

Refugees' Information Seeking in Nyarugusu Camp, Tanzania

Benedicta Obodoruku, BSc, M.A. Ph.D.

Long Island University-Post Campus, Palmer School of Library and Information Science and Political Science Department Northern Blvd., Brookville, New York, USA.

Email: benedicta.obodoruku@my.liu.edu



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Abstract:

The surge of refugees worldwide is of fundamental concern to the United Nations (UN). There are millions of persons who have been displaced because of growing conflicts. The problem is serious in nations such as “Burundi, Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Rwanda and Somalia, where the right to adequate food and protection might be insufficient or non-existent, and where the fundamental human rights are also not valued.”¹ There have been reports that, in numerous countries through the African continent women, as well as children are exposed to sexual violence because of these inadequacies among other reasons. Information is fundamental to humans in every environment and is perceived “as evidence, as things from which one becomes informed.” This research study investigates refugees’ information seeking in Nyarugusu Camp, Tanzania with the approval of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and the Tanzania Government. This research is centered on one-on-one interviews with refugees and with the UNHCR’s staff (in Tanzania as well as in the United States of America (U.S.A), New York). Also, this research study carried out focus group discussions with refugees and an unobtrusive observation of the Nyarugusu Camp. There was a total of 70 refugees (22 women and 48 men), who participated in this research study. Five UNHCR staff, both in the field in Tanzania as well as in the USA, was interviewed. This research examined the subsequent research question: What role does information play for people in the refugee camp?¹ This research question seeks to explore how refugees seek information in the camp. The research utilized content analysis, a qualitative method. Axial coding was utilized to construct taxonomic categories of the interview data, the focus group transcripts as well as the unobtrusive observation notes of refugees’ information use in camp. Atlas.ti qualitative statistical software was utilized to code the text. Domain analytic techniques were utilized by empirically employing theories and model of information seeking and behavior of refugees. Previously established Information Seeking Behavior (ISB) models in the literature were used to pinpoint the information-seeking behavior patterns of refugees. There were three models utilized: (1) “The Information Seeking Model of Refugees in Nyarugusu Camp”¹ (2) “A Depiction of External Factors Relating to Refugees’ Use of Information”¹ and (3) “A Model of Information Acquisition and Exchange”¹ which depicts information acquisition and use of refugees in Nyarugusu Camp¹. The research found that a

¹Benedicta, Obodoruku (2014).¹ Human Information Behavior Among African Refugees in Tanzania: An Exploratory Study of the

preponderance of refugees engage in information seeking while in Nyarugusu camps, but a majority of them did not find the information to be useful because it does not meet their needs.

Keywords: *Refugees, UNHCR, Tanzania Government, Information Seeking, Nyarugusu Camp, Tanzania*

Introduction

From an epistemological stance, it is fundamental to specify that information is necessary to humans in any environment (Case, 2008) and is deemed “as evidence, as things from which one becomes informed” (Buckland 1991). The aim of this research study is to investigate refugees’ information seeking in the Nyarugusu Camp in the “decisions made by people in distress to leave their native countries and seek refuge in another country” (Obodoruku, 2014a). As an approach to begin addressing the extensive area of interest, this research study investigated the information seeking of refugees in one camp in Tanzania.

By investigating “the role that information plays in the decisions made by persons in distress to leave” (Obodoruku 2014a, 10) their countries of origin as well as to seek refuge in Tanzania is vital because Tanzania is considered one of the biggest hosting countries of refugees in the African continent. Tanzania is a nonviolent country while most of its neighbors continued to suffer from numerous conflicts, comprising of civil or ethnic conflicts² (UNHCR 2010-2011). For years, Tanzania has accommodated refugees who escaped various conflicts in countries that are bordered via the African Great lakes, such as Burundi, DRC, Rwanda, as well as Uganda (Chrétien 2006). In 2013, the Tanzanian government was hosting 101,021 refugees in camps (UNHCR 2013) and in 2018 the camp-based population rose to 316, 899 (UNHCR, 2018).

History of Tanzania as a Hosting Country for Refugees

Tanzania has hosted refugees since the 1970s (UNHCR 2002). Especially, since 1994, Tanzania has been considered a safe haven for Rwandan refugees (Landau 2004). Tanzanian camps comprise of refugees from Burundi, DRC, Somalia and Rwanda (just to name a few). The Tanzania government has been seeking for peaceful resolutions to the refugee impediment in its region. It partakes in international efforts to create peace and stability in Burundi and the DRC.

It is vital to indicate that the Tanzanian government policies have evolved throughout the years. Burundian and Rwandan refugees who came to Tanzania in the 1970s were placed in settlements and the Tanzanian government allocated an enormous plot of land for the refugees (UNHCR 2002) (Obodoruku 2014a, 2015, 2016).

The government of Tanzania repatriated 32,000 refugees to Burundi in 2009, leaving about 35,000 refugees in the Mtabila refugee camp, which the Tanzanian government officially shut down in June 2009 (UN 2010). In 2010, the Tanzanian government took the exceptional step of naturalizing approximately 162,200 Burundian refugees who had dwelled in the “Old Settlements” in northwest Tanzania commencing in 1972 (Hassan 2010)

Nyarugusu Camp. (Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global.

² A conflict is regarded “ethnic” in nature when “the contending parties identify themselves or one another using ethnic criteria” (Kaufman, 2006, 46).

(Obodoruku 2014a). About 22,300 refugees are still expecting authorization for naturalization from the government of Tanzania.

History of Conflicts in the Horn of Africa

It is fundamental to specify that the Horn of Africa has encountered numerous persistent civil wars, ethnic conflicts, and political clashes. This insecurity led to the displacement of several persons from their countries. There are about 5,135,100 million refugees (UNHCR, 2017a), or 40%, of the world's refugee population of the 22.5 million refugee population, reside in Africa (UNHCR 2017b). In the year 2003, there existed 567,000 Burundian refugees, 441,600 Somalian refugees, and 340,000 DRC and Rwandan refugees. In the first half of 2003, though, 22,000 refugees from Somalia returned home. In spite of its chronic underfunding, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) continues to accept new requests throughout the world to help displaced persons (UN General Assembly 2001).

Also, the international community, especially the United Nations, has engaged in various approaches to save the lives of millions of people in the aforementioned countries. Unluckily, there were instances when the United Nations has failed to react, such as the 1994 Rwanda Genocide, which led to the deaths of 500,000 people (UNHCR 1997a). Numerous conflicts in the Horn of Africa will be examined below in order to comprehend the roots of these conflicts as well as the UN's responses to them.

Burundi

It is essential to note that Burundi has been shattered by armed conflicts subsequent to 1993 when Melchior Ndadaye, the democratically elected president, was murdered (Kaufman 2006; UNHCR 1997a). Following his murder, there were slayings of the Hutus and Tutsis, which led to more turmoil. Thousands of persons were displaced. About 160,000 Burundian refugees, predominantly Hutus, fled to Tanzania and Zaire (currently called The Democratic Republic of the Congo [DRC]). The Hutu rebels utilized numerous Burundian refugee camps as centers in cross-border attacks on their country (UNHCR 1997a).

In 1994, there was an enormous influx of 270,000 Rwandans (predominantly Hutu) refugees into Burundi. These refugees entered at a time of great tension in Burundi. The conflict sprouted deeper and the violence drew nearer to the camps. Finally, many of these expelled Hutus chose to repatriate because of the continuing turbulence in Burundi. Eventually, 90,000 refugees repatriated back to Rwanda and about 300,000 refugees fled to Tanzania (UNHCR 1997a).

Since 2015, the outbreak of civil turmoil forced approximately 419,000 Burundians to flee their native country, DRC, to Rwanda, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda as of September 2017. According to the UNHCR (2018-2019), by the end of 2017, approximately 534,000 refugees will stay in the region. The civil conflicts and strife, together with the persistent decline of the political and socioeconomic conditions, means additional displacements of persons are projected in 2018. Likewise, it is above 209,000 IDP; however, this figure is anticipated to continue downward in 2018, notwithstanding the predominantly unstable 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, B., 2015a); therefore, there is a loss of human capacity [especially the youths] to obtain sustainable development in order to achieve economic growth in Burundi (Obodoruku, 2015c).

Rwanda

Lischer (2003) indicated that approximately 500,000 Rwandans (Tutsis and moderate Hutus) were massacred in six weeks thru the second quarter of 1994 (UNHCR 1997a). The genocide began after the deaths of the presidents of Burundi and Rwanda on April 6, 1994; the aircraft that was transporting both presidents crashed beneath questionable situations during its descent into Kigali airport (UNHCR 1997b).

As a consequence of the genocide, about 1.7 million Rwandans fled to Zaire, Tanzania, and Burundi. They were accommodated in camps and offered international support. In 1994, about 160,000 refugees returned to Rwanda. Nevertheless, members of the previous Rwandan government and militia forces tightened their grip on the refugee population and the repatriation halted. UNHCR's efforts to continue the return had slight effect. Eventually, the number of refugees repatriated (700,000) was approximately equal to the total numbers of babies that were born in the refugee camps, causing a continual population of refugees (UNHCR 1997a).

Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC)/Zaire

From an epistemological standpoint, is fundamental to indicate that conflict began in Zaire in 1984 because of a modification to its citizenship laws. The Banyamulenge, who are of the Zairian Tutsi group, confronted glitches as a result of the alterations. Local officials operating on behalf of President Mobutu carried out attacks on the Banyamulenge in mid-September, which resulted in the flow of refugees to Rwanda. The Banyamulenge militias then carried out attacks on a range of civilian as well as military targets in South Kivu. Nevertheless, soldiers of the Rwandan Patriotic Army (RPA) arrived from Rwanda into Zaire and fought adjacent to the Banyamulenge militia (UNHCR 2000), resulting in numerous conflicts.

There has been continuous unrest in the Congo and the turbulence since 2016 led to "violent protests due to the intended postponement of presidential elections that has led to the deaths of dozens of Congolese...[because] President Joseph Kabila...[intends to] extend his term" (Obodoruku 2016a) which could lead to further violence. There are more than 600,000 Congolese refugees in the territory, as well as 3.8 million Internally Displaced Persons. The unrest in the DRC is considered one of the biosphere's most intricate, prolonged and disremembered crises. Large numbers of refugees are continuously fleeing to various regions such as "Angola, Burundi, Rwanda, Uganda, the United Republic of Tanzania as well as Zambia" (UNHCR 2018-2019). The condition has exacerbated since April 2017 and remains uncertain, with intercommunal clashes in the Kasai region triggering internal displacement of 8,000 persons a day. The condition urged the UNHCR in June 2017 to release "a supplementary appeal for the humanitarian response." The condition in 2017 has been categorized by severe human rights violations, comprising "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).

Somalia

Chaos spilled in Somalia when the government was dethroned in January 1991. Numerous clans and warlords started to contest for national political power and regional control. Somalia was swiftly tossed into violence and famine, aggravating general suffering and emigration flow from the country into Ethiopia, Kenya, Djibouti, and Yemen.

There was a new development in April 1992; the United Nation's Operation in Somalia (UNOSOM) was established basically for the monitoring of the ceasefire in Mogadishu. The obligation of the UN peacekeeping force likewise comprised of safeguarding the airport and seaport, as well as protecting the distribution of humanitarian supplies to the capital city and neighboring regions. After five months, the UN mandate and force were broadened to protect humanitarian activities all over Somalia.

