Abstract:

Since 1951, when the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) was founded, the pervasive surges in the numbers of refugees have been of fundamental concern to the United Nations (UN) and the UNHCR worldwide. This exploratory study presented a laconic history of the world’s refugees, the history of UNHCR, the history of refugees (mainly from Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo [DRC], Rwanda, and Somalia), as well as the history of Tanzania, the hosting country of these refugees. This research examined information access to refugees in Tanzania and the UNHCR’s information services. This research study also investigated how UNHCR fit into the information age of technology and recordkeeping by reviewing the following questions: (1) What are the roles of technology in UNHCR? How does UNHCR think about technology or do they think in a different way about technology? Is technology relevant to UNHCR’s works? What are the services offered by UNHCR? What information access is provided by UNHCR? How does UNHCR share information? What are the information services provided by UNHCR? How does UNHCR provide access and share information? (2) What are the processes employed by UNHCR to reshape its organization such as the organizational theory, innovational theory, and change theory, if any? How has the UNHCR changed, and, if so, what brought about the change? (3) How does technology stimulate change in the UNHCR, if any? Are there changes to UNHCR since it was created in 1951? By employing content analysis, this study presented numerous findings based on various studies and literature examined and analyzed to demonstrate information access on food for refugees in Tanzania, information on security and protection for refugees in Tanzania and how it could influence the international community to make available information for refugees in Tanzania and to provide adequate food, security and
protection. The findings also suggested that, at an organizational level, UNHCR worked to advance the performance through reform and restructuring by streamlining UN Headquarters in offering general direction and maximum assistance to workers in the field, and by merging functions via relocating support services to the field. UNHCR also provided access to information to their staff.

**Keywords:** UNHCR, Information Access, Information Sharing, Camps, Protection, Technology

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**INTRODUCTION**

It is vital, from an epistemological stance, to clearly stipulate that this study extensively presented a pervasive view of the influx of refugees, which is a growing concern to both the UN and the UNHCR. This research gave a broader global view of refugees’ issues, especially refugees in Africa who are encamped; it is important to state that the encampment of refugees (especially refugees in Tanzania) is a calculated apparatus used by the international community to preclude the brilliant minds from becoming independent. All encampments of refugees are massive acts of evil and a calculated manufacturing of unproductive human skills and the deliberate deterioration of human intelligence.

This study employed content analysis to look at that data that was collected. This technique allowed for the analyzing of themes based on numerous categories. After reading several literary works for content, a table was created for the research questions in order to answer the various questions. By employing content analysis, this study presented numerous findings based on the various studies and literature examined and analyzed to demonstrate information on adequate food for refugees in Tanzania, information on security/protection for refugees in Tanzania and information on camps/shelters for refugees and how it could influence the international community to make available adequate food, protection and information for refugees in Tanzania. The findings also suggested that, on an organizational level, UNHCR worked to advance performance by reform and restructuring; by streamlining UN Headquarters in offering general direction and maximum assistance to the field; and by merging functions via relocating support services to the field.

From an epistemological stance, it is essential to examine the background history of Tanzania as a hosting country for refugees from Burundi, DRC, Rwanda and, Somalia, and the causes of conflicts in Burundi, DRC Rwanda and Somalia that led them to take refuge in Tanzania. This paper also examined the history of UNHCR and its works.

For this study, a refugee is defined as a person who, “owing to well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country; or who, not having a nationality and being outside the country of his former habitual residence as result of such events, is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to return to it” (Convention and Protocol, 1951/1967).

The findings in this study indicated that refugees in Tanzania lack adequate food, adequate protection/security and adequate information. CHS (2010) specified that there is inadequate food for refugees and they mainly rely on the international community for support. According to WFP & UNHCR (2005), food-related domestic violence totaled 15-20% of domestic violence incidents in Tanzania refugee camps. Women as well as children are raped because of insecurity issues (WFP & UNHCR, 2005 & Blasko, 2011). Generally,
there is inadequate information for refugees in Tanzania camps – refugees lack the essential information required, particularly on food distribution. There were several occasions that refugees were not aware when and where to collect food rations – information on when and how to collect food during distribution periods is vital, particularly because refugees need food to stay alive.

With regards to the role of technology in UNHCR, according to the findings from EPAU Evaluation Reports (1998), UNHCR has played a major role in utilizing various forms of technology while carrying its role (services) as protection organization in protecting population group in crises situations. UNHCR has always incorporated various forms of information technology in delivering essential information to refugees in a structured manner, which has been a continuous general practice since the UNHCR was created. UNHCR utilized several communication strategies and was able to repatriate 1.3 million refugees from Tanzania (who were Burundi and Uganda) with the use of Radio BBC Programme Rwandan, and the refugees were able to return in 1998.

The findings also indicated that, in order for UNHCR to deal with the issues of refugees, UNHCR discovered an innovative approach to deliver protection and assistance, and seek for lasting solutions. In 2007, UNHCR reinforced protection capacity; enhanced registration and management systems; and “mainstreamed age, gender and diversity considerations” (UNHCR Global Report, 2007) in its work, as well as developed operational effectiveness. UNHCR expanded programmes with regards to health and sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV)\(^1\) (see Figure 3). On an organizational level, UNHCR (see Figure 4) worked to advance performance by reform and restructuring.

The study “Human Information Behavior Among African Refugees in Tanzania: An Exploratory Study of the Nyarugusu Camp” (Obodoruku, 2014) investigated the information on adequate food for refugees, information on security and protection, information on camps/shelter and the dissemination of information for refugees. The researcher’s personal background and knowledge of African culture helped in offering and support of background information to the exploratory study (Obodoruku 2014). According to some of the findings, refugees incessantly encounter insufficient food. Security and protection are perpetually scarce commodities in camp — refugees lack adequate protection, especially women, who are persistently raped, particularly when they journey above seven hours daily to fetch firewood (Obodoruku, 2014). SGBV is a major persistent concern in camp. Also, the dissemination of information is inadequate, and a majority of refugees indicated that the information that they obtain does not meet their needs (Obodoruku, 2014).

**HISTORY OF THE UNITED NATIONS HIGH COMMISSIONER FOR REFUGEES (UNHCR)**

The UNHCR commenced its work following the Second World War. In 1920, the Soviet Union became a descendant to the ethnically homogeneous empire. There was an enormous flow of refugees from the former Russian empire. The League of Nations decided to assign Fridtjof Nansen as the High Commissioner to handle the immense displacements of

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\(^1\) “SGBV refers to any act that is perpetrated against a person’s will and is based on gender norms and unequal power relationships. It encompasses threats of violence and coercion. It can be physical, emotional, psychological, or sexual in nature, and can take the form of a denial of resources or access to services. It inflicts harm on women, girls, men and boys” (UNHCR, 2017c).
people. During 1923, Nansen’s representatives were able to assess the returnees in the southern part of Russia, but the returnees were to remain in a country of refugees until the non-existence of the Soviet Union (UNHCR, 1991 the State of the World’s Refugees). This situation was compounded by the colossal displacements rooted in the Second World War. During the 1930s and 1940s, Stalin changed Germany; later, this “change” would be considered “ethnic cleansing” (UNHCR, 1991 the State of the World’s Refugees). In the 1940s, the refugees who had been displaced returned to their homeland and newer refugees and asylum seekers disembarked from additional fields (UNHCR, 1991 the State of the World’s Refugees).

Ontologically, the Allied Powers were concerned with the huge flow of refugees across Europe, prior to the end of World War I. The Allied Powers decided the liberation of Europe would require dealing with the upheaval of refugees. The Allied Powers decided, in 1943, to set up the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (UNRRA) to support the relief and rehabilitation of destroyed/damaged regions. The International Refugee Organization (IRO) replaced these entities. UNRRA helped individuals displaced by the war and individuals who had escaped from their countries because of the war and many other conflicts (UNHCR, 2000 the State of the World’s Refugees).

The influx of refugees in 1945 was approximately nine million people who had been displaced, mainly because of political turmoil, which accounted for the major movements of refugees in the region (UNHCR the State of the World Refugees, 1991). Also, in May of 1945, there were over 40 million people displaced in Europe, apart from the Germans. Thirteen million Germans, “Volksdeutsche,” were also barred from the Soviet Union, Czechoslovakia, Poland and those in the eastern European countries. The displaced individuals were identified as “expellees” “(Vertriebebe)” (UNHCR, 2000 the State of the Word Refugees). More than a million Belorussians, Estonians, Russians, Ukrainians, Poles, Latvians, Lithuanians and others fled from the communist empire. Also during the war, there were millions of Chinese individuals who were displaced in districts, which the Japanese military forces were in charge of in China (UNHCR the State of the World’s Refugees, 2000).

On the 28th of July, 1951, the UNHCR was created (UNHCR, the State of the World’s Refugees, 2000). When UNHCR was created, it dealt mainly with persons who were escaping from Communist rule in Eastern Europe. UNHCR was founded as an interim organization; its staff was twenty-three, with a $5 million budget and anticipated for a three-year life span (Keynote by Mrs. Sadako Ogata, 2000). According to the UN Chapter under Article 22, UNHCR is a supplementary organ of the General Assembly (GA). In addition, Article 2 of the UNHCR Status stated that the duties/works of the High Commissioner “shall be of an entirely non-political character; it shall be humanitarian and social and shall relate, as a rule, to groups and categories of refugees” (UNHCR the State of the World’s Refugees, 2000). Since 1951, the UNHCR has been a foundation for international refugee protection (UNHCR the State of the World’s Refugees, 2000). Convention also defined refugee, legal protections, and other support or assistance and social rights that refugees should receive from a state that endorsed the convention (UNHCR 1951 Refugee Convention Questions & Answers, 2007).

