the camps.

1.2 Shelters and settlements: concept and terminology

Shelter has been described as one of the most 'intractable problems' in humanitarian aid (George, J.W., et al., 2022). The complexity stems not only from the cross-cutting dimension, which has a significant impact beyond just habitability (InterAction; USAID, 2020), but also from a lack of clarity regarding the use of terms such as shelter, settlement, and housing. Although the first definitions of shelter were formulated in the early 1990s, due to these undefined boundaries regarding the meaning of such pillar concepts, disorientation is still perceived when it comes to the applicability to reality. Thus, a brief reflection on the concept behind shelter and settlement is important to understand the state of the art of the sector.

One of the most recent definitions of shelter is provided by the Global Shelter Cluster and DM CCCM Nigeria (2021), which defines shelter as "a covered habitable space and a safe and healthy living environment, with privacy and dignity, to those in it, during the period between a conflict or natural disaster and the achievement of a durable shelter solution".

To understand how this definition has developed to date, it is important to review some of the most relevant terminological and conceptual changes that have taken place over the past two decades.

In 1992, the United Nations Multilingual Glossary of Human Settlements defined the term shelter for the first time:

"Shelter, adequate: An immediate environment for all aspects of family life, providing protection from the elements, the safety of life, access to drinking water and sanitation, proximity to workplaces and educational and health facilities" (United Nations 1992).

George, J.W. (2022) reports on the discussion developed around the term 'adequate shelter' from this definition onwards. Indeed, the term is extremely susceptible to the context in which it is applied. "Adequate privacy; adequate space; physical accessibility; adequate security" (General Assembly, 1996) are concepts that change the nuance of meaning depending on the contextual lenses one uses to analyze them, which is why "most shelter actors agree that a one-size-fits-all definition of adequacy is almost impossible" (ibid). To avoid this formal flaw related to the 1992 definition, in 2005 Corsellis and Vitale define shelter as "a habitable covered living space, providing a secure, healthy living environment with privacy and dignity to those within it"; a definition that, despite some modifications, will remain the most accepted in the sector.

The definition provided by Corsellis and Vitale, like others presented in the past years (see Annex 1), brings out the transitory conception of the term shelter and opens reflection on the difference in meaning between the concepts of shelter and housing. This conceptual contrast is based on a short-term conception of shelter, which sees it as a temporary solution. USAID and InterAction (2020) in a training focused on Shelter and Settlement report: "while housing is the term used in the development sector, humanitarians use the word shelter, partly to signify its non-permanent nature and to clarify the intention to support provision of dwellings that have limited lifespan". Considering the reflections presented in the previous chapter, which emphasize how a rigid short-term-centered conception clashes with the reality that shelters become a long-term solution in many contexts, it is understandable how the Shelter and Settlement sector often struggles to provide adequate support.

1.2.1 Home: concept and need

The discussion on shelter and housing and in particular the short-term concept which characterizes the former term is intertwined with another term/concept, that of *home*. The term *adequate*, which was used in the past, and the concept of dignity on which the main

definitions of shelter are built, point to the need to go beyond the temporary concept of shelters and ensure more than "4 walls and a roof". (USAID & InterAction, 2020). While *home* is a central concept in refugee studies (Taylor, 2009), to date, the Shelter and Settlement sector focuses on the need to find minimum standards, and scientific values to standardize interventions, often moving away from the real needs of people.

A more holistic approach that focuses on developing "a more complex understanding of the meaning of home" (ivi: 3) is needed in overcoming the *here* or *there* paradigm (Arvantis, Yelland, 2019: 536), which sees refugees 'naturally' belonging only to the place they have been forced to leave" (Taylor, 2013: 138).

Dimensions of Home

Home is a multi-faceted and complex construct for all of us (Taylor, 2013: 152); displaced people, in particular, live an experience of evolving home construction (Arvantis, Yelland, 2019: 551): a dynamic process, which involves the acts of imagining, creating, unmaking, changing, losing and moving homes (Taylor, 2013: 132).

Helen Taylor (2009) identifies four dimensions of home: spatial, temporal, material and relational. The four aspects intertwine with each other based on the personal experiences and lived experience of each individual, through the influence of external stimuli, forming in each an idea of home necessary to overcome the limbo of belonging to "neither" place (Salih 2002: 52 in Arvantis, Yelland, 2019: 536) in which displaced people find themselves.

Spatial home

The spatial home is the dimension that is identified with the physical home. It is the dimension found in reality in buildings, villages, and towns in a given location. It is the often forcibly abandoned home, which Massey (1994: 5 in Arvantis, Yelland, 2019: 537) calls "sites of nostalgia".

Despite being defined in the common imagination as an absolute space, the physical home is a product of the cultural and historical context in which it is perceived (Hirsch, 1995: 23 in Taylor, 2009). In fact, although one might think that the physical home is a fixed reference, not susceptible to change because it is a tangible and concrete reality, in people's lives it undergoes the subjective reworking that is the result of time and

geographical distance. It undergoes a kind of mystification: a place of desire in the diasporic imagination (Brah 1996: 192 in Arvantis, Yelland, 2019: 537).

Over time, the memory of the house left behind loses its definition and its contours are redefined according to past and present experiences. Added to the transformative effect of time is the human need to belong to a place, in particular, as Kaplan (1996: 104 in Taylor, 2013: 139) suggests, "the paradigm of exile requires a coherent, recognized identity or point of origin".

Temporal home

The temporal home is the dimension that intersects with people's vision of the present, past and future. Displaced people live in a present that is distant and different from their past, with no control over what will happen in the future. This has an extremely alienating impact, since, as Taylor (2009) argues, the human life cycle and its attendant events mark our experience of home. To cope with this state of uncertainty, the re-establishment of routines close to those of the past helps people to reconstruct a concept of home (MacDonald, 2015 in Arvantis, Yelland, 2019) and re-develop a sense of belonging. Thus, the desire to reconstruct a new home emerges, but starting from the memory of the one that was left behind.

Therefore, memory plays a fundamental role in the process of reconstructing the present, but also the future, which is mainly based on the myth of returning to the home and routines of the past.

Relational home

The relational dimension sees the concept of home as the result of interpersonal interactions and the social, cultural, political, and economic networks that shape people's lives on a daily basis. It is a construct that can be shaped by time and place, experiences and living conditions. Displaced people tend to recreate the image of the relational home through the reproduction of common habits and traditions of the homeland: it often occurs through the establishment of community organizations and physical entities such as shops, cafes, and other venues for social activities (Arvantis, Yelland, 2019: 539). In practice, it is about recreating the social habits and interactions one had daily in the country one left behind and recognizes as the homeland.

The home-making process is articulated in the ambivalence between dynamism and expectation. The reconstruction of the concept takes place while waiting for the

possibility of returning to the spatial home. Taylor (2009), through the words of Hage (1997), explains how this process can be interpreted as a 'resettlement strategy' that revolves around the search for a 'homely feeling' during the period of dislocation.

The relational home dimension thus revolves around three pillars defined by Taylor (2013) as (i) community and belonging, (ii) habitus and (iii) social capital.

In which community is the tool that allows you to develop a sense of belonging, based on mutual understanding and sharing. A community sociality that allows the circulation and passing on of traditions and habits, the habitus. Social capital, often lost to refugees at least initially when the social network is dispersed, is the network of relationships to be reconstructed in order to recognize oneself.

Material home

The material home is identified with what is perceptible and knowable through the five senses. Taylor (2009) defines it as the 'sensory nature of home', i.e., that which can be traced back to the landscape, food and smells that a person identifies as home, based on the idea of the physical home. It is a dimension that can often seem of minor importance, particularly in comparison to the physical and relational home; in reality, it is of fundamental importance, especially for displaced people, but not only. Anyone who finds themselves living in a country other than the one they recognize as home, not necessarily because they were forced to, for a relatively protracted period, feels the need to find smells, tastes, and objects that remind them of the home they left behind. Whether photos, plants, household objects or food, they all contribute to building a sense of belonging and identity. Food in particular is a powerful tool to rebuild homely feelings (Hage, 1997), so much so that Ben-Ze'ev (2004) claims that "traditional dishes can become a site of remembrance". On this subject, Hage (1997) proposes another key to understanding the importance of food in the reconstruction of the concept of home. He reports how it might not exclusively be an action aimed at preserving a family memory, but rather a 'long-established food habit'. However, even analyzing it as a habit carried on unconsciously, it still represents a link with the past experienced before displacement and thus influences people's perception of reality.

In the context of refugee camps, people develop a strong and intimate feeling of belonging to the temporary community. A sense of intimacy, community spirit, solidarity, sharing and togetherness with people who have also experienced a rite of passage (Arvanitis, Yelland, 2019, p. 544). Oliver (2006 in George, J.W., et al., 2022) emphasizes the need

to bring the field of Shelter and Settlement closer to a reflection on the concept of home by explaining:

> "A house is a structure, but a home is much more. The distinctions are not trivial, nor are they sentimental or romantic: they are fundamental to the understanding of the difference between the provision of shelter which serves to protect and the creation of domestic environments that express the deep structures of society"

1.3 Shelters and settlements: the state of art

Settlements

Settlements, where refugees can temporarily seek assistance and protection, come in a range of shapes and sizes. Depending on the type of emergency, the setting, and the external forces involved, they might be planned or spontaneous, grouped or dispersed (Camp Management Toolkit, 2015).

In this paper, following the direction outlined in the Camp Management Toolkit (2015), a subdivision of temporary settlements into five categories is presented:

Planned camps

Planned camps can be located in urban or rural areas, although as presented in the next chapters, they are often located outside urban centres, with some degree of isolation. These are places where displaced populations find shelter in purpose-built sites and where necessities, protection and medical care are provided. They are usually very large structures that can hold thousands of people and are very often managed by so-called Camp Management Agencies, i.e., UN agencies such as IOM and UNHCR.

The shelter solutions used in these contexts are different. Tents, plastic sheeting, and temporary shelters such as containers tend to be used.

Self-settled camps

Self-settled camps, or informal camps depending on the country in which they are located, arise from the settlement of groups of displaced persons in urban or rural areas and are not managed by any kind of authority. They are independent camps that do not receive humanitarian assistance and may be very small in size, depending on a small group of families, or very large depending on several external factors that will be analyzed below.

As with planned camps, the most used shelter solutions are plastic sheeting, tents, and shelter kits. In these types of camps, as they are not under the control of any authority, shelters are often built with makeshift materials. Often these kinds of settlements are established around abandoned structures and buildings, which are occupied and turned into shelters.

Collective centres

A place where displaced persons find accommodation in pre-existing public buildings and community facilities, usually not designed to house people. These structures can therefore only be used as temporary accommodation and not as long-term solutions. Humanitarian assistance is provided in different ways depending on the context, dynamics and external factors.

Reception and Transit Centres

Reception and transit centres are often set up at the beginning of an emergency situation, as a place of transit before relocation to a safer camp.

Emergency Evacuation Centres

Emergency evacuation centres may be established to provide appropriate temporary shelter for those fleeing a specific and urgent threat, such as fighting, a storm or an earthquake. This is frequently done in public buildings, and they are usually established and planned for in advance of catastrophic events.

It must be noted that the one provided is a basic classification useful to frame the different types of camps. In reality, the different typologies often merge, creating contexts in which formal and informal camps coexist and in which the functions of the different ones break out of defined patterns, creating situations that require ad hoc responses and solutions.

Since 2005, to manage this complexity of situations and actors involved, the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC), through a reform of the humanitarian response management system, has created the Camp Coordination and Camp Management Cluster. It provides for the establishment of groups of humanitarian actors with coordination and management roles to "ensure sufficient global humanitarian capacity" (Camp Management Toolkit, 2015, p. 20). From 2010-2011 onwards, through the lessons learnt from the increased demand for humanitarian response, the IASC also developed the Transformative Agenda, a set of actions that collectively represent a substantive improvement to the current humanitarian response model (IASC, 2012).

The added value provided by these tools is to combine emergency response management in the event of both conflict and natural disaster. This allows for greater clarity and

readiness at the moment of an emergency, and to be able to ensure adequate protection and assistance accordingly.

The number of tools and guidelines in emergency management is manifold, as there are many aspects that need to be considered to ensure assistance to the affected population. As far as the Shelter and Settlement sector is concerned, key tools like the UNHCR Master Plan Approach to Settlement Planning Guiding Principles and the SPHERE Project, together with a whole range of other instruments, define the minimum standards in terms of camp planning to be guaranteed to residents.

Table 1: Minimum standard for site planning

	Type of facility	No./Person	Comments
Camp Areas	Total Open Space	30-45 sqm per person	
Living Areas	Covered Space	3.5 sqm per person	
	Firebreaks	50 m of empty space every 300 meters of built-up area	
	Water Points	1 per 80-500 people depending on type and flow rate	100-500 m from anyone dwelling; gravity-fed system on higher ground
	Latrines	1 per household to 1 per 20-50 people	6-50 m away from the house if too far away won't be used, 30 m from water sources.
	Washing Facilities	1 per 100-250 people	
	Lighting in: - Sanitation areas - On walking paths - In child-friendly spaces		To promote protection, ensure safety and permit use of the facilities at night
	Refuse bins	2 per community	1 100-litre per 10 families 100 m from communal areas.
Health Care Facilities	Referral Hospital	1 per 10 camps (200,000 people)	
	Lighting		To promote protection, ensure safety and permit use of the facilities at night
	Health Centre	1 per camp (20,000 people)	
	Latrines	1 per 10-20 beds and 1 per 20-50 outpatients	Centralised, but with adequate access from ambulances and other transport
	Medical Waste Facilities		
Feeding Centers	Feeding center	1 per camp (200,000 people)	
	Latrines	1 per 20-50 adults and 1 per 10-20 children	
	Lighting		To promote protection, ensure safety and permit use of the facilities at night
Schools	School Block	1 per sector (5,000 people)	
	Classroom Size Guidelines	In general, the standard size for a classroom for 40 students should be: 6.20 x 5.75 m to 6.20 x 6.50 m	

	Pre-primary Classes	Up to 40 students = 1m^3/student; up to 48 students = 0.74 m^3/student	
	Lighting		To promote protection, ensure safety and permit use of the facilities at night
	Classes 1-3	Up to 40 students = 1m^3/student; up to 48 students = 0.83 m^3/student	
	Classes 4-6	Up to 40 students = 1m^3/student	
	Tent Class-room Guideline	55 sqm tent can accommodate 40-45 children	
	Latrines	1 per 30 girls and 1 per 60 boys	
Markets	Market	1 per camp (20,000 people)	
	Latrines	1 per camp 20-50 stalls	
Distribution Point	Distribution Point	4 per camp (20,000 people)	On higher ground to facilitate walking with heavy items
Graveyards	Graveyard		30 meters from groundwater sources; determine if space is available within host community.
Reception/Transit areas	Latrines	1 per 50 people (3:1 female to male)	
	Lighting		To promote protection, ensure safety and permit use of the facilities at night
Administrations areas	Including offices for government authorities/security, UN agencies, NGOs, meeting areas and warehouses tracing services.		
	Usually near entrance so trucks are not driving in the camp and for warehouse security		
	Latrines	1 per 20 staff	
	Lighting		To promote protection, ensure safety and permit use of the facilities at night

Source: Camp Management Toolkit, 2015

Today, considering the increasing number of displaced persons forced to live in camps, the camp planning experts are increasingly forced to think in even smaller dimensions than the Sphere Indicators to be able to respond to the demand for protection. Hence, the indicators clash with reality, which is often in stark contrast to what is stated in the various guidelines. This is further amplified in self-settled camps and in the other form of informal settlements, which arise spontaneously and therefore do not refer to the indicators mentioned above.

Shelter

Regarding shelters, there are several different types that vary in size, shape and materials (see Annex 2 about materials). In this paper, the focus will be on shelter solutions applicable to refugee camps, specifically planned camps.