The situation exacerbated. As a consequence, the United Nations Security Council passed Resolution 794 permitting military action. A Unified Taskforce (UNITAF), formulated and directed by the United States, was deployed to Somalia with the mission of employing "all necessary means" to guarantee safe conditions for the distribution of humanitarian aid throughout Somalia (UNHCR 1995).

On March 30, 1993, the United Nations Security Council formed UNOSOM II to take control from UNITAF (Farer, 1996; UNHCR 1995). The transfer was implemented in just three months. There were several attacks on UNOSOM II, causing the deaths of both Somalis and US soldiers. Having seen this, numerous UN member states decided to remove their troops from Somalia by March 1994. The attacks on UNOSOM II, the subsequent gridlock between the warring factions, as well as the failure to construct a national government made the Secretary-General of the UN to decide a removal of all UNOSOM II forces during the end of March 1995 (UNHCR 1995).

Though several organizations continued humanitarian undertakings in Mogadishu, UNHCR concentrated on a cross-border agenda from Kenya. UNHCR's initiatives focused on the smooth progress of the Somalis who seek shelter outside Somalia. UNHCR's fundamental objective was to accelerate the repatriation of Somalis, therefore averting an influx of more refugees into Kenya as well as other countries (UNHCR 1995).

In mid-1995, more than 200,000 Somalis returned home. UNHCR established at least 360 small-scale reintegrations and rehabilitation initiatives. Yet, growing conflicts encompassing clan militias as well as governmental forces (supported by Ethiopian troops) forced about 400,000 persons to flee Mogadishu. In 2006, nearly 71,000 Somalis sought refuge in neighboring countries (UN 2007). By 2008, Somalia was the biggest refugee-producing country in Africa with 561,000 refugees and asylum seekers abroad (UN 2009).

A Brief History of UNHCR

From an epistemological stance, it vital to indicate that the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) has its origins during the post-World War I period. After the Russian Revolution, there was a massive influx of refugees from the previous empire. The League of Nations chose Fridtjof Nasan as the High Commissioner to handle the enormous displacement of persons. In 1923, Nansen's representatives evaluated the situation of refugees in the southern segment of Russia but needed them to remain in a country of refuge until the predicted end of the Soviet Union (UNHCR 1991).

The situation was amplified by major displacements in the 1930s and 1940s. The Allied Powers were apprehensive about the massive flow of refugees throughout Europe even prior to the end of World War II. In 1943, the Allied Powers founded the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (UNRRA) to support these devastated as well as

damaged territories. UNRRA abetted the displaced persons and those who had fled from their countries during World War II and prior conflicts (UNHCR 2000). The International Refugee Organization (IRO) later substituted UNRRA.

In May 1945, when the war in Europe was over, there were more than 40 million persons displaced, not including Germans. Over a million Byelorussians, Estonians, Russians, Poles, Ukrainians, Latvians, Lithuanians and others escaped from Soviet rule. There were thirteen million Germans, “Volksdeutsche,” who were likewise barred from the Soviet Union, Czechoslovakia, Poland and other eastern European countries. The Germans who were displaced were classified as “expellees” “(Vertriebebe)” (UNHCR 2000 the State of the World Refugees). Likewise, at the time of the war in the Pacific, millions of Chinese were displaced via Japanese military forces (UNHCR 2000).

On July 28, 1951, the UNHCR was formed primarily to provide assistance to persons who were fleeing from Communist rule in Eastern Europe (UNHCR 2000). UNHCR was established as a provisional organization; its staff was twenty-three, with a \$5 million budget and a predicted life of three years (Keynote by Mrs. Sadako Ogata, 2000). Article 22 of the UN Charter states that UNHCR is a complementary organ of the United Nations General Assembly (GA). Also, Article 2 of the UNHCR Statutes indicates that the duties 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). Continuously from 1951, UNHCR has been a core for the protection of international refugees (UNHCR the State of the World’s Refugees, 2000). The United Nations also defined “refugee” and pinpointed the legal protection and assistance that refugees should obtain from a state that are signatory to the convention (UNHCR 2007).

UNHCR’s core objectives were twofold: first, to provide international protection for refugees; and second, to explore lasting solutions for refugees. In the latter case, UNHCR works with assisting governments to support with the voluntary repatriation of refugees or their integration into new nations (UNHCR 2000).

It is important to note that UNHCR has been hindered by inadequate funding from the start. Each project to assist refugees had to be funded by voluntary donations, mostly from member states. Remarkably, UNHCR was not given the funds to carry out a repatriation program. Instead, it was necessitated to offer international protection solutions for refugee problems with just a small budget. Gerrit Jan van Heuven Goedhart, the first commissioner for refugees, noted that there was a peril that his office would “administer misery” (UNHCR 2000).

Despite van Heuven Goedhart’s attempts to persuade member states of the seriousness of the refugee problem, the UNHCR received token funds, although, UNHCR established effective partnerships with non-governmental organizations in order to continue its function. The first noteworthy donation came from the Ford Foundation, which provided UNHCR \$3.1 million in 1951. This funding was utilized for a pilot project, which, for the first time, highlighted local integration into European nations “as a solution to refugee problems” (UNHCR 2000).

However, the Soviet Union’s resistance to UNHCR began to ease in the mid-1950s. In the time of the Cold War, the Soviet Union accelerated the admission of several developing countries into the United Nations. These countries recognized the conceivable effectiveness of UNHCR in tackling their refugee problems (UNHCR 2000).

UNHCR’s first main test was the mass departure of refugees from Hungary subsequent to the Soviet oppression in 1956. The preponderance of these refugees – about 180,000 – fled to Austria, and approximately 20,000 escaped to Yugoslavia. This flight gave UNHCR its first prospect to work with the International Committee of the Red Cross (stationed in Hungary) as well as the League of the Red Cross Society (stationed in Austria).

In 1956-57, UHNCR assisted with the resettlement of Hungarian refugees to approximately 35 countries worldwide and the voluntary repatriation of several to Hungary. The operation transformed UNHCR from a trivial body “dealing with a residual caseload of refugees remaining from the Second World War to a much larger organization with broader responsibilities” (UNHCR 2000, 26). Partly, the manner of the United States government concerning UNHCR changed for the better subsequently after its accomplishment with the Hungarian refugees. UNHCR’s work with Hungarian refugees likewise unlocked doors for it in the communist world.

UNHCR’s work with Chinese refugees in Hong Kong was an additional landmark, as UNHCR stretched into the developing world. November 1957 was the first time the United Nations General Assembly demanded that UNHCR use its “good office” to support a group of refugees from outside Europe (UNHCR 2000). Currently, UNHCR deals with major refugee crises globally.

Literature Review

Scholarly Foundation on Information Seeking Behaviors

Case (2005) indicated that information seeking is “more closely tied to the concept of need” than it is the idea of information itself (p.80). Bates (2005) pondered for “a cognitive approach, arising out of cognitive science, in which thinking of the individual person operating in the world is the dominating focus of research on information seeking, retrieval and use” (pp. 13-14).

Kuhlthau (2005) specified that the “Information Search Process (ISP) addresses intellectual access to information and ideas, and the process of seeking meaning” (pp. 230-231). Nahl (2007) claimed “cognitive and affective procedures during information reception and use...interact with technological affordances and are the embodiments of the community’s social life” (pp. 3-4). Nahl’s interpretations on information reception and use address the interaction between technology and individual biological processes.

Wilson’s Model of Information Seeking (1981) regarded people as a fundamental source of information in numerous situations even throughout “direct interaction.” Savolainen stipulated that social and cultural elements influence people’s behavior to choose and utilize information sources (Savolainen 2005). Jank specified that “the information seeking process, when viewed cognitively, is driven almost exclusively by the personalized cognitive processes of individual information seekers” (Jank 2010, 4).

Scholarly Foundations on Information Needs

Numerous scholars have deliberated on information needs (Case 2005, 71-72). Grunig specified that “needs” were typically categorized as “an inner motivational state” that delivers thoughts and action (Grunig 1989, 209). Supplementary “inner states” could encompass, for example, believing, doubting, wanting, fearing or expecting (Liebnau and Backhouse 1990; Searle 1983).

Atkin described information need as a “function of extrinsic uncertainty produced by a perceived discrepancy between the individual’s current level of certainty about important environmental objectives and a criterion state that he seeks to achieve” (Atkin 1973, 206).

Informational Need for Refugees

There is limited text that concentrated on the informational needs of refugees. This section examines three aspects of information as well as refugees in Tanzania: (1) information on food; (2) information on security and protection; (3) information about camps and shelter.

Information on Adequate Food

It is vital to indicate that refugees have a fundamental human right to adequate food. Article 11 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), clearly indicates that it is “the right of everyone to an adequate standard of living for himself and his family, including adequate food” (UNHCR 1976, 4). For this purpose, the international community has an obligation to offer refugees with adequate food.

Refugees in Nyarugusu camp continuously encounter food shortages. As of January 2018, WFP cut food rations for refugees in Tanzania. WFP provided just 72 percent of the needed 2,100 required kilocalories (WFP, 2018). Also, in 2017, WFP cut food ration for 320,000 refugees in all three camps (Nyarugusu, Mtendeli and Nduta) because of lack of funds. The WFP provided 62 percent (of each commodities, maize meal, Super Cereal, pulses, salt and vegetable oil) of the 2,100 daily needed kilocalories (WFP 2017).

Similarly, the findings of the research that was carried out by the WFP and UNHCR (2010) in Northwestern Tanzania stipulated that refugees relies predominantly rely on food aid from the international community. There were 48% of households surveyed who were not aware of the food distribution committees in refugee camp, a reduction of 4% from 2008. There was insufficient notification to alert refugees of food dissemination (27%); and there were incidents cheating by group leaders while distributing the rations (29%). The above information signifies the gaps in information required by refugees to meet their essential needs.

In 2002, the UN carried out research in the Nyarugusu and Lugufu refugee camps in Tanzania. According to their findings, refugees in the Nyarugusu camp had an abundant need for food, even while they received food rations. Likewise, every refugee in the Lugufu camp was authorized to receive food; nonetheless, the food only was distributed “every two weeks” (UNHCR 2002, 9). The food distribution was inadequate to suitably feed the refugees (UNHCR 2002) (Obodoruku, 2014a).

In 2005, WFP and UNHCR carried out another Joint Assessment Mission in Tanzania. The 2005 survey was a continuation to the Joint Assessment Mission’s 2004 survey study. The 2005 survey examined food shortages in Tanzanian refugee camps as well as suggested solutions to food insecurity. However, in 2005, there was insecurity because of massive cuts in food rations in the refugee camps. Also, in March 2005, the WFP cut 25% of the food rations to 400,000 refugees in 13 refugee camps in northwest Tanzania. The huge cut of food rations were seen as easiness to the food shortage. At the end of 2004, a nutrition survey found that, because of the recurrent shortage in the food supply, 37% of refugee children from age five and under was chronically malnourished. Also, refugee children exceeding the age of five were 25% underweight.