In addition, UNHCR’s main aims were considered twofold: first, to offer international protection for refugees; and second to, search for lasting solutions for refugees with supporting governments to assist in their voluntary repatriation or integration in a new national communities (UNHCR the State of the Word Refugees, 2000).
It is worth noting to assert that, even as UNHCR was given the right to search for voluntary contributions, the U.S. thrived in allowing the General Assembly to endorse a prerequisite for every one of such appeals. Seeing that, the UNHCR turned out to be dependent on a tiny administration budget from the General Assembly as well as little emergency funds. The U.S. government at first declined to make no contributions to this because at the phase, it does not view UNHCR as the main suitable body via which to direct funds. UNHCR was restrained by insufficient funding from the beginning. Every project to assist refugees had to be funded via voluntary contributions, mainly from the U.S. UNHCR was not provided with the resources to put into operation a repatriation programme. Instead, it was required to offer international protection, as well as to support solutions for refugees’ problems with just a tiny budget. The first commissioner for refugees, Gerrit Jan van Heuven Goedhart, noted that there was an actual danger because his office would just “administer misery” (UNHCR, the State of the World’s Refugees, 2000).

From an epistemological standpoint, UNHCR had an annual budget of US$300,000; the anticipation that UNHCR would be capable of achieving a final settlement with regards to the European refugees’ problems in a few years shown to be false. In spite of van Heuven Goedhart’s attempts to convince governments of the degree of the refugee problem, they gave just a modicum of funding. However, UNHCR developed a growingly effective partnership with voluntary agencies in order to continue its operation. The first significant amount of money allocated at the disposal of UNHCR did not come from governments; it came from the Ford Foundation in the U.S., which gave the UNHCR US$3.1 million in 1951. This amount was utilized for a pilot project, and for the first time, placed emphasis with regards to local integration in European countries “as a solution to refugee problems” (UNHCR, the State of the World’s Refugees, 2000).

Fundamentally, the Soviet Union’s initial rigid resistance to UNHCR started to change during the mid-1950s. During that period, the Cold War had widened outside the borders of Europe with new countries swaying the work of the UN. From an ontological stance, the Soviet Union had assisted in facilitating the admission of numerous developing countries to the UN — these countries acknowledged the possible effectiveness of UNHCR to their refugee problem (UNHCR the State of the World’s Refugees, 2000).

It is fundamental to assert that UNHCR’s first main test was the mass departure of refugees from Hungary following the Soviet repression in 1956. The majority of these refugees — approximately 180,000 — escaped to Austria, and about 20,000 fled to socialist Yugoslavia. This exodus gave UNHCR its first practice of working along with the International Committee of Red Cross (based in Hungary) as well as the League of Red Cross Society (based in Austria).

Conversely, from 1956 to 1957, UNHCR carried out key relief operations, searching after Hungarian refugees in Austria as well as Yugoslavia, supporting with their resettlement approximately 35 countries globally, as well as voluntary repartition of several thousand refugees to Hungary. The operation indicated the commencement of UNHCR’s change from a small UN body “dealing with a residual caseload of refugees remaining from the Second World War to much larger organization with broader responsibilities.” “In part, the U.S.’ attitude of the U.S. government towards UNHCR changed for the better after 1956,” having seen the works carried by UNHCR with the Hungarian refugees. The UNHCR works with the Hungarian refugees, opening doors for UNHCR in the communist world in Yugoslavia as well as Hungary.
In addition, UNHCR’s support with Chinese refugees in Hong Kong symbolized a vital infiltration in the development of the organization’s work. It was because of this precise group that in November 1957, the UN General Assembly first requested UNHCR to utilize its “good office” (UNHCR, the State of the World’s Refugees, 2000) to search for funds to assist a group of refugees who were not inside Europe. UNHCR was expanding into the developing world. UNHCR is equipped to handle major refugee crises not only in Europe, but beyond.

UNHCR’s Recordkeeping and Achieves

It is important to note that the processes of collecting and maintaining of archives can create exceptional challenges especially for the UNHCR. For instance, where militants besieged camps in 1997, in the eastern region of Zaire (currently DRC), the UNHCR swiftly collected the paper that they could in a truck as they were leaving. Not all materials were saved. The salvaged files were subsequent shipped to UNHCR’s Headquarters in Geneva — these documents are currently stored in the UNHCR’s central archive (UNHCR [2018c]). The UNHCR’s achievement was founded in 1996 — it houses documents since the UNHCR was founded in the 1950s as well as above a half-century field operations’ works globally. The archive inhabits approximately 10 kilometers of shelving area located in two basement floors. Also, the digital archives, encompassing approximately 10 million documents and increasing, are saved and managed on stalwart, protected servers. These documents are chronological curious, which made up approximately half of the material archived. The rest, typically contained internal documentations such as financial reports, it is in the holding for numerous years before destroying them. However, digital collections, such as email messages as well as reports, are likewise assorted for everlasting or short-term holdings.

The holdings are universally and historically exclusive in scope as well as content. They encompass troves of detail concerning vital historical occurrences, comprising, for instance, documents during the Hungarian uprising in 1956, the first key emergency in which the UNHCR started its operational, and emergencies in Argentina as well as Chile during the 1970s, as well as in the previous Yugoslavia during the 1990s. They comprise original documentation such as a letter that was sent by the late Habib Bourguiba, the Tunisian leader, seeking international assistance for refugees who were fleeing the conflict in adjacent Algeria during 1957 — the first request to the UNHCR to help a country outside Europe. The archival holdings are utilized via staff as well as via outside researchers. Records of intractable settings where UNHCR has been working for decades, such as southern Sudan, are brought out on to enlighten staff on the situation as they go to the field. The UNHCR show its transparency regarding its commitment to humanity by opening its archives to the public (UNHCR, 2018c).

BACKGROUND OF CONFLICT

Tanzania Refugee Camps consist of refugees from Burundi, Somalia, DRC and Rwanda. Tanzania is the largest refugee hosting country in Africa that host majority of refugees. As of the last 50 years, it continues to host refugees who escaped from conflicts from the Great Lakes countries (UNHCR global needs, 2011). Tanzania has been regarded as a safe region for hosting refugees especially refugees from Rwanda who fled because of hostility since 1994 (Landau, 2004).
It is vital to assert that Tanzania is a nonviolent country whereas the majority of its neighboring countries had numerous conflicts that include civil or ethnic conflicts. Such countries include Burundi, which has been ravaged by domestic armed conflicts since 1993 ever since the democratically elected president Melchior Ndadaye was killed (Kaufman, 2006, UNHCR, 1997). Subsequent to his assassination, there were aggravated killings of the Hutus and Tutsis, which led to more chaos. The violence rose and led to approximately 160,000 Burundian refugees. These refugees were mainly Hutus who then escaped to Tanzania and Zaire (now called The Democratic Republic of Congo, (DRC). There were thousands of people that were nationally displaced.

Likewise, since 2015, the outbreak of civil chaos, made approximately 419,000 Burundians to flee their country, to DRC, Rwanda, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda since September 2017. UNHCR (2018-2019) noted that, by the conclusion of 2017, there would be approximately 534,000 refugees dwelling in the region. The civil and violent unrest, combined with the persistent deterioration of the political and socioeconomic condition, will result in more displacements of persons are anticipated in 2018. Also, above 209,000 IDPs, nevertheless, this figure is expected to continue slightly low in 2018, despite the mainly insecure human rights atmosphere (UNHCR Global Appeal, 2018-2019). “President Pierre Nkurunziza’s decision to run for a third term in office has led to several deaths and caused thousands of Burundians to flee because of fear of violence” (Obodoruku, 2015a); therefore, loosing human capacity [especially, the youths] to obtain sustainable development in order to achieve economic growth in Burundi (Obodoruku, 2015c).

In Somalia in January 1991, there was extensive chaos in Somalia when the government [...] was detached from power and several clans and warlords began to struggle for political power — in addition to regional control (UNHCR, 1995, 1997, 2000), (UN, 2007).

From an epistemological stance, in eastern Zaire, the conflicts in the Northern part of Kivu extended to South Kivu. This started because a change was implemented to Zaire’s citizenship laws. The Banyamulenge, who are of the Zairian Tutsi group, also came across problems because of the changes made in 1984, which led to nationwide chaos by local politicians acting on behalf of President Mobutu. The attacks of the Banyamulenge by the armed elements resulted in the surge of refugees to Rwandan border in the middle of September 1994 (UNHCR, 2000).

There have been unceasing turmoil in Congo and the flash wave of uproar since 2016 instigated the “violent protest due to the intended postponement of presidential elections has led to the death of dozens of Congolese...[because] President Joseph Kabila...[intend to] extend his term” (Obodoruku 2016a) which could prompt more violence. There are above 600,000 Congolese refugees in the area as well as 3.8 million Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs). The turbulence in the Congo is cogitated as one of the globe’s utmost complex, lengthy as well as overlooked catastrophes. Enormous numbers of refugees are constantly fleeing to numerous territories such as “Angola, Burundi, Rwanda, Uganda, the United Republic of Tanzania as well as Zambia” (UNHCR (2018-2019). The circumstance has worsened since April 2017 and remains to be a frightening situation, with intercommunal fighting in the Kasai area generating internally displacement of 8,000 individuals daily. In June 2017, the condition encouraged UNHCR to release “a supplementary appeal for the humanitarian response” (UNHCR, 2018-2019). The circumstance in 2017 has been classified by cruel human rights violations, encompassing “physical mutilation, killing, sexual violence, arbitrary arrest, and detention in inhumane conditions” (UNHCR, 2018-2019). “It is the responsibility of the state to protect its population. Since the Congolese
government is failing to do so, its citizens should therefore be protected by the international community (Obodoruku 2016a). As stated in the United Nations Responsibility to Protect resolution, established by the United Nations General Assembly Resolution 60/1 (2005): ‘Each individual State has the responsibility to protect its populations from genocide, war crimes, ethnic cleansing and crimes against humanity.’ (Obodoruku 2016a) (UN General Assembly, 2009).