The table below, far from being an exhaustive list, shows the solutions most frequently used in camps and outlines their pros and cons.

The different typologies, whose application varies mainly according to context and availability, can be traced back to the short-term approach discussed in the previous paragraphs. The only exception is the solution involving the construction of shelters (solid buildings) using local material, usually implemented in contexts that have existed for years (i.e. Zaatari in Jordan). As for the other options, it is clear that tents, and plastic sheeting, which are among the most commonly used solutions, cannot be seen as adequate shelters in which people can live for years.

Table 2: List of different types of shelters

Shelter solution	Type of shelter	Pros	Cons	Application examples
Family tents	Emergency shelter	Traditional relied on tent; lightweight; proven design; good headroom; can be winterized; large production capacities.	Inflexible; may be unstable in high winds or heavy snow, difficult to heat. Where tents are used for long durations, provisions for repair materials should be considered.	Beddawi camp, Lebanon
Plastic sheeting	Emergency shelter	The most important component in many relief operations; UV	No frame is provided, migrants must collect/create	Moria camp, Greece

		resistant; heavy-duty; lightweight, flexible; large production capacities.	their own frames. Collecting wood for support frames or sticks skeletons could considerably harm the environment if collected from surrounding forests. It is important to consider sustainable sources of framing.	
Materials and tools for construction	Solid (residential) buildings	Suitable local materials are better, if available, and must be suitable for variance in the seasons, culturally and socially appropriate and familiar.	Require time and training	
Prefabricate d shelter, containers (i.e., Refugee Housing Unit)	Transitional shelter	Permanent or semi-permanent structures; long-lasting.	High unit cost; long shipping time; long production time; transport challenges; transport emissions; assembly challenges; inflexibility; disregard cultural and social norms.	Azraq camp, Jordan

Source: UNHCR 2020, Shelter/NFI Cluster X-Border Operation 2021

As a result of multiple types of shelters and the different ways through which it is possible to offer humanitarian assistance; the Global Shelter Cluster (2021) identified some guidelines to try to uniform the Shelter and Settlement sector.

First of all, the 'one fits all solution' is not an option; each case needs to be analyzed and an *ad hoc* plan needs to be elaborated, according to the social and economic aspects of the displaced people, but also the economic and environmental aspects of the host country.

Hence the need to take into consideration not only different types of shelters, but also a different approach to protection and support activities, and to participation and involvement activities of the hosted and host population. Providing assistance is, in fact, part of a process based on the involvement and participation of people. They are indeed the active subjects who, from the first moment they Humanitarian assistance should be

people centered. Since people needs change over time, it is fundamental to provide flexible shelter design, which allows for transformation and adaptation.

From the analysis of hundreds of projects conducted within the Shelter Project, the Global Shelter Cluster (2021: 8) demonstrates how "successful projects meaningfully engage with crises-affected people to better understand their intentions, resources, needs, capacities, vulnerabilities and priorities".

Shelter projects, like other humanitarian interventions, frequently fail as they are designed without adequate participation of the beneficiaries, who therefore end up not feeling the project close to their needs. Hence the need to transform the beneficiaries from passive individuals who receive assistance, to active subjects and an integral and fundamental part in every phase and in every aspect of the project.

The next chapter will focus on the involvement of beneficiaries and stakeholders in the different phases of humanitarian interventions related to Shelter and Settlement. The participatory approach is the method that, integrated with a holistic perspective which takes into account the different intervention sectors of the humanitarian response, is able to guarantee the development of sustainable solutions that are, above all, centered on people's needs and empowerment.

2. The concept of community

Due to the difficulty in framing it, the concept of community has led to multiple definitions being developed over time, but still, it relies on "common sense" (Walsh, High, n.d., 255).

The characteristic typically attributed to the concept of community is that of the sharing among a specific group of individuals of values, culture and traditions, and geographical space. The image that emerges is that of the community as a static element, well-defined in time and space. This structured delimitation of the boundaries of the concept has been consolidated in history, finding application in particular in the idea of the nation-state, which saw the territorial boundaries of the country coincide with those of a single large community enclosed within it.

The emphasis on the 'shared place' as a fundamental aspect in the definition of the concept of community contributed to consolidating the use of this idea as a tool for defining criteria of inclusion and exclusion. Clearly, there is a need to overcome this reductive approach adopted around this term and develop an image that is more current and suited to today's context.

Overcoming this definition is particularly necessary when referring to the communities inhabiting refugee camps. Indeed, in the context of refugee camps, the concept of community runs into a number of inconsistencies. The people living within a camp are considered the 'camp community', this is because they fulfill the requirement of a shared place. At the same time, however, these people come from different countries, with often different traditions and religions and, especially in the beginning, do not feel that they belong to the same community.

At the same time, however, they share the same condition, and often the same experience and their lives have very similar aspects to each other.

Therefore, in this thesis, we will consider Weeks' words quoted by Gilchrist (2009): "the strongest sense of community is likely to come from those groups who find the premises of their collective existence threatened and who construct out of this a community of identity which provides a strong sense of resistance and empowerment".

2.1 Community-based approach

Community-based approach (CBA) is a working method used during developing projects, policies, or other types of interventions involving the people concerned.

In the humanitarian field, it is the approach that each actor should follow during the development of projects in any sector of intervention, ensuring that people themselves guide each step of the process according to their needs and priorities.

CBA is inspired by the rights-based approach, a conceptual framework that integrates the norms, standards, and principles of the international human rights system into the policies, programs, and processes of development and humanitarian actors (UNHCR, 2008: 16). The integration of these two approaches with other tools, such as the age, gender, and diversity mainstream (AGDM) adopted by UNHCR, allows for a detailed analysis of the context in which it operates, giving a voice to minorities and fighting the exclusion of people based on their age, gender, ethnicity, religion, disability, and other factors.

The right-based approach on which the CBA is based is another framework through which to overcome the short-term conception that characterizes the management of refugee camps.

As explained in the first paragraphs of this thesis, the misconception about the time cycle of camps means that their design and management are based on a needs-based approach. On the basis of what is called welfarism, the humanitarian response is primarily articulated on the satisfaction of the needs of the displaced people, who are consequently seen as mere objects of charity. It is on the victimization of the person that the right-based approach opposes, not underestimating the vulnerable condition of refugees, but recognizing their value and the importance of empowering them to claim their rights.

The table below compares the characteristics of the two types of approaches.

Involving the population in decision-making processes is the ultimate goal of the CBA. It is in fact articulated around a process that aims at the empowerment of the individual and the community to which people belong, through a process that enhances a sense of ownership and sustainability, based on transparency and accountability.

Table 3: Differences between Needs-based Approach and Rights-based Approach

Needs-based Approach	Rights-based Approach
Deserving	Claim and entitlement
No one has definite obligations	Clear obligations
Receiving - beneficiaries	Active participation -partners
Some are left out	Equal rights for all
Charitable and voluntary	Mandatory, legal obligation and accountability
Address symptoms	Addresses causes

Source: UNHCR, 2008.

Empowerment

Empowerment can be described as a process by which individuals in the community analyze their situation, enhance their knowledge and resources, strengthen their capacity to claim their rights, and take action to achieve their goals (UNHCR, 2008:20). It is a concept that indicates a rethinking of the balance of power, which is often delicate and complex.

Within social structures, such as those found within refugee camps, there are dense networks of more or less visible power and well-defined hierarchical scales. The most recognizable power relationship is that between a country's government and the agencies that govern the camp as those in a position to make decisions and provide services.

Although it appears to be the most difficult relationship to change and reverse as it is influenced and shaped by political, economic, and social factors, camp communities have well-established informal networks based on cultural and social, but also political dictates, which are often much more difficult to rethink, as well as to identify in the first place.

As reported by Veneklasen (2004: 9), it is these invisible mechanisms that rule the camps that are particularly insidious, because they shape meanings and notions of what is acceptable and who is worthy in society.

In countries like Greece, which host people fleeing totalitarian regimes, as well as war and the effects of climate change, former political leaders who continue to exert their power and influence even within the camps can be present. In a climate, therefore, strongly characterized by invisible mechanisms of power, the process of empowerment

takes shape through challenging and transforming these types of power relations and creating new relationships based on values of solidarity, equity, and the common good (ibid.).

Box 2: Power dynamics within Kurdish Refugee Camps in Lavrio, Greece

Lavrio is a Greek city located in the South-Eastern part of Attica, which, for a long time, has become *home* and shelter for many migrants mainly from Afghanistan, Syria, and Turkey. In Lavrio, two informal camps, particularly interesting for the analysis of internal power dynamics, have developed.

The two camps are inhabited by people from the Kurdish minority: the biggest one called "Campo Basso", which is also the most populated, and the smallest one, called "Campo Alto", where there are about 50 people living inside (self-collected data in November 2021).

The two camps are located in Lavrio's city center, and they host around 400 people from different countries but all belonging to the Kurdish minority. The camps have a long history: the first unit of the camp ("Campo Basso") was born in the 40s, after the II World War, mainly to host political opponents fleeing their countries. Today, as in the past, the camps host people and families, many of whom fled their country for political reasons, awaiting refugee status in Europe.

The current context of the Lavrio camps is a unique example of its kind. The presence of political leaders within them has made them a self-managed reality, in which inhabitants have always been able to decide how to organize it. The camps now are based on federalism and have principles of environmentalism, feminism, and independence, and they are characterized by a rigid organization that however involves the entire community.

This case study shows how powerful the power relations that develop within camps can be. Although this is actually an exception compared to other camps in Greece, it must be noted that within each camp there are such dynamics.

Political leaders, clans, and powerful families often have partial or total control over the camp structures, creating real power hierarchies. Therefore, a community-based participatory approach, which takes these relationships into account and transforms them with a view to a shared goal of well-being, is crucial in ensuring respect for human rights and the empowerment of each individual.

Ownership, solutions, and sustainability

The aim of the CBA is to enable beneficiaries to carry on the processes initiated with the help of third parties themselves, recognize the responsibility that this entails, and take ownership of them over time. It is the natural outcome of a process that has respected the principles of meaningful participation and empowerment. (UNHCR, 2008:21). Reaching this stage takes time and is often a gradual process in which beneficiaries receive more and more responsibility and control over processes until full autonomy is achieved.

The concept of ownership is closely linked to that of sustainability. The complementarity of the two concepts is based on the fact that the assumption of responsibility by the beneficiaries for the management of the continuation of a project makes it a sustainable solution.

The importance of a participative approach with the concepts of ownership and sustainability at its core can be easily identified through a comparison with approaches used in cooperation in the past. In the past, the lack of continuation of projects by local communities, once they had been implemented by organizations, was often lamented. This was because the lack of genuine involvement of the population not only meant that the real needs of the population were not always met, but also that a sense of ownership was not created at the community level, which therefore resulted in a lack of ownership sense on the beneficiaries' side.

Transparency and accountability

Transparency refers to the provision of accessible and timely information to stakeholders and the opening up of organizational procedures, structures, and processes to their assessment (Dalle, 2006 in UNHCR, 2008:23). A fundamental step in the implementation of the community-based approach is to ensure transparency at every decision-making and

design stage. An error often encountered is not so much the lack of involvement and participation of the beneficiaries, but more a lack of clarity and transparency on the methods used, the direction taken, the objectives, and finally the results obtained. Frequently this information is shared with only a few stakeholders, often the most influential, forgetting the principles and purpose on which CBA is based, i.e. to ensure the involvement of the community as a whole, bearing in mind the importance of accounting for what is being "built" to each beneficiary.

In order to ensure transparency towards beneficiaries regarding each phase of a project, actors with implementer role are required to put in place tools for beneficiaries to express their feedback. This ensures that roles are established and each actor involved is held accountable for his actions. This operation to ensure transparency and accountability is structured around a Feedback and Complaints Response Mechanism (FCRM). There are many tools of the FCRM, one of the most common and easy to use is a hotline for all project beneficiaries and stakeholders operating via phone and messaging apps. To make these tools useful and used by the beneficiaries it is important to promote them, during the specific information sessions, in which the purpose of the different FCRM tools and how they can be accessed are presented and explained thoroughly to beneficiaries.

2.2 The concept of participation

The idea of participation is a little like eating spinach:
no one is against it in principle because it is good for you
(Arnstein, 1969: 216)

The concept of participation underlies the community-based and the rights-based approach and it is the foundation from which approaches such as participatory design has developed. In recent years, this concept has been broadly developed taking on different facets of meaning, often becoming ambiguous due to its heterogeneous applicability in terms of form and methodology.

As explained by Veneklasen (2004: 5), the meanings of participation are multiple and range from people participating by providing information to development agencies for designing projects, to people analyzing problems and participating in decision-making as genuine protagonists.

According to Arnstein (1969: 216), participation is the redistribution of power that enables the have-not citizens[2], presently excluded from the political and economic processes, to be deliberately included in the future. Arnstein, in fact, argues that citizen participation is embodied in citizen power, a redistribution of power within society and between its actors is fundamental in order to guarantee a participatory process that empowers citizens. Without this, participation would turn out to be merely an empty and frustrating process for the powerless (ibid.) useful merely to justify the actions of the powerful.

Arnstein's eight-run ladder of citizen participation aims at unpacking this complex topic through an analysis of the different types of participation and non-participation. Below is an explanation of this ladder in which the first, lower rungs represent non-participation, while the upper rungs represent citizen power.

---

[2] Arnstein defines have-not citizens as all those citizens, usually belonging to minorities, who are excluded from the participatory dynamics of the context in which they live. The author of "A ladder citizen participation" (1969), specifically, refers to the American context, giving as examples of have-nots: blacks, Mexican-Americans, Puerto Ricans, Indians, Eskimos.

The first two levels, (i) Manipulation and (ii) Therapy fall under the so-called non-participation and are described by the author as the levels that do not involve real citizen involvement, but rather forms of persuasion and persuasion by decision-makers regarding decisions already taken or planned to be taken. In the next three levels, (iii) Informing, (iv) Consultation, and (v) Placation, citizens may hear and be heard (ibid., 217). At this stage, referred to by the author as degrees of tokenism, despite the partial involvement of citizens, there is no guarantee that their demands and needs will actually be heard to be acted upon. Only through the last three levels of the scale, (vi) Partnership, (vii) Delegated power, and (viii) Citizen control, can citizens truly influence and control decision-making power.

In recent years, Arnstein's eight-rungs ladder theory has been re-evaluated. A new pragmatic approach to participation has emerged, one that no longer views participation as Arnstein's (1969) categorical term for "citizen power" (Sanoff, 2017: 8), but which sees information exchange, conflict resolution, design, and community planning as the purpose of participation. Sanoff (ibid.) reports how participation has focused on and made gains in enabling communities and groups to analyze their reality and to define and carry out solutions to local development problems. In fact, it overcame the approach that envisaged two opposing factions: the have-not citizens and the power-holders, embracing instead a vision based on the interaction between different actors aimed at constructing effective rights-based change strategies (Brock et al, 2001 in Veneklasen, 2004: 5) to be applied to each specific context.

Deshler and Sock (1985 in Sanoff, 2017: 8) take some of the categories presented in Arnestein's eight-rugs ladder and reconceptualize them within two levels of participation:

(i)   Pseudo-participation: categorized as (a) domestication encompassing informing, therapy, and manipulation, and (b) assistencialism consisting of placation, and consultation.

(ii)   (ii) Genuine participation: categorized as (a) cooperation with reference to partnership and delegation of power, and (b) citizen control, which in this context has the meaning of empowerment.

The two levels of participation identified by Deshler and Sock represent different types of participation, without proposing a contrast between participation and non-

participation. This is because participation is contextual so participation varies in type, level of intensity, extent, and frequency (ibid.). Different contexts require different levels and types of participation, which is why identifying one type of participation as unique and true is incorrect, especially in humanitarian context.