Information on Security and Protection

It is fundamental to indicate that the safety of refugees has persistently been an issue of international concern. On May 9, 1998, a two-day conference at the Great Lakes Region was attended by the Organization of African Unity (OAU) as well as the UNHCR. They deliberated on pressing issues concerning the refugee situation. The representatives affirmed their support to the refugee doctrines, particularly those encompassed in the 1969 OAU refugee convention, which functions as a cornerstone of the African asylum policy. The States’ parties were informed to utilize all instruments within their authority to support the refugees. The gathering indicated that Rwandans banished abroad were exempted from refugee protection; nonetheless, persons who committed crimes must be brought to justice. They also indicated that bona fide refugees have to be protected as well as supported and that

host countries needed to pay attention to refugees and work to lower pressure from local environments (UNHCR 1998).

Protections of refugees in camps continue to be a scarce commodity in Tanzania. In 2018, UNICEF reported there is concern with the protection of refugees in all three camps (Nyarugusu, Mtendeli and Nduta). Sexual Gender Based Violence (SGBV) is a substantial concern in camps (UNICEF, 2018). The safety of refugees in Tanzania continue as a challenge (Obodoruku, 2014). SGBV among persons of concern is initiated in many forms, encompassing, but not limited to, rape, sexual assault, physical assault, forced marriage, emotional and psychological abuse, as well as denial of opportunities, resources and services (UNHCR, 2016).

In 2018, UNICEF supported approximately 7,065 unaccompanied and separated refugee children by providing them with psychosocial help, referrals and access to the various basic services centered on the Best Interest Determination (UNICEF, 2018). “Best interests determination (BID) describes the formal process with strict procedural safeguards designed to determine the child’s best interests for particularly important decisions affecting the child. It should facilitate adequate child participation without discrimination, involve decision-makers with relevant areas of expertise, and balance all relevant factors in order to assess the best option” (UNHCR, 2008).

In 2017, the UNHCR stated that there were 104 individuals, who received help on SGBV, in Nyarugusu camp (UNHCR 2017d). Also, in 2017, UNICEF stated that on 27th November 2017, in efforts to halt violence against women and children, the Kigoma Region Commissioner, with assistance from United Nations Women, carried out the 16-day campaign to put an end to the violence against women and children and National plan of action to stop the violence against women and girls in the Republic of Tanzania. The key message was grounded on “*Leave no one behind: End violence against women and girls*” (UNICEF, 2017). There were showcases of numerous items as well as entertainment with key messages to foster the empowerment of women and girls and to ensure “they are protected” (UNICEF, 2017).

Likewise, in 2017, UNICEF and its partners offered Children with Protection; approximately 11,400 children, including Unaccompanied and Separated Children (UASC) were assisted with the right care as well as protection services (UNICEF, 2017). UNICEF (2017) stated that child protection interventions focused on preventing and responding to violence against children by offering access to services including registration of unaccompanied and separated children with the delivery of psychosocial support, family tracing and attaining recreational supplies for Child Friendly Spaces [for children to learn and play].

UNHCR (2016-2018) noted that SGBV continues as protection as well as public health challenges persist in refugee camps - stopping it necessitates the implementation of a combined method comprising health and protection, as well as community-based protection. UNHCR indicated that the Gender-Based Violence (GBV) approach that is in line with Tanzanian refugee operation and its partners would coordinate and collaborate narrowly to strengthen the referral systems as well as standard operating procedures (SOPs) for clinical management for the survivors of rape. Also, clinical care given to rape victims should be combined with primary health care. In addition, UNHCR noted that clinical staff would be educated on clinical management of rape victims, as well as awareness of the refugee population to prompt reporting on rape, availability of services and referral pathways would be enhanced (UNHCR, 2016-2018).

In 2015, UNHCR called for humanitarian need as well as protection for vulnerable refugees — particularly women, children and victims of SGBV (comprising women, girls, boys as well as men) (UNHCR 2015).

In 2014-2015, the altitude of SGBV have remained continuously since the last two years, making it more difficult for the UNHCR to advance protection mechanism in order to end violence and exploitation, predominantly in the incidents associated with children. Refugees' reliance on firewood in Nyarugusu camp is the main "source of household fuel for cooking, lighting and heating is becoming unsustainable" (UNHCR 2014-2015, p.4). This is primarily because of the decline of wood supplies as well as deepened exposure of women and children to risks connected with SGBV, because refugees have to walk lengthy distances in search of firewood. It is important to note that the UNHCR would lead efforts to apply a new approach to local energy in the camp (UNHCR, 2014-2015).

Similarly, the UN (2001) reported that refugee safety and security remain serious issues. This is because the general population of a camp could be apprehended as captives by militias who function exclusive of restriction in many camps. The militias create anxiety on civilian populations, terrify refugees, force children to work for their forces, sexually assault and exploit women, and avert people from repatriating to their native countries (UN 2001).

WFP and UNHCR (2005)'s Joint Assessment Mission found that there were several violent acts carried out in refugee camps. Refugees, particularly women, were exposed to vicious crimes. There were numerous reports that women had been raped in the process of collecting firewood (WFP and UNHCR 2005) (Obodoruku, 2014a). The Joint Assessment Mission found that numerous aggressive crimes were committed at nighttime. Additionally, the reduction in food led refugees to be arrested for unlawful movements outside from the camps (WFP and UNHCR 2005).

Information on Camp and Shelter

Currently, the Tanzanian is hosting refugees in three camps. Nyarugusu Camp houses 156,464 refugees; Nduta Camp is hosting 115,726 refugees and Mtendeli Camp is accommodating 44,712 refugees (UNHCR, 2018). These camps are congested and the basic services are overstretched (UNICEF, 2018).

According to the 2002 UNHCR Review of CORDS (community services for Congolese refugees), the Government of Tanzania (GOT) constrained the movement of refugees. Refugees are compulsory to live in camps and remain "within four-kilometer radius," (UNHCR 2002, 7) (Obodoruku, 2014a) excluding when refugees have consent authorizing them to depart the camp. The Ministry of Home Affairs' (MHA) representatives perform as camp commanders and convey issues of concern to the GOT. The MHA camp commanding officers provide permits to refugees on a limited basis – urgency is given to refugees who need medical care and to refugees who are involved in NGO-subsidized undertakings. Refugees could obtain permits for trips to neighboring towns for business activities. Permits are given for three days at a time. If a refugee is discovered outside the camp exclusive of a permit, he or she will be sentenced to six months in prison.

In 1994, the Rwandan genocide created an enormous influx of refugees into Tanzania. In 24 hours, about 250,000 Rwandan refugees reached Tanzania (UNHCR 2000). It is significant to indicate, though, that Tanzania likewise hosts refugees from various African countries (Obodoruku, 2014a).

Fouéré (2011) stated that 135,000 Burundian refugees resided in Kibondo camp at the beginning of 2004. As of June 2006, the refugee population in Kibondo was decreased to 68,416 and 97.5% were Burundians.

Methodology

Content Analysis, Interviews, Focus Group Discussion and Unobtrusive Observation

This research is centered on one-on-one interviews with refugees and with the UNHCR's staff in Tanzania as well as in the United States of America (U.S.A), New York. Also, this research study carried out focus group discussions with refugees and an unobtrusive observation of the Nyarugusu Camp. There was a total of 70 refugees (22 women and 48 men) who participated in this research study. Five UNHCR staff members, both in the field in Tanzania and the USA, were interviewed. This research examined the subsequent research question: "What role does information play for people in the refugee camp?" (Obodoruku 2014a, xi). This research question seeks to explore how refugees seek information in camp.

Data Collection

Data Collection with Focus Groups

The refugee participants for the focus groups were recruited from one camp in Tanzania with the support of camp leaders/UNHCR field officials. The focus group discussions were conducted with participants from two distinctive countries, Burundi (Country 1) and DRC (Country 2). A total of 48 refugees participated in the focus groups, 36 of whom had not been integrated in the one-on-one interviews. The 36 refugee participants were added to the 34 who took part in the one-on-one interviews, a total of 70 refugees participated in the research study (Obodoruku 2014a).

There were three distinct focus group discussions with the 48 refugees participants. The urban and rural groups for Country 2 (DRC) were conducted distinctly. Though, because of a lack of time, Burundian refugees (urban as well as rural) were combined together in one room. The focus group discussions allowed me to discover what information refugees received while they were in their country as well as in the camp. Focus group discussions lasted approximately "one to two hours" (Wildemuth 2009, 247). I read out aloud to participants in English and a UNHCR official interpreted into the local language (Swahili) spoken by the refugees in camp. Subjects were asked to express their responses in Swahili (the UNHCR official interpreted their replies into English for me).

The focus group discussions were tape recorded with immediate note taking; the notes were supplemented with comprehensive information from the recordings (Bertrand et al. 1992). This methodology allowed the study to achieve the "dual goals of developing a rich data set and completing the process efficiently" (Wildemuth 2009, 247). The questions were administered orally (as instructed by the Long Island University Institutional Review Boards) in order to ease the procedure for the refugees.

Observation

It is fundamental to specify that observation research encompasses the orderly recording of phenomena or behavior that can be observed in natural surroundings. Gorman and Clayton (2005) noted that observation offers valuable "insights into unconscious behavior and how it might relate to self-perceptions of those involved in an event" (Gorman and Clayton 2005, 40). By observing data in specific contexts, a researcher is able to learn

patterns of behavior that together disclose otherwise covered views or manners that influence participants.

I carried out an unobtrusive observation of one refugee camp. I observed to see if there were some social characteristics evident between refugees who perceived value in the utilization of information. I likewise “looked at some information usage patterns that were evident among refugees. Finally, I looked at the extent to which information sharing and use among refugees reflects what is known in validated information behavior models. In addition to participants in the focus group discussions, I also observed people who were not in the focus groups” (Obodoruku 2014a). This gave me a broader swath of subjects to examine; I recognized that there was a distinction between these people as well as the focus group participants (Obodoruku 2014a).

Data Collection with Unobtrusive Observation

I unobtrusively observed one refugee camp (Nyarugusu Camp) in Tanzania with the assistance of UNHCR field officials, who showed me around the refugee camp. The observation took place a day after the initial interviews were carried out. I observed the role of information in the refugee camp; I looked at how the arrangement/settings of the camp functions in the information flow. “Who is the information from? Is the information verbal?” (Obodoruku, 2014a). This allowed me to have a wider picture of the role of information in camp. The formal observation took about 45 minutes to one hour. In addition, I observed the camp during the interviews and the focus group discussions.

I observed the various locations where information was dispersed, plus the UNHCR field office. I also noted numerous locations where information is displayed for refugees, such as bulletin boards. I collected textual artifacts. I collected and made copies of samples of information that were dispersed or made accessible to refugees in numerous languages (such as documents or handouts). UNHCR field officials in the Tanzanian refugee camp interpreted the documents. I analyzed these documents in order to see UNHCR field officials’ viewpoints on several aspects of information utilized by refugees.

I took notes during the subsequent observations. The research study also unobtrusively utilized a small digital camera, as allowed (Gorman and Clayton 2005). The camera enabled me to capture numerous information backdrops in the Tanzanian refugee camp.

Note taking and using camera were valuable in the recording of the physical appearance of the refugees in camp. The field notes portrayed information flow, texts, languages, sources of information, as well as the names of those who deliver information to refugees. Field notes likewise encompassed fundamental contextual information regarding each setting.

Data Collection from UNHCR Field Officials

Following the data collection with the refugees in camp, the study turned to UNHCR officials. I collected information artifacts from and carried out interviews with them.