In Rwanda, as stated by Lischer (2003), about 500,000 Rwandans (including the Tutsis and moderate Hutus) were slaughtered in six weeks in the second quarter of 1994 (UNHCR, 1997a). The genocide commenced following the deaths of the presidents of Burundi (Cyprien Ntaryamira) and Rwanda (Juvénal Habyarimana) on April 6, 1994; the aircraft that was transporting both presidents crashed under unclear circumstances when landing into Kigali airport (UNHCR 1997b).

As a consequence of the genocide, about 1.7 million Rwandans fled to Zaire, Tanzania, and Burundi. They were offered housing in camps and provided international assistance. In 1994, about 160,000 refugees went back to Rwanda, even though members of the former Rwandese government as well as militia forces stiffened their grip on the refugee population and the repatriation process came to a halt. UNHCR’s efforts to continue the return process had slight impact. Eventually, the total number of refugees repatriated (700,000) was approximately equal to the total number of newborn babies in the refugee camps, resulting in a continuous steady refugee population (UNHCR, 1997a).

Since the history on numerous countries and the conflicts that led to refugee populations and the UN responses to these conflicts have been examined, it is also vital to examine several studies and literature that elaborated on the issue of the information on adequate food for refugees in Tanzania, information on security/protection for refugees in Tanzania, information on camps/shelters for refugees in Tanzania, information on technology for refugees in Tanzania and, how UNHCR fits into the information age of technology by examining the following (1) What are the roles of technology in UNHCR? What are the services offered by UNHCR? What are the processes employed by UNHCR to reshape their organization such as the organizational theory, innovational theory, and change theory, if any and how has the UNHCR changed, and, if so. what brought the change? (2) How does technology stimulate change in the UNHCR, if any? Are there changes to UNHCR since it was created in 1951? (3) How does UNHCR think about technology or do they think in a different way about technology? Is technology relevant to UNHCR’s works? How does UNHCR share information? What are the information services provided by UNHCR? How does UNHCR provide and share information?

LITERATURE REVIEW

This section discussed three categories: (1) Information on adequate food for refugees in Tanzania (2) Information on security/protection for refugees in Tanzania, and (3) Information on camps/shelters for refugees in Tanzania. Please note that literature in the above subjects is scarce.

Information on food for refugees in Tanzania

Refugees in Nyarugusu camp unceasingly confront food scarcity. As of January 2018, WFP reduced food rations for refugees in Tanzania. WFP delivered simply 72 percent of the required 2,100 kilocalories (WFP, 2018). Likewise, in 2017, WFP cut food ration for approximately 320,000 refugees in the entire three camps (Nyarugusu, Nduta and Mtendeli) due to the lack of funding from the international community. The WFP delivered 62 percent
(of each supplies, maize meal, Super Cereal, pulses, salt as well as vegetable oil) of the 2,100 daily-required kilocalories (WFP, 2017).

In 2017, the WFP and its co-operating partner, the Adventist Development and Relief Agency (ADRA) conveyed the distribution of food to refugees in Nyarugusu camp (WFP, 2017a). Refugees in Nyarugusu camp lack sufficient food (UNHCR, 2017a); their maize’s rations were reduced 70 percent predominantly in the July 2017 distribution (WFP, 2017A). It is fundamental to note that refugees depend on food assistance predominantly from the WFP (Obodoruku, 2017 and 2014b) and the international community (UNHCR, 2016a). UNHCR (2017a) reported that there has been inadequate food for refugees due to the lack of fund constraints. Refugees in Tanzania camps have uncounted constant food reduction constantly for months and years (Obodoruku, 2014b). WFP (2017) dispenses food such as pulses, vegetable oil, Super Cereal (SC) and salt in order for refugees to meet a minimum necessary dietary intake of 2,100 calories for a person daily (WFP, 2017a).

Nevertheless, UNHCR (2017a) stated that, as of March 31, 2017, the proposed 100 percent once-a-month food aid to refugees in camp was met. On the other hand, in August, the UN News Centre (2017) reported that the funding shortage had resulted in the reduction of food rations for approximately 320,000 refugees in northwest Tanzania. This could lead to longstanding, life-changing effects, such as severe malnutrition or rising susceptibility to disease. UNHCR (2018-2019) noted that the continuous magnitudes of refugees from Burundi to Tanzania had led to food shortages and rations being cut because the Burundian situation is underfunded.

While in 2016, the WFP noted that the Super Cereal that was shared for refugees in Nyarugusu camp was temporarily reduced in the months of March, June, July, October, November and December 2015 as a result of the pipeline breaks [deficiency of consistent or adequate distribution of food because of the gap/lack of subsidies] (WFP 2016a) (Obodoruku 2017). WFP (2016a) reported that, in October, Post-Distribution Monitoring (PDM) showed that approximately one-third (33%) of the refugees residing in Nyarugusu camp established to have sold portions of their food rations in order to meet various needs. On the other hand, this is seen as a minor reduction compared to 38% documented by Community and Household Surveillance (CHS) in 2014. Of these numbers, approximately 70% of refugees sold their food rations to meet their various needs for other various food items, 41% of refugees decided to sell their food because they have no other financial source of money, however 36.5% sold their food because they contemplated that the food was not suitable. Approximately 21% of refugees sold a portion or all of their food allotment to meet their necessities for non-food items (NFI). A majority of refugees who sold their food in order to meet various food needs noted that the food WFP is disseminating “did not meet refugees’ preferences or their traditional culinary habits” (WFP 2016a, p. 10). Also, while I was conducting interviews with refugees in Nyarugusu camp, they voiced their concerns of the inadequacy of food supply by UNHCR and MHA (Obodoruku, 2014b).

Likewise, this continuous inadequacy of food for refugees has been a pattern, this is evidence from a study conducted by Community and Household Surveillance (CHS) in northwestern Tanzania, on a Programme Outcome Monitoring in Nyarugusu Refugee Camp in collaboration with World Food Programme (WFP), as well as the UNHCR stated that there was lack of sufficient food for refugees (CHS, 2010).

Information on Security/Protection for Refugees in Tanzania

Tanzania is currently hosting refugee in three camps - Nyarugusu Camp (houses 156,464 refugees); Nduta Camp (hosting 115,726 refugees); and Mtendeli Camp
accommodating 44,712 refugees) (UNHCR, 2018a). These camps are overcrowded and the services are overstretched (UNICEF, 2018).

The protection of refugees in camps remains to be a rare commodity in Tanzania. In 2018, UNICEF stated that there is a concern with the protection of refugees in the entire three camps (Nyarugusu, N'duta and M'tendeli). SGBV is a significant concern in camps (UNICEF, 2018) and the protections of refugees in Tanzania linger as a major challenge (Obodoruku, 2014).

According to UNHCR (2016-2018), SGBV remains a protection and public health challenge in refugee camps — halting it requires the application of a unified process encompassing health, protection and community-based protection. UNHCR specified that, in handling victims of GBV, those in association with Tanzania refugee operations and their partners would coordinate and cooperate closely to intensify the referral systems and standard operation procedure (SOP) for clinical management for rape victims. Similarly, clinical care given to the casualties of rape should be collective with primary health care. Also, UNHCR indicated that clinical employers would be educated on clinical management of rape casualties and awareness of the refugee population to speed up reporting on rapes; accessibility of services as well as referral procedures would be augmented (UNHCR, 2016-2018).

Likewise, in 2017, the protection for refugees in Tanzania continues to be a great concern, especially sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) (UNICEF, 2017a). SGBV among individuals of concern is established in numerous forms, comprising however not restricted to rape, sexual assault, forced marriage, physical assault, psychological as well and emotional abuse, as well as denial of opportunities, services and resources (UNHCR, 2016c).

In Kigoma Region (where refugees are located in three camps, Nyarugusu, M'tendeli and N'duta), that has been classified as a One UN Joint Programming Region. In order to address sexual and gender-based violence against refugees, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), UN Women, International Organization for Migration (IOM), and the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) are cooperating under the umbrellas of the new National Plan of Action to End Violence Against Women and Children, as well as to develop a protection system in Kigoma that can avert and respond to violence against children (UNICEF, 2017a).

In Nyarugusu camp, in 2017, UNHCR reported that there were 104 persons who received support based on sexual and gender-based violence (UNHCR, 2017b). UNICEF (2017b) reported that, on 27th November 2017, in an effort to end violence against women and children, the Kigoma Region Commissioner — with the help from UN Women — initiated the 16-day campaign in order to end violence against women and children, as well as the national plan of action to end violence against women and girls in the Republic of Tanzania. The main message was based on “Leave no one behind: End violence against women and girls” (UNICEF, 2017b). There were exhibitions of various items and entertainment with major messages to promote the empowerment of women and girls and to make sure “they are protected” (UNICEF, 2017).

Similarly, in 2017, UNICEF's response with partners provided Children Protection support for 11,400 children comprising Unaccompanied and Separated Children (UASC) with the right care and protection services (UNICEF, 2017b). UNICEF (2017b) reported that child protection interventions concentrated on preventing and responding to violence against children by providing access to services comprising registration of unaccompanied and
separated children; provision of psychosocial support; family tracing; and obtaining recreational supplies for Child Friendly Spaces (for learning and playing).

In 2016, as part of the Tanzanian government protection efforts for refugees, its Ministry of Home Affairs (MHA) set up a security task force in Nyarugusu camp, Mtendeli and Nduta to address concerns of SGBV in camps (UNHCR, 2016b).

In Nyarugusu camp, in October 2016, one hundred seventy-three (168 females, 5 males) cases of SGBV were recently reported. As in earlier months, the preponderance of cases were narrated by female refugees, with 97% of the entire cases reported, affecting women and girls alike. During that time, the decline in rape cases were negligible. Denial of resources, physical assault, and emotional and psychological abuse each stayed high. Generally, risk factors included alcohol and drug abuse, polygamous marriages, conflicts on reproductive health rights, firewood collection, early marriage as well as poor shelter (tents) situations. In October, about 407 (220 females, 127 males) of those who were new arrivals were assessed and six incidents of SGBV were recorded (UNHCR, 2016c).