Participation is a continuous process that is always subject to change and adaptation because it is based on the dynamics that characterize a context. Therefore, in addition to a rethinking of traditional participatory models, a continuous adaptation of new ones is necessary to ensure the active involvement of citizens and inhabitants.

2.3 Implementing a community participatory approach through participatory design

Participatory design (PD) is an approach based on a set of techniques in which beneficiaries and other stakeholders work with organizations and/or other implementing actors in the design process (Sanders, et al. 2010), with the objective of producing a positive change.

Therefore, the aim of the PD attempts to actively involve stakeholders in the design process to align the result with their needs and aspirations (Albadra, D. et al. 2021: 249).

PD's methodology is based on the genuine decision-making power of the co-designers and the incorporation of their values in the design process and its outcome (Van der Velden & Mortberg, n.d: 2). Its roots lie in the ideals of a participatory democracy where collective decision-making is highly decentralized throughout all sectors of society so that all individuals learn participatory skills and can effectively participate in various ways in the making of all decisions that affect them (Sanoff, 2010 in Luck & Rachael, 2018).

Following Luck & Rachael (2018) discourse, the following guiding principles can be identified as those which underpin participatory design:

- Equalizing power relations: especially in vulnerable contexts, power relations play a central role. PD allows for a rethinking of power dynamics, establishing a vulnerable-people-centered approach, to allow every actor to express themselves freely.

- Situation-based actions: pays attention to people's expertise in their day-to-day activities in work or other practices (Van der Velden & Mortberg, n.d: 4). The analysis of the context in which one operates is fundamental in the implementation of participatory design, as each reality is characterized by specific dynamics that cannot be replicated in other contexts. This is why PD tools are not standardized but are developed with the stakeholders involved on the basis of their needs.

- Mutual learning: participation of different stakeholders with different levels of involvement allows the exchange of information and knowledge.

- Tools and techniques: play a central role in the creation of inclusive and democratic design space (Van der Velden & Mortberg, n.d, 4). A major strength of Participatory Design is that there is a robust connection between ethical practice

and the choice of methods, tools, and techniques (Robertson & Wagner, 2013, p. 78)

- Democratic practices: based on the concept of genuine participation, participatory design is one application of democratic practice, through which people are able to participate and voice out their ideas.

On the basis of the principles discussed in the previous paragraphs regarding the importance of community participation for the sustainability of projects and their ability to respond to the needs of a given context, participatory design and more generally a participatory approach is also increasingly creating space in humanitarian contexts.

Especially in such precarious contexts, based on unstable balances, building trust and confidence in public and collective processes can be extremely difficult (Boyden, 2001: 1). As explained by Boyden, migrants often come from comparatively conservative rural areas where gender, generation, and class or caste hierarchies are entrenched and difficult to eradicate. Therefore, through a series of participatory tools, the voices of those usually suppressed by these cultural and social power dynamics find space and initiate a process of empowerment.

Even though PD is credited with generating higher satisfaction rates (Albadra, D. et al. 2021: 250) among beneficiaries, its implementation is slowed down not only by the difficulty of finding the appropriate tools to ensure an inclusive and meaningful involvement of people but above all by the short-term welfarism approach that still continues to influence the humanitarian sector. The difficulties in implementation are therefore based on the issues already criticized in chapter one; hence the obvious importance of overcoming the approach described.

Therefore, as pointed out by Boyden (2001) as well, four main operational limitations to the implementation of participatory approaches can be identified:

- Short-termism

    As it is evident from the extensive discussion articulated in chapter one, the approach often adopted in particular in emergency contexts and, in detail, with regard to refugee camp management, is based on a short-term conception. As reported by Boyden himself, in most cases, neither the migrant population nor the implementing agency, nor indeed the host community, wishes to conceive of

refugee measures as being long-term, despite the fact that these are often realities that, given their life cycle, would require planning and programming that takes into consideration not only the basic needs.

- Focus on basic needs

  The second limitation presented by Boyden is in fact the focus on satisfying the so-called basic needs. Considering food management within the camps is based on accurate calculations for the satisfaction of daily needs through nutritionally balanced meals. Food needs, however, are not only defined by the number of calories a person requires to survive, but also by the composition of food baskets specific to a population. (Bender, 2021: 17). Food is an element with a strong cultural and social significance; tea, for example, is in many cultures an instrument of sociality. In some camps for asylum seekers in Greece, people were willing to sell part of their meals in order to be able to bargain them with tea, which could then be prepared in moments of sharing, recreating a familiar environment, similar to the one people experienced before entering the camp.

- Use of external rather than local expertise

  The widespread conception that sees beneficiaries as victims to be helped is reflected in the idea that experts from outside the community can respond more effectively to people's needs because they possess qualifications that make them experts in the field. This approach not only does not allow for a process of trust and empowerment of people but also risks not producing results that are useful and accepted by the beneficiaries. Indeed, local expertise is crucial in understanding and addressing the sensitive issues facing a community, particularly when dealing with extremely vulnerable contexts such as refugee camps.

- Inappropriate assumption about people's best interest

  The approach underlying the idea of the involvement of external expertise in the design and implementation phases of projects is closely linked to the inappropriate assumption that experts, and more generally the external actors involved, are in a position to recognize the best interests of the beneficiaries.

Despite the difficulties involved in implementing a participatory approach that ensures the involvement of stakeholders at every stage, models for its implementation have been developed and improved over the years.

For the purposes of this paper, the structure proposed by UNHCR will be presented, which will be used in the next chapter to draft the case study proposal.

Thus, the participatory design process, implemented through a participatory approach, can be divided into three main phases and numerous sub-phases:

Table 4: Participatory approach phases

1. Participatory assessment phase	Situation analysis	Information analysis
		Stakeholders analysis
	Participatory assessment	Establishing contacts with the community
		Assessment: expectation, time, resources
	Participatory planning	Community mobilization for empowerment
		Community mapping for management structure
		Community-based representation
		Community-based protection responses and solutions
2. Participatory design		
3. Participatory impact evaluation		

2.3.1 Participatory assessment phase

The development of any project and activity starts with a sound assessment phase, which allows the framework in which it is going to intervene to be delineated. This analysis is divided into several phases: (i) situation analysis, (ii) participatory assessment, and (iii) participatory planning, which in turn are subdivided into other sub-activities.

Situation analysis

Situation analysis, as suggested by UNHCR (2008: 28), allows humanitarian workers and the community to understand the context in order to determine the most appropriate course of action, prioritize work and plan operations to provide protection effectively. It is developed on the basis of two analyses: (i) information analysis and (ii) stakeholder analysis, which respectively aim to present the economic, political and social context and the different stakeholders involved.

Information analysis

The information analysis phase is structured around the examination of paperwork and data collected from other actors, with the aim of reconstructing a picture of the political, economic, and social context, as well as the population profile, in the intervention area.

The formal and informal political dynamics that characterize a context and the cultural and traditional aspects that influence its habits play an extremely important role in understanding possible challenges in the design and implementation phase. For this reason, need assessments, annual plans, and other existing reports and information constitute a fundamental starting point to be integrated and validated during the participatory assessment phase with the stakeholders. It must be noted that it's fundamental to review the information collected from an age, gender, and diversity perspective to identify protection gaps in information, services, assistance, or in advocacy. (UNHCR, 2006: 2).

Stakeholders analysis

Stakeholder analysis is the process of identifying all those individuals or groups that might be affected by a particular action and that therefore have a particular interest in participating in the planning of activities or can influence an operation (UNHCR, 2008: 32). By gathering the views and perspectives of stakeholders, it is possible to create a framework for structuring a project that is true to context, as well as to create a climate of trust that improves the relationships between actors.

Although stakeholders analysis is loosely defined, it is important to clarify some terminological aspects by distinguishing beneficiaries, stakeholders, and partners.

- Beneficiaries: those who benefit in any way from the implementation of the project. A distinction can be made between:
  - Primary beneficiaries / direct beneficiaries / target group(s): the group or entity that will be directly positively affected by the project at the level of the project outcome.
  - Final beneficiaries / indirect beneficiaries: those who benefit from the project in the long term at the level of society or sector in general.
  - Stakeholders: individuals or institutions that may - directly or indirectly, positively or negatively - affect or be affected by a project. Several stakeholder typologies can be identified:
    - o Political-institutional organizations, which represent the most powerful actors of a territory.
    - o Service providers, which maximize effectiveness from the technical point of view.
    - o Civil society: NGOs, social/moral/religious/cultural references, including target groups and their representatives.
    - o Information and data holders, such as universities, research centers, and who have deep knowledge of the topic.
    - o Funding agencies: which is a particular category, since the economic sustainability of the projects depends on them.

- Project partners: those who implement the project in the country.

When analyzing stakeholders, it is essential to pay special attention to the most vulnerable groups. Therefore, the gender perspective must be transversal, not only during the development of the information analysis but also in the development of the stakeholder analysis. Paying attention to the gender perspective also makes the assessment much more attentive to the needs of children and the elderly, as they are often dependent on the care of women. At the same time, the analysis for the involvement of women in participatory processes must take into account whether women's situation is free to be taken into consideration given stakeholder choice. Indeed, it is not enough to involve women and other vulnerable groups if they are then not free to speak and contribute because of the other actors involved in these processes. Appropriate spaces and timeframes for the involvement of these stakeholders must be considered at an early stage of assessment and design.

Participatory assessment

The situation analysis outlined through data collection and context study is consolidated and validated through a participatory approach involving the community. In turn, this participatory assessment phase is divided into two phases: (i) the first one is about establishing contact with the community and (ii) the second one addresses the actual participatory approach that involves the outlining of expectations by the community, an analysis of timeframes, and the necessary resources.

Establishing contact with the community

Before proceeding with any kind of participatory assessment, it is necessary to develop a relationship of trust and respect with the community and the actors involved, through partnerships and collaboration. Situation analysis, through which the intrinsic dynamics of a context are highlighted, is used to understand community balances and identify potential community-based organizations or committees with which to initiate dialogue. This is a time-consuming operation. Establishing a relationship of mutual trust and confidence in developing and/or emergency contexts can be extremely complex, due to the prejudices and biases present on both sides, the community and external actors. At this stage, it is extremely important to establish good and transparent communication. The development of an outreach strategy conducted in the community language(s), which is articulated so as not to reach only leaders or only certain groups, is crucial.

The process through which trust is established does not end after this initial assessment phase. It unfolds throughout the duration of the collaboration among actors, from the initial analysis, through the planning and design phases, to the final evaluation phases.

Assessment: expectations, time, resources

In this phase, an important dialogue is used to identify priorities regarding areas of intervention, risks and opportunities at the community level with the concerned population. This is the moment in which community expectations concerning their needs are addressed.

Participatory planning

The participatory planning phase is the phase that concludes the evaluation work. This is when the various stakeholders come together to carry out a final analysis of the information gathered through the desk review, the study of the context and population profile, the stakeholder analysis, and the participatory assessments (UNHCR, 2008: 52). Preceding the participatory planning phase, the purpose of participatory planning is to identify common goals and actions among stakeholders in order to identify the direction to be taken for project development.

The planning phase according to UNHCR consists of 4 main activities: (i) community mobilization for empowerment, (ii) community mapping for management structure, (iii) community-based representation, and (iv) community-based protection responses and solutions; briefly explained below.

Community mobilization for empowerment

It is a process that, through the building of a relationship of trust and confidence, sees the community recognizing its rights and protecting them, taking the lead in discussions to identify short- and long-term goals and solutions, emphasizing priorities and recognizing risks.

Community mobilization often starts with the establishment of contacts and relationships with informal community leaders and then involves the rest of the population. This can be an extremely complex process that encounters numerous challenges, mainly cultural and social, but also related to people's extreme vulnerability and often distorted perceptions based on mistrust of other actors involved.

Community mapping of management structures

What is often underestimated in the assessment phase is, in addition to the power dynamics discussed in the previous paragraphs, the management structures of realities such as refugee camps. Although not explicitly visible, a set of rules and norms defines the informal structure of camp management rules at the head of which are leaders or people in a position of power. It is important to map these structures in order to understand how they function and the importance they have for people.

These kinds of structures often hide the scourges of exploitation, prostitution, and violence in a broad sense, hence the need to understand and eradicate them. At the same time, these kinds of structures allow for the identification of cultural aspects that are important and traditional for the people involved. Therefore, it is necessary to improve existing structures to ensure that the community is represented equitably and that the structures allow for the meaningful participation of women, adolescents, children with disabilities, and other marginalized groups. (ibid.: 58).

Community-based representation

Following the community mapping process, it is important to highlight the results that have emerged and in particular to identify any minorities not represented by local leaders in order to ensure their involvement. The establishment of communities representing the interests and needs of the different groups present is the first useful tool to ensure representation. The implementation of approaches such as the Age, Gender, and Diversity Mainstream is fundamental to structure a community planning process that is truly inclusive and that addresses everyone's' needs.

Community-based protection responses and solutions

As reported by UNHCR, communities, and individuals often develop their own response and defense mechanisms in response to the protection risks they are exposed to. This system does not always respond to all risks that may be present in humanitarian contexts. Especially when it comes to sexual and gender-based violence, there is no community response at all. The reason is often to be found within the cultural and religious sphere, which sees women and girls in a condition of social subordination.

It is the task of the actors involved in these contexts to investigate the situation (see Table 5 below) and develop systems and paths to raise awareness of issues related to violence, in particular gender-based violence, through educational activities in schools and support for women and girls first, and men and boys later.

Responses and solutions must therefore be sought within the community, if they already exist, and developed in cooperation with the community if they do not.

Table 5: Themes and sample questions on protection risks

Livelihood
- Who does what in the community and how much time does it take?   - Do women face problems of lack of access to markets, supplies, technology, credit, skills training and information, and lack of decision-making powers? Do men face similar problems?   - Who has access to various resources (e.g. who has jobs, access to markets, access to materials such as firewood)?   - Who decides how resources are used? Who decides to integrate locally and who decides to return?   - What is the impact of these problems on girls, boys, adolescents, women, men? Do children work? What types of work do children do?
Education
- What do girls and boys do with their time?   - Who goes to school? Who does not get to go to school?   - What do girls who do not go to school do with their time? And boys?   - What do girls who do go to school do outside school? And boys?   - Are you afraid (are your children afraid) of going to school or of anything at school?   - Who stays at home? Who is in charge? What is the impact on the family?   - How are girls and boys looked after if they remain behind to attend school when the parents return home?
Community participation
- Do women participate in committees? Why not or how often? Do children participate in committees?   - Do women have access to decision-making? Do they make decisions? What do women think about that? And men? What is the impact in the community?   - What would women and men like to do differently? How would you go about change?
Health / Food and Nutrition / Water / Shelter

● What types of health problems are most widespread in the community?
● Who takes care of people when they get sick?
● Who do people go to see when they are not well? What happens if they get sick at night or over the weekend? What types of health problems are covered? Which are not covered?
● Are there children in the community who do not get appropriate food? Other people without proper/enough food? Are there malnourished children in the community? How are they treated? Can we visit them?
● How do pregnant and lactating women eat differently from other household members?
● How do you use water? How do you maintain personal/ community hygiene?
● How could houses and neighborhoods be maintained so as to avoid health risks? What is the layout/design of living arrangements? Town/camp?
Security and safety
● What are the dangers that you experience in this environment?
● Do you feel that your physical safety and security are at risk? At what time? Why?
● What is the source of the danger? Who is involved?
● What do you worry about when you leave your home?
● What do you worry about for your children/husband/wife?
● Are you aware of any incidents/problems that have threatened your friends or neighbours?
● How can you put a stop to domestic violence?
● Does violence occur? What types of violence?
● What do men think about it? And women? Girls and boys? What do you think about it?
● What can be done about it?
● Where does the violence occur?
Coping with risks and developing solutions
● How do you think the situation could be improved? How do you and your neighbours cope with these risks?
● What do you do to protect your children?
● What services or activities are available to you to help address these risks? How can they help?
● How in your culture/traditions were such problems dealt with/avoided before your displacement? How can that be applied now?
● Would you be willing to help in improving the situation? How do you think you could help?
Prioritising risks
● Of all the issues just discussed, which do you consider the most important/urgent?
● Who should be involved?
● What might the community do to address this concern

Source: adaptation of UNHCR, 2006: 58-61

2.3.2 Participatory design

Participatory design, also called "cooperative design" and "codesign," has been proposed since the 1970s as a method to fulfill the concept of designing "with the people," not "for the people." (Roth, 1999 in Alshawawreh, 2021). It is widely used in various fields, from architecture to engineering to the social sciences, but in the humanitarian sector its applicability, especially to the shelter and settlement sector remains limited.