I collected several text documents as well as artifacts from the UNHCR field office in Tanzania. I collected and made copies of text documents concerning Tanzanian refugees in a range of contexts, such as field reports, General Assembly reports, the Secretary-General’s reports, statistical reports, resolutions, press reports, briefings from member states, bulletins, memos, video recordings, diaries, e-mails, photos, official statements, and project reports. These documents and artifacts allowed me to assess the viewpoints of the UNHCR field officials on the information potential refugees got in their country, the role of information in

the camps, as well as the role of social structures (such as family, tribe, or village) or other relationships in information transmission.

In regards to the interviews, the participants were UNHCR field officials in the Nyarugusu refugee camp. The researcher with the support of UNHCR field employees purposely recruited UNHCR field officials. The interviews with subjects were carried out with Skype at 8:00 a.m., 10:00 a.m., and 2:15 p.m. (there was a seven-hour distinction between Tanzania and New York). The interviews lasted 20-45 minutes and were recorded for additional analysis. Subjects were told that they were permitted to take a break or to stop partaking in the interview, if they desired. My interview questions were conducted in English.

This research study utilized content analysis of the interviews as well as documents from the UNHCR field officials in Tanzania. Content analysis enabled me to observe “artifacts of social communication,” which encompassed “documents or transcripts of recorded verbal communication” (Berg 2004, 267). Content analysis allowed me to see the UNHCR field officials’ viewpoints on numerous aspects of information utilized by refugees for the “Role of information in camps. Information that potential refugees received while they were in their countries. Social structures (such as family, tribe, or village) or other relationships that have a role in information transfer” (Obodoruku, 2014a).

Data Collection from UNHCR Officials in New York

I also carried out interview[s] with UNHCR official[s] in New York City and examined related UNHCR documents (such as reports and resolutions). Carrying out interviews with UNHCR official[s] was fundamental because UNHCR plays a leading role in the protection of refugees (UNHCR 2010). Thus, the gathering of information from UNHCR was vital to this study. Subjects were purposely recruited by the researcher from UNHCR in New York City with the assistance of UNHCR employees. Appropriate IRB protocols were employed.

Data Analysis

The research utilized content analysis, a qualitative method. Axial coding was utilized to construct taxonomic categories of the interview data, the focus group transcripts as well as the unobtrusive observation notes of the refugees’ use of information in camp. Atlas.ti qualitative statistical software was utilized to code the text. Domain analytic techniques were utilized by empirically employing theories and a model of information seeking and behavior of refugees. Previously established Information Seeking Behavior (ISB) models in the literature were used to pinpoint the information seeking behavior patterns of refugees. There were three models utilized: (1) “The Information Seeking Model of Refugees in Nyarugusu Camp” (2) “A Depiction of External Factors Relating to Refugees’ Use of Information” and (3) “A Model of Information Acquisition and Exchange” (Obodoruku, 2014a) which depicts information acquisition and use of refugees in Nyarugusu Camp (Obodoruku, 2014a).

The interview transcriptions, focus group transcriptions, unobtrusive observation notes, survey instruments, audio recordings, as well as demographic questionnaires were analyzed utilizing both quantitative as well as qualitative methods.

I first carried out a pilot data analysis. For the overall research study, “I coded the most frequently occurring content areas (information sources, information need, role of information, background information on refugees, use of information, and information usage patterns). For the pilot data analysis, I only examined information usage patterns as well as the role of information. Categories for analysis of these data were established using authoritative computer coding through Atlas.ti” (Obodoruku 2014a, 42).

Following these preliminary steps, I utilized content analysis as well as Atlas.ti to input applicable data founded on the standard authoritative coding. The occurrence of terms and phrases was calculated for all applicable data sets listed in the research study questions. A categorization dictionary was constructed “for the areas of information sources, background information on refugees, the role of information, information needs, use of information, and information usage patterns. The categorization dictionaries were created based on the following: (1) frequency of terms and phrases in information sources; (2) categories that were identified from relevant studies; (3) categories that were identified from the pilot data analysis; (4) the researcher’s personal domain knowledge” (Obodoruku 2014a).

This research study procedures used categorization dictionary methodologies authorized by McCain (1995) and Jank (2010). In order to analyze the all-inclusive structure as well as the relationship of these classifications in “the areas of information sources, a term co-occurrence matrix was computed. This matrix was based on the number of information source descriptions in which a pair of the categories co-occurred. The frequency counts of the categories were converted to a matrix of co-occurrence similarity (such as correlation) values (Charles 2004)” (Obodoruku 2014a, 42).

Atlas.ti techniques were used to pinpoint related co-occurrence patterns, and construct a map/figure showing the core dimensions of these categories. The analysis observed the similarities or distances between categories when establishing the co-occurrences. I employed “hierarchical agglomerative methodologies (which are considered a bottom-up building approach) that integrate the co-occurrence matrix as similarity measures between the categories” (Obodoruku 2014a, 43).

Atlas.ti techniques allowed me to capture and depict similarities as well as dissimilarities of data in two or three proportions. To envision the configurations, a pattern of proximities among the categories was constructed. The map exhibits the set of diverse categories’ multi-dimensional spaces. Also, the physical distance among categories visually represented similarities and/or differences among them. The Atlas.ti methods were effective for this research study, allowing me to envision and capture numerous relationships of categories of information sources that were utilized by refugees.

Content analysis is well-defined as “a research technique for the objective, systematic, and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication” (Berelson 1952, 18). Similarly, Kimberly (2002, 10) defined content analysis as “a summarizing, quantitative analysis of messages that relies on scientific method (including attention to objectivity, intersubjectivity, a priori design, reliability, validity, generalizability, [and] replicability...) and it is not limited as to the type of variables that may be measured or the context in which the messages are created or presented.” Holsti (1969, 14) termed content analysis as “any technique [that could be utilized] for making references by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages.” Eventually, content analysis can be seen as a vital form of domain analysis in information studies (Hjorland 2002) literature or field of study.

Content analysis was used in this research study. I pinpointed both manifest as well as latent evidence gathered from the interviews, focus groups, unobtrusive field observations, and audio recording data. The manifest content was coded – “those elements that are physically present and countable” (Berg 2004, 269) – for concepts as well as discursive themes (Strauss & Corbin 1990, 63). In addition, I coded latent content – the “deep structure meaning conveyed by the message” (Berg 2004, 269) – based on the meaning insinuated via the message, and I did so paragraph by paragraph (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

The statistical data was displayed in graphs and tables. The coded data was centered on numerous themes that occur from the ‘subjects’ comments (Wildemuth 2009, 247). I coded based on my own coding categories (particular codes were developed from the data)

and utilized guidelines from a precise vocabulary (when required). The procedure of coding was employed. I used inter-rater coding techniques in order to certify validation of my research study, with the coding schemes being given to a second coder. I made sure “consistency of measurement, through training, monitoring, and continuous education” (Fink 2003, 50) by reviewing all coding procedures with the second coder. This practice introduced inter-rater reliability in the research study and, therefore, enhanced the validity of the research study. Wildemuth (2009) noted “more than one coder is essential to demonstrate that ... results are not skewed by a single coder’s objective judgment” (Wildemuth 2009, 301). The second coder coded 100% of the data (interview transcriptions, focus group data, unobtrusive observation, as well as notes) that I had coded to certify inter-coder reliability, as exhibited by Burghardt (2012). The levels of inter-coder agreement were decided via percentages (Holsti, 1969). Similarly an Ontological Code Book for Building Data Dictionary was created (see Appendix A), which both coders followed.

These procedures were supportive in this research study once I coded the data that was characterized from the interviews. This research study further utilized domain analytic techniques (Jank 2010 and Rioux 2006) by employing theories that model information needs as well as behaviors. Especially, Information Seeking Behavior (ISB) models previously established in the literature were utilized in order to pinpoint the information behavior patterns evident among the participants observed in this research study.

Lastly, narrative analysis techniques were utilized to “examine the ways in which refugees told their stories or experiences concerning their flight and survival in times of distress, thus enabling them to leave their native country to seek refuge in a foreign country (in this case Tanzania)” (Obodoruku 2014a). Narrative analysis (a theme-precise form of discourse analysis) also assisted in investigating the information usage patterns as well as the demographics of the refugees in the Nyarugusu camp. Smith indicated that “narrative analysis deals only with verbal material, usually stories or accounts of personal experiences” (Smith 2000, 313). Smith specified that the methodologies can be used “to study individuals, groups, cultures, or historical periods by means of qualitative or quantitative research” (Smith 2000, 313). Employing narrative analysis techniques in this research study can further enable the voices of the participants to be heard (Burghardt 2012).

The interview data, field notes, and artifacts (such as textual materials or photographs) were coded utilizing established doctrines of content analysis (Wildemuth 2008). The research study trailed coding procedures used by Burghardt (2012) and Jank (2010). The coding process encompassed the identification of texts, languages, field notes and photographs (such as artifacts). The textual materials and documents/artifacts were coded. This allowed for validated utilization of authoritative lists as well as terms during the processes of axial coding. This research study utilized qualitative software (Atlas.ti) for analyzing numerous data.

I employed content analysis to words and phrases to see if any themes arose. Content analysis has been used in investigating sociological as well as political matters (Krippendorff 2004; Lever et al 2003). I analyzed data on the political type of correspondence relating to refugees. Also, I utilized Chi Square statistical analysis to see if there were differences among refugees from DRC and Burundi.

Research Findings

The research study further explored the research question “What role does information play for people in the refugee camp?” (Obodoruku 2014a, xi). This research question seeks to explore how refugees seek information in camp. I utilized several information, seeking behavior (ISB) models. I also utilized Atlas.ti to analyze the co-occurrences relationship between the major categories of data and the frequencies of

occurrences and co-occurrences of numerous categories to answer the above question. Figure 1 Information Seeking Model of Refugees in Nyarugusu Camp (Obodoruku, 2014a) (below) presents the Information Seeking Model of Refugees in Nyarugusu Camp. It was created to show the numerous information usage patterns of refugees in camp. The items in Figure 1 exemplify the areas in Nyarugusu camp that refugees visit frequently to seek information. These are the most accessible sources where refugees can acquire information about food, shelter, registration, Verification Exercise, health care, security, durable solutions (such as repatriation, resettlement or local integration) or camp events or activities.

It is fundamental to note that, in Figure 1, the arrows were utilized to illustrate where male and female refugees seek information. My observations while conducting the field research in the camp show that men seek information first from influential or authoritative sources such as UNHCR and afterward they seek information in the community such as the most Frequently Visited Areas in camp (Obodoruku 2014a, 87). Women were inclined to first seek information in “the most frequently visited areas in camp (MHA Office, Camp Commandant Office, Verification Center/Registration Centre, hospital, dispensary, water points, markets, butchery/slaughterhouse, etc.),” (Obodoruku 2014a, 87) then they go to the men to seek information, and finally to UNHCR to seek information that will hopefully meet their need or address their inquiries. It is fundamental to indicate that the arrow of the model is not facing in the location of the mosque, since there was only one Muslim woman and she did not specify that she sought information in the mosques. The processes of refugee information acquisition in camp are coherent with the interpretations of Kevin Rioux (2006), an information seeking behavior theorist. Rioux (2006) specified that a person obtains information to accomplish his or her needs as well as motivations, and the “needs and motivations of others” (2006, 171).