In Nduta camp, in October 2016, UNHCR reported that 104 (103 females and 1 male) refugees recently reported cases of SGBV. This revealed a sharp surge in reported cases in prior months. This is partly due to the reopening of Nduta to new arrivals on 7 October 2016. The reported events included 12.5% (13) transpired (nearly all were sexual violence) in Burundi or throughout flight and surge from September 2016, which was 7% (7). Of all cases reported in the perimeter of the camp or in the camp, these reports came from every zone (UNHCR, 2016c).

Similarly, in Mtendeli camp, in October 2016, 42 (40 females and 2 males) refugees reported cases of SGBV, while, in September 2016, seventy refugees (67 females and 3 males) and, in the month before that, 71 refugees (70 females and 1 male). As in prior months the preponderance of cases were detailed by females, with 95% of each reported cases related to women and girls. In October, of the entire reported, two cases reported to have taken place in Burundi or while fleeing. The drastic decline in rape cases that were reported was partially because, as of October 7th, 2016, Mtendeli halted in accepting new arrivals. The major contributing causes in those cases reported in the camp comprised of family conflicts, abuse of power, and alcohol abuse (UNHCR, 2016c).

UNHCR (2016b) and its partners are working together to make sure that there is effective mainstreaming of SGBV prevention in every sector. UNHCR carried out an evaluation of washing facilities and latrines and has been piloted in Mtendeli camp to pinpoint and tackle gaps concerning security and privacy, and to make sure that there is access to WASH facilities for individuals with disabilities and other individuals with specific needs.

In 2015, UNHCR called for humanitarian need and protection for vulnerable refugees, especially women and children and victims of SGBV (including women, girls boys and men). UNHCR (2015a) noted that there should be sensitization sessions based on SGBV for refugees and the host communities to address these issues. UNHCR (2015a) further noted that, in order to make sure that there are peaceful relationships with the host communities, community-based projects should be executed, which consists of carrying out recreational, vocational and educational activities and programmes to strengthen SGBV prevention and construct several community infrastructures. UNHCR (2015a) hoped that these programmes would play a major role in decreasing the risk associated with SGBV as well as quicker response times. UNHCR (2015a) reported that refugees from Burundi have been extremely supportive in assisting with child protection as well as SGBV prevention and response.
activities that have been created in all locations. UNHCR (2015a) would be working with partners in proving “access to clinical care for rape” (p. 44) victims.

In 2014-2015, the levels of SGBV have stayed constantly “high over the past two years, making” (UNHCR, 2014-2015, p.4) it urgent for UNHCR to improve protection in order to halt violence and exploitation, particularly in the cases related to children. Refugees’ dependence on firewood in Nyarugusu camp as the key “source of household fuel for cooking, lighting and heating is becoming unsustainable” (p.4). This is predominantly because of the reduction of wood supplies and intensified exposure of women and children to risks associated with SGBV, as refugees have to walk long distances to search for firewood. UNHCR would lead efforts to implement a new method to domestic energy in the camp (UNHCR 2014-2015, p.4).

Similarly, in 2013, the preponderance of refugees in Nyarugusu camp said that they are not safe in the camp (Obodoruku, 2014b) because some of them were raped while searching for firewood. A majority of the refugees said that they are not safe in camp because they are confronted on a daily basis with rage, SGBV, harassment, insecurity and discrimination (Obodoruku, 2014b).

Likewise, in 2013, Joint Assessment Mission (JAM) of Nyarugusu Camp, carried out by the UN agencies, partners, NGO staff and the Tanzania’s Ministry of Home Affairs (MHA), reported a dramatic surge in reported cases of SGBV offensives. These trends of assault comprise youthful offenders who were approximately eight years old; assaults were executed on babies, as well as statutory rapes. The International Rescue Committee (IRC) initiated training and forums with school employees such as teachers, school committee members, and volunteer facilitators to raise awareness on GBV cases that happen to children (JAM, 2013).

In 2012, IRC piloted a quality assessment program to close perceived gaps as well as way forward in planning programs. GBV programs have shown that women are still at risk associated with other forms of “cultural practices” [such as] “Human Compensation” (JAM, 2013, p. 59) that transpire in Nyarugusu camp; girls were “transferred between families” (JAM, 2013) to settle their debts. These practices have happened in hundreds of settings and are a profoundly shielded cultural phenomenon.

In 2011, there were 40% of SGBV incidents’ victims who received assistance from the Tanzania Red Cross Society (TRCS) (JAM, 2013). Also, in 2011, there were 34 rape victims in Nyarugusu camp who were tended to and treated and 11 in Mtabila camp who were treated (JAM, 2013).

The lack of protection has been a concern in camps for decades. CHS (2010) indicated that 81% of refugees who were not preparing to repatriate indicated that they had various complaints concerning insecurity-related problems in camps and 40% of refugees reported the lack of protection in refugee camps in Tanzania (CHS, 2010). CHS, in 2011, specified that, more than 15 years ago, 60% of refugees had specified that they had to change camps on one occasion, and about 35% had changed camps twice. Four percent in a household survey indicated that refugees had changed camps on three instances. CHS findings indicated that these refugees had to change places to the present camp because of security/protection problems specified by 40% of the household surveys – there was an immense reduction compared to 68% specified in 2008 and 57% specified in 2010 (CHS, 2010).
WFP and UNHCR (2004) findings, in regard to protection concerns, reported: rape with regards to refugees – they noted that firewood was a major concern in Kasulu refugee camp in Tanzania, mainly for the Burundian camps of Mtabila and Muyovozi. WFP and UNHCR’s (2004) findings noted the distance to the designated firewood harvesting locations force refugees to walk lengthy “distances spending more than 7 hours per day in search for firewood, exposing women and children to the danger of rape and sexual harassment” (WFP and UNHCR, 2005).

WFP and UNHCR (2005) reported that the standard fuel wood consumption for a refugee was 1.6 kilograms (or approximately 3.5 pounds) per refugee a day. They noted that the problem of gathering firewood had been an ongoing issue. According to their findings, the inadequacy of firewood accessibility was a result of an increased risk of women fetching wood being a victim of SGBV, particularly rape. The report indicated that insecurity/banditry on the environs of the Lukole camps had expanded since the past two years, principally throughout the months following firewood stocks decrease. WFP and UNHCR (2005) noted that women fetching firewood were mainly at risk (WFP & UNHCR, 2005).

Although men escort women for firewood gathering, the women are not protected. For example, close to the start of this year, women were raped in the presence of their male escort while the escorts were cruelly beaten as well. The report indicated that there had been a 58% increase in cases of women who were raped in Lukole in the middle of 2004, which happened in the course of fetching firewood on the outskirts of the refugee camps (WFP & UNHCR, 2005).

WFP & UNHCR (2005) reported an oral testimony from an aged refugee; she told her story of hunger to a donor Assessment Mission representative visiting the camps, specifying that: “I go to bed without eating because I only have enough firewood to cook breakfast, not dinner too” (WFP & UNHCR, 2005).

WFP & UNHCR (2005) reported that food-related domestic violence totaled 15-20% of domestic violence situations. They noted that the percentage frequently swelled all through the periods of ration cuts. The information on the report of the Mission specified that the majority of rapes took place outside the camps when women were further than the 4-kilometer (2.48-mile) zone while fetching firewood (predominantly in Ngara/Lukole camps). According to the Mission’s report, men were persuaded to escort women to fetch firewood in groups. On the other hand, owing to culture and customs, a small number of men were accompanying or supporting women to fetch firewood (WFP and UNHCR, 2005).

According to a real-life report on child protection efforts at refugee camps in Western Tanzania, a young girl (refugee), “an unaccompanied minor, who lived alone, explained how she was gang raped by four men while collecting firewood.” At the time of her rape, “she was four months pregnant and supposed to be getting married.” Her fiancé had left her and married a different woman because she was raped — in spite of the fact that the entire four of her attackers reside in the camp and recognize her — just one of her attackers had been arrested. According to information on the report, with the assistance of counseling and protection services, she was moved to another refugee camp. The report indicated that “it is in very difficult circumstances that UNICEF not only continues to provide basic services for children, but tries to ensure that their rights are protected” (Blasko, 2011).

**Information on camps/shelters for refugees in Tanzania**

The UNHCR’s EPAU Review of CORDS community services for Congolese refugees in Tanzania (2002) reported that the Government of Tanzania (GOT) restricted
refugees’ movements. Refugees in Tanzania are compelled to live in the camps and stay within a four-kilometer area of the camps, except they have a consent permitting them to depart the camp. The Ministry of Home Affairs’ (MHA) delegates serve as camp commanders, as well as direct issues of concern to the GOT (UNHCR-EPAU, 2002). The MHA camp commanding officer offers permits to refugees on a restricted basis — priority is offered to refugees that require medical treatment and to refugees that are engaged in NGO-subsidized activities. Selected business refugees can collect permits to take a trip out to nearby towns for business functions — though, usually, permits are just offered for three days at a time. “If a refugee is caught outside the camp area without a permit, the penalty is six months in jail” (UNHCR-EPAU, 2002). It is significant to note that genocide had generated several refugees to the Tanzanian refugee’s camps. The Rwandan genocide produced a massive exodus of refugees into Tanzania in April 1994. It was reported that “within 24 hours, nearly 250,000 refugees arrived in the Ngara area, seen here in 1995.” “Worse followed in July 1994, when more than one million Rwandans arrived in Goma, Zaire, within four days. As many as 50,000 people died of cholera” (UNHCR, 2011).

It is important to note that Tanzania also hosts refugees from diverse African countries such as the Mozambican refugees. The UNHCR operation during the 1960s was one among the flourishing operations of the rural integration of African refugees. A settlement called Rutamba mostly for Mozambican refugees in Tanzania.