Within the participatory approach, participatory design constitutes the phase of action, in which users, in the case of this paper, camp residents, are actively involved in decision-making processes regarding the implementation of projects in which they are the direct beneficiaries.

According to Hussein (2012) any design project should be based on a strong understanding of the history, culture, and society. Based on this assumption, participatory design methods must be adapted to local conditions and cannot be strict within rigid categories.

It must noted, that the application of this approach can present several challenges at different levels. Hussain (2012) identified four main categories of challenges present in the application of the participatory approach in humanitarian contexts:

Table 6: Factors that can lead to challenges in participatory design projects

Category	Factors
Human aspects	Designer's relationship to participants
	Access to users and other stakeholders
	Participant's availability to participate
	Language barriers
Social, cultural and religious aspects	Social and cultural structures that can make it difficult for participants to collaborate, especially women and other *vulnerable* people
	Customs and religious belief that can impact participants' willingness to share opinions

Financial aspects and timeframe	Financial resources available for transport, rent of workshop premises, hiring translators, training participants, etc.
	Time available for training participants and gaining their trust
Organizational aspects	The recognition of the importance of user participation in the organization
	The willingness to allocate resources for participatory design processes
	The hierarchy within the organization that produces or provides the product
	The tradition for using participatory design processes in the organization.

Source: Hussain, S., et al. (2012).

A wide range of tools can be implemented during the participatory design phase to involve stakeholders and create shared and sustainable solutions.

Before proceeding with the analysis of some of the most widely used participatory tools, it is important to make a terminological premise.

As pointed out by Albadra et al. (2021), terms such as tools, toolkits, techniques, methods, and approaches are used in different contexts. Following the terminology proposed by Sanders et al. (2010), in this paper, tools are defined as the materials used during the activities, the toolkit is the collection of tools, while methods are the combination of tools and/or techniques used to implement a project through participatory design.

Tools that can be used in the participatory design phases are many, precisely because each tool is developed and adapted to the context in which it is implemented. Moreover, different visualization tools may be more suitable at each stage (Albadra, 2021: 151). Below is a non-exhaustive description of the most commonly used tools:

Table 7: Participatory design tools and techniques

Tool category		Tool	Description
Visualization tools	Traditional	Pen, paper, plasticine, Lego, cards	They are basic and most popular tools, partly because of their easy availability, low cost and the fact that they can be used by everyone without special knowledge, unlike many computerized tools.
		Maps, sketching, and photographs	They are the most frequently used tools during workshops and group activities. They aid dialogue and promote understanding of complex issues while remaining user-friendly tools.
		Physical models	They are extremely useful tools for realistically seeing what is realized on flat surfaces through drawings, maps, etc.
	Computerized	Hypermedia	Information-gathering tool that combines data of different kinds, audio, video, text, and graphics.
		Geographic Information system (GIS)	This is a useful computer system for the creation, analysis, and management of maps. It requires the mediation of a GIS expert who prepares these maps before they can be used by the stakeholders involved in participatory processes.
		Architectural drawings & mapping computer modeling: 2D and 3D	They are technical tools that enable the visualization of reality in a more defined manner than maps, drawings, and photographs. They are used by the user but must be prepared by experts with computer, graphic, and technical knowledge
		Virtual Reality (VR)	The instrument is an extremely realistic tool, allowing accuracy in detail and enabling the user to work with a high level of precision.
Techniques category		Technique	Description
Talking and explaining		Interviews	It is one of the most widely used techniques for gathering information, as it allows a wide variety of topics to be covered. Interviews can be conducted with one person or more than one person at the same time. However, one-to-one dialogue is preferred in order to establish a relationship and climate of trust with the interviewee, who feels more inclined to share ideas on sensitive and personal topics. Interviews can be free or semi-structured depending on the purpose of the interview.

	Focus-groups discussion & Group conversations	Focus-group discussions and group conversations consist in group activities that enable analysis and understanding of a selected topic on the basis of the common characteristics of the group. These techniques are useful to explore group responses to a topic of common concern but inappropriate for sensitive topics perceived at a personal level (UNHCR, 2006). They allow more or less structured wide-ranging discussions, and several of the visualization tools, in particular traditional ones, are implemented.
Making/building things	Mapping	Mapping is one of the most widely used techniques due to its versatility, allowing different types of aspects to be mapped with very different tools, from information collected during interviews and focus groups to data
	Mock-ups	This is a technique through which it is possible to create simulations of reality through the use of various tools, especially computerized ones, such as GIS, architectural drawings.
Acting, enacting and playing tools	Games	These are different types of games, with the aim of bringing out different skills and expertise among the participants to explore various design possibilities within a game context. The different games refer to various aspects of design: games for conceptualizing design, design games in 'exchange perspective', negotiation- and workflow-oriented design games and scenario-oriented design games (Brandt, 2006).
	Envisioning and enactment	
	Improvisation	
	Scenarios	

Sources: author's elaboration of Al-Kodmany, 2001; Brown, 2003 in Albadra, D. et al. 2021. Sanders, et al. 2010, Akach, et al, 2021. UNHCR, 2006.

2.3.3 Participatory impact evaluation

Impact evaluation is usually the last stage of a project, which takes place once implementation is complete to calculate and evaluate the impact it has had and what change it has brought.

Evaluations tend to focus on measuring project objectives, the extent to which they were achieved, and if they weren't, why not (Cathley, et al, 2013). Participatory approaches in impact evaluation aim at changing this perspective by adopting a person-centred approach, through the involvement of stakeholders, particularly the participants in a project, in different aspects of the evaluation process (Guijt, 2014).

On the rationales for why participatory impact evaluation is a better choice than traditional approaches, the experts identify two reasons: the first is an ethical motivation, based on the rights-based approach, which provides for the right of beneficiaries to be informed and involved in all decisions that affect them. The second reason is pragmatic: a participatory evaluation has higher levels of accuracy and completeness.

Guijt (2014) reports that UNHCR emphasizes the benefits of this approach, pointing out the improvement in accuracy and relevance of reported impacts by listening to the positive or negative experiences of beneficiaries, the improvement in establishing and explaining causality through the listening of different perspectives and the verification of the results with the stakeholders. At the same time, participation, as for the other phase of the project design, improves trust and relationships between stakeholders, while providing important feedback about the project to be implemented in future projects.

It should be highlighted that in order to boost the level of accuracy of the evaluation, it is important, in addition to flexibility and adaptability of the evaluation tools and techniques to the context, to adopt the Age, Gender, and Diversity Mainstream at this stage as well. Cornwall (2003 in Guijt. 2014) reports how the involvement of children in the evaluation phase (and beyond) is crucial. Very often it tends to be forgotten that children can also contribute with feedback on projects of which they have been direct beneficiaries, highlighting aspects that

parents and caregivers may underestimate or fail to notice. Different types and levels of participation of children during impact evaluation are presented in Annex 5.

According to Cathley et al (2013), eight stages for designing a participatory impact evaluation can be identified.

- Stage 1 Define the questions to be answered.
  It is one of the most important and difficult stages to design because the questions to be asked of the beneficiaries involved in the project decide the objective of the evaluation, which must be clear from the beginning of the evaluation phase.

- Stage 2 Define the geographical and time limits of the project.
  It is important to define with the participants the geographical area they are to focus on. Participants involved in the participatory evaluation may be asked to provide feedback on specific geographical areas or on the area covered by the entire project, so it is important to clarify boundaries as well as timeframes from the outset.

- Stage 3 Identify and prioritize locally defined impact indicators
  Two types of indicators are usually used to assess the impact of a Project: (i) process indicators, which measure the implementation of project activities, and (ii) impact indicators, which measure the impact of activities on target people.
  It is important that these indicators fulfil five criteria: specificity, measurability, reachability, relevance, and time-bound. In a participatory impact evaluation, these indicators are identified by the beneficiaries: communities have their own priorities for improving their lives, and their own ways of describing and measuring change (Catley, et al. 2013).
  The indicators identified by the community often do not reflect those required by the donor or the project leader, so a collaborative approach is needed to integrate all types of indicators emerging from the different stakeholders.

- Stage 4 Decide which methods to use for measuring change, and test them
  The methods for measuring change are varied and must be chosen according to context and needs. The most widely used include: (i) simple ranking, (ii) simple scoring, (iii)

before and after scoring, (iv) before and after proportional piling, (v) pair-wise ranking, (vi) matrix scoring (ibid.).

- Stage 5 Decide which sampling method and sample size to use
  After having identified the methods for measuring change, it is necessary to identify the sampling methods. Again, several possibilities are present and the choice must be based on the context and the project to be evaluated. The most common types of sampling are random sampling, purposive sampling, and convenience sampling.

- Stage 6 Decide how to assess project attribution
  Project attribution are the factors that could cause a change in a context, but are not attributable to the project, thus running the risk of alternating the impact evaluation. It is important to identify and develop a strategy to ensure that they do not influence the outcome of the evaluation.

- Stage 7 Decide how to triangulate results from participatory methods with other information.
  Triangulation is the phase involving the cross-checking of data using the different sources of information: secondary data, mapping, informal interviews, direct observation, matrix scoring, etc.

- Stage 8 Plan the feedback and final cross-checking of results with communities.
  The last phase of the evaluation involves the validation of the results by the community. This is the time when feedback and final comments are collected from the people involved in the project regarding the results achieved.

3. Samos Closed Controlled Access Centre: the proposal

Although the shelter and settlement sector is the foundation of humanitarian response, Albadra (2021) reports that very few studies exist on PD for shelter design, especially applied to refugee camps within the European Union. Despite the issues related to the living conditions of migrants reaching Greek shores and beyond, there is no effort in the direction of change in the planning of these reception facilities, which thus remain far from ensuring the fulfilment of people's rights and have a detrimental impact on occupants' health and wellbeing. The following proposal is intended to be a contribution toward a new direction.

As already explained at the beginning of the paper, this proposal is not intended to legitimise in any way the construction of camps and their adoption as long-term solutions nor to share the approach embraced by the Greek government and the European Union regarding migrants' management. However, knowing that these structures exist and aware that a change in the reception approach is necessary at the European level, starting from an internal work in the camp, with residents as protagonists, to improve their conditions, first and foremost, but also to demonstrate the effectiveness of this participatory model, it is a first step in that direction.

Therefore, the proposal aims at providing evidence of how the application of a participatory approach is not only possible but also to demonstrate the benefits of its implementation on multiple levels.

The proposal is structured according to the main phases of the participatory approach: (i) participatory assessment phase, and (ii) participatory design. Each of these phases is built on information gathered on the island of Samos from interaction with residents of the Closed Controlled Access Centre.

3.1 Participatory assessment phase

Situation analysis: (i) information analysis

The Hotspot Approach

In 2015, in order to cope with the increasing flow of migrants pushing at Europe's southern borders, the European Commission (n.d.) developed the so-called Hotspot Approach, defining it:

> "Approach where the European Union Agency for Asylum (EUAA), the European Border and Coast Guard Agency (Frontex), Europol and Eurojust work on the ground with the authorities of frontline EU Members States which are facing disproportionate migratory pressures at the EU's external borders to help to fulfil their obligations under EU law and swiftly identify, register and fingerprint incoming migrants".

This is in fact a rethinking of the traditional models of managing migratory flows entering the various European countries, particularly Italy and Greece, as southern border areas of the EU for which migration and border management proceeds no longer under national authority but in a coalescence of public and private, state and non-state, national, international and supranational actors (Ayata, 2018, p.4).

The European Commission does not impose an obligation to adopt this approach, except when states request access to emergency funds. This is why Greece and Italy are now implementing this approach on their national territory.

The substantial difference introduced with the hotspot approach lies in the pre-selection upon arrival of those who can take part in the asylum application process and those who do not. Prior to 2015, based on the Geneva Conventions and the Refugee Convention adopted by the member states in 1951, asylum procedures were the responsibility of the individual states, which were in charge of examining submitted applications. With the implementation of the hotspot approach, a previous phase was established to select those who will be able to access the asylum application process based on the distinction between *deserving* and *undeserving*. In Greece, this phase, called pre-filtering, is conducted in hotspot facilities called Reception and Identification Centres (RIC). The five islands of Lesvos, Chios, Samos, Leros, and Kos have been designated by the Greek government as the place to conduct Reception and Identification Services (RIS). The

rationale for the choice of these locations is evidently based on the geographical location of the 5 islands, which lie close to the Turkish coast, the starting point of those seeking to reach Europe via the Balkan route. Law no. 4375/2016 (ibid.), which established the RICs in Greece, provides for a stay of a maximum of 25 days at these facilities; during this time, pre-filtering should take place, following which the *deserving* should be transferred to the mainland to begin the asylum application process, while the *undeserving* should instead be returned to Turkey.

It is evident that the situation is very different from what was theorised at the European level through the hotspot approach. The five Greek islands designated as RICs have become prison locations where migrants spend years before being relocated to the mainland. Even today, migrants deemed deserving to enter the document application process are no longer even transferred to the mainland and remain on the islands until they are granted asylum. In the months and years spent in these facilities, residents are forced to live in conditions initially conceived as short-term solutions, thus finding themselves in structures unfit to be inhabited and lived in for medium to long periods of time. The situation is further aggravated by the climate of fear established by the European agencies delegated to control these areas, in particular FRONTEX, which has been publicly accused on several occasions of carrying out illegal pushbacks and/or failing to provide sea rescue.

Samos

In March 2016, the first RIC was opened in Samos, located a 15-minute walk from the town of Vathi, the island's capital of around 7000 inhabitants. Designed to have a maximum capacity of 700 people, it hosted up to 9000 people between 2015 and 2016. In these two years, UNHCR (n.d.) reported the arrival in Greece by sea of 857,000 people in 2015 and 174,000 people in 2016, respectively. It is because of this huge migratory flow that the Samos camp has expanded exponentially outside the original borders of the centre, as visible in the image below, giving shape to what is still referred to as 'the jungle'.

built structure
registration area
asylum processing area
shelter area
informal shelter area
semi-formal shelter area
services (Food, Info point, education)
military area
pre-removal area

built structure
security tower or post
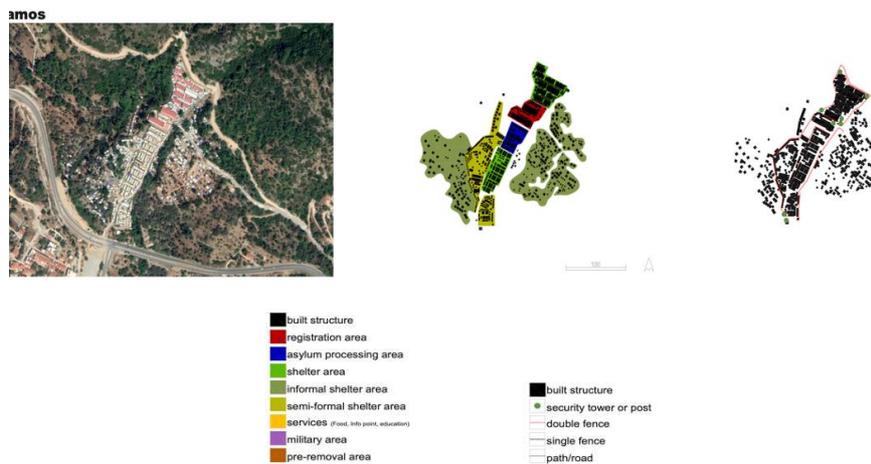double fence
single fence
path/road

Figure 3: The Jungle: the first RIC in Samos
Source: Ayata, 2018, p.55

From the interviews conducted and field visits, it is possible to sketch a picture of the camp's structure and management.