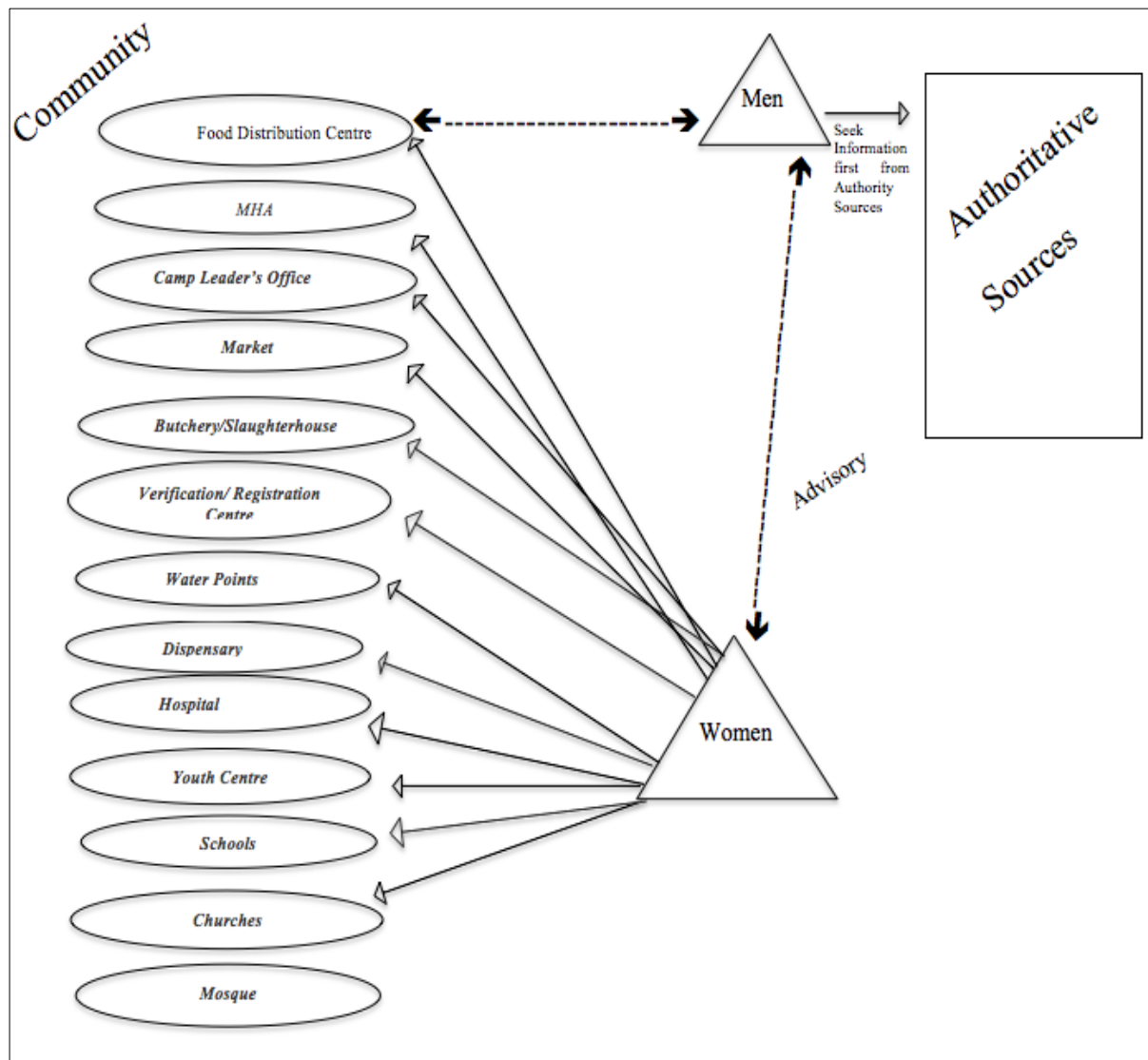


Figure 1. Information Seeking Model of Refugees in Nyarugusu Camp (Obodoruku 2014a, 89).

From an epistemological stance, it is fundamental to clarify that there are numerous models of information seeking but only a few models will be discussed in this section, along with several theories from related fields. These models will be compared to Figure 1 above to apply various conceptual frameworks of previously established Information Seeking Behavior (ISB) models to refugees, information seeking in Nyarugusu Camp which makes this research grounded (see Figure 2 (below) picture of refugees and researcher [Dr. Obodoruku Benedicta] in Nyarugusu Camp, in Tanzania during research study).



Figure 2. Dr. Benedicta Obodoruku. *Refugees and Researcher - Dr. Benedicta Obodoruku at the Registration Centre in Nyarugusu Camp, Tanzania. 2013.*

Byström Järvelin (1995) elucidated the manner in which several information users function. Järvelin (1995) acknowledged the concept of “task complexity” (Järvelin 1995, 191). He maintained that the information seeking process differs in the degree to which the information seeker views the task as being challenging. A complex task is considered one in which an individual lacks an appropriate motivational mode that would enable him or her to estimate accurately what has to be accomplished, or to evaluate information competently.

Järvelin’s theory is congruent with the model offered in this research study, the Information Seeking Behavior of Refugees in Nyarugusu Camp (see Figure 1 above). For instance, female refugees go through several stages of information seeking. First, refugee women seek information at the Frequently Visited Areas, then they search information from the male (manner of seeking information from the men serves as an advisory process) and lastly, “female refugees seek information from Authoritative Sources (such as UNHCR)” (Obodoruku 2014a, 90).

Similarly, Johnson’s (1997) model of information seeking depicts the originating features that inspire a person to seek information. Several elements were demographic (such as age, gender or ethnicity). Johnson argued that, information utilization based on ethnicity is challenging because of intersecting group association as well as inside group differences. An alternative element, beliefs, likewise influences persons when seeking information. It is significant to indicate that, in most information seeking settings, there is a yearning to obtain information straightforwardly from other persons. According to Johnson, this discloses “the

presence of other human interactions and capture[s] the human, feeling side of relationships” (Johnson 1997, 92). Johnson’s conclusion that information seeking is grounded on demographic as well as other influences is congruent with the findings of this research study. There were dissimilar patterns among male and female refugees in selecting where it was best to obtain information in camp (see Nyarugusu Camp on Figure 3 below).



Figure 3. Dr. Benedicta Obodoruku. Nyarugusu Camp, Tanzania. 2013.

Likewise, Wilson’s Model of Information Behavior (1996) emphasizes the complex nature of information seeking (Wilson 1999). Wilson’s model captivates on numerous disciplines, comprising of “decision making, psychology, innovation, health communication and consumer research” (Wilson 1999, 256). Furthermore, Wilson related three theories to information seeking processes: (1) “Stress/coping theory (from psychology), which suggests potentials for clarifying why some needs do not invoke information-seeking behavior. (2) Risk/reward theory (from consumer study/research) which may assist to clarify why certain sources of information may be used more than others by a given individual and (3) Social learning theory (from psychology) which explains why a person can effectively accomplish the behavior needed to construct an outcome” (Wilson 1999, 256-257).

Likewise, Savolainen (2005) indicated that social and cultural components affect an individual’s behavior in choosing and using information sources. Savolainen’s assessment is coherent with the model of the research study (see Figure 1 above) because refugees chose the sources of information that they retrieved first (men consult authoritative sources and women refer to Frequently Visited Areas) before continuing to access further sources of information in camp.

Ingwerson’s (2005) “Integrative Framework for Information Seeking and Interactive Information Retrieval” offers “cognitive approaches of information-seeking actors(s) or team in content” (Ingwerson 2005, 215). Ingwerson maintains that information seeking (IS)

encompasses “cognitive and emotional representations.” They are seen as signals of “human cognition, reflection, emotion, or idea” which are created on “IS&R components and kinds of interaction in text” (Ingwerson 2005, 215).

It is vital to note that the Information Seeking Model of Refugees in Nyarugusu Camp is congruent with Ngwerson’s cognitive information seeking as well as the retrieval processes. In the discussion data, a preponderance of refugees specified that they were psychologically traumatized: “they saw family members murdered, raped, or burned alive in their houses. Most refugees reported that they needed information in order to heal from their traumas. Some of them reported going to counseling” (Obodoruku 2014a, 91-92) (Obodoruku 2016a) (Obodoruku 2016b). Therefore, information seeking processes have a cognitive aspect as well as emotional representations, which are coherent with the trauma that refugees stated in this research study (Ingwerson 2005, 215).

Similarly, Krikelas’ (1983) model of information seeking has thirteen fragments. Krikelas’ model highlights the importance of uncertainty as a reassuring influence, and of prospect, which allows an individual who seeks information to recall an answer within his or her discrete memory. Krikelas asked us to:

“imagine a situation in which a person becomes aware of the state of uncertainty about a problem (question, issue) and attempts to reduce that state of uncertainty to an acceptable level. The cause of the uncertainty may be a specific event or simply is an ongoing process associated with work, ordinary life, or both. Naturally, for many issues, much of the information required would already exist in the individual’s memory; only a small part of a person’s ongoing needs would produce an outward behavior that we might identify as information seeking. Further the level of “urgency” and the perceived importance of the problem . . . would influence the pattern of information seeking” (Krikelas 1983 13-14).

Krikelas distinguished that information need “initiates seeking” (7) and information gathering is “those activities in which stimuli are accepted and held in storage to be recalled on demand” (9). Krikelas stated that “information giving, the act of disseminating messages, can also be seen as part of the communication model. The messages may be communicated in written (graphic), visual, or tactile forma” (13).

It is fundamental to specify that Krikelas’ (1983) model is congruent with the findings of this research study in respects to the theme of **Information**. Table 2 (below) illustrates that refugees seek information a diverse forms of media.

Likewise, Leckie, Pettigrew, and Sylvains’ (1996) model of information seeking elucidates the complexity of information seeking processes grounded on “interaction and simultaneous occurrence of the model’s component and variables, including a feedback mechanism” (Leckie et al, 161). This model depicts that the “outcomes” and “characteristics of information need” influence one another in interrelated manners and that “work role” has an impact on “tasks” (Leckie et al, 180). Though Leckie’s model is founded on professionals such as engineers, doctors or lawyers, it has function outside this group. Leckie’s model is congruent with the findings of this research study. Throughout interviews, refugees stated that they are content whenever they locate information that meets their individual needs. Nevertheless, refugees indicated “that some of the information (for example, about peace in their home country or the location of family members) does not meet their needs if they cannot find their family or stop the war in their country so they can return home” (Obodoruku, 2014a).

Similarly, Ellis’ (2005) model of information-seeking behavior comprises of six forms of activities: “(1) *Staring*. The initial search for information. (2) *Chaining*. Following chains of citations or other forms of referential connection between materials. (3) *Browsing*. Semi-directed searching in an area of potential interest. (4) *Differentiating*. Using different

sources as a filter on the nature and quality of material examined. (5) *Monitoring*. Maintaining awareness of developments in the field through monitoring of particular sources and (6) *Extracting*. Analytically working through a specific source to discover material of interest” (Ellis 2005).

The numerous characteristics/patterns of Ellis’ model are congruent with the information seeking model of refugees in Nyarugusu camp. Ellis’ configurations of differentiating, extracting and monitoring are existent when refugees seek information for survival, protection, food, shelters, durable solutions and many other objects.