In 2018, as of February, there were 156,464 refugees in Nyarugusu camp. Currently, there are three camps [Nyarugusu, Nduta and Mtendeli] (UNHCR, 2018a). Nyarugusu camp continued since 1996 to host refugees who fled from conflicts in the DRC. Before April 2015, Nyarugusu camp accommodated 65,000 refugees from the DRC and 2,400 Burundian refugees. There were 84,961 Burundians who entered in April and October 2015 and were accommodated in Nyarugusu camp before relocating around 40,000 Burundian refugees to Nduta and Mtendeli in October 2015 and February 2016, respectively. Nyarugusu camp continues to accept Asylum Seekers primarily from the DRC, in the midst of a resettlement procedure that is predominantly aiming Congolese refugees who came to Tanzania between 1994 and 2005 (UNHCR, 2017c).

UNHCR (2017c) reported that there are 68 per cent of households living in sufficient dwellings [such as transitional shelters/tents] for refugees. On the other hand, UNHCR (2017c) noted that 100 percent was due to African Initiatives Relief and Development (AIRD) [advocates for the empowerment of communities], which searched for household living for refugees.

The infrastructure in Nyarugusu camp is in poor condition (WFP, 2016b; Obodoruku, 2014b); the shelters have no secured doors or locks on the doors. A person could easily break in by using their feet to push the doors open. Some of the shelters have no doors; the doors are covered with plastic sheets (Obodoruku, 2014b). Refugees have no physical bathroom or kitchen. They cook their meal on an open space closed to their shelters and take showers behind their shelters covered with plastic sheets and bamboo (Obodoruku, 2014b). Also, there are no sufficient storage capacities because of its infrastructural constraints, such as leaking roofs and no storage amenities (WFP, 2016a). Likewise, in 2017, UN News Centre reported that Nduta refugee camp could hardly offer shelter, household items, showers and latrines to each refugee.

According to the report by Fouéré (2011) on the Traditional Knowledge in Refugee Camps, The case of Burundian refugees in Tanzania indicated that, at the start of 2004, there were 135,000 refugees living in Kibondo camps in Tanzania. In June 2006, the refugees’
population in Kibondo was reduced to 68,416 refugees, of whom 97.5% were Burundians (Fouéré, 2011).

I will be examining the question of how the UNHCR fits into the information age of technology because we are in an advancing age of information services. This paper will examine three research questions:

(1) What are the roles of technology in UNHCR? How does UNHCR think about technology or do they think in a different way about technology? Is technology relevant to UNHCR’s works? What are the services offered by UNHCR? What information access is provided by UNHCR? How does UNHCR share information? What are the information services provided by UNHCR? How does UNHCR provide access and share information?

(2) What are the processes employed by UNHCR to reshape its organization such as the organizational theory, innovational theory, and change theory, if any? How has the UNHCR changed, and, if so, what brought about the change?

(3) How does technology stimulate change in the UNHCR, if any? Are there changes to UNHCR since it was created in 1951?

**METHODOLOGY**

*Content Analysis*

This exploratory research employed content analysis to analyze all documents/literature and studies on the subject. Content analysis allowed me to view “artifacts of social communication,” which encompassed “documents or transcripts of recorded verbal communication” (Berg 2008, 267). Content analysis enabled me to lengthily review several literatures on several publications on the subject. The UN database, as well as books, was reviewed. Data was also explored with the subsequent channels such as: the majority of literature databases, particularly Academic Search Premier, a selection of citation references pertaining to the study being examined, general search engines, (mostly Google Scholar and several databases) in the study in regard to Information Science (Full Text). The searching also utilized general terms such as: “refugees,” “food,” “information,” “Rwanda,” “Somalia” “Zaire,” (now called DRC) “DRC,” technology, UNHCR, and Tanzania. After reading the literature, I decided to include information on refugees from DRC, Rwanda, Somalia, and Tanzania because these are the countries my exploratory study is focusing on.

The search advanced by integrating terms such as “information” and “information services.” The major methodology used in this study is content analysis. This technique allowed for analyzing themes based on several categories. After reading several literary works for content and discursive themes (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). A table for the research questions was created to answer the research questions:

(1) What are the roles of technology in UNHCR? How does UNHCR think about technology or do they think in a different way about technology? Is technology relevant to UNHCR’s works? What are the services offered by UNHCR? What access to information is provided by UNHCR? How does UNHCR share information? What are the information services provided by UNHCR? How does UNHCR provide access and share information?

(2) What are the processes employed by UNHCR to reshape their organization such as the organizational theory, innovational theory, and change theory, if any? How has the UNHCR changed, and, if so, what brought about the change?
(3) How does technology stimulate change in the UNHCR, if any? Are there changes to UNHCR since it was created in 1951?

Every one of the literature was presented and reviewed in a category that is appropriate to answer the research questions. It is important to note that there is not much written on this subject.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

In order to know how UNHCR fits into the information age, this study will examine the following questions:

(1) What are the roles of technology in UNHCR? How does UNHCR think about technology or do they think in a different way about technology? Is technology relevant to UNHCR’s works? What are the services offered by UNHCR? What is the information access provided by UNHCR? How does UNHCR share information? What are the information services provided by UNHCR? How does UNHCR provide access and share information?

(2) What are the processes employed by UNHCR to reshape their organization such as the organizational theory, innovational theory, and change theory, if any? How has the UNHCR changed, and, if so, what brought about the change?

(3) How does technology stimulate change in the UNHCR, if any? Are there changes to UNHCR since it was created in 1951?

By investigating the above stated research questions, this exploratory study aims to find out more about the present stage of how UNHCR fits into the information age in terms of information on adequate food for refugees in Tanzania, information on security/protection for refugees in Tanzania and information on camps/shelters for refugees in Tanzania and information on technology services they used as well made available for refugees in Tanzania because we are in an advancing age of information.

**DATA COLLECTION**

This is exploratory research. This study utilized data (on interviews, focus groups, discussions with refugees in Nyarugusu camp, unobtrusive observation of the camp, and interview data with UNHCR Officers in the field and in New York City, USA) from my Ph.D. field research in Nyarugusu Camp. Data was retrieved from UN documentations and was collected from UN’s reports, which is rich with primary data such as pictures and refugee songs. Also, several pieces of literature were retrieved from the UN database as well as from several databases, such as JSTOR. The literature reviewed was dated from 1998 to 2011. Some journals were utilized for the background information on various conflicts, which were obtained from JSTOR and several databases. Various definitions of terms were retrieved from *Webster’s Dictionary Including Thesaurus of Synonyms & Antonyms* and the *Concise Oxford Dictionary. New Edition* (1929) Oxford University Press defined several terms as well as themes. Several data were analyzed based on the content analysis method.

**DATA ANALYSIS**

The data in this study was analyzed with content analysis. This method allowed for analyzing themes/literature, and archival materials, such as photos from the UN database, based on the research questions. Several documents were analyzed for content; following
that, several other information resources such as photos were examined. The list of major themes occurred through content analysis can be seen in Table 1. The explanations of my findings are presented as they correspond with the research questions in the findings. The research questions were discussed based on my findings (see Table 2 for research questions).

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Based on these data collected from the UN database as depicted on Table 1, the subsequent three categories of research questions were created on Table 2 (see below).
FINDINGS

The following group of research and observations summarized the entire themes and presented the broad findings of the inquiring of the exploratory research; for this reason, Table 2 was created to illustrate the research questions.

Table 2. Research Questions

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<td>(3) How does technology stimulate change in the UNHCR, if any? Are there changes to UNHCR since it was created in 1951?</td>
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Table 1 (above) shows several archival documents such as photos retrieved from the UN database, studies and literature examined for this exploratory research. As a component of my findings in reviewing various literature and archival materials, this study created a concept map (see Figure 1 below) of the stakeholders on information distributed to refugee camps in Tanzania. The Concept map describes the relationship with UN agencies, international community, stockholders, volunteers, NGOs, media and many more, with regards to: (1) information on food for refugees in Tanzania, (2) information on security/protection for refugees in Tanzania (3) and information on camps/shelters for refugees in Tanzania, refugees located in Tanzania on how UN agencies, international community, stockholders, volunteers, NGOs, media and many more received, handled, and distributed information and how the international community responded to these issues. This study found out that refugees received information on food, security/protection and camps/shelter from UN agencies, the international community, stockholders, volunteers, NGOs and media via oral communication, information on signboards, radio and satellites (merely used with the exception of conflict situations such as the 1994 Rwanda Genocide), and pamphlets were simply distributed in conflict situation, such as the Rwanda Genocide situation. Generally, there is inadequate information for refugees in Tanzania camps; refugees lack the essential information required, particularly on food distribution. It is fundamentally essential to specify that adequate food is a perpetual scarce commodity in camp and some refugees goes on for days without food. There were several occasions that refugees were not aware when and where to collect food rations. Information on how when and how to collect food during distribution period is vital, particularly because refugees need food to stay alive.
Ever since, a short section of communication to refugees has been briefly concentrated on the concept map on Figure 1.

In regards to Information on Security/Protection for Refugees in Tanzania, the finding in this study indicates that refugees in Tanzania lack protection. In 2018, UNHCR (2018) reported that SGBV is the greater unceasing concern in all three camps (Nyarugusu, Nduta and Mtendeli).