The structure of the camp was strongly shaped over time by the migratory flows that arrived on the island particularly between 2015 and 2016, effectively creating an informal buffer zone around the original designated core. While in the shelter area initially identified for the accommodation of the residents the shelters consisted mainly of prefabricated structures, in the informal shelter area the dwellings were mainly tents supplemented by other makeshift materials, such as wood and sheet metal. Despite the precarious conditions and apparent chaos of the shelter distribution, the jungle had its own logic and spatial organisation. An informal subdivision on the basis of the family unit: the area for families, the area for single women and children, and the area for single men. Added to this subdivision was one based on origin, which was also often visually identifiable by the difference in the structure of the shelters, particularly the few prefabricated buildings within the informal area. The little internal organisation of the spaces, which was possible in small tents, and the structure of the tents themselves often differed from one area to another, and thus, based on the origin of the people on the basis of cultural and social factors. Another factor that allowed for the identification of the different areas within the camp was the music and activities performed in the common areas.

The RIC's proximity to the centre of the city of Vathi allowed the residents to interact daily with the NGOs located almost all in the capital and to take part in their activities and initiatives, particularly in the fields of education/training and psychological support. The different organisations also provided assistance to the residents and allowed them to be involved as community volunteers, giving them the responsibility to manage and design activities according to their own needs and those of the other camp residents.

The jungle will be officially closed in 2021, following the opening of the new Closed Controlled Access Centre (CCAC) in Zervou (also called Zervou Refugee Camp), an isolated location in the centre of the island. This facility is part of a larger project to build five EU-funded facilities to the tune of EUR 250 million. The one in Samos is the first centre to be launched and has seen EUR 43 million in support for construction. The CCAC represents the aggressive policy of criminalization of immigration undertaken by European countries; in fact, the camp looks more like a prison than a place of reception. Fence walls, barbed wire, and turnstiles presided over by the army define the boundaries of the centre, whose entrance is regulated by thermos-scanners and fingerprinting systems. It is evident that its operation is based on a control system using cameras and management of permitted entry and exit times.

As with the initial structure of the 'old' camp, the new facility is also divided into areas, as can be seen from the map in the figure below. The organisation of the interior spaces is very strict and the division into areas, such as unaccompanied minors and single parents families, are already identified.

As for the shelters inside the CCAC, they are prefabs and containers with the following characteristics according to the categorization provided by UNHCR (2020) and given in the first chapter of this paper:

Shelter solution	Type of shelter	Pros	Cons	Application examples
Prefabricated shelter, containers (i.e., Refugee Housing Unit)	Transitional shelter	Permanent or semi-permanent structures; long-lasting.	High unit cost; long shipping time; long production time; transport challenges; transport emissions; assembly challenges; inflexibility; disregard cultural and social norms.	Azraq camp, Jordan

Figure 4: Closed Controlled Access Centre structure
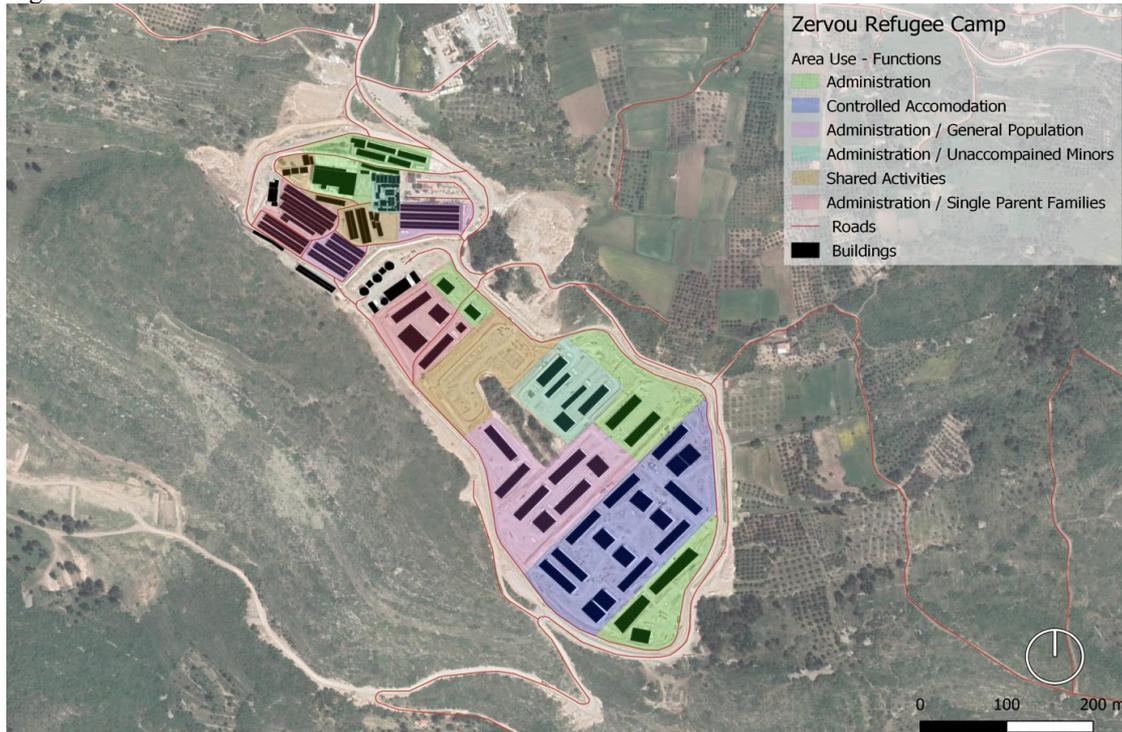
Source: Author's elaboration, 2022

The camp, therefore, is completely made up of containers and prefabs identical to each other and recognizable only by the numbering on the doors. The dimensions are extremely small and often present numerous problems, especially related to the water supply.

> " We share the container with another family. We only have one
> key for the whole container, there are no keys to the bedrooms. It's
> not easy to live together " - a resident to Samos Advocacy
> Collective, 2021

The structures used as common spaces, such as administrative offices, also consist of the same types of shelters. Seen from above, the camp has all the appearance of a place of detention, surrounded, controlled, and inside which the dwellings are identical to each other.

Moreover, there has been no shortage of problems and malfunctions since the opening of the centre, as explained by Samos Advocacy Collective (2022) (see table 8), in its first monitoring report on living conditions inside the camp.

Table 8: Timeline of CCAC key events

2021	September	*Population: around 450 people* Inauguration of the CCAC and transfer of residents Technical malfunctioning in the CCAC (ongoing)
	October	Suspension of the 'Cash Assistance programme for 3 months MSF begins attending landing to provide
	November	Movement restrictions for individuals without ID (ongoing) Case of arbitrary and illegal detention (ongoing)
	December	Flooding in the CCAC
2022	January	The system to submit a 'subsequent application' finally restarted Community organized protest against mobility restrictions in the CCAC
	February	No permanent doctor in the CCAC (ongoing)
	March	Case of attempted pushback and illegal detention resulting in a pregnant woman losing her baby
	April	Intensified mobility restrictions for people without asylum applicant card
	May	Severe restriction on running water supply in the CCAC for 16 days #Samos2 trial
	June	Technical malfunctions with air-conditioning units
	July	Recognised refugees facing homelessness due to long wait to receive necessary documents
	August	Speeding up of the asylum process and procedural violations *Population: around 1000 people*

Source: Samos Advocacy Collective, 2022

Interviews with people who experienced the transfer from the old camp to the new centre repeatedly reveal the desire of many residents to continue living in *the jungle*. Although it appears difficult for outsiders to understand, given the sanitary and security conditions in the old camp, people report feeling less imprisoned and controlled.

The possibility of organising the tents into areas based on criteria chosen by the inhabitants themselves allowed them to create a more liveable environment, despite the more than critical conditions. This informal division gave space for cultural and social differences that were important for maintaining the identity and cultural roots of the different peoples living in the camp. Although it should not be underestimated that these subdivisions often led to tensions and clashes between communities, the interviewees explain how the dynamics created within the camp were more acceptable than the confinement they are now subjected to in the new camp (see Annex 6). It is significant for understanding the nature of the CCAC to note how the testimonies reveal how a dramatic situation, in which rape, delinquency and violence, and a total lack of hygiene and security were perceived for some aspects a better alternative to life within the CCAC.

The following are the main documents supporting the information analysis:

Topic	Document
	Christides, G., Steffen. L. (April 28th, 2022). Frontex Involved in Illigal Pushbacks of Hundreds of Refugees. SPIEGEL International. Retrieved from https://www.spiegel.de/international/europe/frontex-involved-in-illegal-pushbacks-of-hundreds-of-refugees-a-9fe90845-efb1-4d91-a231-48efcafa53a0 (last access November 3rd, 2022).
Frontex abuses	Fallon. K. (April 28th, 2022). Revealed: EU border agency involved in hundreds of refugee pushbacks. The Guardian. Retrieved from https://www.theguardian.com/global-development/2022/apr/28/revealed-eu-border-agency-involved-in-hundreds-of-refugee-pushbacks (last access November 3rd, 2022).
	Cossé, E. (October 17th, 2022). The EU Continues to Acquiesce to Greece Border Abuses. Human Right Watch. Retrieved from https://www.hrw.org/news/2022/10/17/eu-continues-acquiesce-greece-border-abuses (last access November 3rd, 2022).

	Euronews. (October 14th, 2022). EU border agency Frontex covered up illegal migrants pushbacks, says report. Retrieved from https://www.euronews.com/my-europe/2022/10/14/eu-border-agency-frontex-covered-up-illegal-migrant-pushbacks-says-report (last access November 3rd, 2022).
Samos situation	Greek Council for Refugees. (December 22nd, 2021). The Administrative Court of Syros ruled unlawful the measure of prohibiting the exit of an Afghan asylum seeker from the new closed Controlled Access Facility of Samos. Retrieved from https://www.gcr.gr/en/news/press-releases-announcements/item/1867-the-administrative-court-of-syros-ruled-unlawful- (last access November 3rd, 2022).
	Samos Advocacy Collective. (2022). "We don't need anything, just freedom". 1 Year Samos CCAC Report.
	Samos Advocacy Collective, Europe Must Act. (2022). "A life without freedom is not life". Life in the Closed Controlled Access Centre in Samos.

65

Situation analysis: (ii) stakeholders' analysis

As explained in the previous chapter, in any activity carried out and proposed within the camp, residents are the main actors, as direct beneficiaries. Consequently, based on what is argued in this elaboration, they are also the actors involved in the planning and implementation of the different activities.

In addition to the beneficiaries, Samos has a high concentration of actors, especially non-governmental actors, highly specialised in different areas of humanitarian assistance. Below is the analysis conducted listing their function, potential strengths and risks, and implications.

STAKEHOLDER	FUNCTION / RESPONSIBILITY	SPECIFIC STRENGTHS	POTENTIAL RISKS / LIMITATIONS	IMPLICATIONS (how the activity could benefit from stakeholder support)
Médecins Sans Frontières (MSF)	International NGO providing health and medical support and assistance to camp residents. It disseminates good practices related to health and hygiene.	They have worked on the island for years and know the hygienic and sanitary situation of the people living in the camp. They enjoy national and international recognition; their voice is heard and can influence decisions taken at different levels.	Potentially having deteriorated relationships with the Greek government.	Support in increasing awareness about health and hygiene among the residents of camp.
Advocats Sans Frontières (ASF)	International NGO providing legal support to camp residents.	They have the tools to monitor the respect of human rights within the camp.	N/A	Support in increasing awareness among residents about their rights.

Europe Must Act	NGO advocating for a change in reception conditions in Greece and Europe and keeping the living condition in camps strictly monitored.	They are a strong voice at European level.	They stand against camps as reception modality. Potentially having deteriorated relationships. with institutional stakeholders	Monitoring and reporting the situation inside the camp and share good practices related to participatory approach.
Samos Volunteers	NGO working on Samos since 2016 providing different kind of services for the residents of the camp: daily classes for youth, women safe space, study and quite space, laundry station.	Strongly rooted within the camp community. They built a strong trust relationship with camp residents through the years. They represent a point of reference within refugee in Samos.	N/A	The NGO is already based on camp resident participation. Refugees are strongly involved in the development of activities and programs. Methods and tools can be shared
I Have Rights	International NGO providing legal support to camp residents, specifically in preparing the interview for asylum process.	They are familiar with the permanence duration of camp residents, as they know the functioning of the asylum application procedures.	Not a strong voice in the legal sector in the national/international context	Support in increasing awareness among residents about their rights.
Refugee4Refugee	NGO working in different localities in Greece. In Samos it is mainly involved in NFI distributions.	Grassroot organisation with a good reputation among camp residents.	Momentarily working in a redesign of its structure and activities	Support in involving camp residents.
Glocal Roots	NGO working in different localities in Greece. In Samos it offers a Women Safe Place for refugee women.	Rooted within the camp community. The activities they offer are highly attended and participated.	N/A	They are strongly prepared regarding GBV response

Movement on the Ground	International NGO with the mission of transforming refugee camps into sustainable settlements.	They have been working within the CCAC since the first day it opened and are therefore familiar with its dynamics and management.	Relations with other grassroots organisations are sometimes strained, due to the NGO's proximity and strong collaboration with the government when the camp was built.	Possible actor in charge of the implementation of activities or otherwise support for management and planning.
Selfm.aid	NGO providing to camp residents raw materials to build whatever they need and supporting them through workshops to improve manual skills.	Strongly rooted within the camp community, especially within young men.	Not a strong voice in the civil society arena	Can support with technical expertise in shelter construction and adaptation.
Just Action	NGO providing mainly food and hygiene items to camp residents.	They work also with local communities, not just the camp community	Not a strong voice in the civil society arena	Support in increasing awareness about health and hygiene.
Samos Advocacy Collective	NGO advocating for camp residents' rights, monitoring closely the situation of the life inside the camp in every aspect.	They are a strong voice at national and European level.	Partially deteriorated relationships with the Greek government.	Monitoring and reporting the situation inside the camp and share good practices related to participatory approach.
IOM	UN agency contracted by the Greek government through the Ministry of Migration and Asylum, to manage the hotspot facilities.	In charge of the management of the camp.	More inclined to work with the Greek government than local NGOs.	Potentially can play a role of facilitator between NGOs and government.
UNHCR	UN agency providing assistance to refugees.	Support IOM in the management of the camp.	More inclined to work with the Greek government than local NGOs.	Potentially can play a role of facilitator between NGOs and government.

Participatory assessment and participatory planning

The several phases of participatory assessment and participatory planning in the Samos context are facilitated by the important presence of grassroots NGOs that work closely and daily with camp residents and have built a relationship of mutual trust over time.

A particularly important aspect for this phase, but in general for the implementation of participatory design, is the presence of community volunteers in almost all NGOs operating on the island. The NGOs, which involve the camp residents in their daily activities, through this mechanism of participation not only guarantee a series of benefits to the community volunteers, such as lunch, bus tickets to get around, phone internet card, but also give them the opportunity to empower their fellowship by putting their knowledge into play and allowing them to develop soft skills useful for life outside the camp. The community volunteers, therefore, in addition to being beneficiaries of the activities, become spokespersons for the needs of the rest of the camp population and a fundamental piece in the construction of a network connecting the beneficiaries and various actors operating on the island.