Jank (2010) classified the behavioral components of information seeking. He indicated that the essential “drivers of information seeking strategies are neither formulaic nor predictable” (4). Jank stated that the “*information seeking process*, when viewed cognitively” (4) is determined practically completely by “personalized cognitive processes of individual information seekers” (Jank 2010, 4-5). Henceforward, the selection made by a person to carry out everyday activities, for instance, going to the convenience store, depends on the nature of that person, but it is also inspired, “as is all human activity, by the psychological and physiological determinants of behavior at a particular time” (Jank 2010, 4-5). Jank’s “information seeking process” (4) is associated with the model in this research study because refugees make selections concerning the information sources they seek first. For instance, male refugees first seek information from authoritative sources and female refugees first seek information from the community. These are the cognitive manners of refugees, which are compelled by cognitive dissonance in constructing their choices of the information required to be sought first.

Obodoruku’s (2014a) Information Seeking Model of Refugees in Nyarugusu Camp was developed during interviews, focus group discussions with the camp’s refugees and via unobtrusive observation of her Ph.D. field research in the Nyarugusu Camp. This study explored numerous information seeking models. Figure 4 depicts external factors involving refugee utilization of information, which was adapted from Johnson’s (1997) model of cancer-related information seeking.

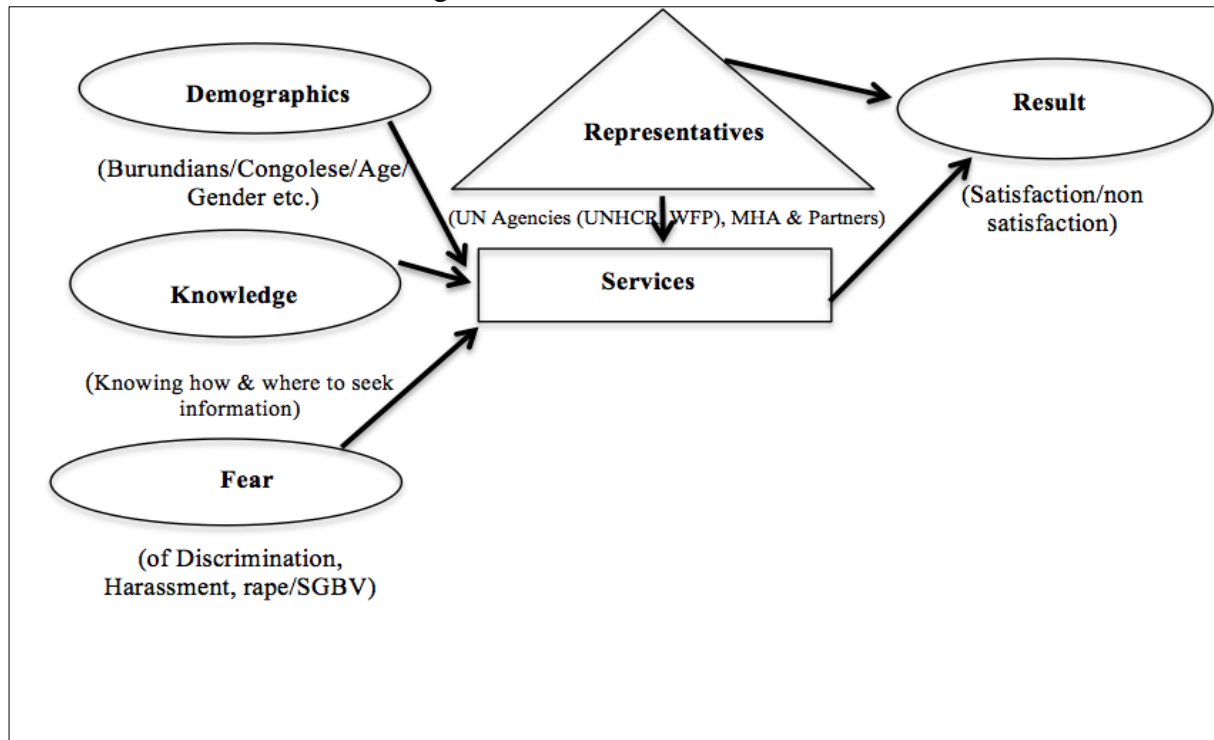


Figure 4. A Depiction of External Factors Relating to Refugees’ Use of Information (Obodoruku 2014a, 95).

The label *demographic* is encompassed:

“gender, age, level of education, marital status, wealth, education, employment and many other factors. *Knowledge* represents a person’s awareness or memory in order to comprehend something of significance or relevance to them. *Fear* denotes the unwillingness of refugees to seek information because they fear personal injury or death. Some fear that if they leave their families in the shelters they will not be found upon return (see Figure 5. Refugee shelter below). The term *Representatives* includes UN agencies (UNHCR and WFP), OCHA, NGOs, MHA, IRC (International Rescue Committee), international organizations and partners” (Obodoruku 2014a, 95).

These are corporations that support UNHCR and MHA to offer assistance to refugees in the Nyarugusu camp. “*Services* are provided by representatives in camp. These services include: the distribution of food to refugees and information on the three durable solutions (resettlement to a third country, voluntary repatriation, and reintegration)” (Obodoruku 2014a, 95). Lastly, the theme *Results* specifies whether the information delivered to refugees has been valuable for formulating an informed decision. So Figure 4 sheds further light on the information utilization pattern of refugees in camp (Obodoruku, 2014a).



Figure 5. Shelters and Refugees in Nyarugusu Camp, Tanzania (Obodoruku 2013).

Figure 6 (below), A Model of Information Acquisition and Exchange (Obodoruku 2014a) portrays information acquisition and usage by refugees in Nyarugusu camp. Figure 6 was adapted based on Wilson’s (1999) model of information behavior as well as Rioux’s (2006) model of acquiring and sharing information.

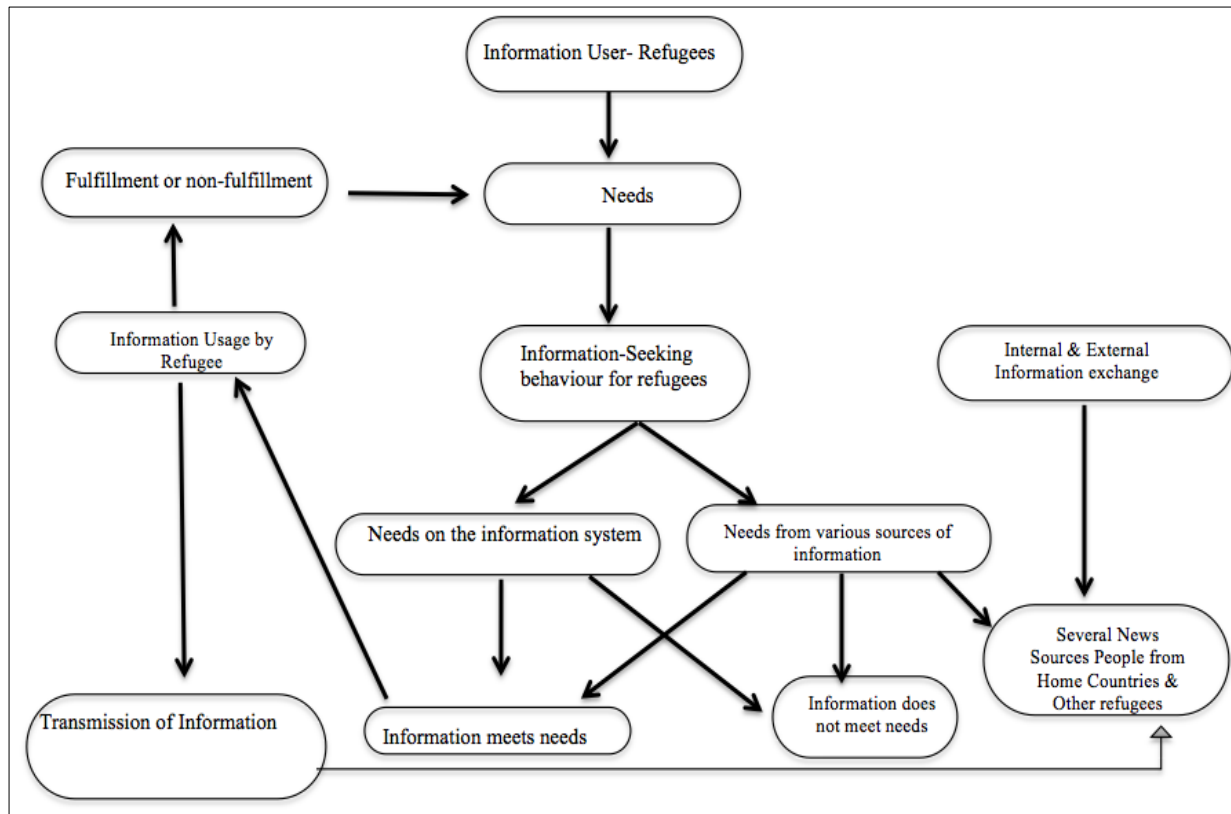


Figure 6. A Model of Information Acquisition and Exchange (Obodoruku 2014a, 96).

Wilson's (1999) Model of Information Seeking Behavior contemplated on people as a fundamental source of information in numerous situations, comprising through direct communication and interaction. Wilson's (1999) model specified that people function as a fundamental source of information is congruent with the research study. As portrayed in Figure 6 (above), the information user – the refugee – has a necessity for information and uses information seeking behavior to accomplish his or her needs. Wilson further distinguished that “searching and acquisition . . . requires active action” (Wilson 1999, 569). Wilson's interpretations correlates with the “search process of the refugees from DRC aggressively searching for information and exhausting all sources (such as the information in camp) in order to meet their needs” (Obodoruku 2014a, 97). The subsequent stage is for refugees to choose “whether the information does or does not meet their needs. The stage of fulfillment or non-fulfillment of the needs of refugees then leads to the information usage by refugees. The next stage is the transmission of the information to the several news sources trying to meet their needs” (Obodoruku 2014a, 97).

Rioux maintains that information acquiring and sharing depends on the mutual behavior and the processes whereby an individual shares the information that was obtained. This includes numerous sorts of communication, collaborations or social interactions that the “user of the information might have with family or friends” (Rioux 2006, 170). Rioux assessment of information sharing and communication is related to the different ways that refugees in camp utilize information that they obtained from several sources (such as the Frequently Visited Areas, their family and fellow refugees) as specified in the discourse analysis.

General Observations in Camp

It is significant to indicate from the analysis of discourse of refugees that the theme **Information** is considered an emergent category, which continues to resonate with refugees. The data indicates that the focal point of the refugees' discussions is concentrated on **Information**. "Refugees need information in order to meet their needs. Therefore, refugees seek information from **Corporations** and other sources such as the Frequently Visited Areas in camp" (Obodoruku 2014a, 97).

The information utilization patterns of refugees in certain cases are centered on their motivations. "According to the data, refugees may not seek information because they fear discrimination, abuse, sexual assault, or separation from their families. (Obodoruku 2014a, 2017). For instance, a refugee noted that they make me feel that I am not safe. Hence I even think . . . of not doing something else rather than going to hide. I even fear to go and look for food for my family. Because I fear when I go far from the house they can find the family taken by force when I come back" (Obodoruku 2014a, 98). Another refugee indicated that "the information do[es] not meets my needs; instead the information makes me fear. Refugees are cognitively dissonant because of experiences of violence during their flight to seek refuge in a foreign country. Refugees also are faced with cognitive dissonance because of the lack of safety, abuse and violent acts in camp where they are supposed to be protected" (Obodoruku 2014a, 98).

In addition, it should be noted that, during the interviews and focus groups discussions, the refugees did not appear to "be constrained by the presence of the UNHCR official (the translator). Also, the presence of tribal leaders or camp leaders during the focus group discussions had no influence on the refugees" (Obodoruku 2014a, 98). Robert Michel (1951) maintained that "it is organization which gives birth to the dominion of the elected over the electors, of the mandataries over the mandators, of the delegates over the delegators" (Michel 1951, 241). Though, "Michel's theory is not applicable to the focus group discourse, because there was no domination of the discussions by camp leaders (who are elected by the refugees) and tribal leaders" (Obodoruku 2014a, 98).

Lastly, the observation data specify "a patriarchal environment in camp" (Obodoruku 2014). There is a "system of society, government" (Robert 1929, 872) "in which the males are the primary authority figures central to social organization. Males occupy leadership roles and control property in the camps. It is a society of male rule and privilege, and involves female subservience" (Obodoruku 2014a, 98).

Information plays numerous roles for persons in refugee camps. Table 1 (below) clearly depicts refugees in the "primary information environment" (Jank 2010) utilizing eight major "categories of information: **People, Danger, Media (Broadcast Media), News, Corporations, Camp, Information, and Transport**. The purpose of creating the labels, and then doing the coding was to create a taxonomic view of refugee information use" (Obodoruku, 2014a). This provided a "categorical structure of what information use means to refugees living in refugee camps. Then, by building the ontological framework in the third column, this shows a realistic, empirically validated picture of how refugees talk about information use, and how they view it" (Obodoruku 2014a, 47).

Table 1: Taxonomic Categories of Interview Data, Focus Group Transcripts and Unobtrusive Observation Notes of Refugee Information Use (Obodoruku 2014a, 47).

Main Categories	Subcategories	Ontological Components of Terminology Classes and Words Occurrences
People	Family	Parents, Family Members, Relatives
	Neighbor	Neighboring Village, Town
	Burundian	Twa Tribe, Hutus and Tutsi
	Congolese	Ovira, Mboko
	Burundi	Government
	DRC	Law, Policy, Welfare
Danger	Conflict	Tribal Conflicts, Political Conflicts, Land Conflicts, War
	Insecurity	Fear
	Threat	Risk
	Violence	Fighting, Attack
	Killings	Slaughtering, Shooting, Massacres
Media (Broadcast Media³)	Communication	Announcement/s
	Radio	Portable Radio
	Broadcasting	Television, BBC, Radio Geneva, Radio America, Radio Kwizera
News (Community Information Sharing⁴)	Magazines	Newspaper/s, Brochures, Leaflets
	RIG Bulletin	Publications, Reports, NATO Reports
	Online News	Internet
	Release	Press Release
	Words	Discussion, Talk
Corporation	United Nations	Intergovernmental Organization, International Co-operation
	UN Agencies	UNHCR, WFP, UNICEF, OCHA
	Partnership	NGOs, IRC, MHA
Camp	Shelters	Asylum, Security, Safety

³ ““Broadcast Media” represents forms of mass communication that refugees use in Nyarugusu camp, such as announcements, radios, and television” (Obodoruku 2014a).

⁴ “Refugees exhaust all sources in camp to seek and share information. Some of the sources of information were: magazines, newspapers, brochures, leaflets, publications, reports, the Internet and online news, press releases, and discussions” (Obodoruku 2014a, 47-48).

	Huts	Tent/s
Information	Knowledge	Experience/s
	Notice	Notice Board, Posters, Message
	Case	Proceeding, Legal Issues, Legal Matters
Transport	Sea	Lake, Rivers
	Land	Ground
	Movement	Influx, Flight, Immigration
	Transit	Crossing, Transit Center

It is crucial to signify that Table 2 (below) is a categorization dictionary constructed using axial coding grounded on the most frequently occurring terms as well as phrases in the data. The purpose of building the labels, and then carrying out the coding, was to construct “a taxonomic view of refugee information use” (Obodoruku 2014a, 46). This gave a categorical arrangement of what information usage means to refugees living in refugee camps. Therefore, by constructing the ontological framework (based on percentages) in the third column, this “showed a realistic, and empirically validated, picture of how refugees talk about information use, and how they view it in camp” (Obodoruku 2014a, 47). Table 2 (below) demonstrates the categories with examples showing in the allotted categories. “In Table 2 there are a total of 173 (9.7%) occurrences of the word **Information** as identified in the data from the total occurrences of 1769 subcategories” (Obodoruku 2014a, 53).

Table 2: Working Ontology of Information Use (Obodoruku 2014a, 55-56).

Category Label	Example term and phrases	Number of Cases	% of Cases
People	Family, Parents, Family Members, Relatives, Neighbor, Town, Neighboring Village, Burundian, Congolese, DRC, Burundi, Twa Tribe, Hutus and Tutsi, Ovira, Mboko, Government, Law, Policy, Welfare	664	37.5
Danger	Conflicts, Insecurity, Threat, Violence, Killings, War, Tribal Conflicts, Political Conflicts, Fear, Risk, Fighting, Attack, Slaughtering, Shooting, Massacres	437	24.7
Media (Broadcast Media)	Communication, Announcement/s, Radio, Portable Radio, Broadcasting, Television, BBC, Radio Geneva, Radio America, Radio Kwizera	115	6.5

News (Community Information Sharing)	Magazine, News Paper/s, Leaflets, RIG Bulletin, Publication, Reports, NATO Report, Online News, Internet, Release, Press Release, Words, Discussion, Talk	64	3.6
Corporation	United Nations, Intergovernmental Organization, Partnership, UN Agencies, International Co-operation, UNHCR, WFP, UNICEF, OCHA, NGOs, IRC, MHA	76	4.2
Camp	Shelters, Asylum, Security, Safety, Huts, Tent/s	135	7.6
Information	Knowledge, Experience/s, Notice, Notice Board, Posters, Message, Case, Proceeding, Legal Issues, Legal Matters	173	9.7
Transport	Sea, Lake, Rivers, Land, Ground, Movement, Influx, Flight, Immigration, Transit, Crossing, Transit Center	105	5.9

Category Danger

It is important to note that Table 2 (above) illustrates the category **Danger** based on the number of occurrences. Though the word danger did not show in the interview or focus group text, the category **Danger** was grounded on terms as well as phrases utilized by refugees. Refugees correlated the theme of **Danger** with fear, insecurity, rape, Sexual Gender Based Violence (SGBV), harassment, discrimination and the numerous abuses in the camp. The data were likewise coded based on the refugees' discourse. Though Table 2 shows a low refugee discussion of the category **Danger**, evidence from the text indicates that refugees strive for safety although that the terminology utilized varies. "The theme **Danger** was identified with insecurities in camp, which make refugees seek protection. For instance, during the interviews, refugees reported having been raped in camp and gotten pregnant and having kept the child. Refugees, especially women, need information for protection in camp" (Obodoruku 2014a, 55).

Category Camp

It is essential to clearly note that, in Table 2, the category **Camp** had the third most occurrences in the one-on-one interviews. Table 2 illustrates "the category **Camp** had 76 occurrences in the one-on-one interviews, 38 occurrences in the smaller in-depth focus group, and 99 occurrences in the researcher's unobtrusive observations. As shown in Table 2 (above), **Camp** comprises 7.6% of occurrences. Refugees seek information on security and safety in camp" (Obodoruku 2014a, 55). It is vital to indicate that some of the refugees

specified that their fellow refugees in camp had discriminated against them. It is important to note that “refugees strive for security and safety in camp and upon return/repatriation to their home countries. In addition, some refugees fear staying in the camps and refuse to return to their home countries because of the lack of security and safety. However, some refugees continue to seek asylum in Tanzania or elsewhere with the help of UNHCR because of the lack of security and continuous conflicts/wars in their countries of origin” (Obodoruku 2014a, 55).

Category Media (Broadcast Media)

It is important to note that, in Table 2, the “the category **Media** has only 1 occurrence, in the one-on-one interviews. The analysis shows that refugee discourse on information use and sharing regarding the theme **Media** is on the low end of the spectrum” (Obodoruku 2014a, 56). This signifies that the information refugees received from the media has been truncated. The text likewise indicates the lack of publicity concerning the issue of refugees in Nyarusugu camp.

Furthermore, as exhibited in “Table 2, the category **Media** (6.5%) appears to be in high demand by refugees in camp. Refugees need more information; some” (Obodoruku 2014a, 56), specified that the information they get was not sufficient” (Obodoruku 2014a, 56). Therefore, in the subcategory **Communication**, it is important to note that refugees communicate by word of mouth, as well as using several sources of media, such as announcements. Refugees likewise utilize broadcast media (such as BBC, television, Radio Geneva, Radio America, and Radio Kwizira) as exhibited in “Table 1, Ontological Components of Terminology Classes and Word Occurrences” (Obodoruku 2014a, 56).

Category News (Community Sharing)

It is vital to indicate that “Table 2 (Category Counts for Interview, Focus Group and Observations) shows the occurrences of the category **News**: 0 for one-on-one interviews, 2 for smaller in-depth focus groups, and 0 for unobtrusive observations. This appears to be low. According to the trend in the refugee discourse as indicated in Table 2, information use and sharing on the theme **News** is in the low range as well” (Obodoruku 2014a, 57).

Concerning the theme **News** (3.6%), refugees utilize newspapers, magazines, leaflets, RIG Bulletins, reports, and, “in a few cases, the Internet. These are some of the sources of information that refugees use between themselves, to contact their families, to find out activities taking place in camp and in seeking durable solutions” (Obodoruku 2014a, 57).

Category People

It is significant to note that, as exhibited in Table 2, the “category **People** had 146 occurrences in the one-on-one interviews, 42 occurrences in smaller in-depth interviews, and 3 occurrences in unobtrusive observations. The data show how refugees talk to people about their information usage. This is also a validation of the role that information plays for people in the refugee camp” (Obodoruku 2014a, 57). Figure 1 likewise depicts a high trend in the conversation of the main topic of discourse concerning the category **People** via refugees in the utilization and sharing of information. (See Figure 7. Refugees in from of the Camp Leader’s Office conversing and sharing verbal information and waiting to receive information from their home countries or information on camp activities).



Figure 7. Camp Leaders' Office & Refugees in Nyarugusu Camp, Tanzania (Obodoruku 2013).

As displayed in Table 2, the category **People** encompassed 37.5% of occurrences. The data indicate that refugees utilize “subcategories such as *people*, *parents*, *family members*, and their fellow refugees to pass and use information in camp. Refugees also use the most *Frequently Visited Areas* in camp (such as hospitals, dispensary, school, churches, markets (see Figure 9 below), water point, food distribution center, and the Verification Center) (see pictures of some of the most Frequently Visited Areas below). At the

Frequently Visited Areas, information is displayed on noticeboards and signboards (printed and handwritten) (see Figure 8 below) or presented verbally by UNHCR officials, MHA, partners, or camp leaders” (Obodoruku 2014a, 57).



Figure 8. Frequently Visited Areas information is displayed on noticeboards and signboards at the front of the Nyarugusu Dispensary, Tanzania (Obodoruku, 2013).

Refugees use programs such as Go-and-See Visit, a program that allows assigned refugees (with the assistance of UNHCR and MHA) to visit their native countries to “see if they are safe to return. When the refugees return to camp, they share the information with their fellow refugees” (Obodoruku 2014a, 59). Go-and-See Visits assist refugees undergoing cognitive dissonance to make informed decisions concerning whether to repatriate, reintegrate, resettle, or stay in camp, in Tanzania.



Figure 9. The marketplace is one of the most Frequently Visited Areas to seek information (Obodoruku 2013). This is a picture of refugees trading food items in a market in Nyarugusu Camp, Tanzania.

Category Corporation

It is important to note that the category **Corporation** comprises of several UN agencies as well as NGOs that offer services for refugees in camp. For instance, refugees seek information concerning food distribution from WFP, as well as school activities from UNICEF. Table 2 shows that **Corporation** has one occurrence in one-on-one interviews and one occurrence in smaller in-depth focus group discussions. This indicates that the capacity of information refugees get from the **Corporation** is on the low side. Also, on Table 2, “the category **Corporation** is 4.2% of occurrences. **Corporation** is a slow growing trend in the focus point discourse among refugees” (Obodoruku 2014a, 58).

Category Transport

It is mandatory to indicate that in “Table 2, the category **Transport** has 3 occurrences in the one-on-one interview, 1 occurrence in the smaller, in-depth focus group, and 1 occurrence in the unobtrusive observations. **Transport** has a low frequency in the discourse of refugees” (Obodoruku 2014a, 58). The data specify that refugees need information concerning **Transport** before they reach the refugee camp and if they finally, choose to leave camp. It is not the main element of refugee discourse. Refugees discourse on the category **Transport** indicates that refugees are less captivated to discuss

Transport in camp.

Table 2 specifies that “**Transport** occurred 5.9% of the time. Refugees flee ethnic, religious, political, tribal, and land conflicts to seek shelter in Tanzania. Refugees arrive at the border by sea, land, and air. When there are influxes of refugees at the border, UNHCR staff is on 24/7 standby, waiting to receive refugees” (Obodoruku 2014a, 59) and offer them with food, as well as all necessary supplies. “Refugees who are accepted for asylum in Tanzania are presented with bus or truck transportation to camp” (Obodoruku 2014a, 59). If the refugees finally choose to leave the camp to repatriate, they again obtain information from UNHCR concerning transportation.

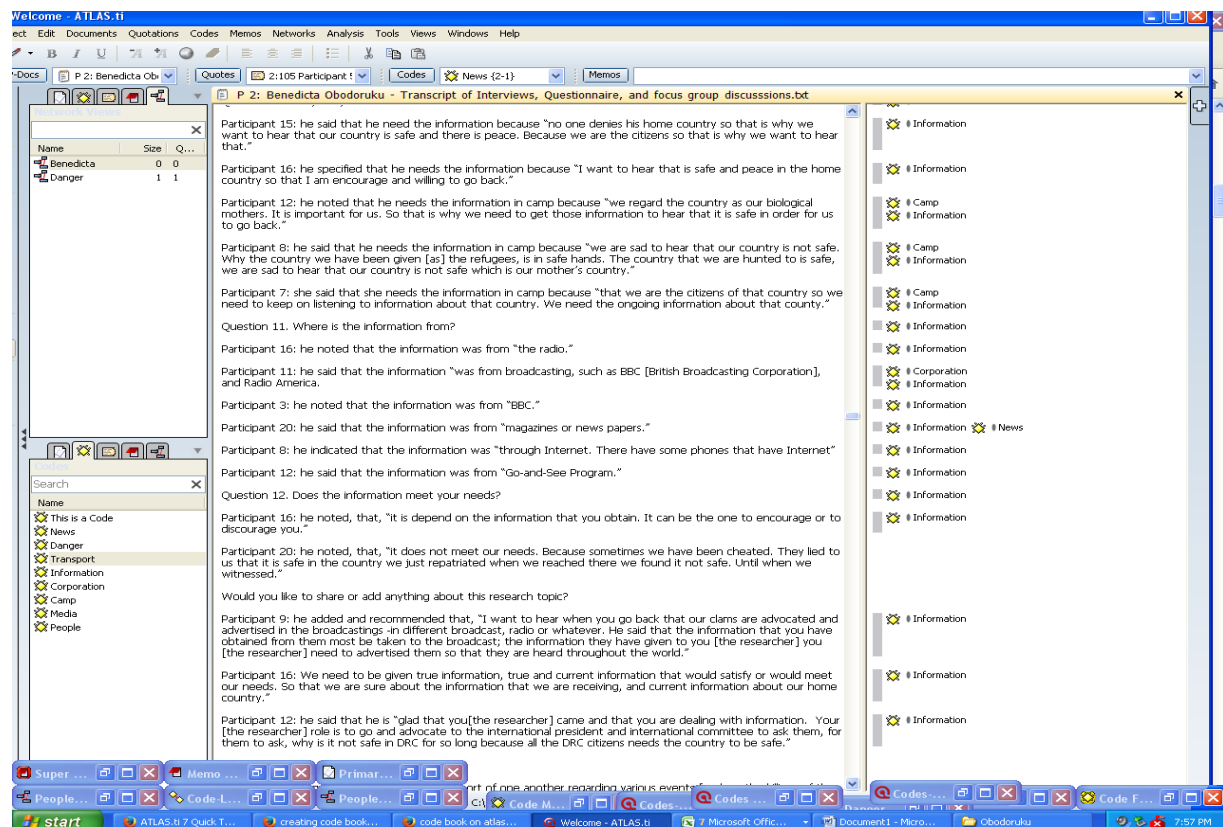


Figure 10. “Sample of the Coding Process of Interviews, Focus Groups and Unobtrusive Observation Manuscripts Using Atlas.ti” (Obodoruku 2014a, 49).

Figure 10 (above) demonstrates the content analysis coding procedure utilizing Atlas.ti qualitative statistical software. Figure 10 displays “an example of the coding and analysis of the interviews, focus groups and unobtrusive observation” (Obodoruku 2014a, 48). It illustrates the coding of the major categories of themes encompassed in the subjects’ interviews.

Conclusion

This research study has investigated refugees' information seeking in Nyarugusu Camp, Tanzania. The research found that a preponderance of refugees engage in information seeking while in Nyarugusu camps, but, majority of them did not find the information that they get useful because it does not meet their needs.

In addition, this research utilized content analysis, a qualitative method. Axial coding was utilized to construct taxonomic categories of the interview data, the focus group transcripts and the unobtrusive observation notes of the refugees' information use in camp. Atlas.ti qualitative statistical software was utilized to code the text. It is important to note that domain analytic techniques were used by empirically employing theories as well as model of information seeking and behavior of the refugees. Formally, established Information Seeking Behavior (ISB) models in the literature were utilized to pinpoint the information seeking behavior patterns of refugees. These established by ISB are clearly congruent with this research study applying to refugees' behaviors and how they seek information in camp which make this a grounded research.

It is important to note that, according to some of the findings of this research, "during the interviews refugees reported having been raped in camp and gotten pregnant and having kept the child. Refugees, especially women, need information for protection in camp" (Obodoruku 2014a, 55). Refugees correlated the theme of **Danger** with fear, insecurity, rape, Sexual Gender Based Violence (SGBV), harassment and discrimination, and numerous abuses in camp.

"Refugees strive for security and safety in camp and upon return/repatriation to their home countries. Also, some refugees fear staying in the camps and refuse to return to their home countries because of the lack of security and safety. However, some refugees continue to seek asylum in Tanzania or elsewhere with the help of UNHCR because of the lack of security and continuous conflicts/wars in their countries of origin" (Obodoruku 2014a, 56)

War is extremely aggressive, destructive and an immoral act that leads to deaths of loved ones, and Africa has witnessed several wars such as the Biafran War in Nigeria (Obodoruku, 2009), as well as war and conflicts in the Great Lakes region. The international committee should look into ways to address the issues related to war and conflicts in order to stop the suffering, agony and trauma that refugees go through, especially women and children. The international community should look into incorporating social networking and information sharing (Obodoruku, 2016b) among states in order for them to be informed speedily during war or genocide to save human lives. Likewise, states should employ various research findings on conflicts and war, especially bibliometric analysis (on how numerous research is being conveyed on the problems of refugees) (Obodoruku and Aytac 2016), taxonomy research (on how issues of refugees is being categorized on various social network platforms and web-based platforms) (Obodoruku 2015b) to see what research has been carried out in various academic fields on war and conflicts and incorporate researchers' findings in the state's mandate to protect their citizens. Also, it is important for state to eradicate poverty and create job for its people because when there are conflicts — states lost human capacity — because people flee to different regions to seek refuge. States cannot archive sustainable economy development if there is a loss of human capacity (2015c). States that are signatories to the 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees and various refugees' protection policies (Obodoruku, 2016c) should incorporate refugees' policies into their asylum system (Obodoruku, 2014c) and protect refugees in their territories from various abuses, rape, SGBV and discrimination and many more policies based on international standards and laws.

Appendix

Appendix A: Ontological Code Book for Building Data Dictionary

“(It can be added to or built on in the future)”

Numbers of Coded: 9, commented: 9”

(Obodoruku 2014a, 137).

Numbers of Coded: 9, commented: 9

Code Information	Comments
Camp	Refugees express concern on: discrimination in camp, lack of safety in camp, “Not safe in camp,” camp leader favoring refugees from the same country, uncertainty concerning their stay in camp, trust in camp, “harassment” in camp, security concerns, uncertainty in camp (regarding repatriation, resettlements, reintegration), threats in camp.
Corporation	Refugees express need for support for repatriation, resettlement, reintegration, food, to regain their properties, for letters, not be denied food by UNHCR and MHA, education, to start over when they return home (to buy land and start a business etc),
Danger	Refugees express fear, insecurity, rapes, SGBV, anxiety, violence, killings, risk, massacres, slaughtering, abuses, psychological trauma, stress, lack of protection during Go-and-See Visit, fear during Go-and-See Visit, uncertainty, fear to return, “land conflicts,” political conflicts, tribal conflicts, war, fighting, attack
Information	Refugees express need for information on food, information on food distribution, information on durable solutions (repatriation, resettlement, and reintegration), information to regain their lost/stolen properties, in their countries, information to look for family members/loved ones, information from the international committee/Western countries to help stop the war/conflicts in their countries, inadequate information. Refugees seek information in the most <i>Frequently Visited Areas</i> in camp

Media (Broadcast Media)	Refugee express use of (during flights/in camp) communication (announcements), radios (portable radios), television, BBC, Radio, Radio Geneva, Radio America, Radio Kwizera. Refugees express need lack of authentic radio information, portable radio, and broadcast
News (Community information sharing)	Refugees share information among themselves through Go-and-See Visit, using Frequently Visited Areas in camp
People	Refugees use people/their fellow refugees as their information sources, information received from people (in camp/countries). Refugees report during flights they get information from neighbors, town people, Twa Tribe, Hutus and Tutsi, Ovira, Mboko, Government, Congolese, Burundians, family (in camp/before camp)
Transport	Refugees express concern during/after flights on land, on sea, use of Transit Center, immigration

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