Protection for refugees in camp is insufficient. Refugees in Nyarugusu lack adequate protection in camp and women are rape, especially when they journey seven hours daily to fetch firewood. A refugee during an interview at Nyarugusu camp (see Nyarugusu camp on Figure 2) said that her mother was raped when fetching for firewood and she got pregnant and she kept the baby (Obodoruku, 2014). This incident of rape made her frightened to leave her shelter and fear in camp. She is also traumatized and fears to interact with her fellow refugees. Likewise, in 2017, there were substantial numerous cases of SGVB reported at Nduta and Mtendeli camps when women went to fetch firewood (UNHCR, 2017d). Similarly, CHS (2010) reported 40 percent inadequate protection and 80 percent of insecurity related problems in camps. In 2004, there were 58 percent cases of women that had been raped in Lukole refugee camps (WFP and UNHCR, 2005). It was also reported that children are raped in camps, domestic violence is 15 percent to 20 per cent (WFP and UNHCR, 2005).
It is important to protect children in refugee camps (see Figure 3 of refugee children) at the front of the Registration center in Nyarugusu camp. You can see sadness in the eyes of several children — they are unhappy. Despite some children being born in camp, some children were caught up in various conflicts and ended up in camps. UNICEF (2018) is concerned with the protection of refugees in camps (Nyarugusu, Nduta and Mtendeli). UNICEF is especially concerned with issues on SGBV. The protection of refugees in Tanzania persists as a key challenge (Obodoruku, 2014).
In 2017, UNICEF responded by cooperating with partners offered approximately 11,400 children with protection support, including Unaccompanied and Separated Children (UASC) with the right care, as well as protection services (UNICEF, 2017b) needed.

Likewise, on 27th November 2017, (UNICEF 2017b), in its advocacy to end violence against women and children, the Kigoma Region Commissioner, with the assistance from UN Women, initiated a 16-day campaign to halt violence against women and children and a national plan of action to stop violence against women as well as girls in the Republic of Tanzania. The core message was grounded on “Leave no one behind: End violence against women and girls” (UNICEF, 2017b).

Also, the UNHCR (2016-2018) reported that SGBV persisted as a protection and public health challenge in refugee camps — halting SGBV necessitates the application of an amalgamated procedure incorporating health, protection and community-based protection. The UNHCR (2016-2018) called for the cooperation and coordinate to intensify the referral structures as well as the standard of operation procedure (SOPs) for clinical management for rape casualties.

It is vital to present the findings on the continuous complexities which refugees face during fetching firewood in percentages, which will be discussed on the findings afterward. UNHCR (2017d) reported that continuous cases of SGBV have been reported at Nduta and Mtendeli camps (UNHCR 2017d) as well as Nyarugusu camp (Obodoruku, 2014) during the process when women were fetching firewood (UNHCR, 2017d). Similarly, as seen in Figure 4 below, which was created to demonstrate a seven-year analysis of the levels of intricacies refugees have unceasingly encountered and are still going through with difficulties in cooking.
and fetching of firewood in Tanzanian camps. As specified in Figure 4, in 2008, fifty-one percent of refugees found it hard to prepare meals for themselves because of the lack of firewood (21%) and inadequate food (21%) as well. In 2010, the demands of firewood raised to a soaring 70% (Community and Household Surveillance, 2010). This is a very serious situation particularly because refugees relied on firewood for the preparation of food for their survival. The findings show that refugees find it difficult to cook as well as lack adequate food in Tanzania refugee camps (Obodoruku, 2014).

It is significant now to present diverse themes based on my findings in reviewing and analyzing several UN literatures, studies and archival material consecutively to answer the research questions on Table 2. The findings will be discussed and presented under these three themes/research questions sequentially:

(1). What are the roles of technology in UNHCR? How does UNHCR think about technology or do they think in a different way about technology? Is technology relevant to UNHCR’s works? What are the services offered by UNHCR? What is the information access provided by UNHCR? How does UNHCR share information? What are the information services provided by UNHCR? How does UNHCR provide access and share information?

(2). What are the processes employed by UNHCR to reshape their organization such as the organizational theory, innovational theory, and change theory, if any? How has the UNHCR changed, and, if so, what brought about the change?

(3) How does technology stimulate change in the UNHCR, if any? Are there changes to UNHCR since it was created in 1951?

Findings on Research Question 1: What are the roles of technology in UNHCR? How does UNHCR think about technology or do they think in a different way about technology? Is technology relevant to UNHCR’s works? What are the services offered by UNHCR? What is the information access provided by UNHCR? How does UNHCR share information? What are the information services provided by UNHCR? How does UNHCR provide access and share information?
According to the findings with regards to the role of technology in the UNHCR, the EPAU Evaluation Reports, (UNHCR, 1998) showed that the UNHCR has played a major role in utilizing various forms of technology while carrying its role (services) as a protective organization in protecting populations in crisis. Also, the UNHCR has always considered technology a fundamental mechanism and apparatus in carrying out its mandate of protection and assistance to refugees. The UNHCR has always incorporated various forms of information technology in delivering essential information to refugees in a structured manner, which has been a continuous general practice since the UNHCR was created. The UNHCR employed Mass Information Activities; these are the methods of communication used when faced with an immense flow of refugees in humanitarian crises (Obodoruku, 2014) (UNHCR 1998). The UNHCR dispersed leaflets and pamphlets, ousized meetings, disseminated news with the utilization of loudspeakers (or else, radio); the system is presently regarded as “mass information” (UNHCR, 1998). The EPAU Evaluation report noted that the dissemination of information has constantly been the norm of the UNHCR in supporting operations, through various forms of mass communication in inspiring and persuading the opinions and behaviors of a specific population. The review indicated that the UNHCR utilized mass communication strategies to persuade Rwandan refugees to go back home. The UNHCR made use of videotaped recordings and publicizing public meetings in various refugee camps. The mass communication strategy was helpful in opposing the destructive propaganda dispersed by influential extremist-controlled radio broadcasters (UNHCR, 1998). The UNHCR utilized several communication strategies and was able to repatriate 1.3 million refugees from Tanzania (who were from Burundi and Uganda) with the use of Radio BBC Programme; Rwandan refugees were able to return in 1998. The UNHCR utilized mass communication methods and campaigns in collaboration with NGOs for various reasons in the refugee camps, and particularly to support efforts to advance voluntary repatriation (UNHCR, 1998) (Obodoruku, 2014).

UNHCR used other information activities as well as regular radio broadcasting in collaboration with non-government organizations (NGOs). UNHCR staff in Tanzania set up hour-long meetings with groups of refugees twice a week to inform them on the probability of repatriation. The repatriation was regarded as temporary from February 1995 (some 100 refugees each week), which may be as a result of these meetings being held. The campaign statistics shown that the campaign aimed at the entire population of 2,037,846 Rwandese refugees included 1,198,456 in Eastern Zaire, 651,090 in Tanzania and 188,300 in Burundi. The total expenditure was US$1,100,351, with details such as:


With the utilization of oral communication, the network tried in winning the refugees’ attentiveness with extra (non-official) media sources in the course of disseminating information in long-wave and in the Kinyarwanda language. Kinyarwanda is at presently spoken by a massive amount of refugees, as well as French and English. The broadcast by Radio Agatashiya in Kinyarwanda, French and English, reached an immense audience larger than one million refugees. Though, the UNHCR video project started with pilot video showing Tanzania refugee camps (from November to December, 1995). In 1996, UNHCR produced 60 videos; these videos swayed the decision of refugees to return — this was
depicted in the UNHCR video known as “Le rapatriement volontaire” (UNHCR, 1998). A refugee orally testified that the video piece he and his family viewed in camp played an essential part in their decision to repatriate home; in his oral testimony, he indicated that:

“It took me one year and a half to decide, and I hesitated because I believed that people were killed on return. My children also believed that. Until we saw a neighbor on one of the videos, we thought he had been killed, but he hadn’t. So we decided to return” (UNHCR, 1998).

In Tanzanian refugee camps, there was no scarcity of volunteers. Subsequent to the establishment of the video program, UNHCR employees accompanying the visits obtained several photographs that were later exhibited on boards in camps – those pictures served as publicized information for refugees (UNHCR, 1998). Also, UNHCR offered various forms of accessing information and services to refugees in camp (Obodoruku, 2014). UNHCR offers services and access to its mandates — the three durable solutions (voluntary reintegration, repatriation and resettlement). Also, the UNHCR provided refugees with information on asylum, protection, security, SGBV, food and shelter and many more. The UNHCR disseminates this information to refugees in camps at the Most Frequently Visited Areas in camp, (Obodoruku, 2014) information is exhibited on noticeboards as well as signboards (handwritten and printed information) (see information displayed on noticeboard on Figure 5) or presented orally by UNHCR officials, MHA, cooperating partners, or camp leaders (who are refugees). Also, UNHCR provides refugees with written information and oral information (via meetings or focus group discussions) at the Most Frequently Visited Areas in Nyarugusu Camp. See Figure 6 on the “Information Seeking Model of Nyarugusu Camp” (Obodoruku, 2014), which depicts the Most Frequently Visited Areas in camp that refugees seek information in camp such as information on Food Distribution Centre, MHA, Camp Leader’s Office, market, butchery/slaughterhouse, verification/registration centre, water points, dispensary, hospital youth centre, etc.

Figure 5. Frequently Visited Areas information is exhibited on noticeboard/signboards in front of the Registration/Verification Centre, Nyarugusu Camp, Tanzania. Refugees’ children walking by (Obodoruku, 2013).
Also, the UNHCR shared and distributed information to refugees at the Most Frequently Visited Area Camp, such as the MHA’s office, as seen in the information Seeking Model of Refugees in Nyan'gusu Camp on Figure 6 above (see Figure 7 of MHA’s Office on printed copies of information posted on a noticeboard). The MHA’s Office is some of the places of authority (See Figure 6 Information Seeking Model of Refugees in Nyan'gusu Camp) in camp that refugees seek information that have been distributed or shared by the
UNHCR to refugees. The UNHCR also communicated and shared information with refugees at the Verification/Registration Centre (see Figure 8 below). The Verification Centre is used by the UNHCR mostly for registration and the Verification. The Verification Exercise is an essential platform for UNHCR to communicate with refugees in camp as well as for refugees to seek various information especially information on their status such as repatriation, resettlement and reintegration. The Verification Exercise is a program that enables the
UNHCR and the Government of Tanzania to keep in check of the number of refugees in camp. The exercise collects data as well as updates every refugee’s personal information to ensure better planning for effective protection and assistance (see Figure 9 of the inside of the Registration Center - use for interviews during the Verification Exercise).
Also, the exercise enables communication for refugees because it assists them to communicate their concerns personally to the UNHCR and, likewise, it helps the UNHCR speak with refugees regarding their status as well as to address their concerns. The exercise takes place at the Registration Centre in camp, and it typically last for six months. The UNHCR informs refugees of the process of the Verification Exercise through mass communication campaigns, regarding its significance, and what is required of refugees, such as attending the meeting alongside with their family members.