The daily interactions between NGOs and residents make it possible to conduct a mapping of the socio-political structures within the camp. In addition to the paucity of official data provided by the government or U.N. agencies, NGOs alone are able to sketch a picture of what are the power dynamics and relationships between the communities within the camp.

Regarding the countries of origin of residents, Samos Island mirrors the trend reported at the national level (see table 9 below). MSF in some unofficial releases reports Palestine, Sudan, Eritrea, Afghanistan, Somalia, Syria, Dem. Rep. Of the Congo, Cameroon, and Angola as the most common countries of origin.

The internal dynamics that characterise camp life are many, but some are more significant and impactful than others. The Somali community holds some power, as it is particularly large in number and because it has families and individuals within it who were particularly well off and often held positions of some power in Somalia. At the same time, the process of getting protection is relatively quick compared to that which people from other countries must undertake, this is because it is relatively easy for the Greek government to verify people's identities due to the presence of still functioning offices

and institutional bodies on Somali soil. It is on this issue that there are tensions with the Syrian community for which, due to the protracted war in the motherland, the process of approving an asylum application can go on for many years. It is specifically this process that, on the other hand, regarding the Palestinians, is even quicker than for the Somali population.

Table 9: Most common nationalities of sea arrivals in Greece (since 1 January 2022)

Country of origin	Source	Data date	Population	
State of Palestine	Government	31 Aug 2022	18.1%	943
Afghanistan	Government	31 Aug 2022	16.0%	832
Somalia	Government	31 Aug 2022	15.4%	805
Syrian Arab Rep.	Government	31 Aug 2022	9.7%	508
Sierra Leone	Government	31 Aug 2022	8.6%	446
Iraq	Government	31 Aug 2022	4.6%	242
Yemen	Government	31 Aug 2022	3.7%	192
Eritrea	Government	31 Aug 2022	3.4%	179
Others	Government	31 Aug 2022	3.3%	172
Egypt	Government	31 Aug 2022	3.0%	157
Iran (Islamic Rep. of)	Government	31 Aug 2022	2.9%	149
Lebanon	Government	31 Aug 2022	2.5%	131
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	Government	31 Aug 2022	2.0%	104
Sudan	Government	31 Aug 2022	1.8%	95
Guinea	Government	31 Aug 2022	1.3%	66
Cameroon	Government	31 Aug 2022	1.2%	61
Ethiopia	Government	31 Aug 2022	1.1%	55
Gambia	Government	31 Aug 2022	0.7%	39
Pakistan	Government	31 Aug 2022	0.6%	32
Kuwait	Government	31 Aug 2022	0.2%	8

Source: UNHCR Operational Data Portal, 2022

Several tensions then emerge from cultural and religious factors, fuelled by the conditions in which camp residents find themselves living. The shortage of food and water[1], but also, privacy and adequate housing facilities serves as a pretext for the outbreak of clashes and disagreements.

Planning: community-based protection responses and solutions
Again, the Somali community is currently the focus of attention of protection actors. It has been noted that the Somali community can be divided into two groups: a first group consisting of large and affluent families and a second group, consisting of young and single women and therefore under the attention of NGOs because of their particular vulnerability.

Indeed, refugee camps, and Samos camp is no exception, are places particularly prone to systematic episodes of GBV, child abuse, LGBTQ+ oppression and other forms of human rights violations that expose residents to risks to their health and often their lives. It goes without saying that this kind of attention to several types of violence is not only reserved for the Somali community, but for the entire population residing in the camp.

Protection issues are closely related to the structure of the camp.
Using the sample questions on protection risks provided by UNHCR (2006) and focusing on issues related to the structure of the camp and the living conditions within it, leaving out the issues of health, livelihood, and education, which however are indirectly related, it is possible to summarise the main problems presented by camp residents.

Security and safety

All camp residents report often feeling in danger or otherwise unsafe in the context in which they now live. Men trace the dangers to fights, arguments, internal feuds between people belonging to different religions or from different countries. Women, especially when unaccompanied, report feeling in danger all the time, and this is mainly due to the structure of the camp. The bathrooms or public toilets are often in areas far from the shelters and the lighting is really poor, which is why many girls report always going to the bathroom in groups, especially during the night. In some accommodations there is a toilet, but very often it is not working (as is running water and electricity) so it is necessary to resort to communal bathrooms.

The internal structure of the camp, visible in Figure 2 at the beginning of the chapter, which includes zoning, so single parents have a separate area from families is also perceived as an insecurity factor. As explained in the previous paragraphs in the old camp, the Jungle, communities organised internally to provide support to the most vulnerable individuals and households. The fact that within the new camp, single parents are separated from families and people with whom they had lived until before they entered the CCAC increases their vulnerability and sense of isolation.

The same reasoning can be applied to unaccompanied minors, who, according to the internal organisation of the camp, enjoy a space delimited to them without access to other areas and without people from other areas having access to them. This system often leads

unaccompanied boys and girls to lie about their age of registry so that they can stay close to members of their own community. Thus, creating even more dangerous mechanisms.

Coping with risks and developing solutions

Security has nothing to do with the hundreds of cameras or army personnel that constantly preside over the camp; rather, it is the structure itself and the management of the camp that increases the sense of insecurity of its residents (see Annex 6).

To try to limit personal risk, people have equipped themselves with a range of behaviours. It is clear, though, that in a context like samos where people are locked up in the conditions explained above, there is not much room for initiative.

People always move in more than one person, especially girls or women, avoiding night-time exits from the accommodation whenever possible. Even when leaving the camp, at the designated times, people try to never move alone.

Some residents have built themselves makeshift weapons and sharp or pointed objects with which to defend themselves in case of attacks.

It is important to note, though, that many of the residents report feeling in danger because of the aggressiveness of some of the camp's security personnel. This perception is further increased by the power difference between the camp residents and the army staff who head the camp.

> " My feeling is that I'm in prison. This is what I feel. [There is] too much control around, cameras, and drones sometimes. There (is) a lot of guards, and security. And if you're going out, when you come back: body check, or the bag". "Any place that you want to enter you find a private security person. Before you go there, they have to search [body-check] you. Search you well " - a resident to Samos Advocacy Collective, 2021

Not just security and safety, but a sense of belonging
As explained in previous chapters, the safety factor is not the only one to be considered in these situations.

In contexts where camps are no longer momentary, short-term solutions, it is crucial to consider the social, cultural, and religious aspects for the mental and physical well-being of the people living in these places.

> " Now we can't leave, we're trapped. It's never been good from a mental health perspective, but after two years being here and now going into the third year [in Samos] it's tiring" - a resident to Samos Advocacy Collective, 2021

As explained in the first chapter of this paper, each person develops different dimensions of the concept of home. Although many camp residents do not want to identify the camp as "home," many others admit the need to define the place where they are, ending up considering it home, obviously in a completely different way than what they have always defined as home before.

It is at this point that the cultural and personal aspects of each resident emerge. Posters and photos hang on the walls, a corner dedicated to prayer and black teacups.

Residents report how security rules constrain even the most everyday aspects of life inside the camp. The introduction of knives and blades inside the camp is not allowed, making it impossible to cook and causing residents to depend almost entirely on meals provided by IOM and other governmental actors. Meals that sometimes cannot be consumed, due to the delivery conditions, as presented in reports by Samos Advocacy Collective.

> " I think [the quality is] really terrible. Is not for humans. And you cannot eat [it]...if you come late, the food is finished, and then you just receive the bread. And one bottle of water " - a resident to Samos Advocacy Collective, 2021

Food, just like tea and coffee, is a strong social glue, as well as a factor of identification. The inability to cook and consume food from tradition and culture increases the sense of alienation and animosity toward the host place.

Therefore, discussions with residents reveal a willingness not only to rethink the internal subdivision of the camp but also to have the opportunity to modify and adapt their

accommodations according to their concept of home. *Nostalgia* for the old camp is based on precisely these factors, the few possibilities within the new camp to modify shelters according to their will and needs and to somehow preserve a sense of belonging.

3.2 Participatory design

Based on the context analysis conducted during the assessment phase and the best practices brought back from similar experiences, although not inherent to the European context, a proposal for participatory design applied to the shelter and settlement sector is developed consisting of 6 phases.

Sampling

It is undertaken in collaboration with the NGOs working in Samos: community volunteers involved in the organisations' activities on a daily basis are the sample involved in the different stages of participatory design.

Who are the community volunteers:
Community volunteers are CCAC residents who are part of the staff of the various NGOs on the island. Their involvement in activities is a three-pronged approach:
- Volunteer's level: to enable participation, community volunteers are guaranteed a range of benefits, such as bus tickets to NGOs' locations, lunch on "working" days, phone charge, etc. Most importantly, they are guaranteed empowerment through their involvement in decision-making processes regarding the activities to be organised, as well as the opportunity to take part in the projects. Thus, being a community volunteer allows residents not only to receive psychological, legal, and educational support but also to socialise and build a stable and healthy routine that promotes the person's health and integration.
- Community level: volunteers' participation in NGOs management and activities has a positive impact on both the different communities living within the camp and the host community.

  Community volunteers, from different countries, establish a relationship based on intercultural dialogue and peaceful sharing: this approach is then carried over into the camp as well, fostering peaceful conflict resolution and promoting an atmosphere of peace.

  Moreover, the host community benefits from the integration of residents into NGOs. Indeed, the organisations are an integral part of the daily dynamics of the

island, often collaborating with other local public and private actors. The integration of residents into the Greek community of Samos is thus fostered.

- NGOs' level: organisations benefit from the presence of community volunteers among their staff in that, through a strong participatory approach, they are able to organise activities that target exactly the needs expressed by residents. At the same time, they are able to optimise their interventions and resources by being able to closely monitor the situation within the camp.

Why involving the community volunteers:

The rationale behind the choice of community volunteers as sample is based on several reasons:

1. Community volunteers who collaborate with NGOs have developed a sense of trust with the different actors and are therefore likely to agree to talk about their personal and shared needs and conditions. In fact, many residents, especially those who have recently arrived at the camp, usually do not feel psychologically ready to be involved in this kind of activity.
2. Community volunteers are generally a representative sample of the residents of the camp by country of origin, age, and sex.
3. Community volunteers already informally act as spokespersons for the needs of other residents, since on a daily basis, they collaborate and set priorities with NGOs.

In case it is deemed appropriate to involve other residents, a system of referrals managed by community volunteers and NGOs is implemented.

Sampling rule:

To calculate the number of community volunteers to be involved, taking into account that this is qualitative research, the sample is calculated based on the total population of the camp, considering a confidence level of 95% and a margin of error of 10%.

In addition, the composition of the sample is representative of the composition of the camp on the basis of countries of origin. Hence, each country is represented based on its percentage of people living in the camp out of the total number of residents. Moreover, a

disaggregation on the basis of sex is applied, resulting in 50% of the participating community volunteers being men and 50% being women.

Phase I: Designing the ideal shelter

The first phase consists of workshops conducted with a sample of camp residents for the purpose of designing their own ideal shelter.

A division into groups on the basis of country of origin is arranged. This choice is motivated primarily by the critical influence that social and cultural factors exert on the concept of home, ideal shelter, and use of private and public space; secondly, from the perspective of the sustainability of the approach, since it is foreseeable that the shelters will be inhabited later by other residents, it is logical to think that the future inhabitants of the camp will share several features with their predecessors that would lead to similar inputs. some of the inputs according to which their predecessors, coming from the same country, have made based on their cultural and traditional background.

A further subdivision based on gender is applied, to allow each participant to express themselves freely. Women often, especially if displaced, are more vulnerable as they are excluded from community-level decision-making processes, so it is important to ensure a safe space where they feel free to express their preferences based on their needs. Having women fully involved is also crucial for protecting other vulnerable groups since they are more likely to pay attention to the needs of children or people with disabilities.

In addition, to ensure the inclusion of children, who are often excluded from these dynamics, a workshop specifically dedicated to children is organised, through the use of child-friendly tools, materials, and approaches and with the support of child protection specialists, psychologists, and other experts. In this case, the identification of the target audience, not belonging to the community volunteers, is done in collaboration with the NGOs that take care of the children within the camp.

During this phase, participants are free to choose their preferred tools and methodology by providing them with different types of visualisation tools and materials (See Table 7: Participatory design tools and techniques, chapter 2).

This approach has a twofold purpose: (i) to limit the moderator's influence, relegating him/her to the role of coordinating and facilitating the workshop, and (ii) to allow each

participant to express himself/herself freely according to his /her will and based on his/her abilities.

Phase II: From ideal to reality

The second phase involves the realisation of a shelter model, resulting from the fusion of the ideal shelter with the shelters currently present in the Samos CCAC. The aim is to propose a shelter model that starts from the one currently present within the camp but is as close as possible to the idea of the ideal shelter presented earlier by each group.

This adaptation activity is proposed only in the second phase to make sure that participants, in the first phase, are not placed limitations on the shape, materials, and structure of the shelter. Starting immediately by asking participants to modify the existing structure of the container could preclude many of the ideas that emerge instead by leaving them free to imagine their ideal shelter without restrictions or guidelines.

Again, in this second phase participants are free to choose their preferred tools, methodology, and materials.

Phase III: Presentation of results

The third phase is dedicated to presenting the results. The different working groups present the ideal shelter models elaborated both in the first and second phases, explaining the rationale that led to the final results, justifying the solutions devised and those discarded.

At this stage, groups will be dialoguing together, so it is crucial to pay attention to the dynamics created during the discussion.The participation of each group is encouraged, to establish a constructive dialogue that allows understanding and acceptance of the different cultural and traditional models reflected by the designed shelters. The dynamics within the camp are complex, so the recognition of the different ideas and the identification of common trends within the different communities is a necessary step to foster integration between communities in a peaceful coexistence perspective and to find a consensus-based shelter.

Phase IV: Prioritising the interventions

Once the proposals developed by the experts have been validated, even after adjustments, it is appropriate to identify a priority list with the participants. In fact, in the implementation phase, it is necessary to develop an intervention plan based on the prioritisation of interventions according to residents' preferences. This is based on two reasons:

1. The first reason is related to optimising time and results: each group, and therefore each community, in phase two, submits its own proposal that will then be worked out by the technicians. The input resulting from phase two therefore could lead to different models, with different configurations and costs.

   Hence the need for standardisation, resulting from the prioritisation of interventions, which is useful in pointing the technicians in the direction of processing.

2. Involving participants in a prioritisation phase facilitates the work of the experts who must unite residents' desires with the needs of the implementing organisations and the feasibility of the intervention.

   Not arranging this phase could result in the development of a construct quite different from the one imagined and discussed during the workshops, risking undermining trust between NGOs and various communities.

Therefore, this is a delicate phase that requires dialogue and moderation as priorities may differ from community to community and between people. Particular attention must therefore be paid, as in the other phases, to the dynamics that develop internally among the participants in the discussion.

The ultimate goal of this last phase then is to produce a document with a set of shared priorities to be followed during implementation.

Phase V: Technical elaboration from experts

The fourth phase involves the experts' elaboration of the proposals developed by the participants. Through the use mainly of computerised visualisation tools, the different projects are transformed into concrete models that enable the visualisation of the different ideas in a more defined manner.

At this stage, the requests of the participants, expressed through their models, are combined with the technical advice of the experts with the aim of achieving a result that is actually applicable to the context.

Architectural drawings and 2D and 3D maps, along with plastic models of the different proposals are prepared to facilitate understanding of the end result and encourage discussion.

Phase VI: Validation

The models produced by the experts are presented to the participants, and a validation phase follows.

At this stage, participants are invited to express suggestions and changes they would like to make to the models developed. It is important to create a climate suitable for dialogue that overcomes power relations that might discourage participants from commenting negatively on the work proposed by the experts.

3.3 Expected results

Through this proposal, built on the basis of the participatory approach, the expected results aim to achieve the empowerment of camp residents by overcoming the top-down approach.

Proposals for shelter changes and amelioration, developed based on the needs and cultural and traditional background of residents, aim to have positive impacts on three levels:

- Residents' level: the expected result is to improve, through their active participation, the living conditions of camp residents. This makes it possible to build viable proposals that target residents' needs, prioritising the most pressing ones and then working toward the satisfaction of all the other needs and preferences. Indeed, it is important to emphasise that since the camps are medium-to long-term solutions, it is no longer sufficient to meet only the basic needs of residents but to create a healthy and sustainable environment, in which also preferences are considered. This is the reason why at the end of the design phase, several shelter models will be presented and not one standard model.

- Camp communities level: it is expected that this approach improves the dynamics within the camp, especially through dialogue that allows for finding common goals and allows for a more relaxed atmosphere. The camp's diverse communities allow for building the tools for mutual understanding, which facilitates coexistence within the camp.

- Stakeholders' level: it is expected that this approach fosters dialogue and collaboration among actors, leading them to work together in a more united way. At the same time, it increases residents' trust in NGOs and other actors involved. In this way, a greater exchange of information is fostered for the benefit of the camp residents themselves. New and broader reflections can be opened, especially, for example, regarding the structure of the settlement. In fact, after the reflection conducted on shelters, the second step could be a dialogue on the organisation of the camp's internal structures: arrangement of shelters, design, and management of public spaces and services, etc., developing a series of good practices to be disseminated among other camps on Greek territory, and beyond.

3.3.1 Challenges

The challenges that this approach, applied to the Greek context of the Closed Controlled Access Centre on Samos, presents can be divided into two categories:

1. Challenges related to the political sphere:

   As reported in the assessment, the rationale behind the approach used in Samos stems from a complex system of integrating the constraints and rules provided by the European Union with Greek national ones. Despite the fact that the hotspot approach is a system that has glaring flaws and is not functioning as it should, there is no political will there to reevaluate the strategy.

   Within this framework, the work of NGOs is heavily constrained by the Greek government, which, through IOM, controls the management and organisation of the Samos camp and all other camps on Greek territory.

   As a result, implementing a participatory proposal such as the one presented above necessarily runs up against the need to obtain permits from the authorities, in a matter of state competence. It is possible to think that, given the approach taken so far and the strategies that seem to characterise the future of migration management, there is a strong reluctance on the part of the Greek government and the European authorities to allow this kind of activity.

   To allow the implementation of these kinds of projects, would mean on the part of the European Union, having to admit that these camps are not transitional facilities, as envisaged by the hotspot approach, but become long-term facilities. This would prove the failure of the approach and bring the need to open new discussions for the development of new migration management plans.

2. Implementation-related challenges:

   There are many challenges that may be encountered during implementation. The following are the most significant ones.

   - Language differences and communication: community volunteers participating in the workshops, since they come from different countries, speak different languages. Most of them know English and can communicate clearly. Anyway, it should be kept in mind that many of them may prefer to express themselves in their native language to make sure they can clearly convey the messages. Therefore, it is important to

have a staff that allows for exchange and subsequent translation into the different languages represented.

Likewise, different languages have different nuances, and this is a factor to be particularly considered in the moderation phases. Indeed, some terms may have different nuances of meaning. In such complex contexts, it is important to moderate discussions so that the message that transpires is as faithful and clear, facilitating understanding and sharing.

- Monitoring the power dynamics: community volunteers involved in the workshops assume the role of spokesperson for the needs and preferences of other residents. This could lead to the development of dynamics in which community volunteers use their role (or are informally designated for this role) to exert a form of power over other residents. It is important to monitor these kinds of situations so as not to create imbalances within communities and indeed, improve internal dynamics by eliminating harmful and dangerous power dynamics.

- Interactions with vulnerable people: one of the most important aspects to consider when working in settings such as refugee camps is that we are dealing with vulnerable people. Therefore, it is important not to instil false hopes in them, and transparency with respect to what is possible to do and achieve through the implementation of certain activities and projects is crucial. In fact, the position of camp residents is extremely more vulnerable than those of the NGOs or other actors, so it is important to outline from the beginning concrete goals and outcomes that can be achieved.

3.3.2 Open questions

From the participatory design presented above, open questions emerge that encourage discussion to improve the approach.

1. *Trends on countries of origin*

To increase the sustainability of the models proposed during the workshops, it might be interesting to calculate the sample on the basis of trends regarding the countries of provenience of camp residents. Taking into consideration the last 3 years, for example, the trend of arrivals can provide information for assembling a sample that provides more effective results in the long term. The sampling rule would thus not only be based on representativeness at the time of implementation, but would also take into account trends that indicate the countries of origin of residents who have lived in the last few years, and thus potentially in future ones who will inhabit the camp.

It must be noted, though, that by embracing this approach, countries with fewer representatives within the camp and not part of these trends could be negatively affected, increasing the risk of conflict among the population, who would feel that they are being considered differently.

2. *Country-permanence proportion*

Another aspect that might be interesting to consider when building the sample is the average length of stay in the camp based on country of origin.

As already explained in the assessment phase, due to the asylum application processing system, the procedure has different durations based on the country of origin of the person applying, creating very important differences regarding permanency within the camp. For example, the Somali community constitutes one of the largest along with the Syrian community. Somali asylum seekers, however, spend on average a few months (maximum a year) within the CCAC; Syrian asylum seekers, on the other hand, spend on average 4 years before being granted asylum. Therefore, it might be interesting to open a discussion

on how to meet the needs of these people who spend very different periods of time on the island[3].

A possible categorization based on the length of permanence could be developed, on the basis of which to divide the proposals emerging from the workshops. Accordingly, it could be hypothesised that the proposals of Somali asylum seekers, who would fall within a possible 0-6 month permanency range, would be processed on other parameters than the proposals of Syrian asylum seekers, who would fall within a possible 4+ year permanency range. And so for all other countries represented within the camp.

---

[3] It should be noted, however, that everyone's conditions, regardless of the length of time they have been there, should be improved from the current situation through the involvement of the people themselves.

Conclusions

The present text had two purposes: (i) to understand how to overcome the current approach implemented in the management of accommodation facilities on the borders of Europe, and (ii) to examine the importance, as well as the feasibility, of developing a participatory design within a Closed Controlled Access Centre in Europe, and in parallel to demonstrate its positive impact on multiple levels.

I first conducted a critical analysis regarding the concept of refugee camps as short-term solutions. Literature and data regarding the permanency of people in camps show that camps are actually medium/long-term facilities and as such should be structured, to meet the needs and preferences of their residents.

Moreover, given the thesis' focus on the shelter and settlement sector, the state-of-art analysis was complemented by a reflection on the concept of home as applied to displaced persons. Based on different dimensions of the concept of home, it fortifies the idea that the time is ripe to address a move beyond the short-term approach that sees people, and refugees in particular, naturally belonging to one place. A more holistic approach that takes into account the four dimensions of home - spatial, temporal, relational, and material - lays the groundwork for changing the reception system based on welfarism and for rethinking the parameters related to camp management and structuring.

Indeed, this investigation has shown that the minimum standards developed by the sector are strongly focused on meeting people's basic needs, but are actually far from guaranteeing residents' rights, especially in the long term, when meeting basic needs is no longer sufficient.

I then investigated the importance of adopting a community-based approach as a tool for developing a new management approach for reception facilities. Through a reflection on the juxtaposition of the needs-based approach and rights-based approach, the concept of participation was analysed, depending then on a presentation of the community participatory approach implemented through participatory design in vulnerable contexts. The explanation of the different phases, through which this approach is structured, has been presented in order to provide the basis for understanding the rationale behind the proposal developed for the Closed Controlled Access Centre in Samos.

The proposal, with the aim of providing evidence of the applicability of a participatory approach and its benefits on multiple levels, has been articulated in 2 phases: (i) participatory assessment phase and (ii) participatory design.

The first phase, the assessment phase, has been devoted to the analysis of the Greek context and the hotspot approach, i.e., the European approach that charts the direction of the reception model implemented within the continent.

A specific focus has been dedicated to the analysis of the situation in Samos, characterised for a long time by the old camp, *The Jungle*, and now a symbol of the new reception model embodied in the construction of the new Closed Controlled Access Centre. To provide the background from which to develop the participatory design, a detailed picture of life within the camp, with a focus on the shelter and settlement sector, was provided through the various reports of NGOs working on the island and through residents' testimonies collected between February and May 2022.

Based on the findings a participatory design proposal has been developed in 6 steps. The proposal involves engaging community volunteers through a series of activities that ultimately result in the production of shelter models that reflect the needs and preferences of residents.

The expected results from the implementation of this proposal, explained in more detail in the previous chapter, concern several levels: (i) at residents' level there is an improvement in the quality of life of residents, which is also mirrored at (ii) camp communities' level through an improvement in internal dynamics through dialogue and the sharing of common goals. The positive impact of this approach is then also identifiable at the (iii) stakeholders' level as it increases residents' trust in the actors involved and increases the proposition to the dialogue of different governmental and nongovernmental stakeholders.

Even if some limitations for the implementation need to be considered and some open questions still need to be addressed, based on the literature and the proposal developed, it is evident that the implementation of a participatory approach qualifies as a better framework in guaranteeing people's rights and working in the direction of a peaceful climate of dialogue between communities inside the camp and outside.

Given the beginning of the construction works of the new Closed Controlled Access Centre on the island of Lesvos, despite my strong position against the implementation of

a new prison-like camp, it might be useful to consider the approach described in this paper for the different phases of camp planning and design, expanding it not only to the shelter and settlement sector but also to the other sectors involved in the management of these facilities, in order to limit the damage that the malfunctioning hotspot approach is increasing.

Although, as already mentioned, it is clear that changing the situation requires a shift at the political level on the part of EU Member States, it is hoped that this study will contribute to improve the living conditions of the people living in these camps.

Bibliographical references

Bibliography

Agier, M. (2014). Introduction: L'emcampement du monde. In Agier, M. (ed.) Un Monde de Camps. Paris: La De ́couverte, pp. 11–29.

Akach. J.A. et al. (2021). Co-Design: Tools, Methods and Techniques for Designing with users. «Africa habitat Review Journal» Vol 15 Issue 1.

Albadra, D. et al. (2021). Participatory design in refugee camps: comparison of different methods and visualization tools, «Building Research & Information», 49:2, 248-264, DOI: 10.1080/09613218.2020.1740578

Al-Husban, M., Adams, C. (2016). Sustainable Refugee Migration: A Rethink towards a Positive Capability Approach. «Sustainability» 8, 451. DOI: 10.3390/su8050451

Alshawawreh. L. (2021). Participatory design for refugee shelters: An experiment in Syrian camps in Jordan. Faculty of Engineering, Mutah University, Karak, Jordan. «Enhancing Disaster Preparedness» Chapter 5.

Arnstein. S.R. (1969). A ladder of citizen participation. «AIP Journal» pp.216-224.

Arvantis, E., Yelland, N. (2019). 'Home Means everything to Me...' A Study of Young Syrian Refugees' Narratives Constructing Home in Greece. «Journal of Refugee Studies», vol. 34, No.1. doi:10.1093/jrs/fez030

Ayata, B., et al. (2018). The Implementation of the EU Hotspot Approach in Greece and Italy: A Comparative and Interdisciplinary Analysis. Working Paper submitted to the Swiss Network for International Studies. Research Project C18079 "Infrastructure Space and the Future of Migration Management: The EU Hotspots in the Mediterranean Borderscape"

Bender, F. (2021). Should refugees govern refugee camps?.. «Critical Review of International Social and Political Philosophy». DOI: 10.1080/13698230.2021.1941702

Boyden, J. (2001). Children's participation in the context of forced migration. «PLA Notes» Issue 42, pp.52-56. IIED London.

Catley, A. et al. (2013). Participatory Impact Assessment: A Design Guide. Feinstein International Center, Tufts University, Somerville.

Chamma, N., Mendoza, C. (2016). Rethinking refugee camp design: from "temporary" camps to sustainable settlements. «Research Gate».

Dikeç, M. (2001). Justice and the spatial imagination. «Environment and Planning A» vol.33 pp.1785-1805. DOI: 10.1068/a3467.

European Commission, IOM, NRC, UNHCR. (2015). Camp Management Toolkit. Edition June.

Fawaz, M. (2009). Neoliberal Urbanity and the Right to the City: A View from Beirut's Periphery. «Development and Change» pp.827-852. Published on behalf of the Institute of Social Studies, The Hague.

George, J.W., et al. (2022). Re-Defining Shelter: Humanitarian Sheltering. «Disaster» Wiley Online Library (First publication: 04 July 2022). DOI: 10.1111/disa.12555

General Assembly. (1996). The Habitat Agenda: Chapter IV: B. Adequate shelter for all. «UN Documents Gathering a body of global agreements». A/CONF.165/14

Gilchrist. A. (2009). The well-connected community. A networking approach to community development. Second edition. The Policy Press. Bristol.

Guijt. (2014). Participatory Approaches. «Methodological Briefs: Impact Evaluation 5». UNICEF Office of Research. Florence.

Hage, G. (1997). At Home in the Entrails of the West: Multiculturalism, 'Ethnic Food' and Migrants Home-Building. in H. Grace, G. Hage, L. Johnson, J. Langsworth & M. Symonds (eds.), *Home/World: Space, Community and Marginality in Sydney's West*, New South Wales, Western Sydney, Pluto Press.

Hussein. S. et al. (2012). Participatory Design with Marginalized People in Developing Countrie: Challenges and Opportunities Experiences in a Field Study in Cambodia. «International Journal of Design» vol 6, No 2. Retrieved from

http://www.ijdesign.org/index.php/IJDesign/article/view/1054/455 (Last accessed October 28th, 2022).

IOM, (2022, March), Supporting the Greek Authorities in Managing the National Reception System for Asylum Seekers and Vulnerable. Factsheets March 2022.

Lefebvre, H. (1974). La Production de l'Espace (The Production of Space). Paris: Antropos.

Robertson, T., Wagner, I. (2013). Ethics Engagement, representation and politics-in-action in Routledge International Handbook of Participatory Design. 1st edition.

Sanders. E. et al. (2010). A framework for organizing the tools and techniques of participatory design.

Sanoff. H. (2017). Community Participation Methods in Design and Planning. Book *in* «Landscape and Urban Planning»..

Save the Children. (2005). Child Rights Programming. How to Apply Rights-Based Approaches to Programming. A Handbook for International Save the Children Alliance Members. Second Edition.

Shelter/NFI Cluster X Border Operation – Turkey Hub. (20121). Shelter Types. <ShelterCluster.org> Coordinating Humanitarian Shelter.

Shelter in displacement. (2017). «Forced Migrations Review» Issue 55. University of Oxford & Refugee Studies Centre.

Taylor, H. (2009). Narrative of loss, longing and daily life: The meaning of home for Cypriot refugees in London. «A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the University of East London for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy».

Taylor, H. (2013). Refugee, the state and the concept of home. «Refugee Survey Quarterly » Vol. 32, No. 2, pp. 130–152. DOI:10.1093/rsq/hdt004.

Theis. J. (2004). Promoting Rights-Based Approaches. Experiences and Ideas from Asia and the Pacific. Save The Children.

Turner, S. (2015). What Is a Refugee Camp? Explorations of the Limits and Effects of the Camp. «Journal of Refugee Studies» Vol. 29 No.2. Oxford University Press. doi:10.1093/jrs/fev024.

UNHCR. (2008). A community-based Approach in UNHCR Operations. Geneva.

UNHCR. (2016). Shelter Design Catalogue. «Division of Programme Support and Management. Shelter and Settlement Section». Geneva, Switzerland.

UNHCR. (2006). The UNHCR Tool for Participatory Assessment in Operations. Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees. Geneva.

Veneklasen. L. et al. (2004). Rights-based approaches and beyond: challenges of linking rights and participation. A joint initiative of the Participation Group at IDS and Just Associates. Working Paper 235. Institute of Development Studies. Brighton.

Walsh. J. C., High, S. (n.d). Rethink the Concept of Community. «Research Notes» 255-273.

Zaida, Z., Garcia, R. (2022). Rethinking Refugee Camps: Reconsiderations for a New Age. *In: Modern Challenges and Approaches to Humanitarian Engineering*, Koumpouros, Y., Georgoulas, A. and Kremmyda, G. Eds., pp. 142-171. DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-9190-1.ch009.

Webliography

European Commission. (n.d). Hotspot approach. Migration and Home Affairs. Retrieved from <https://home-affairs.ec.europa.eu/pages/glossary/hotspot-approach_en> (last accessed November 2nd, 2022).

Global Shelter Cluster. (2021). Shelter Projects 8th edition. Case studies of humanitarian shelter and settlement responses 2019-2020. Retrieved from <http://www.shelterprojects.org/>

UNHCR Operational Data Portal. (n.d.). Syria Regional Refugee Response. Retrieved

from <https://data.unhcr.org/en/situations/syria/location/53> (last accessed on June 25th, 2022)

UNHCR. (2021). Global Trends - Forced Displacement in 2020. Retrieved from <https://www.unhcr.org/globaltrends> (last accessed on June 22nd, 2022).

Annexes

Annex 1

Definitions of Shelter

Source: George, J.W., Guthrie, P., Orr, J.J. (2022). Re-Defining Shelter: Humanitarian Sheltering. «Disaster» Wiley Online Library (First publication: 04 July 2022).

Organization	Data	Document	Definition
IFRC	2009	The IFRC Shelter Kit Guidelines	Definition of shelter. Shelter is more than a roof! A shelter is a secure **habitable covered living space** providing **privacy** and **dignity** for those within it. (IFRC 2009)
Global Protection Cluster Working Group	2010	Handbook for the Protection of Internally Displaced Persons	When humanitarian organizations refer to shelter, they generally mean **habitable, covered living space**, providing a **secure** and **healthy living environment** with **privacy** and **dignity.** (Global Protection Cluster Working Group 2010)
ShelterCentre	2010	Literature Review for Shelter After Disaster	The basic definition of shelter is a **habitable covered space** providing a **secure** and **healthy environment** with **privacy** and **dignity** for those residing in the dwelling. (Shelter Centre 2012)
UN/OCHA; DFID; ShelterCentre	2010	Shelter After Disaster	Transitional shelter provides **a habitable, covered living space** and a **secure, healthy living environment,** with **privacy** and **dignity** to those within it during the period between a conflict or natural disaster and the achievement of a durable solution. (DFID, UN OCHA, and Shelter Centre 2010)
Danish Refugee Council	2012	Project Document – Funding Request – MPTF Office	The Somalia Shelter Cluster advocates for a transitional approach for shelter provision, offering a **habitable covered living space** and a **secure, healthy living environment**, with **privacy** and **dignity**. (Danish Refugee Council 2012)
Shelter Recovery and Reconstruction Working Group	2013	SSRR Definitions, V3	Shelter is the process of providing a '**habitable covered living space**, providing a **secure, healthy living environment** with **privacy** and **dignity** to those within it' (Shelter Recovery and Reconstruction Working Group 2013)

UNHCR	2014	UNHCR's Global Shelter and Settlement Strategy 2014 - 2018	A shelter is defined as a **habitable covered living space** providing a **secure** and **healthy living environment** with **privacy** and **dignity**. (UNHCR 2014)
SciDevNet	2015	Shelter after disaster: Facts and figures	Shelter: A **habitable, covered living space** that provides a **secure** and **healthy living environment**, with **privacy** and **dignity** for people who reside within it. (Murray 2015)
UNHCR	2015	UNHCR Emergency Handbook: emergency shelter standard	A shelter is defined as a **habitable covered living space** providing a **secure** and **healthy living environment** with **privacy** and **dignity**. (UNHCR 2015)
UNHCR	2016	Shelter design catalogue	A shelter is defined as a **habitable covered living space** providing a **secure** and **healthy living environment** with **privacy** and **dignity**. (UNHCR 2016)
DG ECHO	2017	Humanitarian Shelter and Settlement Guidelines	Shelter: A **habitable covered living space** providing a **secure**, **healthy living environment** with **privacy** and **dignity** to the groups, families, and individuals residing with it. (DG ECHO 2017)
Sphere Association	2018	Sphere Handbook	Shelters and settlements are inter-related and need to be considered as a whole. "Shelter" is the **household living space**, including the items necessary to support daily activities. "Settlement" is the wider locations where people and community live... In addition to providing protection from weather, shelter is necessary to **promote health**, support family and community life, and **provide dignity**, **security,** and access to livelihoods. (Sphere Association 2018)
Global Shelter Cluster	2018	Global Shelter Cluster Strategy 2018 – 2022	The primary objective of shelter response is safeguarding the **health**, **security**, **privacy** and **dignity** of affected populations. Shelter is a **physical component** of protection. Beyond life-saving objectives, shelter also increases resilience, supports family and community life and facilitates access to livelihoods and markets. (Global Shelter Cluster 2018)
Office of Disaster Management in the Commonwealth of Dominica; IOM; USAID	2019	Emergency Shelter Management Manual: For Shelter Managers and Coordinators	In any case, emergency shelters: need to be ready for disaster; need to be **habitable**, with adequate **covered living space**; need to provide a **secure** and **healthy living environment** with **privacy** and **dignity**. (Office of Disaster Management and IOM 2019)

InterAction; USAID	2020	Humanitarian Shelter and Settlements Training Course	Shelter provides safety, **security, health, dignity,** and **wellbeing**, and thus can generate the impacts needed for response and recovery. (InterAction and USAID 2020)
Global Shelter Cluster; DM CCCM Nigeria	2021	Guidance Note on Transitional Shelter	Transitional shelter solution definition provides a **habitable covered living space** and a **secure, healthy living environment**, with **privacy** and **dignity**, to those within it, during the period between a conflict or natural disaster and the achievement of a durable shelter solution. (Global Shelter Cluster and DMS CCCM Nigeria 2021)

Annex 2

Building Materials (Wall/Roofing)

Source: Zaida, Z., Garcia, R. (2022). Rethinking Refugee Camps: Reconsiderations for a New Age. In: Modern Challenges and Approaches to Humanitarian Engineering, Koumpouros, Y., Georgoulas, A. and Kremmyda, G. Eds., pp. 142-171.

Materials	Pros	Cons	Application examples
Mud	Available locally; acts as a conductor during the day and insulator at night; adapts to the local environment; readily available in the area.	Not possible in areas with scarce resources.	Za'atari camp, Jordan
Metal Sheets	Heavy duty; durable; water- resistant; non-flammable.	Expensive (where expensive materials are used it should be noted that migrants may sell these resources to purchase other items); inflexible; transportation costs and emissions.	Azraq camp, Jordan
Plastic Sheets	Waterproof; UV resistant; heavy-duty; lightweight, flexible; large production capacities.	Highly flammable; may not withstand in areas with high winds; may not provide adequate protection for external migrants.	Moria camp, Greece
Canvas Tarp	Waterproof; UV resistant; heavy-duty; lightweight; flexible; large production capacities.	Highly flammable; may not withstand high winds; may not provide adequate protection for external migrants.	Moria camp, Greece
Wood	Sturdy; can provide better ventilation; suitable for humid rainy environments as they keep out rain but do not trap heat (Slater, 2014).	Collecting wood for support frames or stick skeletons could considerably harm the environment if collected from surrounding forests. This may also lead to problems with the host country.	Karen Refugee Camp, Thailand
Recycled Materials	Reduces waste; cheaper cost of building.	May not be readily available.	Plastic bottle houses in Sahrawi Camp, Algeria (World Habitat Org, 2018)

97

Annex 3

Tents characteristics sheet

Source: Shelter Design Catalogue

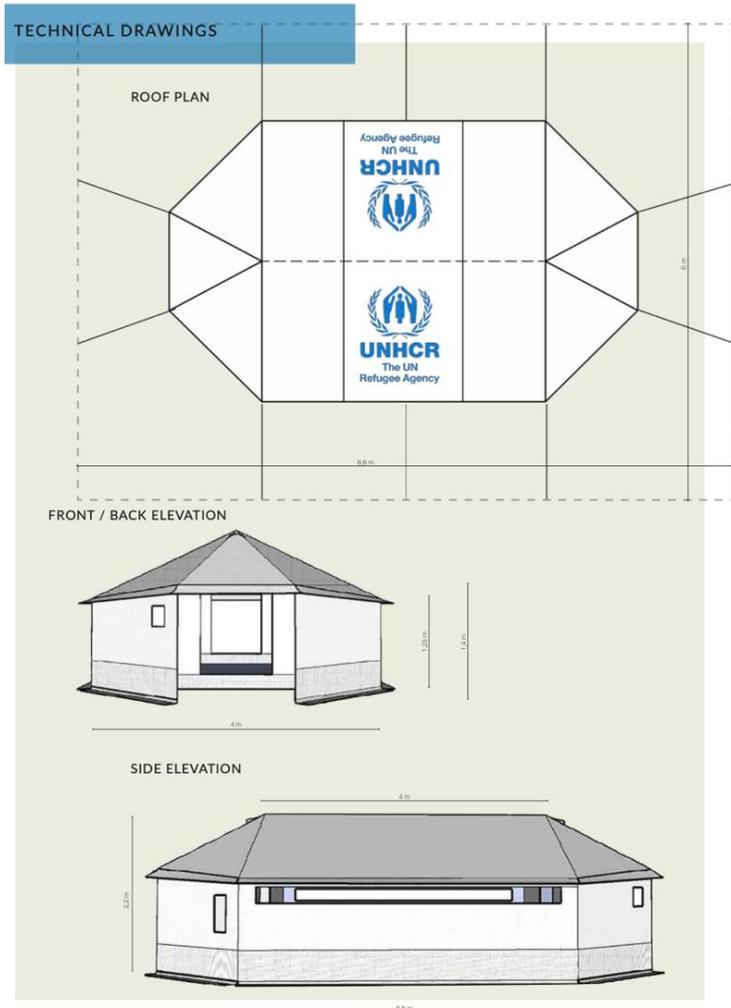| **UNHCR Family Tent**	
No people 2 people **Dimensions** 4m wide x 6.6m long Footprint: 61m^2 Volume: 0.20m^3 **Materials** Polystercotton **Weight** 55kg **Life span** 1 year	

UNHCR Self-Standing Family Tent

No people

3 people

Dimensions

4.3m wide

4.3m long

1.8m heigh

Volume: 0,35m^3

Materials

Polystercotton

Weight

55kg

Life span
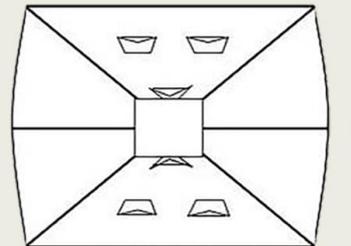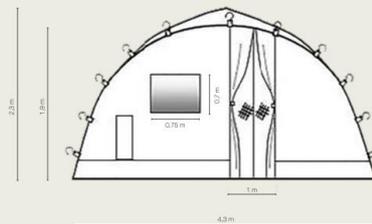
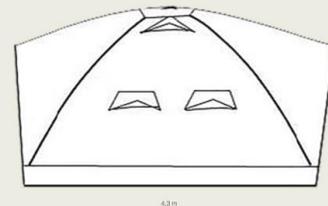1 year

TECHNICAL DRAWINGS

ROOF PLAN

FRONT ELEVATION

SIDE ELEVATION

Refugee Housing Unit

No people

4 people

Dimensions

Floor area: 17,5m^2

Minimum ceiling heigh: 1,84m

Door: 0,74m x 1,69m

Windows (4 pieces): 6,2m^2

Ventilation openings: 8m^2

Materials

Polystercotton

Weight

160kg (package)

Life span

1,5 years – without maintenance

3 years – with maintenance

TECHNICAL DRAWINGS

ROOF PLAN

FRONT ELEVATION

BACK ELEVATION

SIDE ELEVATION

Annex 4

Main documents of reference of the sector

Topic	Document
Accountability	"Protection and accountability to affected populations in the humanitarian program cycle", Inter-Agency Standing Committee Emergency Directors Group (EDG) Preliminary Guidance Note, 2016
	"The Core Humanitarian Standard on Quality and Accountability (CHS)", CHS Alliance, Group URD and the Sphere Project, 2014
	"A Community-based Approach in UNHCR Operations", UNHCR, 2009
	"Tool15 FEEDBACK STARTER-KIT Community Engagement and Accountability (CEA)", International Federation of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies
	"Inter-Agency PSEA-CBCM Best Practice Guide", Inter-Agency Standing Committee, 2015
	"Guidelines for Investigation: A guide for humanitarian organizations on receiving and investigating allegations of abuse, exploitation, fraud or corruption by their own staff", CHS alliance, 2015
Transparency	"Collective Communication and Community Engagement in humanitarian action. How to Guide for leaders and responders", CDAC Network, (2019)
	"Toolkit for mainstreaming Communicating with Communities (CwC)", Shongjob/ACF, 2018
	"How to Use Social Media to Better Engage People Affected by Crises, A brief guide for those using social media in humanitarian organizations", IFRC, 2020
Participation	"A Red Cross Red Crescent Guide to Community Engagement and Accountability (CEA) Improving communication, engagement and accountability in all we do", ICRC & IFRC, 2016
	"The UNHCR Tool for Participatory Assessment in Operations". UNHCR, Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees. Geneva, 2006.
	"Participation Handbook for humanitarian field workers: Involving crisis-affected people in a humanitarian response", Groupe URD, ALNAP, 2009.
Design, monitoring and evaluation	"Participatory Impact Assessment: A Design Guide", Feinstein International Center, 2014 version, 2014
	"Monitoring and Accountability Manual", Save the Children.
	"Placing accountability at the heart of humanitarian assistance; Lessons from the Listen Learn Act project", Andy Featherstone, DanChurchAid, Save the Children Denmark, Ground Truth Solutions, 2017.

Annex 5

Type of participation by program participants in impact evaluation

Source: Cornwall, 2003 in Guijt. 2014. Participatory Approaches. «Methodological Briefs: Impact Evaluation 5». UNICEF Office of Research. Florence.

Type of participation	What participation means to commissioner	What participation means to progamme participants	Level of participation
Nominal – **for** children and their caregivers	Legitimation – to show that they are doing something about stakeholder involvement	Inclusion – to gain access to potential benefits	To show that participants' input in impact evaluation is possible and how it can be done For example, data collected from a sample of children and their caregivers
Instrumental – **for (and with)** children and their caregivers	Efficiency – to make projects more relevant and cost- effective, limit funders' input and draw on community contributions	Cost – time spent on project-related labour and other activities, but potentially benefiting from more relevant projects or programmes via policy/practice change	As a means of achieving cost- effectiveness and of drawing on and building local capacities For example, training children as data collectors; data collection by children from children
Representative – **with (and by)** children and their caregivers	Sustainability and fairness – to avoid creating dependency and to reduce inequitable benefits	Leverage – to influence and shape the intervention and its management	To give people a voice in determining their own development For example, children's and caregivers' representatives are consulted about the evaluation design and invited to comment on findings, help identify lessons learned and determine appropriate action steps
Transformative – **by** children and their caregivers	Empowerment – to enable people to make their own decisions, work out what to do and take action	Empowerment – to be able to decide and act for themselves	Participation is both a means and an end – a continuing dynamic For example, children and their caregivers identify key evaluation questions, and help to design and organize data collection methods, analyse data and identify recommendations or action steps

Annex 6

CCAC representation by a resident

Source: Samos Advocacy Collective, 2022