It is important to know that refugees use terms and phases to associate with their numerous information use (see Table 3 “Working Ontology of Information Use” (Obodoruku, 2014). Refugees use the information that they obtained to associate or address their needs and concerns in camp and to locate people (such as their family, parents, villages, tribes, etc.), danger (rape, SGB, war, conflict killings, etc.), media/broadcast media (communication, announcements, radio etc.), News/communication/information sharing (magazine, newspaper, NATO report etc.), corporation (United Nations, intergovernmental organization, UNHCR, etc.), camp (shelter, security, protection, etc.), information (notice board, posters, etc.) and transportation (sea, land, flight, etc.) A majority of the refugees in camp indicated that the news that they received does not meet their needs (Obodoruku, 2014). Some refugees considered the information not to be good information because it does not solve their needs and the government of Congo told them that it was safe to return and, when some of them returned, they were killed because it was not safe in Congo. The UNHCR
verified and confirmed this misinformation (UNHCR, 2013). A majority of refugees seek information relating to people (see Table 1) because most of them have lost loved ones and hope to hear information from their relatives or family, whether they are still alive, to know if their countries are at peace or if it is safe to return and how to reclaim their properties that have been taken away from them by relatives or strangers because they fled their countries, leaving all or most of their belongings behind.

Table 3: “Working Ontology of Information Use” (Obodoruku, 2014).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category Label</th>
<th>Example term and phrases</th>
<th>Number of Cases</th>
<th>% of Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>People</td>
<td>Family, Parents, Family Members, Relatives, Neighbor, Town, Neighboring Village, Burundian, Congolese, DRC, Burundi, Twa Tribe, Hutus and Tutsi, Ovira, Mboko, Government, Law, Policy, Welfare</td>
<td>664</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Danger</td>
<td>Conflicts, Insecurity, Threat, Violence, Killings, War, Tribal Conflicts, Political Conflicts, Fear, Risk, Fighting, Attack, Slaughtering, Shooting, Massacres</td>
<td>437</td>
<td>24.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporation</td>
<td>United Nations, Intergovernmental Organization, Partnership, UN Agencies, International Co-operation, UNHCR, WFP, UNICEF, OCHA, NGOs, IRC, MHA</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Findings Research Question 2: What are the processes employed by the UNHCR to reshape their organization such as the organizational theory, innovational theory, and change theory, if any? How has the UNHCR changed, and, if so, what brought about the change?

When dealing with refugees and the Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs), the UNHCR had to adjust to environments that are not secure, mixed population influx and financial and environmental challenges. In 2007, the UNHCR discovered innovative methods to deliver protection and assistance, and the pursuit for lasting solutions by reinforcing its operational protection capacity; enhanced registration and management systems; “mainstreamed age, gender and diversity mainstreaming (AGDM) considerations” (UNHCR Global Report, 2007) in its work, as well as developed operational effectiveness. UNHCR expanded programmes with regards to health and sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) (see Figure 7). On an organizational level, the UNHCR (see Figure 8) worked to advance its performance by reform and restructuring.

Similarly, UNHCR (2016-2018) reinforced its protection capability by noting that the clinical care that is provided to rape victims ought to be collective with primary health care. Also, the UNHCR indicated that the clinical staff would be educated on clinical management regarding those who were raped and awareness of the refugee population to swift reporting on rape incidents, accessibility of services, and the referral pathways will be improved (UNHCR, 2016-2018).

With regards to the UNHCR strengthening its operational protection capacity (see Figure 10), the UNHCR improved protection in opposition to non-refoulement by working with states on development of national asylum legislation in order to guarantee protection principles that are significant and integrated into legal structure (UNHCR Global Report, 2007) in compliance with the 1951 Refugees Convention, as well as the 1967 Protocol (UNHCR, The 1951 Convention & 1967 Protocol, 2011).

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3 Non-refoulement: “The cornerstone of the 1951 Convention is the principle of non-refoulement contained in Article 33. According to this principle, a refugee should not be returned to a country where he or she faces serious threats to his or her life or freedom” (UNHCR, 2010 Convention & Protocol Relating to Status of Refugees).
The UNHCR instructs states on ways to meet legitimate nationwide security concerns without limiting access to those that require international protection (UNHCR, The 1951 Convention & 1967 Protocol, 2011). The UNHCR keep states informed on information to improve the quality of the refugees’ status determination, (RSD) which includes international protection needs, a position paper, eligibility guidelines and return advisories (UNHCR Global Report, 2007).

In 2006, UNHCR introduced an innovation and improvement on age, gender and diversity mainstreaming strategy (see Figure 10 above) in 41 country operations in Africa, Europe and Asia, which brings the total to 97 countries globally. There were 25 workshops carried out, and 641 participants (285 were men, and 536 were women) from various governments, NGOs, UN agencies and the UNHCR. Every country created a multi-functional team comprised of employees from the protection team, programme, community services, significant divisions of UNHCR, and national and international NGO partners and government officials (UNHCR Global Report, 2006). The process requires every officer (as well as those engaged in advocacy) to undergo participatory assessment, which is considered as an aspect of the yearly operation planning process. From 2008 to 2009, the UNHCR’s assessment of 50 countries that carried out the participatory assessments employed the findings to aim at activities in preventing as well as responding to SGBV as well as child protection. On the other hand, the total age, gender and diversity analysis term approach are still weak. To deal with this issue, the UNHCR provided a rigorous two-week AGDM course for employees working in several community activities (UNHCR Global Report, 2007).

As part of the UNHCR’s innovative approach, it improved the level and quality of registration and management (see Figure 10 above). The UNHCR has invested in innovative procedures and tools to advance registration, documentation and population data management. In 2004, the UNHCR launched proGres, UNHCR’s registration database application software to assist with implementing the standards set up via “ExCom Conclusion No. 91 on the Registration of Refugees” (UNHCR Global Report 2007, p 28). At the end of 2007, UNHCR was utilizing proGres in 57 country operations, as well as 122 offices globally.
Over 1,400 staff members were trained to utilize the new registration standards, tools and procedures, and roughly 2.86 million refugees have active records in proGres. The proGres software continues to be developed to cater to the evolving needs of field operations (UNHCR Global Report, 2007).

The proGres application makes the daily management of a refugee’s registration data easier. Every office with proGres currently generates attestations, as well as protection letters straightforwardly from the database, and 12 offices produce printed plastic ID cards via proGres data. In 2007, registration officers [who are located] at the Headquarters as well as in the Field carried out over 59 missions to assist 32 country offices globally (UNHCR Global Report, 2007).

On the issues of the UNHCR in preventing and responding to SGBV, (see Figure 10 above) the UNHCR instituted standard operating procedures and raising awareness with NGO staff and recipients to tackle the problem. In 2007, there were about 83 percent of camps, as well as 65 percent of municipal locations, that had structured such practices, as opposed to 77 percent and 55 percent, correspondingly, in 2006. In 2006, fourteen percent of camps stated that they had met the standards in training refugees and asylum seekers with regards to SGBV; the rate increased in 2007 to 22 percent (UNHCR Global Report, 2007). There has been vital progress in preventing HIV transmission following rape by providing post-exposure prophylaxis (PEP) to those who were raped. In Africa, almost 75 percent of rape victims had admission to PEP if reported in 72 hours at the proper health facility (UNHCR Global Report, 2007).

With regards to an innovative approach in enhancing the UNHCR’s operational effectiveness (see Figure 11), UHNCR’s goal of implementing various innovative methods (mentioned above) in field levels is to enhance the organization’s operational responsiveness and effectiveness in regional and global levels (UNHCR Global Report, 2007).
The UNHCR employed various strategies to shape the organizational level by improving performance through reform and restructuring (UNHCR Global Report, 2007). The UNHCR’s main objective of the reform (as seen in Figure 6 above) is to produce other streamlined headquarters that are competent in offering general direction and maximum assistance to the Field. Because of this, the UNHCR has restructured (as seen in Figure 11 above) and merged functions via relocating support services to the Field, as well as placing administrative functions wherever they are considered to be efficient and cost-effective (UNHCR Global Report, 2007).

As part of the reform process, the High Commissioner for Refugees endorsed a framework on decentralization and regionalization in June 2007. This laid down the models for national structures to be flexibly utilized in response to situations on the ground. The goals of regionalization are to convey decision-making and support deliveries in order to increase operational responsiveness; reinforce the subregional approach, which is “formulation, situational management and solutions planning”; and augment the UNHCR’s capability to connect with “regionally-based partners, institutions and processes” (UNHCR Global Report, 2007).

Also, in June 2007, the High Commissioner issued a “Revised Framework for Resource Allocation and Management” (UNHCR Global Report, 2007). The new framework explains the division’s responsibilities among the Department of Operations, as well as the Division of Financial and Administrative Management. The Framework permits “representatives, bureau directors and the Assistant High Commissioner (Operations)” to transfer funds and employees in response to altering operational requirements (UNHCR Global Report, 2007).

Findings on Research Question 3: How does technology stimulate change in the UNHCR, if any? Are there changes to the UNHCR since it was created in 1951?

UNHCR offered refugees access to technology as well as training facilities in 2006. Through the assistance of Microsoft, a “new community technology access centre” (UNHCR Global Report, 2006) was established in July 2006 at Kibondo refugee camp, in Tanzania. UNHCR’s Executive Committee (ExCom) designated US$113,000 to the United Republic of Tanzania Community technology and learning centre (UNHCR Global Report, 2006). However, the UNHCR’s Global Report of 2006 is considered the second report that addressed the issue of technology. More detail was not given on how this technology is used by refugees.

The UNHCR (2018) noted that refugees in Tanzania are sacrificing substantial portions of their food rations to purchase data for their cell phones. Congolese and Burundian refugees in Nyarugusu refugee camp in Tanzania wandered around camp with their mobile phones searching for elevated ground, where they could be fortunate enough to get a signal from surrounding host communities to be connected. In Nyarugusu camp, refugees now gain access from three towers that deliver 3G coverage of the surrounding area. “It’s a far cry from the situation just one year ago, when businesses were either completely unaware of the camp or believed it was impossible for refugees to be customers” (UNHCR, 2018b). According to the UNHCR (2018b), a month after Vodacom constructed its tower, a utilization report indicated it was completely shocked at 180,000 calls daily. Also, more than 250 refugees were operating mobile money services, with individuals getting approximately US$150 in commission each month. With those enhanced services as well as extra towers, several refugees stated that, for the first time, they were able to communicate with family.
members who were resettled in the United States (UNHCR, 2018b). Thanks to the development in connectivity, for the first time, as of January 2017, the WFP is piloting a cash transfer initiative for refugees in Nyarugusu Camp (UNHCR, 2018b).

The UNHCR (2018-2019) introduced the Cash Based Interventions (CBI) e-voucher card, a phone technology that gives refugees in Uganda a cash lifeline, which enables them to have control by choosing and prioritizing their needs, as well as contributing to the local community and the host community. CBI is a dignified method of assistance to refugees. The UNHCR has introduced the CBI in more than 35 countries and it had met its urgent requirement of refugees and other persons of concern in Jordan, Syria, Islamic Republic of Iran, Ukraine and Turkey Ukraine. Cash assistance helped predominantly vulnerable persons in Morocco, Kenya, Tunisia and South Africa and covered the basic requirements of unaccompanied children in Sudan, Ethiopia and Yemen (UNHCR 2018-2019).

Likewise, the UNHCR and the WFP established a Rapid Distribution Tool that that utilized barcode technology — a model technology that allows UNHCR to quickly scan the ration card and allow for a quick monthly distribution of food for refugees in Angola’s Lunda Norte province (UNHCR, 2017e). The barcode saves time and allows for fairness — it reduces deception resulting from stolen or lost ration cards. The Rapid Distribution Tool/barcode is an innovative approach that stimulates change.

Similarly, the UNHCR developed the Iris Scanner technology (scans refugees’ eyes), which enables Syrian refugees to access cash (of 100 dinars, or approximately $140 U.S. dollars) assistance from the bank. There are approximately 23,000 Syrian refugees’ families that reside in the urban region in Jordan who benefit from the UNHCR’s cash support (UNHCR, 2015b). The system was introduced in Syria because it allows easy access for refugees to get financial assistance from the UNHCR. It is essential to note that the UNHCR continues to provide support for refugees globally and technology has facilitated that support.

**CONCLUSION**

For this exploratory study, the UN database, numerous studies and books were reviewed. Literature was extensively reviewed from various publications on the subject and archival materials, such as pictures and videos. The content analysis method was utilized in this study. This technique allowed me to analyze themes based on numerous categories. After reading several literary works for content, a table was created to answer the research questions sequentially. Every piece of literature was presented in a category that is appropriate and organized in various literature reviewed to answer the research questions. The utilization of content analysis in this study helps to generate various findings.

The findings of this study suggested that refugees in Tanzania lack adequate food, adequate protection/security and adequate information. As of January 2018, refugees’ food rations were reduced by the WFP in Tanzania. The WFP distributed basically 72 percent of the 2,100 required kilocalories (WFP, 2018). Also, in 2017, the WFP cut food rations for about 320,000 refugees for three camps (Nyarugusu, Nduta and Mtendeli) because of the shortage of financial assistance from the international community. The WFP supplied 62 percent (of all supplies, maize meal, pulses, Super Cereal, salt and vegetable oil) of the 2,100 daily needed kilocalories (WFP 2017).

Similarly, according to CHS (2010), there is inadequate food for refugees who depend on the international community for support (CHS, 2010). With regards to food protection/security in Tanzania refugee camp, WFP & UNHCR (2005) noted that food-related domestic violence totaled 15-20% of domestic violence incidents in Tanzanian
refugee camps. It should be specified that women and children are exploited in non-secured environment/camps in Tanzania. Women and children have been raped in Tanzanian refugee camps because of insecurity issues (WFP & UNHCR, 2005 & Blasko, 2011). Also, the exploratory study carried out in 2013 on the “Human Information Behavior Among African Refugees in Tanzania: An Exploratory Study of the Nyarugusu Camp” (Obodoruku, 2014b) suggested that refugees lack sufficient information on adequate food, information on security/protection, information on camps/shelter, the dissemination on information.

UNICEF (2018) specified that SGVB is a persistent concern in camps and the protections of refugees in Tanzania remain as a foremost challenge (Obodoruku, 2014). Likewise, UNHCR (2016-2018), reported that SGBV remains a continuing protection issue, as well as a public health challenge in refugee camps. UNHCR (2016-2018), further noted that halting SGBV necessitates the solicitation of a unified procedure, including health protection and community-based protection.

With regards to information dissemination in refugee camps in Tanzania, in general, there is inadequate information for refugees in Tanzanian camps — refugees lack the essential information required, particularly on food distribution. There were numerous occasions when refugees were not aware when and where to collect food rations; information on how when and how to collect food during distribution periods is vital, mostly because refugees need food to stay alive.

With regards to the role of technology in the UNHCR, the study finds out that, according to EPAU Evaluation Reports, (1998), the UNHCR has played a major role in utilizing various forms of technology while carrying their role (services) as a protection organization in protecting population groups in crisis situations. The UNHCR has always incorporated various forms of information technology in delivering essential information to refugees in a structured manner, which has been a continuous general practice since the UNHCR was created. The UNHCR utilized several communication strategies and was able to repatriate 1.3 million refugees from Tanzania (who were Burundi and Uganda); with the use of the Radio BBC Programme, Rwandan refugees were able to return in 1998.

In Nyarugusu camp, refugees now have 3G-access coverage from three towers that deliver cell phone coverage to the surrounding area (UNHCR, 2018b). Thanks to the advancement in connectivity, for the first time, as of January 2017, the WFP is piloting a cash transfer initiative for refugees in Nyarugusu camp (UNHCR, 2018b). Plus, in other countries in Africa, the UNHCR (2018-2019) introduced the CBI e-voucher card — a phone technology which offers refugees in Uganda a cash lifeline, which enables them to have control by choosing and prioritizing their needs and provide to the local community and the host community.

The findings also indicated that, in order for UNHCR to deal with the issues of refugees, the UNHCR has discovered an innovative approach to deliver protection and assistance, and seek for lasting solutions for refugees. In 2007, the UNHCR reinforced protection capacity; enhanced registration and management systems; “mainstreamed age, gender and diversity considerations” (UNHCR Global Report, 2007) in its work; and developed operational effectiveness. UNHCR expanded programmes with regards to health and SGBV. On an organizational level, the UNHCR worked to advance its performance through reform and restructuring.

Since this is an exploratory study, the findings of this investigation cannot be generalized, but shed light on the issue. This study could add to developing policy recommendations in order to advance the dissemination of information to meet the rights of
refugees globally, so that they obtain adequate food and protection, as well as adequate dissemination of information.

War is exceedingly violent, devastating and brings a level of brutality that leads to the killing of loved ones, and Africa has witnessed numerous wars such as the Biafran War in Nigeria (Obodoruku, 2009), especially war and conflicts in the Great Lakes region. The international community should look into various methods to tackle issues that associate with war, as well as conflicts to halt the anguish, misery and suffering that the refugees are going through, especially, women and children. It is important for the international community to integrate social networking and information sharing (Obodoruku, 2016b) with states, for them to be properly inform speedily in the time of foreseeable war or genocide, in order to save human lives. Similarly, states should utilize various research findings based on conflicts as well as wars, particularly studies on Bibliometric analysis (on how various research is being carried out on the issues of refugees) (Obodoruku and Aytac 2016), taxonomical research (on how issues of refugees is being categorized on various social network platforms and web-based platforms) (Obodoruku 2015b) to perceive the various research that have been carried out in several academic fields on war, as well as conflicts, and integrate the researchers’ findings in state mandates in order to properly protect their citizens. Likewise, it is imperative for states to eliminate poverty and create jobs for its citizens because, when there is war or conflicts, states lost human capability because, when people flee their country to diverse regions to obtain refuge, the states cannot obtain sustainable economic development, because there will be lost of human capacity (2015c). It is fundamental that states that are parties to the 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees (UNHCR, 2010) as well as several refugees’ protection policies (Obodoruku, 2016b) should include refugees’ policies into their asylum system (Obodoruku, 2014a) in order to properly protect refugees in their territories from numerous abuses such as rape, SGBV, discrimination and many more policies grounded on international standards and laws.

Limitations

There is only one limitation in this exploratory study. The number of hours, days and months spent in accessing various documents, literature, archival material such as videos and tapes, were not discussed. Even so, it does not divest the readers from comprehending the issues that refugees come across, such as the lack of adequate protection, inadequacy of food, and inadequate information being disseminated in refugee camps in Tanzania.

Discussion

Even though this is an exploratory study, I applied my experience at the UN and my experience conducting my Ph.D. field research [conducting interviews, focus group discussions with refugees, conducted unobtrusive observations of the camp, interviewed members of the UNHCR in the field and in New York City, USA] in Nyarugusu Camp, Tanzania. I was able to analyze refugees in Tanzania based on information on adequate food for refugees in Tanzania, information on security/protection for refugees in Tanzania and information on camps/shelters for refugees in Tanzania, and issues in relation to by course of study (Information and Services). It is my hope that the findings of this study could influence the international community to make information available for refugees in Tanzania because information will give refugees the power to make decisions in camp.
References:


