

**The Housing Experiences of the Auckland Somali Population  
and their Impact on the Resettlement Process**

Adam Midasso Halango

A thesis submitted to  
Auckland University of Technology  
in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of  
Master of Arts (MA) Human Services

2007

Faculty of Applied Humanities

Primary Supervisor: Prof. Charles Crothers

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>TABLE OF CONTENTS.....</b>	<b>ii</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES .....</b>	<b>v</b>
<b>ATTESTATION OF AUTHORSHIP.....</b>	<b>vi</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....</b>	<b>vii</b>
<b>ABSTRACT.....</b>	<b>viii</b>
<b>1. INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.0 Overview .....	1
1.1 Purpose .....	2
1.2 Thesis Outline .....	3
1.3 Research objectives.....	4
1.4 Justification for the research .....	4
1.5 Context .....	6
1.6 Definitions of Refugees.....	7
1.6.1 Quota refugees .....	7
1.6.2 Asylum seekers .....	8
1.6.3 Family reunification refugees .....	9
1.7 Research questions .....	10
1.8 Background.....	10
<b>2. LITERATURE REVIEW.....</b>	<b>12</b>
2.0 Introduction .....	12
2.1 Concepts of housing .....	12
2.2 Key resettlement concepts.....	18
2.3 A conceptual framework .....	22
2.3.1 Introduction .....	22
2.3.2 The institutional structures .....	23
2.4 The resettlement process .....	24
2.5 Analysis of housing experiences.....	26
2.6 Social policy and the role of the State.....	32
2.6.1 Affordability of housing as a policy issue .....	33
2.6.2 Housing New Zealand Corporation.....	34
2.6.3 New Zealand Housing Strategy .....	35
2.6.4 Auckland Regional Affordable Housing Strategy .....	36
2.6.5 Housing provision .....	39
2.7 Barriers to integration.....	42
2.7.1 Lack of access to housing.....	42
2.7.2 Location and ethnicity .....	43
2.7.3 Immigration status.....	44
2.7.4 Shortage of State housing .....	45

2.7.5	Private housing markets .....	46
2.7.6	Discrimination .....	46
2.7.7	Suitability of housing .....	47
2.7.8	Overcrowding.....	48
2.7.9	Key refugee health issues.....	49
2.7.10	English proficiency and education .....	50
2.7.11	Housing and employment .....	51
2.7.12	Community integration .....	52
2.8	Conclusion .....	53
<b>3.</b>	<b>METHODOLOGY .....</b>	<b>55</b>
3.0	Introduction .....	55
3.1	A Case Study .....	55
3.2	The participatory research design.....	59
3.2.1	Feminist research approach .....	60
3.3	Ethics and research instruments.....	62
3.3.1	Information sheets .....	62
3.3.2	Informed consent .....	63
3.3.3	Survey.....	63
3.3.4	Discussion guidelines .....	64
3.4	Methods of data collection .....	64
3.4.1	Reference group .....	64
3.4.2	Participant's focus group workshop .....	65
3.5	Data processing .....	67
3.5.1	Reliability and validity.....	68
3.5.2	Data analysis .....	70
3.5.3	Preliminary report.....	73
<b>4.0</b>	<b>FINDINGS .....</b>	<b>74</b>
4.1	Introduction .....	74
4.2	Profile of the participants .....	74
4.2.1	Age and gender .....	74
4.2.2	Marital status and number of children .....	76
4.2.3	Occupation and type of employment.....	78
	Table 1: Demographics.....	80
4.3	Income .....	80
	Table 2: Weekly Income .....	81
4.4	Finding a house .....	81
4.4.1	Duration of housing search .....	83
	Table 3: Duration of housing search .....	83
4.4.3	Discrimination and housing trends.....	83
4.5	Affordability .....	86
	Table: 4 Rents category .....	89
4.6	Types of housing.....	89
	Table: 5 Types of housing.....	90
4.7	Choice of housing .....	90
	Table: 6 Location .....	94
4.8	Housing tenure.....	94
	Table: 7 Housing tenure.....	95
4.9	Housing conditions.....	95
	Table: 8 Housing conditions.....	98
4.10	Types of housing expected .....	98

	Table: 9 Types of housing expected .....	99
4.11	Number of Bedrooms .....	100
	Table: 10 Number of Bedrooms .....	100
4.12	Number in households .....	101
	Table: 11 Number in households .....	102
	4.12.2 Overcrowding.....	102
4.13	Housing and keeping healthy .....	105
	Table: 12 Housing and keeping healthy .....	107
4.14	English proficiency .....	109
	4.14.1 Level of Education .....	111
	Table: 13 English proficiency .....	113
4.15	Integration and level of happiness .....	114
	Table: 14 Integration and level of happiness .....	115
4.16	Cross-Tabulations .....	115
	4.16.1 Number of house moves .....	118
4.17	Immigration category .....	121
	Table: 16 Immigration category.....	124
	Table: 17 Cross- tabulations by Immigration Category .....	125
4.18	Length of time in New Zealand .....	130
	Table: 18 Cross-tabulations length of time.....	134
4.19	Correlation Matrix.....	139
4.20	Summary .....	142
<b>5.</b>	<b>DISCUSSION .....</b>	<b>143</b>
5.0	Introduction .....	143
5.1	Key Themes in the Study.....	143
	5.1.1 Influence of housing experiences .....	143
	5.1.2 Barriers to housing options .....	146
	5.1.3 Housing satisfaction.....	148
5.2	Implications of the Study .....	150
5.3	Micro level.....	150
	5.3.1 Somali households.....	150
5.4	Group Level .....	153
	5.4.1 Somali community.....	153
5.5	Macro societal level .....	154
	5.5.1 Institutions.....	154
	5.5.3 Host community .....	155
	5.5.4 Government .....	156
<b>6.</b>	<b>CONCLUSION .....</b>	<b>158</b>
6.1	Recommendations .....	165
6.2	Limitations.....	167
6.3	Further Research .....	168
<b>7.</b>	<b>APPENDICIES .....</b>	<b>169</b>
7.1	Survey.....	169
7.2	Discussion guidelines .....	173
7.3	Steps in the PRD process.....	177
<b>9.</b>	<b>REFERENCES .....</b>	<b>178</b>

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Demographics .....	80
Table 2	Weekly Income .....	81
Table 3	Duration of housing search.....	83
Table 4	Rents category .....	89
Table 5	Types of housing .....	90
Table 6	Location.....	94
Table 7	Housing tenure .....	95
Table 8	Housing conditions .....	98
Table 9	Types of housing expected.....	99
Table 10	Number of bedrooms.....	100
Table 11	Number of households .....	102
Table 12	Housing and keeping healthy .....	107
Table 13	English proficiency.....	113
Table 14	Integration and level of happiness .....	115
Table 15	Cross-tabulations rental housing .....	118
Table 16	Immigration category .....	124
Table 17	Cross-tabulations immigration category .....	125
Table 18	Cross-tabulations length of time .....	134
Table 19	Correlation matrix .....	140

## **ATTESTATION OF AUTHORSHIP**

“I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgments), nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a University or other institution of higher learning”.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

---

My sincere thanks to the Erin White Scholarship Fund awarded to me through the Auckland University of Technology for tuition fees and assistance. Special thanks to the School of Social Sciences for postgraduate research funding.

Particular thanks to Dr Sharon Harvey, AUT Ethics Committee Chair and Associate Academic Dean, Mrs. Madeline Banda, Executive Secretary and Charles Grinter, Co-ordinator for their ethics advice and cooperation (AUTEK 06/07/82).

Special thanks to my supervisors Professor Charles Crothers and Keryn McDermott at the School of Social Sciences Faculty of Applied Humanities AUT. Particular thanks to Professor Charles Crothers for the top up of the research funding without which this research would have not been possible and for the fantastic cross-tabulation matrix, technical assistance and academic advice especially during the data analysis. Thank you to Keryn McDermott, for the academic and technical advice, particularly during the early stage of the research design and implementation process.

Particular thank you to Dr. Michael Siyad MA (Hons.), PhD (Politics) Political and Public Policy Analyst at Waikato University, for the translation work on the research instruments, transcription and back translation of survey results and discussion guidelines for service fees. Thank you too for facilitating the focus group workshop and your moral support during this research project.

Special thanks to Mrs. Dahaba Hagi, the Somali interpreter, for assisting with the three women workshops and for facilitation for service fees. My sincere thanks to all the participants who contributed to this research project during the data collection.

Thank you to Mahad Warsame, President of the Auckland Somali Community for the advice during the reference group and regarding potential participants. Thank you also to Abdi Musse for the assistance with organising the reference group and providing participants recruitment assistance on a fee basis. Thanks to Maliti Vallabh, BA (Hons.) for the data entry on a fee basis.

Finally, special thanks to my wife and daughter, my parents, brothers and sisters for all your family support and encouragement throughout the preparation of this thesis.

## The Housing Experiences of the Auckland Somali Population and their impact on the Resettlement Process

---

### **ABSTRACT**

This thesis examines the impact of the housing experiences of resettled refugees. It reiterates that becoming a refugee was not a matter of choice, but for those in refugee situations it was imperative to seek refugee status for their survival. This study focuses on the housing experiences of the Auckland Somali resettled refugees and seeks to identify the effect of housing policy and provision in Auckland. It also demonstrates the links of housing to employment, education and health. Refugees face considerable resettlement challenges based on differential factors such as ethnocentrism, immigration status, household composition and socio-economic conditions. These barriers are exacerbated by a lack of English language proficiency, a variety of educational backgrounds and unfamiliarity with institutional practices, especially during their early years of adaptation as relative newcomers to New Zealand.

The vulnerable position of this group in housing markets requires up to date information to increase the provider's awareness of housing experiences and their impact on the resettlement process. In turn, an increased knowledge allows evidence-based decisions for appropriate intervention, policy, and strategy developments to facilitate optimum resettlement outcomes. Policy formulation and effective implementation must focus on the identification of suitable services to address the specific barriers experienced by this group. The empirical evidence supports previous findings that there were close correlations between the participants housing experiences that are the types of housing they occupied and their income.

The study developed and implemented a Participatory Research Design involving a case study approach with multiple data collection methods. The primary field data was collected from focus group participants through a workshop of qualitative discussion and a survey.

**Keywords:** Resettled refugees, housing experiences, resettlement and integration

# 1. INTRODUCTION

---

## 1.0 Overview

This chapter provides in broader terms the central themes of the thesis regarding the housing experiences and refugee resettlement process in New Zealand. It also sets out the purpose and outline of this thesis and provides definitions relating to refugees and places refugees in the New Zealand context. It also justified the need for this study, its objectives and the research questions.

In the past research on housing has concentrated on how housing choices were interconnected with other life experiences (Clark, Deurloo and Dieleman, 2003). In the resettlement process resettled refugees encounter several barriers in accessing housing English classes, unemployment, health and other essential services (Perry, 2005; Carey-Wood, 1997; Jupp, 1994; McKenzie Trust, 2004). The housing experiences models encapsulate a series of dwellings that households inhabit during their life span. It is a process of how households fulfil their housing preferences influenced by other factors that include: income, education, social, political and institutional processes (Foley and Beer, 2003). This concept of housing experience is well supported by several authors in the literature (Hulchanski, 1997; Foley & Beer, 2003; Dunstan, Dibley & Shorland, 2004; Lilley, 2004; Cole & Robinson, 2003).

Auckland is the main reception region for New Zealand's refugee and migrant population. This region has a shortage of state housing and affordability issues in private housing markets (Housing New Zealand Corporation, 2005; Cullen, 2005). The New Zealand's Census (Statistics New Zealand, 2006) shows that in general the Auckland's proportion of population has increased as overseas born were 40 percent compared to 19 percent for the rest of the country (New Zealand Herald, 2007 January 22). New Zealand as a refugee receiving country has resettled 40,000 at a rate of over 1300 refugees gaining residence status annually (McCormack, Davies, Nakhid & Shirley, 2003a, p.12).

The central Government developed in May, 2004 an Immigration Settlement Strategy to address the resettlement barriers highlighted by the Department of Labour's Immigration work force (Dunstan et al., 2004). As well, Regional Authorities in Wellington and Auckland have also developed settlement policies (Spoonley, Peace, Butcher & O'Neill, 2005; Woolford, 2005; Auckland Regional Settlement Strategy, 2007). Effective settlement planning and policy tools are becoming increasingly crucial as the refugee and ethnic population grows and requires equitable access to resources. Although information exists in New Zealand on refugee resettlement experiences and some positive progresses have been made in general, nonetheless, it appears that there are gaps in implementing resettlement policies and provisions which have been limited on refugee - specific housing strategies. Therefore, this thesis provides some key information to be fed into the policy process and make solution-focused recommendations. Finding out how the particulars of refugee housing consumption impacts on their other integration outcomes would be interesting and important.

## **1.1 Purpose**

The purpose of this thesis is to produce empirical evidence as part of the requirements for the fulfilment of the Master of Human Services Organisations Management degree from the AUT University. The housing experiences of the Auckland Somali population and their impact on the resettlement process are under-researched topics. The present study examined 72 participants who were from resettled Somali refugees using multiple-data collection methods employing the qualitative and quantitative case oriented approaches. The purpose was to examine a wide variety of housing aspects that impact on the participants' resettlement process. This enabled me to measure any possible correlations between housing experiences, types of housing, income and other integration outcomes. On the whole, the significant factors that impact on the resettlement process have been identified in the literature. The focus of the analysis is on those groups who enter New Zealand under the refugee policy humanitarian immigration category. Skilled and business migrants will not be included.

The study takes sociological, ethnographic and feminist epistemological approaches to conceptualise the themes of this study. Data will be related to these concepts and placed in the Auckland context.

## **1.2 Thesis Outline**

Chapter one provides the contextual information, justification for the definitions of refugees, background, the objectives of this study, and research questions.

Chapter two is the literature review, which informs this study and the research project. This chapter outlines the contents, the introduction, the concept of housing, and the key resettlement concepts. It consists of five main themes. In the first part, the conceptual framework that guides the way in which a sociological approach can be used to analyse the housing experiences and resettlement process will be considered. In the second part, the resettlement process and the housing experiences are described. The chapter draws upon the experiences of resettled refugees in resettling countries around the world and explores the same experiences in the Auckland context. In the third part the resettlement process and housing experiences will be linked to education, employment and health policies that are relevant to the economic and social outcomes for refugees. Then, the impact of social policy and the role of the State in New Zealand where the suitability and affordability of housing as a policy issue will be explored. Finally, the impact of social policy and service provision on refugee integration outcomes will be highlighted while gaps in the literature will also be identified. Chapter three outlines the Participatory Research Design and multiple-data collection methods, the methodology used and the intended implementation process.

Chapters four and five present the research findings from the data analysis and discuss the implications of the research findings. Chapter six presents the conclusion, makes solution-focused recommendations and explains the limitations of the study and also specifies future housing research. Then the appendices and references are attached.

### **1.3 Research objectives**

The objective of the thesis is to understand the housing experiences of the Auckland Somali population and their impact on their resettlement process. The following are the five research objectives of this study:

- 1) To learn lessons from international literature on refugee housing experiences, and compare these with the same types of experiences in the Auckland context;
- 2) To find out accurate Somali population demographic information;
- 3) To examine how the barriers to accessing housing impact on the resettlement process and ascertain the Somali issues and their opinions on how to improve their integration outcomes;
- 4) To explore the suitability and affordability of housing as a key policy issue;
- 5) To make solution-focused recommendations to inform the development of housing policy, identify future research needs and to thereby enhance the delivery of resettlement services.

### **1.4 Justification for the research**

The study has a specific key contribution to make at both the theoretical and policy-making levels. It supplements academic knowledge by providing facts on the housing experiences of resettled refugees with particular attention being paid to Somali refugees. The rationale for focusing on the resettled Somali refugees is that their resettlement in New Zealand is a recent phenomenon. The Somali population have been described by several researchers as transients unlike other refugee groups (Guerin et al., 2003a; McCormack et al., 2003a; Schaid & Grossman, 2003; Jones, 2004). Information about Somalis in New Zealand is too limited, outdated, and generalised. The Somali population is in the relatively early stages of rebuilding their lives. Such rebuilding requires assistance from the State. The housing experiences of the Auckland Somali population and their resettlement patterns are important for this study.

I am a former refugee originally from the southern part of the Oromiya region in Ethiopia and now New Zealand citizen. I have over ten years professional work experience in providing leadership on community development including assisting refugee communities and service providers in New Zealand.

My involvement with the Auckland Somali community was through the resettlement service delivery work in the community sector in my capacity as the President of the African Community of Auckland Region Incorporated to improve settlement outcomes. In addition, during my role as the Refugee Health Liaison Officer for the Auckland Regional Public Health Service I closely developed working relationships and trust with the Auckland Somali community with a focus on a culturally and linguistically appropriate community capacity building initiatives. This relationship was based on engagement and passion for sustainable community development with increased awareness of their needs and participation at all level of decision-making process. As a result, a strong community leadership was achieved that resulted in the establishment of the Auckland Somali community Centre. This provided a base from where bilingual community education and health promotion services are developed and provided supported by cross-agency funding sources in Auckland. I also encouraged the Somali representation at a number of interagency settlement service planning, strategy development and national policy discussion forums.

My participation in the development of settlement strategies and policies at various levels in New Zealand has broadened my understanding of social policy. This motivated me to pursue social policy perspectives to advance the theory of refugees for their social, political and economic developments. Thus, it is important that the academic and social policy debate continues to be focused on these experiences.

On a social policy and service provision level, the study will benefit policy makers in identifying the scope to which ongoing support for resettled refugees is needed. The analysis of this study has linked the housing experiences of resettled refugees with a range of resettlement outcomes which will assist an understanding of which type of service is required.

In New Zealand, the key housing issues are broadly known to decision-makers and service providers. These institutions have a responsibility to ensure that fair and equitable services are provided to resettled refugees.

This study fills that gap by identifying specific and up to date information from resettled refugees on their housing experiences and effect of the resettlement process which will give better insight into ways of improving services and community integration.

The critical analysis provided by this study shows that there were strong correlations between the participants' housing experiences (that is the types of housing they inhabited) and their income. The empirical evidence suggests that housing has impacted on the participants' integration outcomes. Accordingly, a causal relationship exists between poor quality of housing, low level of English skills and educational attainment, unemployment and some negative health outcomes.

Overall, the participants' housing experiences demonstrated a fair level of satisfaction with their housing conditions in Auckland. Nonetheless, an overwhelming majority had housing - related problems. The significance of this study has some implications for the government, host community and academic institutions. In particular, the study challenges the Faculty of Applied Humanities School of Social Sciences AUT University to facilitate debate on refugee theory and social policy in New Zealand.

## **1.5 Context**

New Zealand provides a humanitarian based refugee resettlement program. International refugee resettlement continues to be crucial as some parts of the world lack political stability such as Iraq, Afghanistan, Sudan and Somalia. New Zealand is one of only nine countries that resettle United Nations convention refugees and their families through an annual quota programme. The New Zealand Government refugee policy operates within the Immigration Act of 1987.

In New Zealand, the Minister of Immigration, after Government consultation with the UNHCR and Non-Governmental Organizations, determines the annual 750 quota places.

This aspect of the New Zealand Government's humanitarian immigration policy plays an important role to fulfil its international obligations. The Government also sets priorities depending on the global refugee crises at the time. This determines which nationalities of refugees can be considered for resettlement in New Zealand. For example, refugees resettled in New Zealand from 1992-2005 come from Bosnia, Somalia, Sri Lanka, Ethiopia, Sudan, Afghanistan, Burma, Iran, Iraq, Eritrea, Burundi, Djibouti, Algeria and Zimbabwe (Department of Labour, 2005).

## **1.6 Definitions of Refugees**

There are three types of refugees in New Zealand: quota refugees, asylum seekers and family reunification refugees. The United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) Convention and Protocols Relating to the Status of Refugees define a convention refugee as

a person who owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group, or political opinion, is unable to or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country (UNHCR, 1996, 2002).

### **1.6.1 Quota refugees**

Quota refugees are people whom the UNHCR has mandated as refugees offshore. A proportion of the refugee quota places have been reserved for women at risk, disability or emergency cases. Such cases are often referred by UNHCR (Gray & Elliott, 2001). In addition, the Minister of Immigration may allocate up to 300 places for quota refugees' immediate family reunification needs (Dunstan et al., 2004). The quota refugees and their families approved to come to New Zealand through the resettlement process are granted permanent residence on arrival. Hence they are eligible for all services provided to New Zealand citizens including being prioritised for state housing once they leave the Department of Labour's Mangere Refugee Reception Centre (McDermott, 2003b; Dunstan et al., 2004). Quota refugees spend six weeks at the Refugee Reception Centre in Mangere, Auckland where they receive orientation to New Zealand and medical screening (McDermott, 2003b; Dunstan, et al., 2004).

The Refugee and Migrant Service - New Zealand's refugee resettlement agency - and Housing New Zealand Corporation (HNZC) assist with housing the 750 quota refugees around the country in Auckland, Hamilton, Wellington and Christchurch. However, approximately seventy percent of refugees resettle in the Auckland region (Solomon, 1997; Dunstan et al., 2004). Family reunification refugees rely on their sponsors for housing and other needs.

### **1.6.2 Asylum seekers**

An asylum seeker is an individual who often arrives in a country with no documentation and seeks asylum at the country's border. The asylum seeker's claim is subsequently assessed against criteria contained in the United Nations Convention 1951 and 1967 Protocols Relating to the Status of Refugees. In New Zealand asylum seekers sometimes apply when their entry permits expire. The Department of Labour's Refugee Status Branch in Auckland determines asylum claims for refugee status. If declined, the Refugee Appeals Authority may grant refugee status after independently reviewing the asylum claims.

Up to 1000 asylum seekers apply for refugee status in New Zealand annually and usually 200-500 may be granted refugee status (Dunstan et al., 2004 p, 6). Asylum seekers successful in gaining refugee status in New Zealand are referred to as 'Convention Refugees'. The Government's asylum policy is influenced by international trends such as terrorism. The flow of asylum seekers is seen as posing a threat to border security as they often arrive without documentation. This has consequences for asylum seekers - placing them in a vulnerable position in terms of access to basic services in New Zealand (National Asylum Seekers Forum May 22, 2005). Therefore, Asylum seekers have limited access to the public services which quota refugees are entitled to on arrival. However, most asylum seekers awaiting the outcome of their refugee status hearing are entitled to publicly funded public health screening and subsidized user pay primary health services in New Zealand (Ministry of Health, 2001). Asylum seekers are required to have permanent residence to qualify for state housing in New Zealand (HNZC, 2006).

### **1.6.3 Family reunification refugees**

The family reunification refugees are immediate or extended family members of resettled former quota refugees who are resident or citizens in New Zealand (Gray et al., 2001, p. 15). The issue of family sponsorship is sensitive and difficult to solve, if not impossible, for reasons including different culturally prescribed definitions of "family." Although a small number of immediate family members may be sponsored from their country of origin, the process and eligibility criteria involve financial cost, psychological impact and there is a long waiting process.

Resettled quota refugees may sponsor family members who would not qualify to gain residence under any other normal immigration category. They may apply for the Family Quota Programme. The Department of Labour's Immigration Workforce manages a prioritized selection process through a ballot system for the Family Quota category. After selection, the priority is assessed depending on whether the applicant has family in New Zealand. 300 such places per year are made available and the number is reviewed annually (Department of Labour, 2005). The family reunion refugees sponsored by former quota refugees may be granted permanent residence prior to their travel to New Zealand and will qualify for some services on arrival. However, they will have no priority for state housing as quota refugees do. Those family members who come under family reunion and sponsor their other immediate family members such as their spouse will have to support those families for up to two years. They will not qualify for Work and Income benefits, public health and state housing until they are granted permanent residence and may as a consequence face hardship (NGO, 2000, January 5).

## **1.7 Research questions**

There are five research questions that this research set out to answer. The first question is related to lessons that can be learned from international and New Zealand literature. What can be learnt from the literature?

The second question refers to the importance of having accurate resettled refugees' demographic information. What is the demographic profile of the Somali population in Auckland?

The third question is about the social barriers and lack of access to services preventing full participation in the economic, cultural and social development in the host society. What are the Somali issues and their experiences regarding how the barriers to accessing housing impact on the resettlement process in Auckland?

The fourth question is about the level of understanding of the resettling people's needs for integrated society at institutions, host community and Government levels. How does suitability and affordability of housing as a policy issue impact on the Somali population's resettlement process? The fifth question considers solution-focused recommendations for possible refugee - specific housing strategies and best practices that can be developed. What types of strategies and policies will improve the provision of housing and resettlement services? These questions will help discover new insights and it is important they are answered.

## **1.8 Background**

This section provides historical and contextual information regarding the international refugee resettlement process. Refugee resettlement is an international humanitarian instrument as outlined in the 1951 United Nations Convention and 1967 Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees (UNHCR, 1996, p. 16). Refugees are often forced to flee from their homes and countries of origin, in most cases due to extreme civil war and natural disasters (UNHCR, 2006). As the last option UNHCR considers mandated refugees for international resettlement process in a third country only (Chimni, 1999 May).

The most recent statistics on global refugees show a substantial decrease from over 22 million during the 1990's to almost 13.5 million in 2005. On the other hand, as estimated the number of internally displaced persons (IDPs) feature a significant increase from 17 to 18 million after September 11, 2001 (Weiss & Collins, 2000, p. 115). This number is likely to increase in light of the most recent wars in Iraq, the Darfur humanitarian crisis due to ethnic conflict in Sudan and similar situation in recent months has led to another war in Somalia.

Somalia is located on the east coast of Africa and shares borders with Ethiopia, Djibouti and Kenya (Temple & Moran, 2006). Somalia has history of colonization, wars, droughts, famine and is primarily dependent on a rural economy (Weiss & Collins, 2000, p. 89). Somalis have a distinctive culture and belong predominantly to the Sunni Muslim religion with mainly three languages: Somali, Arabic and Goshu (UNHCR, 2002; Lilly, 2004; Schaid & Grossman, 2003; Temple & Moran, 2006).

The enormity of civil unrest from 1991-1993 forced over 50,000 refugees to flee to Ethiopia and Kenya (Temple & Moran, 2006; UNHCR, 2001; Dunstan et al., 2004). Since 1991, a small number of the Somali population has resettled in New Zealand. However, there have been a few Somali families resettled in New Zealand since 1980 (Bihi, 1999).

The New Zealand's Census (2001) recorded a total of 1971 Somalis in New Zealand compared with the 2316 usually resident Somalis (Statistics New Zealand, 2006). The majority of Somalis have resettled in the Auckland region (Dunstan et al., 2004; Bell, 2005).

## **2. LITERATURE REVIEW**

---

### **2.0 Introduction**

This chapter sets out contents of the literature review, concepts that are relevant to housing and key resettlement concepts both from New Zealand and overseas regarding the crucial role housing plays in the resettlement process. Then, the impact of social policy on the suitability and affordability of housing as a policy issue will be reviewed. Following this, the effect of social policy and service provision on the resettled refugees' integration outcomes will be discussed. Finally the objectives and the research questions of this study will be related to the literature review and data to understand the Somali housing experiences and their impact on the resettlement process. The purpose of this literature review is therefore to discuss the studies, theories, and policies from the New Zealand and international, sociological and ethnographic literatures from which the research questions are conceptualized.

### **2.1 Concepts of housing**

Access to housing and shelter is a basic human necessity that must be made available to all members of society (Ministry of Health, 2002 citing United Nations, 1995; National Health Committee, 1998). Studies of a philosophical stance such as this influenced the explanation of the basic concepts related to housing and remain totally relevant. As well, the sociological interest in different countries where innovative researchers such as (Hulchanski, 1997; Foley and Beer, 2003; Cole & Robinson, 2003; Dunstan et al., 2004; Lilley, 2004) is also recognised.

In the resettlement process, however, adequate and affordable housing can be difficult to obtain. This places refugees in a vulnerable position. The chosen theme in this study is housing because housing is a priority and a key link for refugees to access other services. This will be emphasized by examining the impact of housing on the resettlement process.

Housing is at a premium for refugees on arrival into the host country as they have to first have a place to live. This can assist the resettlement process from where to register with English classes, income and work, educational opportunities and health services. Perry (2005) confirms the link between housing and settlement as demonstrated in his guide developed in Britain. His research was based on structured and individual discussions with refugees and housing associations informed by the established literature (p. 23). He asserts that a settled housing arrangement enables refugees to claim “an address from which to apply for benefits, training or a job, and establishes entitlement to school zoning” (Perry, 2005, p. 3). Perry’s guide notes that, however, as new settlers refugees may have to compete for services with citizens who have already established resources. Therefore, in the resettlement process, refugees should not be viewed as a burden. Instead they require assistance from the host society to integrate into the community where they can feel safe to participate and contribute. Thus, housing has a broader role in the refugees’ resettlement process. Without housing, refugees will not be able to settle and the lack of such a basic need being met will have a major impact on the resettlement process.

The present study looks at housing in the context of the resettlement process from the sociological and ethnographic literature. It recognizes the interconnectedness between housing, access to English language classes, and educational opportunities. These are critical both to the economic and social aspects of integration to enable refugees to participate in the workforce. Accordingly, on achieving these life goals, refugees would be able to afford suitable housing and improve integration outcomes.

The European Council on Refugees and Exiles (ECRE) (1999) is a Pan European Umbrella organization that oversees the protection of and support for asylum seekers and refugees in Europe. The ECRE has developed a Taskforce on Integration and it defines a home as “a place of safety, security and stability” that refugees lost possession of when they left their country of origin (ECRE, p. 5).

The ECRE Taskforce on housing further emphasizes that shelter plays a fundamental role in fulfilling human needs. This taskforce used a qualitative methodology and interviewed a total of 144 refugees (Temple and Moran, 2006, pp. 22 - 26).

Some researchers illustrate the combination of political stance, immigration and resettlement policies as impacting on refugees' social and material resources and integration experiences (van der Veer, 1992, Renaud & Gingras, 1998; Kissoon, 2006, cited in Temple & Moran, 2006, p. 75).

Kissoon (2006) uses a qualitative approach with in-depth semi-structured interviews. Consequently, he cites more sources maintaining that such impacting factors have major consequences that can directly affect refugees' ability to the rebuilding of "home and belonging" in the country of resettlement (Black, 1994, 2002; Bloch, 2002; Korac, 2003). Hence, many scholars strongly agree that early and permanent housing experiences enable security, independence and provide practical or functional and social integration (Zetter & Pearl, 1999; Carey-Wood, 1997; Murdie & Teixeira, 2000; Garvie, 2001; Foley and Beer, 2003; Perry, 2005; Temple & Moran, 2006, p. 75).

There is enough evidence to suggest the impact of systematic barriers to adequate housing for asylum-seekers and refugees. For example, similarities exist between New Zealand, Britain and many other refugee resettling countries (Quilgars, 1993; Pearl and Zetter, 2002, Anderson, 2003).

Innovative research by Temple and Moran (2006) demonstrates that 'social integration' and 'functional integration' are the concepts used in the development of socioeconomic and instrumental indicators (p. 75). Several studies suggest that functional integration can be predictably measured through "language proficiency, labour market participation, civic and political participation, educational performance, and accommodation in adequate housing" (Home Office, 2000; Ray, 2002; Temple & Moran, 2006).

Korac (2002) states that social integration can be measured conditionally regarding identity, belonging, the quality and strength of social acquaintances. In addition, it is argued that integration programs and strategies must be informed by principles of involving, enabling and empowering refugees to meet their tangible, material and fundamental needs (Home Office, 2000; Ray, 2002; Temple & Moran, 2006). It can be said that 'fundamental needs' comprise dignity, security, social connectedness and identity (Stenström, 2003, p. 30). Moreover, these factors not only increase the functional integration but they are vital to human well-being and the significance of home which is central to the present study. Home is a place of safety, protection from danger, privacy and offers self determination and sanctity (Goldberg, 1993, 1999; ECRE, 1999; Dunn, 2002). Hence people are "emotionally involved with their homes just as they are with their families and friends" (Dunn, 2002; Temple & Moran, 2006, p. 76).

In the same way - be it refugees or citizens - when their need for a home is met they construct the most persistent bond viable "for human society" (Mumford, 1961, p. 287). This meaning of home, thus, is necessary in a healthy society. Home is linked with the future of nations to aid identity from the disparate inhabitants free to live in a country where they can be its citizens (Dummett, 2001, p. 21). Dummett's definition of home is quite relevant to refugee situations as they seek residence and citizenship to freely live in a country that provides a home and safety.

Dunn (2002) presents three underlying conceptual functions of housing which have the potential to influence "health throughout the life-course" (p. 21). Dunn's study clearly demonstrates the broader link of housing with other factors. These include: materiality of housing, the significance of housing, and the location of housing. Dunn's study uses a conceptual framework as a method to study housing from a policy perspective in Canada. Dunn's conceptual framework innovatively illustrates the role of housing which perceptibly serves as a basic material resource which has a direct influence on individual health.

Hence, Dunn (2002) effectively describes that in most cases housing is designed to provide a practically restricted “environment concerning light, temperature, ventilation, and sanitation, storage, kitchen, sleeping” and to fulfil fundamental personal requirements and functions (Dunn, 2002, p. 21). As Dunn’s study demonstrates, the significances of housing define a house as a place of refuge and are one of the few places where households can have legitimate social and legal absolute control. He further emphasises that a person’s home is the key foundation of “prestige, status, pride and a space” for the expression of self-identity (ibid, p. 19). The home is locally fixed and can impact access to other essential services and it is also one of vital material resources that give satisfaction to human needs (ibid, p. 20).

In view of Dunn’s study, it is fair to assume that many people’s wishes, aspirations, and thoughts are to have better quality houses and homes. That is why in most cases people who own their homes are emotionally and psychologically attached to their homes which is linked to positive health outcomes in general (Dunn, 2002, p. 20). In summary, the psychological impacts of home have enduring effect on refugees as they have often lost possessions of their properties during their flight. Dunn’s concepts of housing is vitally important to this study that seeks to link the broader contribution housing makes to the economic, social and well-being of resettled refugees.

Refugee related research in Canada demonstrates the barriers to housing on the basis of three key settlement aspects: access to housing, house as home and social living and house and community (Murdie, Cambon, Hulchanski and Teixeira, 2002). Murdie et al.’s study used a combination of workshop and survey methods of data collection. The location aspect of housing is a key link for refugees to access services. An example of the broader contribution of the location focused dimension of the housing refers to space of the home and its environment. This relates to services and amenities such as school, public recreation, shops, health and social services as well as access to employment opportunities (Dunn, 2002, p. 21, Murdie et al., 2002; Jupp, 1994; Foley & Beer, 2003; Carey-Wood, 1997; Perry, 2005).

Jupp's (1994) Australian study covers a wide range of settlement areas such as employment, housing, mental health, and language, information, advocacy and overall key settlement policy issues. Jupp's study emphasises the actual and potential resourcefulness and creative ideas of refugees. While he strongly advocates for an inclusive settlement policy for refugees in Australia, he dedicates the key methodological concern to an explanation of the use of terms 'refugee' and humanitarian as visa categories not social constructs in the Australian context. However, there is no specific mention of how the data was collected.

Foley and Beer (2003) elaborate that gaining access to affordable and settled housing enables refugees to enjoy "privacy, space and safety" and make links to employment (p. 9). These researchers refer to housing situations as 'housing careers' and use a structured interview and questionnaire consisting of closed and open questions with a snowballing approach to the requirements of participants in Adelaide, Brisbane and Perth in Australia. They argue that market and non-market barriers to housing such as discrimination, a lack of secure employment, past history of the individual refugees and immigration status can negatively influence resettlement outcomes (ibid, p. 5).

Foley and Beer's study findings show that the refugees' "ethnicity, nationality and visa category" impact on the groups' employment opportunities. These authors claim that these difficulties are further exacerbated by "language, low income, finding accommodation, a lack of familiarity with Australian society and paying bond or rent in advance" (ibid, pp. 18-19). In addition housing problems that the authors identify include: "high housing costs, overcrowding, too small bedrooms, poor housing conditions, a lack of privacy and isolation from friend and family" (Foley and Beer, pp. 25-26). Moreover, these authors acknowledge that for diverse refugee groups, the situation of housing may be determined by individual social, cultural, environmental and political contexts.

Carey-Wood (1997) observes that housing initiatives in Britain were informed by the concepts of housing as a material resource. Carey-Wood's study involves three methods: analysis of secondary published information, interviews with key individuals in government, voluntary and community organisations and case studies of selected initiatives.

The vast majority of refugees resettled in a third country such as New Zealand lack the financial resources to invest in quality housing, healthcare, education and other resettlement needs, which for the initial stages of rebuilding their lives, requires the support of the State in the resettlement country. In this regard, access to adequate housing is a critical factor for successful refugee resettlement. Therefore, housing provides a base foundation to successful resettlement from where refugees can reconstruct their lives and create new opportunities such as education, employment and health. This an important link which recognises the crucial role housing plays. On the other hand, the quality of housing, in terms of physical conditions and location in a neighbourhood are influenced by the level of overcrowding, and the cost of housing which can have direct effect on health outcomes (National Health Committee 1998, p. 30). The relevant part of this perspective is the meaning of "home" which can also sway refugees' appraisal of the quality of dwelling. In summary, there is a wider agreement in the literature on concepts of housing as a home and a place and space where a range of activities take place. The sociological aspects of home strengthen the objectives of this study and provide lessons that can be similarly applicable in New Zealand context.

## **2.2 Key resettlement concepts**

This section explores key resettlement concepts comparing New Zealand and international sociological and ethnographic literatures. The existing definitions of resettlement in New Zealand have some similarities with those from an international perspective. The resettlement process is the key to refugees arriving in a new country and their chances achieving multifaceted, satisfactory participation in the economic, social and cultural aspects of the society (Gray and Elliot, 2001).

The key resettlement concepts in New Zealand are the early adaptation and adjustment at the individual level for refugees. The characteristics of resettlement process can be conceptualized in a varying of ways: acculturation, biculturalism, multiculturalism, assimilation, integration, segregation and settlement (Gray et al., 2001, p. 20). These authors suggest however, there is no resettlement definition agreed upon in the literature due to the lack of a time frame as to when the resettlement process is completed. Nevertheless, the literature indicates that there is enough agreement on the utility of resettlement concepts in practice although there is no single approach to solving the resettlement challenges.

Integration can be defined as mutual and a give-and-take process projecting long-term but requiring practical actions from both the resettling people and the host society (Dunstan et al., 2004; Spoonley, et al., 2005). The necessary changes that need to be undertaken by the refugees will include learning and adapting to a new set of institutions, a new culture, and a new social environment. By comparison, ECRE (1999) considers integration as “a dynamic and two-way reciprocal process, both long-term and multi-dimensional” (p. 4). By a dynamic and two-way reciprocal process, the ECRE Council means the early first few years of adaptation and adjustment of the resettlement process. This adaptation process places demands both on the receiving societies and the resettling peoples to embrace change. From the Council’s perspective, long-term refers to the time taken by new comers to fully and equally participate at all levels of society. The multi-dimensional aspects of the ECRE Council’s perspective relates to “the conditions essential for refugees to equally play an important role in all aspects of economic, social, cultural, civil and political dimensions of the host country” (ECRE, 1999, p. 4).

The Canadian Council for Refugees (CCR) (1998) describes resettlement generally as acclimatization during the early few years of the adaptation and adjustment. The CCR echoes the notion of settlement and integration as “a two-way reciprocal process, complex, long-term both process and goal oriented phenomenon depending on the individual’s preferred path” (ECRE, 1999, p. 7).

Valtonen (1999) makes a distinction between assimilation and integration. He defines 'assimilation' as a process in which the new group "melts" into the ascendant society, while 'integration' refers to the circumstances in which the group interacts with the host society while maintaining their own identity (Valtonen, 1999 in Gray et al., 2001, p. 20). The term 'biculturalism' is defined as "an acculturative strategy where immigrants learn and adopt some aspects of the new culture" (Adkins, Birman & Sample, 1998, p. 6). In the resettlement process newcomers should be encouraged to retain their cultural identity - such as language, values and ways of life. Such a concept can be more effective if both the resettling people and the host society are able to make appropriate changes to facilitate the acculturative process.

The researcher's insider ethnic perspective is that integration is a give-and-take approach, where refugees must adjust to the new environment to survive at their early stage of settlement while simultaneously contributing to the host community. Adaptation can be advanced when individual refugee needs are met and a sense of belonging to the new society is gained (Bihi, 1999). Bihi suggests integration must engage in three simultaneous processes: restoration which implies the revival of livelihoods, health, rebuilding of family and fulfilment of primary needs. Such an effort requires taking positive steps to accelerate the process of adaptation and enhance life goals (Bihi, 1999, p. 12). As well, the host society should make necessary changes in terms of policies and service provisions and thus give resettling people the opportunity to learn its culture, laws, institutional practices and processes. In the attempt to improve resettlement provision, the New Zealand Settlement Strategy provides support 'for migrants, refugees and their families' (Dunstan et al., 2004, p. 20).

Other studies provide open-ended definitions of settlement claiming that defining settlement is a challenge and requires consideration of the 'open-endedness' and variability of resettlement as a process (Fletcher, 1999). Although ECRE's (1999) definition is divided into three aspects, this study adopts only the first aspect of integration as 'a two way reciprocal process'.

The reason for adapting the first aspect of the ECRE (1999) definition of integration is that the second and third aspects are less relevant to answering the research question. The second aspect of integration as a long-term process begins when the refugee enters the receiving society and ends when the refugee is able to actively participate economically, socially and politically in the receiving society. The second aspect does not measure the actual timeframe required to achieve the set of integration goals. Thus, the second aspect has less relevance to this study which examines a displaced population that has entered New Zealand over a relatively short period of time. The third aspect of the definition of integration is the multi-dimensional nature of resettlement which encapsulates the conditions necessary for contributions to all the dimensions of the receiving society. This also has limited utility in this study because, as the literature suggests, housing is the key resettlement provision which provides the link to accessing other services.

The first aspect of the ECRE Council's definition therefore has the most utility in this study because a focus on the dynamic two-way reciprocal process of resettlement provides a conceptual foundation which explores the changes experienced by both the resettling people and receiving society. While the resettling people are expected to learn the new culture, it is equally important that they are encouraged to maintain their own cultural identity. Such a process requires a new level of awareness from both groups. This will inform adaptation, tolerance and respect for each other's cultural heritages and the sharing of the new skills essential to the pursuit of economic, environmental and social goals.

In sum, the key resettlement concepts provide a precise analysis not found in an open-ended definition of integration. The long-term focus of integration emphasises an optimal settlement outcomes (see Dunstan et al., 2004 for Refugee Voices Research, 2004, New Zealand Settlement Strategy, 2005; Auckland Regional Settlement Strategy, 2007).

## **2.3 A conceptual framework**

### **2.3.1 Introduction**

This section introduces the conceptual framework which informs the investigation of the factors that impact on the resettlement process. The challenge for this study, however, has been to create a conceptual framework which can guide the content of the literature review. The conceptual framework developed in this study is informed by an innovative researcher Hulchanski (1997) who identified the barriers to equal access for housing opportunities in Toronto. He devised a theoretical framework to find out whether the primary barriers and secondary barriers had a negative effect on equal access. His framework uses levels of analysis such as the macro/societal level or the nature of institutional arrangements, the group level and the household level. This conceptual frame is relevant and provides useful lessons to this study.

The issue of societal barriers to integration is conceptually two-fold both at the individual - household and societal levels depending on how the host society responds to ethnic minorities of diverse origins and needs (Miraftab, 2000). The societal level of analysis refers to the “spatial dimension” used to describe the inappropriateness of the housing stock and design for the household as a space to live in (Miraftab, 2000, p. 4). The “cultural dimension” characterises the impact on both social housing and private housing sectors regarding culturally specific issues (Miraftab, 2000, p. 4).

In the present study ‘housing experiences’ is a term used to portray the techniques that households apply to their changing housing needs and aspirations over time (Hulchanski, 1997, p. 7). Housing experiences therefore include how refugees achieve their housing preferences and how this is shaped by their level of income, type of employment and education (Foley & Beer, 2003). The notion of differential access refers to the assumption that several groups of new arrivals in New Zealand may encounter numerous aspects of disadvantage.

The aspects of refugee housing experiences identified in the international literature and the conceptual framework developed by Hulchanski, 1997 and Miraftab, 2000 provide useful lessons relevant to this literature review.

A study in New Zealand asserts that immigrants make economic, social and cultural contributions to their new country. In this regard, Watts, White and Trlin (2004) found “an overwhelming majority of participants 152 out of 159 (95.6 percent)” believed that immigrants’ cultural capital had contributed positively to New Zealand (p. 10). As well, the influence of immigrant cultural contribution is emphasised in Europe (see Zlobina, Basabe, Paez, and Furnham, 2005). Watts et al. (2004) used a mail questionnaire survey and followed up interviews with heads of teaching units in educational institutions in New Zealand. Watts et al. effectively analysed their findings by taking a sociological approach similar to Hulchanski’s (1997) study. Watts et al.’s (2004) framework is also quite important as it is a New Zealand perspective. Therefore, the present study is well informed by these three innovative theoretical paradigms. Hence, this study takes a sociological and ethnographic conceptual framework for scrutiny using three level of analysis: Micro level: Somali households, Group level: Somali community, and Macro and Societal level: institutions, the host community and government. These levels of analysis are related to the literature review and the same framework will be used for the data analysis.

### **2.3.2 The institutional structures**

In this section institutional structures are examined to understand their impact on the resettlement process. In order for successful integration to occur certain social policies and services must be improved for refugees at the institutional level. The identification of barriers to successful resettlement is the pre-requisite to devising appropriate strategies and allocation of resources to improve the provision of resettlement services. In turn, identified barriers helps to illustrate how the differing institutional barriers to resettlement impact on refugees accessing adequate housing and other settlement services based on the lessons learned from international literature. For example, Hulchanski’s (1997) comparative analysis identifies a different set of institutional structures in different countries.

While the degree of societal and institutional structures varies from country to country there are commonalities in terms of how services are provided and the barriers that have been encountered. For instance, in many ways Australia, Britain, Canada, the Netherlands and New Zealand have similar structures. The United Kingdom (UK) has 20 percent of its national housing stock in the social rented sector and has a universal shelter allowance (the housing benefit). The Netherlands has the largest (at 40 percent) proportion of its national housing stock in the social rented sector though the allowance is not as large as the UK housing benefit (Hulchanski 1997, p. 4). Australia has 14.5 percent of its national housing stock in the social rented sector (Australian National Housing Strategy, 1999). New Zealand has the least social rented housing sector - 6 percent of the national housing stock (Jameson & Nana, 2004, p. 19). It has the Accommodation Supplement and means - tested subsidy for qualifying low-income households that then pay no more than 25 percent of their income on rents (Cullen, 2005; HNZC, 2006).

#### **2.4 The resettlement process**

This section examines the impact of resettlement on refugees by finding out the detail of their experiences of the refugee resettlement and adaptation process. The resettlement process is classified as a macro level analysis for the purpose of specifically examining the resettlement process from the perspective of an integrated society.

The challenge, however, is to identify practices and procedures which support the smooth transition of the resettlement process at the spatial and social dimension levels. The newcomers in succession should be willing to learn, adapt and adjust to their new host society's cultural norms and institutional settings in order to fully participate and contribute to their new country. The resettlement process, therefore, is a journey where resettling people move through certain stages of adaptation, settlement, integration and reach the final stage of celebrating diverse cultural identity and multiculturalism as the desired outcome (Gray et al., 2001; Watts et al., 2004).

Multiculturalism is when the resettling group and the host society have fully embraced the changes required as part of the reciprocal process of integration. The resettlement pressures are influenced by time, social conditions and personal factors that determine the speed required for the integration of each individual. This is particularly so for resettling people during the early stages of their resettlement process as they have very limited knowledge about the new society. Such a lack of knowledge impacts on newcomers' ability to make informed choices (Hulchanski, 1997; ECRE, 1999).

The present study stresses the importance of setting an achievable timeframe for the resettlement process to achieve long-term integration outcomes both for the individual and the host society. Some scholars agree with the importance of setting a timeframe for effective integration as a policy goal (Spoonley et al., 2005, p. 98; Gray et al., 2001 cite Liev and Kezo, 1998). For example, the process of integration for some established Cambodian, Lao and Vietnamese communities tend to lean "towards an ethnic bias" (Liev and Kezo, 1998, p. 23). These communities had been reliant on each style of ethnic identity with varying degrees of desire to maintain their own cultural heritage on the one hand and achieve integration with the host culture on the other hand. The authors also question the potential for integration of the Middle East and African refugee communities, perhaps motivated by the only relatively recent resettlement of these particular groups in New Zealand.

By comparison, the Cambodian, Lao and Vietnamese resettled in New Zealand have been more established than the Middle East and African communities. Both of these groups have some similarities in their resettlement experiences, in the area of language barriers, racial tensions, cultural, and socioeconomic disparities from the host communities.

However, the Middle East and African refugee groups faced more discrimination (Guerin et al., 2003; Dunstan et al., 2004) because they differ from the host culture in terms of language and religious practices which further makes integration more difficult in the host community.

The larger population and their hard work fuelled their attitudes of ethnic bias. The Middle East and African group's relatively shorter length of time in New Zealand compared with the south Asian communities impacted on their speed of integration. Despite the resettlement challenges, the latter groups have shown integration into the host community while maintaining their ethnic identity (Dunstan, et al., 2004).

It is worthwhile to note that compensating for the social injustices caused by involuntary migration is "imperative" to empower disadvantaged refugee groups with the equitable distribution of resources on both economic and moral grounds (Cernea, 1995, p. 13). This implies that economic and psychological recovery must occur if successful resettlement is to be achieved. Of course, the refugees' circumstances place them at risk and in a vulnerable position in the housing markets as they encounter enormous integration barriers in their new resettlement countries.

McCready (1997) uses a fascinating metaphor of an ecological model that illustrates the cognitive reflection on individuals that move to a new country. This ecological model is applicable to refugee experiences as they move through different and demanding unfamiliar new environments (in Davies et al. no date, p. 5).

The challenges of the resettlement process can be mitigated once the impacting factors are identified. The ecological model implies that the receiving societies facilitate the resettlement process in a welcoming environment at the institutional and societal levels to support service provision to refugees.

## **2.5 Analysis of housing experiences**

This section compares the housing experiences of resettled refugees from Australia, Canada, Britain, New Zealand, the Netherlands, Europe and United States of America.

In New Zealand, the most significant in-depth research was undertaken in the Department of Labour's (2004) "Refugee Voices" which identified a series of refugees' resettlement experiences involving pre and post arrival information about New Zealand such as, "housing, getting help, family reunification, health, education, labour force, social networks, discrimination, cultural integration and settling in New Zealand" (Dunstan et al., 2004, p. 4). The "Refugee Voices" study used face-to-face interviews in the refugees' own languages with the help of trained bilingual research assistants from refugee communities. A total of 398 participants were surveyed in Auckland, Hamilton, Wellington and Christchurch. The findings from this research claim that in comparison with family reunification and asylum seekers, quota refugees had gained more access to housing assistance than these groups. However, the "Refugee Voices" research claims that more quota refugees had been dissatisfied with housing compared with other refugee categories (Dunstan et al. 2004, p. 6).

As the refugees' resettlement time in the host society lengthens, resettled refugees make progress in their housing situations. Housing progress as a 'housing career' is characterized as – "the sequence of dwellings that a household occupies" during its life course (Van Kempen and Ozuekren, 2002, p. 5). These authors have emphasized that the attitudes of host communities can lead to marginalization in the housing market. In the Netherlands context 'ethnic differentiation' and 'spatial separation' were evident and these practices create inequalities between nationals and minority ethnic groups when seeking adequate housing (p. 5).

Foley and Beer (2003) present a convincing argument concerning the limited utility of the concept of a "housing career". More specifically these authors clarify the weakness of the aspects of a 'housing careers' that assumes ethnic minority or nationals' housing moves would lead to housing progression (p. 6).

For practical purposes, a broader definition of a 'housing career' is required which does not primarily concern the fulfilment of housing preferences (Foley & Beer, 2003).

Instead it includes factors which determine how refugees fulfil their housing preferences (Foley and Beer, 2003; Clark et al., 2003).

The literature identifies key factors that impact on housing preferences as level of income, type of employment, education, ability to access political and institutional processes, and experiences using housing services, while making similar progression in household composition and employment (Foley & Beer, 2003; Clark et al., 2003). In this instance, Foley and Beer's study has more utility as it provides a broader definition of housing experiences that includes:

a succession of physical dwellings, demographic relationships (single person, family with children, couple living alone), tenure and financial correlations a household takes through the life-course. These factors involve changing patterns of housing consumption and the set of relationships including financial, social, economic and cultural that involves each model of consumption (Foley et al., 2003, p. 5).

These studies agree that a close association exists between the type of 'housing career' and a household's income and income growth (Foley and Beer, 2003, Clark et al., 2003). Indeed this thesis prefers the concept of housing experiences rather than 'housing careers' for the reasons identified by Foley and Beer (2003). A number of international studies adopt the concept of housing experiences as well (Cole & Robinson, 2003, Murdie et al., 2002).

The fact refugees have limited housing options available to them on arrival means that theirs is not a chosen housing career. Instead it is an experience of frequent moves from temporary accommodation to private rental sector and then a move into home purchase only in the long-term (Foley & Beer, 2003). By comparison, refugees in New Zealand pass through similar housing experiences but differ in terms of home purchase as this is not planned at least in the short to medium - term due to a lack of financial resources.

Researchers in Britain Bowes, Dar and Sim (2002) came to a similar conclusion in the case of Pakistanis' housing careers in Britain that showed more variations than other immigrants (Foley and Beer, 2003, p. 6).

A similarity in housing career experiences were evident in the Canadian context where Polish immigrants were more advanced in their progressive housing careers compared to the Somali immigrants, although both had a relatively similar length of time in Canada (Murdie and Teixeira, 2002, p. 7).

The Canadian researchers have also linked the issue of immigrants' "gender, skin colour, cultural and religious practices which were categorized as primary barriers" (Hulchanski, 1998, p. 1). Whilst other barriers, such as "level and source of income, knowledge of the housing system, language abilities, household type and size were also seen as secondary barriers" (Murdie, Chambon, Hulchanski & Teixeira, 1995; Hulchanski, 1997, p. 1). Beside income as the main factor, two major factors dominated the findings and discussions, in the Canadian experience and they were "language and race" (Murdie et al., 1995; Hulchanski, 1997, p. 1). Language was important for the Polish and to a lesser extent the Somalis while 'race' was significant for the Jamaicans and the Somalis due to the primary barriers such as their skin colour as reported in these studies (Murdie et al., 1995; 2002). The same experiences have been recorded in New Zealand with Somali refugees (Guerin et al., 2003; Lilley, 2004).

A website (<http://collections.ic.gc.ca/somalia/history.html>), in Canada's 'Somali Settlement Experiences' provides useful materials specific to Somali refugees. It claims that in Canada Somali refugees have experienced "unemployment, discrimination, lack of access to housing, a long immigration process and separation from families" (author and date, page number not known). The difference between housing in Canada and Somalia has been explored in this Canadian housing literature, which is an important contrast that has some relevance to housing studies in New Zealand. This website describes how the Somalis had lived in houses and some lived in small houses depending on their socio-economic status in Somalia. This electronic resource further confirms that the majority of people in Somalia owned their own homes and few people lived in rented houses.

In terms of rental housing in Canada, the above electronic resource suggests that Somalis rent as opposed to own houses and mostly lived in apartments in Canada. Therefore, both the experiences described in the Canadian and New Zealand literature validate that there are not enough large homes available to accommodate the larger families of refugees, particularly Somalis. As a consequence, the resulting outcome has often been overcrowding as the literature indicates (Abdullahi, 2001; Liev, 1996).

In Britain, housing was seen as an important component of cultural identity in the Somali cultural context and it was preferred that the housing layout should embrace cultural values and social norms (Ozaki, 2002, p. 1; Cole & Robinson, 2003). Ozaki's study (2002) uses a comparative research method which he believes was a useful method to examine the different cultures (Ozaki, 2002, p. 2).

Somalis in Britain often encountered discrimination and lack of equitable provision of services. The Somali housing experiences in Britain were described as clustered in certain inner-city neighbourhoods with deprivation and poor quality housing. Consequently, Somalis faced barriers accessing education and training aggravated by a lack of knowledge of support services, a high incidence of mental health and physical health issues resulting from inadequate and inappropriate accommodation (Cole & Robinson, 2003).

Several sources agree that access to housing was limited by resettled refugees' lack of understanding of the institutional structures in their new countries. This is further complicated by differential access in the housing markets as observed in Australia, Canada and New Zealand (Foley and Beer, 2003; Murdie et al., 2002; Lilly, 2004, p. 11).

In the European context for example, negative perceptions in the host societies contributed to political xenophobia where certain segments of the receiving society view refugees as competing for limited resources such as work and income and housing (Valtonen, 1999; McSpadden, 1999).

As a result, a study claims negative attitudes of refugees receiving countries impact on resettled refugees' feelings of safety in neighbourhoods which often affected the choices of where they settled (Mateman, 1999).

Consequently, resettled refugees often form cultural and social networks to overcome the resettlement barriers and seek improved resettlement outcomes (Jenkinson, 2000). As a result, revitalizing cultural identity was seen as a survival strategy in the resettlement process (Nam & Ward, 2006, p. 5). Lilley's (2004) study of the Somali group in Christchurch, New Zealand came to similar conclusions.

In contrast, a study in the United States of America observes the ancient Somali tradition of Sahan that is a nomadic herdsmen custom to explore the arid plains of Somalia when fresh water and green pastures for their herds was required (Jones, 2004). Jones's study provides an explanation of why in 2003 hundreds of Somalis in the United States of America began Sahan or searched for a better life from Atlanta to the sleepy and frozen former mill town of Lewiston, Maine. Jones's study noted how "the violent, drug-ridden and consumer culture may have proven too much for the Somalis who are Muslim with strong cultural identity and tight-knit families" (Jones, 2004, p. 5). In Jones study methods of research was not mentioned.

The nomadic tradition of the Somali population has continued with the exploring of locations for better life as observed in New Zealand as well. The Somali population housing habits in New Zealand have been described as "mobile or transient and they move house on average two times a year" (Guerin et al, 2003a; McCormack et al., 2003a, p. 14). Nonetheless, Somali households move so often due to lack of access to adequate housing in the rental housing market. It is possibly a Somali tradition as the most nomadic and transient could make them more mobile than others in the rental housing market (McCormack et al., 2003a, p. 14). The Somali population may also prefer to live in close family neighbourhoods, to gain access to larger houses from the State housing provider.

Furthermore, these authors maintain that searching for affordable accommodation and better employment opportunity elsewhere in New Zealand motivates Somalis to move (McCormack et al., 2003a). However, the New Zealand literature's description of the Somali population's exploration as 'transient' lacks a conceptual framework to explain what the Somali tradition entails. The housing markets are yet to make necessary changes at their institutional levels to respond to a reciprocal process of resettlement in New Zealand.

The present study identifies the Somali 'transient' as a 'terminological gap' in the New Zealand literature based on the lessons learned from the experiences of the Somali population in the United States that use 'Sahan' as their cultural norm which was a new term in New Zealand literature. Then again, this was not a new concept to the Somalis in New Zealand as they have shown similar search habits for better prospects. In summary, the literature confirms that the differential access to services have been influenced by racial background, household compositions and socioeconomic status. These barriers have been compounded by host language barriers in different refugee receiving countries, distinctive individual circumstances and lack of familiarity with societal systems. It is critical to develop appropriate strategies to address resettled refugees' housing and other resettlement services at their first localities of resettlement.

## **2.6 Social policy and the role of the State**

This section discusses social policy implications and the role of the State in the housing sector. While, social democrats advocate for a humanitarian right based solution to individual problems, in practice this theory will not often translate into real world situations. The social democrats manifest that "each individual must have equal, formal civil and political rights" (Cheyne, O'Brien and Belgrave (2000, p. 72).

The social democrats' political philosophy further asserts that each individual ought to have equal opportunity which the state owes to provide welfare services to address the needs of those "unable to afford" (Cheyne et al., p. 72).

The development of an inclusive social policy in the twenty first century is crucial from a refugee integration perspective.

In New Zealand, social policy is defined as activities that influence the well-being of citizens through determining the allocation of resources and access to goods and services (Cheyne et al., 2000). Cheyne et al. emphasise that state intervention and the free market are implicated with some groups and individuals benefiting more on one hand, while others will be marginalized in such a process on the other hand (p. 3). For the reasons mentioned above, the social policy literature implies such a process is at the centre of social exclusion creating inequalities. Inequalities and social exclusion are defined as:

Inequality constitutes a key overarching structural dynamic which can operate at interpersonal, local or regional, national and international levels in a wide variety of socio-economic, political and cultural spheres; social exclusion is a consequent process though not a necessary one, linked to inequality; whereas poverty is a state or condition, but again not a necessary one, linked to both inequality and social exclusion (Cheyne et al., 2000, p. 165; Williams, 1998, p. 13).

Inequality indicates the whole variety of income distribution that may be “the product of wealth creation” (Cheyne et al., 2000, p. 166). Cheyne et al. define poverty as dispossession and lack of access to an equitable distribution of material resources in a society. The complete absence of access to resources for example is referred to as “absolute poverty”, while “the relative poverty” is marginalization with some sort of access to material resources on the other hand (Cheyne et al., 2000, p. 72). In sum, the social policy paradigm strengthens the present study as it demonstrates the broader housing link to social and economic policies in New Zealand which is relevant to refugees.

### **2.6.1 Affordability of housing as a policy issue**

In this section affordability of housing as a key policy issue will be examined. At the national level, the state housing reforms policy and legislation framework pursued by the National Government over the decade of the 1990s has had major impacts on state housing tenants in New Zealand.

The state housing sector had seen the National Government's sweeping housing policies that led to the full market rents framework applied in 1991 and aimed to reduce the state intervention in housing provision. The Accommodation Supplement that the National Government pursued was the social policy type that has been blamed for its negative outcomes for tenants in state housing. This was particularly so as it has increased the proportion of these tenants income paid in rent. As well, this policy was identified as benefiting some tenants' in the private rental market and ensuring private landlords' financial advantages (Cheyne et al., 2000, p. 4). For refugees the Accommodation Supplement could be more difficult to access due to a lack of information.

In contrast, the Labour led government elected in 1999 enacted a legislative framework that reintroduced in 2000 the income-related rents which ensured the expansion of housing stock. This affordability of housing policy enables state households to pay no more than 25% of their total income in rent (HNZC, 2002). This affordability of housing has been emphasized as a policy issue and implies a state role in the market through the political process intervention into housing that increases provisions for state housing. Thus, suitable and affordable housing has a major impact on health and well-being of families and the wider community (Yeabsley & Duncan, 2004, p. 4). In sum, accessing housing that ensures that social and economic benefits are achieved is crucial. Therefore, suitability and affordability of housing is important to the resettled refugee households to participate in the host society particularly and it is generally so for all residents.

### **2.6.2 Housing New Zealand Corporation**

This section looks at the role of HNZC and its functions particularly in housing provision. The Housing New Zealand Corporation is a Crown entity established in 2001 and amended from the Housing Act 1974 as part of the Labour led Government's Housing sector restructuring (HNZC, 2002, p. 3). The enacted legislation framework sets out key objectives for HNZC that the government expects the corporation to carry out on its behalf.

The HNZC is the major provider of rental housing in New Zealand. One of the HNZC's functions is provision of housing through a social allocation system, especially to those who are in low-income brackets. Quota refugees whom the government has sponsored are among those on the highest priorities (HNZC, 2006; McCormack et al., 2003a, p. 29-30).

### **2.6.3 New Zealand Housing Strategy**

In this section the role of the New Zealand Housing Strategy will be summarised and examined. The New Zealand Housing Strategy (2005) sets the strategic direction of housing policy. The HNZC Strategy recognizes the inadequacy of its existing "housing stocks and the housing demand exceeding supply" (HNZC, 2006, p. 2). This housing strategy indicates its priorities were to "improve access to affordable and sustainable housing, home ownership, improve housing quality, develop the private rental sector, and meet diverse needs" (HNZC, 2005, p. 3).

The New Zealand Housing Strategy further recognizes the housing needs of ethnic groups' that are not being met by the housing market in New Zealand. For instance, it addresses the difficulties experienced by "large and extended families finding suitable and quality houses" (HNZC, 2005, p. 50). This implies the suitability and affordability of housing form an important part of housing policy and should be addressed.

The HNZC policy has implications for resettled refugees, in particular for those with larger families. Besides, this strategy identifies "language, cultural barriers, and a lack of familiarity with the New Zealand housing market and practices" as other major barriers (HNZC, 2005, p. 50). In this regard, the HNZC has been undertaking new housing developments to increase state housing stock and to ensure housing needs are met particularly in Auckland (HNZC, 2005). The HNZC's Auckland Regional strategy (2005) noted that this region has the most expensive housing prices "which increased by 30% with a median price of \$367, 000 in September, 2005" (HNZC, 2005, p. 3).

In the Auckland housing context, more demand for rental properties contributes to the high rental cost recorded in this region with an average rent being at “\$340 a week in June, 2005, 50% higher than the rest of New Zealand” (HNZC, 2005, p. 3). In this region 67 percent of homes are owner occupied and the HNZC regional strategy claims that 60 percent of people on its priority waiting list are in Auckland (HNZC, 2006). As a result, this strategy indicates that there will be an increase in new housing developments by “2400 homes over the next four years and upgrades of 242 homes between 2005 and 2006” (HNZC, 2005, p. 3).

Despite the Labour-led Government’s efforts, the housing policy is yet to overcome the challenge of reducing the number of waiting lists for state housing, which continues to exceed supply (HNZC, 2006, p. 1). This view is supported by the government critics who argue that the level of current government housing supply is inadequate (Johnson, 2003). In the policy context, suitable and affordable housing has been defined as having secure and affordable housing that contributes to health, education, and economic outcomes (HNZC, 2005).

The New Zealand housing policies have relative similarities with other refugee resettling countries (HNZ, 2005, Perry, 2005; Jupp, 1994; Foley and Beer, 2003). Britain has developed and implemented better integration strategies for resettled refugees, such as the ‘Refugee-specific Housing Strategy’ and ‘Refugee-Specific Health Strategy’ which were linked to employment and community integration initiatives (Carey-Wood, 1997; Perry, 2005).

#### **2.6.4 Auckland Regional Affordable Housing Strategy**

This section briefly examines the Auckland Regional Affordable Housing Strategy at a regional level. This strategy is part of the Auckland Regional Council Group (ARC Group). The ARC Group’s key responsibilities are managing the region’s natural, physical and environmental resources and regional growth developments (ARC Group, 2006).

The affordability of housing strategy as a policy issue was a most important part of the ARC Growth Forum (1999). The above strategy has stressed that all members of the community must have access to adequate housing and maintains that the policy of intensification should not worsen Auckland's existing increasingly unaffordable high housing costs. In response, the Growth Forum has developed two strategic goals that include:

to enable all households in the Auckland Region to live in housing that is affordable; to encourage affordable housing that is well-located, appropriate to needs, well-designed, integrated into communities, and provides for people's need for choice, security, safety, and good health (Growth Forum, 1999 p. 4).

This strategy notes that housing needs and demands are in part based on societal and or cultural norms and are influenced by a household's size, location, and expectations. For example, "the number of bedrooms, design of housing, appearance, and site size" will have an effect on housing consumption. In particular, a house which is limited to a smaller area of space can have restraining power on the size of bedrooms and design, depending on the size of the household (Growth Forum, 1999).

The limited space of housing raises an issue of adequacy, or overcrowding and the quality of housing. In addition, location is an important mediating factor and is associated with access to essential services which can strongly influence housing satisfaction in a broader sense. In view of this strategy that has set certain desired outcomes mainly housing, choice, urban amenities such as access to passenger transport, employment choice and safe healthy communities (Growth Forum, 1999 p. 20). This regional strategy emphasises partnership with private and third sectors in pursuing this set of affordable housing related outcomes which influence housing outcomes. More importantly, this regional strategy recognises diverse cultural identity in the Auckland region.

As such, the Growth Forum explicitly acknowledges different demographics as having special housing needs including "Maori, Pacific peoples, refugees and migrants" (Growth Forum, 1999, p. 49).

In New Zealand, central Government intervention has been mainly limited to supply side intervention through state rental housing, development of an affordable housing policy and increasing state housing stock, while providing on the demand side the Accommodation Supplement (HNZC, 2005). At a regional level only the Auckland Regional Council has developed the affordable housing and urban intensification strategy, although the HNZ housing strategy links to its regional branch strategies.

Most recently, the Auckland Sustainable Cities strategy focused on modernizing infrastructures for meeting ever - increasing community needs (Cullen, 2005). The Centre for Housing Research Aotearoa New Zealand (CHRANZ) (2004) argues that housing policy alone will not be sufficient to ensure housing outcomes. This is because other social and economic policies are interconnected. Such policies include: “monetary policy, labour market, taxation, social assistance and immigration policies” that have the capability to further impact on housing outcomes (CHRANZ, 2004, p. 7).

The policy dimensions discussed here are important to this study that seeks to explore the impact of housing and other policies on the resettlement process from sociological perspectives. In summary, there are varying levels of understanding affordability with respect to housing. These are:

- First, the literature on affordability of housing agrees upon the lack of a single concept.
- Second, measures of affordability and identifying the impacting factors on the housing affordability issues at different levels are gaps that the literature emphasizes. As a result, there is a lack of consistency in seeking possible remedies for the lack of affordability of housing. For example, regional and local authorities have been adopting affordability of housing policies under the Sustainable Cities Strategies driven by the whole government approach (Stone, 2003; Auckland Regional Settlement Strategy, 2007).

### **2.6.5 Housing provision**

This section examines the impact of the Government's role and policy framework from the societal macro - level analysis within which housing policy and service provision are conceptualized. The New Zealand rental market has two key players. One is the Housing New Zealand Corporation as the key public sector housing provider and policy arm of the government. Second, the private sector which is a market driven and competitive housing provider (HNZC, 2006; Lilley, 2004; p. 13).

The neo-liberal reforms seen in New Zealand led to the restructuring of the public housing sector in 1974. The public housing stock diminished and market oriented policies were introduced that have resulted in an increased private sector supply (HNZC, 2005; Lilley, 2004; p. 13). The limited public housing impacts on access to affordable housing particularly in the Auckland region for refugees and in general. Hence, "housing is considered to be affordable if households can access suitable and adequate housing by spending a maximum of thirty percent of their gross income" (Auckland Regional Growth Forum, 2003, p. 9).

Housing is affordable if the household is able to "rent or purchase housing in an area of choice at a reasonable price" - the households' ability to meet housing costs with a sustainable source of income stream to maintain an acceptable standard of living (HNZC, 2005). Both the New Zealand Housing and Auckland Regional Housing strategies have broader efficacy in recognising a household's renting or purchasing power, choice, flexibility and housing affordability and access other amenities as part of the affordable housing policy (Auckland Regional Growth Forum, 2003, HNZC, 2005). Therefore, these institution's definitions of housing affordability have similarity with each other and both are quite relevant to this study. Many other sources agree that housing is affordable if it is adequate in terms of the quality of the house, whether it suits the household's needs, and whether it is in reach of work, shops, schools and community facilities (Rankine, 2005, p. 11; Britain Circular 6/98; Australian National Housing Strategy, 1999, p ix; CHRANZ, 2004, p 18-19).

The chosen definitions of affordable housing are relevant to this and important to this study for three reasons: firstly, a direct comparison between household income and housing costs is necessary to gauge quantitative measures of affordability which this thesis has surveyed. The use of quantitative data will enable a comparison of affordability between different localities and regions in New Zealand. This will be used to assess and compare the affordability of housing internationally and in the Auckland context. Secondly, to emphasize the broader and crucial role housing plays beyond providing a physical dwelling which contributes to sufficiently meeting the needs of households' socio-economic, cultural, health and well-being (CHRANZ, 2004); thirdly, the definitions adopted here will be applied to aspects of affordability of housing in New Zealand, particularly in the Auckland context.

The affordability issue implies some major mismatch between preferred consumption of housing services and income - sub-standard or inadequate housing, encompassing such factors as overcrowding, lack of essential amenities, and inadequate quality (CHRANZ, 2004). The intricacies of economic and social policy inter-relations between housing and other policy will need to be informed by the wide range of factors that have validly linked evidence to aspects of 'housing' with the mitigation of housing problems.

On the other hand, the factors identified above could vary from the health impacts of insulation and the dwelling design of the increasing assortment of housing needs (CHRANZ, 2004, p. 5). These broader policy related housing trends also impact on refugees' housing experiences. In this instance, the Auckland housing market's affordability issues has been linked with negative health outcomes (Rankine, 2005). Thus, the affordability of housing has been described as having a direct impact on health and in fact lessens life-expectancy due to daily stressors (Dunn, 2002); such as money that would have been used on nutrition, medical services, recreation, and so forth ensures negative health outcomes.

The issue of affordability of health care has also been identified as having an indirect effect, due to “unaffordable housing costs inevitably move households into substandard, crowded, cold, damp, mouldy and hazardous accommodation”, which has health consequences (Rankine, 2005, p. 7). This impacts on resettled refugee households immensely and hence it is relevant to highlight it here. As well, some previous research findings claim that 23% of Auckland households spent 40% or more of their net income on housing costs (CHRANZ, 2004; Rankine, 2005). From this viewpoint, unaffordable housing costs have serious health hazards through overcrowding-related health risks. The socioeconomic factors like the household income and type of families and size are most important measures for the relationship between housing and health (Howden-Chapman, & Carroll, 2000, p. 133). These authors further elaborate how housing related problems are more evident for those in low-incomes in the private housing markets in New Zealand.

In relation to the Somali situation, Lilley (2004) noted that the Somali resettled refugees in Christchurch were on the low level of income threshold. Lilley’s study used a semi-structured interview method with Somali participants’ although her study’s sample was smaller than the present study. Lilley (2004) believes the low level of income was due to a lack of skills, limited job opportunities and the discrimination from employers. Lilley’s study describes housing in Christchurch as “expensive” and housing affordability was seen as a major problem (p. 19). The low-level of income identified in Christchurch context was influenced by inadequate material resources, especially financial, that affected the Somalis’ ability to afford adequate and suitable housing in Christchurch (Lilley, 2004, p. 19). Lilley’s study is quite relevant particularly for more specific Somali refugee housing perspectives in New Zealand.

By comparison, the vast majority of resettled refugee populations live in state housing in the Auckland region (Solomon, 2002). Solomon’s study found housing was unaffordable for those least able to maintain disposable income to compete in the housing market in Auckland which has similarity with the Christchurch refugee housing experience.

The high housing costs and other housing related difficulties may also lead to tenants' frequent house moves. These kind of housing problems affect other resettlement outcomes such as children's schooling, access to health, jobs and other essential services in first locality of resettlement (Howden - Chapman & Carroll, 2000). Most refugees prefer State housing in New Zealand due to affordability and settled tenure. Though the option of state housing also raises some health concerns as state housing often lacks insulation, carpeting and adequate heating which contributes to poor health outcomes (Lawrence, 2004; Howden - Chapman & Carroll, 2000; Dunstan, et al., 2004). In summary the affordability literature puts in perspective the correlation between housing and health trends applicable to the present study in the Auckland context.

## **2.7 Barriers to integration**

This section provides a summary of the key themes identified in the literature as having an impact on the resettlement process. These include: lack of access to housing, location and ethnicity, immigration status, a shortage of state housing and private housing markets, discrimination and suitability of housing, overcrowding, key health issues, poor English proficiency and level of education, housing and employment, community integration.

### **2.7.1 Lack of access to housing**

The lack of access to suitable and affordable housing impacts on the refugee resettlement process and eventually affects integration outcomes. The importance of accessing affordable housing by individuals and the community is critical if households are to enjoy quality of life. However, for resettled refugees access to housing is impacted upon by differential access or barriers such as poor English language proficiency, ethnicity and cultural identity, immigration status as discussed. Equally, unemployment, high rents, shortage of housing, family composition, discrimination, lack of information and a choice of housing limit refugees' access to housing (Murdie et al., 1995; 2004, Hulchanski, 1997, p. 1; Foley et al., 2003, Guerin et al., 2003; Auckland Regional Settlement Strategy, 2007).

Many sources confirm that there are numerous barriers that impact on refugee integration (Zwart, 2000; Gray et, 2001, p. 25; Dunstan, 2004, p, 19). Some of the barriers discussed so far are exacerbated for the Somali population mainly because of their “distinctive social and cultural dimensions” that make them more visible including “religion, colour, race, language and cultural aspects of their dress” (Guerin et al 2003, p. 28).

### **2.7.2 Location and ethnicity**

Studies have linked location and ethnicity as impacting factors on refugees’ access to housing (Solomon, 2000; Lilley, 2004; Meager, 2005). Some ethnographic studies have emphasized that the lack of access to adequate housing as an opportunity cost to the social and economic participation for the marginalized ethnic groups in New Zealand (McCormack, et al., 2003a). Additionally, this group’s low socioeconomic status limits their housing options in preferred locations. For example, most resettled refugees reside in the Mt. Roskill areas of Auckland City including the Somali population (McCormack, et al., 2003a p. 5). The McCormack et al. study stresses the impact of housing on the resettlement process in general as it is closely related to health, affordability, and access to services. Housing expenditures are the major single “instigator of poverty” (Cheyne, 2000, p. 165; Howden - Chapman & Carroll, 2000, Rankine, 2005, p. 28; Dunn, 2002).

The Mt. Roskill Ward has been described as having comparatively assorted socio-economic conditions and it has the “highest New Zealand Index of Deprivation score in Auckland City: 9.5-10” (NZDep, 2001 cited in McCormack, et al., 2003a, p. 5). The ethnographic literature claims that Mt. Roskill Ward has a higher density of particular needs with diverse ethnic groups such as the Somalis. The Mt. Roskill part of Auckland City has also been associated with greater rates of domestic violence in Auckland. An ethnic group can be defined in its simplest form as “a social group that shares a sense of common origin; claims distinctive history and destiny; having collective and cultural individuality” (Spoonley, 1998, Green, 1999; Ministry of Health, 2005).

The literature demonstrates that refugees are among those segregated in low socio-economic groups having high unemployment rates. The influencing factors identified include: poor proficiency in English, unrecognized qualifications and institutional racism that impacts on refugees while seeking employment and housing. For instance, African refugees tend to have “a lower socio-economic status than the Pakeha population”, which compromises their housing options (Davies et al., no date, p. 11).

The literature specifically highlights key issues many African refugees have been exposed to such as relative poverty in New Zealand. In this instance, the New Zealand Housing policy recognizes that “housing is a key to social and economic well-being and the lack of access to suitable housing can also be a source of inequality” (HNZC, 2005, p. 2). The HNZC policy document also notes housing can play a major role as the multifaceted underlying dynamics and can give rise to: “poor health, injury; low rates of educational achievement; reduced access to jobs; and sometimes greater exposure to victimization and neighbourhood crime” (HNZC, 2005, p. 2).

Access to housing is affected by differential access based on ethnicity, income and limited choices of locations in the housing markets (Miraftab, 2000; Hulchanski, 1997). In summary, the identified barriers above exclude resettled refugees from accessing quality housing in better locations. Although the Hulchanski (1997), Miraftab (2000), Dunn (2002) and Green (1999) studies have been developed in the Canadian and the United States of American contexts, there is a lesson to be learnt from them as the Canadian housing experiences and resettlement process are similar to New Zealand’s context.

### **2.7.3 Immigration status**

The impact of immigration policy on refugee groups and their differential access to services has been emphasised in the literature. Refugees living in New Zealand have different legal, civic and economic statuses. Their immigration arrival category impacts particularly on asylum seekers and on family reunification refugees (Auckland Regional Settlement Strategy, 2004).

As a result, these groups are eligible for different resettlement services, such as on arrival accommodation, state housing entitlements, social-welfare, health services and subsidized English classes (Dunstan et al., 2004). It is important therefore, to note that the immigration status of visa category is another influential factor that has an inherent relationship to the arrivals of these groups in New Zealand. In this regard, international literature shows some similarities with the New Zealand context by pointing out that there are strongly related links between “the visa category and housing market success or failure for the refugee” (Foley and Beer 2003, p. 2). In summary, the immigration policy has a greater impact on the refugee resettlement process mainly for the Asylum Seekers due to their lack of a work permit which limits their access to public housing and other social services in New Zealand.

#### **2.7.4 Shortage of State housing**

The HNZA has recognized that there are shortages of state housing throughout New Zealand (HNZA, 2005, p. 50). The Non-Government Organisation Sector report (NGO) claims that there is “no guarantee for refugee access adequate housing, in fact refugees are asked to accept whatever is on offer” (NGO Sector, 2000, p. 17).

Refugees often find their new societies, neighbourhoods and lifestyles different and difficult (ibid, p. 18). In this instance, the NGO report indicates that a lack of choice in the state housing allocation limits the quota refugee’s housing options, especially when they first arrive and are vulnerable in New Zealand. The “Refugee Voices” research finding has linked quota refugees’ dissatisfaction with their housing due to their lack of choice (Dunstan, 2004). In summary, it was acknowledged that a shortage of state housing stock impacts of resettled refugees’ access to affordable housing particularly in Auckland. The resettlement outcomes and housing needs identified were seen as research priorities for policy decisions.

### **2.7.5 Private housing markets**

In New Zealand both housing sectors have been under pressure particularly in the Auckland region to provide adequate, affordable housing regardless of “ethnic identity, gender; socioeconomic and geographic differences” (HNZC, 2005; Ministry of Health, 2002; Lilley, 2004; p. 13). The private rental market in New Zealand has been seen as difficult for low - income resettled refugees. As access is a major barrier due to high housing cost and discriminatory practices on the basis of race, ethnicity and low socioeconomic status by landlords or real-estate agents that constrain housing choices of ethnic groups (Spoonley et al., 2005, p. 92; Lilley, 2004; McKenzie Trust, 2004; Guerin, 2003, p. 66; Durie, 1998; HNZC, 2004; Solomon, 2002; Rankine, 2005, p. 32). In general, private housing sector has been described as having a tendency of favouring consumers on the basis on race, income and English proficiency. Their practices have placed barriers on low-income households such as refugees.

### **2.7.6 Discrimination**

The HNZC housing strategy (2005) reveals fear of discrimination as a major concern in New Zealand for ethnic groups. Prejudice against ethnic groups and refugees in the host society causes a major difficulty to settlement (Dunstan et al., 2004; Ministry of Social Development, 2004; Elliott, 1997; Spoonley, 1988). In New Zealand, as in the United States of America and France, discrimination towards Muslim cultures and women especially, arises from the cultural dressing and their religious practices (Gray et al., 2001, p. 51; Murdie et al., 2002; Guerin, et al., 2003). Particularly institutional racism is blamed for limited access to housing and other services. Institutional racism is defined as “the ways in which groups are treated differently by institutions as a result of organized policies and procedures” (Spoonley, 1988, p. 24). In New Zealand some of the government agencies and anti-racist theorists agree with Spoonley (1988) that discrimination is a major concern particularly in the labour market which requires being addressed if successful settlement is to be achieved in New Zealand (Ministry of Social Development, 2004; HNZC, 2005). For example some of the anti-racist theorists argue that social institution practices fulfil the interests of dominant groups and often lead to social exclusion of those from other ethnic groups in society.

The anti-racist theorists claim that the level and disparity between ethnic group's "income, health status, educational attainment, employment, underemployment, and housing status" are all linked to the process of ethnic differential impacting on, if not decisive to well-being (Cheyne et al. 2000, p. 112). Anti-racist theorists further maintain that racism and mono-cultural housing policy outcomes end up in systematic disadvantage for ethnic minorities (ibid, p. 112). The racism theory is relevant to this thesis which seeks to elaborate on the impact of differential access including institutional racism.

Prejudiced public perceptions and opinions on state housing have been identified as having a direct impact on affordable housing. Some housing studies have linked prejudice against the poor as a significant barrier that negatively impacts on State housing policies in New Zealand (Cullen, 2005).

By and large such public perceptions are more prevalent for refugees who are often struggling to rebuild their lives in New Zealand and new neighbourhoods. In summary, discrimination is the act of power in balance due to language barriers, race, culture and economic and social hierarchy of authority.

### **2.7.7 Suitability of housing**

Housing should be of suitable quality with an appropriate layout and adequate physical structures that suit the New Zealand climate (Rankine, 2005). Thus housing design has to accommodate the emerging large family sized households and needs to be more culturally friendly (Chapman and Carroll, 2000; Cole & Robinson, 2003; Ozaki, 2002).

Housing that is physically inadequate due to being cold, damp, noisy, high-rise and dilapidated is often linked with both physical and mental health problems (Pernice, 1989). Hence, inadequate housing will not be suitable, particularly for refugees as they may need further assistance to minimise post-migration stress to improve their health outcomes (Carey-Wood, 1997).

Some health studies found New Zealand's housing conditions as inadequately heated and usually cold compared to other developed nations' standards (Staley & Howden-Chapman, 2004). These authors found the temperatures in almost a third of New Zealand homes were below the World Health Organization recommendations. It is important to know how poor suitability of housing impacts on households' health outcomes. In summary, the impact of unsuitable housing affects resettled refugees who often live in poor housing condition. The findings identified in the literature in this regard are important and relevant to identify the link between housing and health in general.

### **2.7.8 Overcrowding**

Reports suggest five percent of Europeans lived in houses which were labelled crowded in Auckland where as the small 'Other' "ethnic group such as refugees had the sharpest increase in crowding" (Jonson, 2003; Statistics NZ, 2001 in Rankine, 2005, p. 33). Some health studies also have identified that the increase in housing rents force people into overcrowding. In turn, overcrowding contributes to an increase in diseases, such as tuberculosis, meningococcal and respirator diseases that affect children and adults (National Health Committee, 1998). As a result, one in four households in what Statistics New Zealand refers to as the 'Other' ethnic category mainly from an African and Middle East refugees and migrants were defined as needing at least one extra bedroom, 23% of Maori and 20 % of Asian people (Rankine, 2005; p. 18; Spoonley et al., 2005).

Resettled refugees experience overcrowding due to the number of dependents per household (Liev, 1996). In particular this problem has a greater impact on family reunification group as they have to apply for permanent residence after they arrive in New Zealand. The process of their application for immigration permits takes over a year in which time they stay with their extended family in crowding situations (Dunstan et al., 2004, p. 6; MSD, 2004). Asylum seekers and family reunion groups tend to add housing and financial pressure in already overcrowded refugee households leading to relative homelessness (Lawrence, 2004; NGO, 2000).

Finally, the literature on overcrowding makes a quite important link to the present study that seeks to justify the extent of overcrowding and its effect on low-income households, especially resettled refugees.

### **2.7.9 Key refugee health issues**

This section examines the refugee health issues from housing and the resettlement perspective. Suleiman (2002) notes the interrelated causal relationship of housing between employment and the psychological impact to health for refugees. Consequently, several social, cultural and institutional barriers impact on access to health services for resettled refugees in New Zealand. Suleiman's study (2002) agrees with the same barriers identified in the literature that limit access to health services. These include: English language, high General Practitioners' fees, limited culturally safe and linguistically appropriate mental and physical health services, a lack of awareness about contraception and sexual health, limited information about subsidized primary healthcare (Bihi, 1999; Crampton, 2003; Kizito, 2001; Madjar & Humpage, 2000; Refugee Issues Forum, 2005).

The access to health services are exacerbated by the lack of refugee-specific national or regional health strategies in New Zealand (Solomon, 1997). Solomon's research points out that these refugee groups have relatively higher health needs than the New Zealand population. However, the health authorities were less enthusiastic to pursue resource allocation due to fear of cost (cited in Nam & Ward, 2006, p. 8). In summary, health issues identified are relevant to this study. Because identifying the effect of housing and the resettlement process on resettled refugees is important and thus, access to health services will be crucial.

### **2.7.10 English proficiency and education**

In this section the impact of poor English and level of education will be examined. The critical role the host language plays in refugee-receiving countries has been widely acknowledged in both international and New Zealand literatures.

The International literature demonstrates that language is one of the key concepts that can form values and beliefs, but not limited to conveying ideas. Temple & Edwards (2006) succinctly demonstrate that language transmits bulk and specific “cultural, social, and political meanings” (p. 41). Language can identify similarities and dissimilarities and “may exclude or include others” (p. 41). Therefore, language is the vehicle for communication in the host society. The barriers to the host community languages have been seen as an element of institutions “hierarchical relations” (Temple and Moran (2006) p. 41).

In contrast, proficiency in English language is recognised in New Zealand as the key to economic and social outcomes for refugees (Gray et al., 2001, p. 33, cites; Altinkaya & Omundsen, 1999, Fletcher, 1999; Ministry of Education, 2003b; Dunstan et al., 2004, p, 19). In New Zealand, family reunification refugees had more negative experiences than migrants in accessing English language classes, while this was reportedly worse for Asylum Seekers (Gray et al., 2001, p. 33).

For the Somali population and their children at school age, the challenge of adjusting to the New Zealand education system is enormous as most of them tended to be semi-literate or illiterate in their own language (Humpage, 2000). This trend is influenced by their educational system based on oral transmission of knowledge under a teacher’s instruction of memorizations. Humpage’s study noted that despite this trend, young Somali students were complimented for developing excellent oral English in New Zealand. The lack of English skills and education ensures social exclusion for all refugee age groups, even though there is more support available to refugees than before. Nonetheless, the literature identifies the lack of an overall language policy in New Zealand which is different from Canada and Australia (Ministry of Education, 2003a).

This study stresses such language policy gap highlighted above impacts on refugees' educational opportunities and their long-term ability to gain meaningful employment. This will have the potential to limit refugee households' ability to afford quality housing.

The literature reaffirms the link between housing and education which has a strong support at global level in the resettlement process (Murdie et al., 1995; Hulchanski, 1997; Robson, 1993; ECRE, Foley et al., 2003; Lilly, 2004; Perry, 2005; Spoonley, et al., 2005; MSD, 2004; Ministry of Education, 2003; NZIS, 2004). In summary, resettled refugees' access to English classes and higher education improves their ability to participate in the economic, social and political process in New Zealand.

#### **2.7.11 Housing and employment**

This section looks at the link between housing and employment and the impact of unemployment on resettled refugees. In order to access employment refugees first require accommodation. Therefore, housing and employment are interlinked social and economic factors. Employment is crucial as it impacts on people's lives either positively or negatively to exercise more control over the decisions that have a major effect on their health and lives (McKenzie Trust, 2004; Guerin, Diirye and Abdi, 2004).

The employment barriers identified include employers' fear of perceived risk in employing different ethnic employees (Fisk, 2003; McKenzie Trust, 2004; Guerin et al., 2004, p. 1; Spoonley et al., 2005). The impact of under-recognised overseas qualifications has compromised the refugee and migrant group's ability to participate in the economic and social development in New Zealand (MSD, 2005). For example, sources confirm that "80 percent of the refugees depend on the government source of financial assistance five years" later from their arrival, even though many of them had made an effort to work (Dunstan et al., 2004; MSD & The Treasury, 2005; Auckland Regional Settlement Strategy, 2007, p. 17).

The low level of labour market participation by refugees in general is a trend resulting in unemployment and underemployment (Guerin et al., 2004). Guerin et al. study makes an important link to the impact of unemployment with physical and mental health problems (ibid, p. 1).

The barriers identified above limit refugees' employment opportunities and are correlated with the under-utilization of human capital (McKenzie Trust, 2004). The similar issue of employment was seen as a key mediating factor for refugees to find a house in Australia (Foley and Beer, 2003, p. 12). Thus, employment plays an important role in facilitating refugee integration (Dunstan et al., 2004, p. 26; McKenzie Trust, 2004, p. 6-7; MacGibbon, 2004; Ward, 2006, MSD, 2004; Auckland Regional Settlement Strategy, 2007). In summary, the location of housing may influence the prospect of access to employment opportunities. When resettled refugees are employed they are likely to have positive housing experiences – being able to afford quality housing in a location of their preference.

### **2.7.12 Community integration**

In this section resettled refugee community groups integration experiences will be explored. In New Zealand refugees receive services from the Government agencies and Non-Government Organizations (NGOs). For the family reunion refugees and asylum seekers integration is of a challenge as they struggle with access to services (NGO Sector, 2000).

The lack of community integration for these resettled refugee groups essentially ensures isolation, exclusion, non-involvement, rejection and illegitimacy (Spoonley, et al., 2005). This often leads to the resettled refugees creating new communities and institutions (Hulchanski, 1997). The newly resettling people favour receiving support services from their own ethnic communities in New Zealand (Woolford, 2005; Dunstan et al., 2004; Gray et al., 2001). However, as new ethnic community organizations have limited resources in the form of funding, this often leads to social exclusion.

The problem of social exclusion is a common problem for resettled refugees. Without addressing the core issues of social exclusion, community integration will be practically ineffective. Concurrent with this notion is social capital which is emphasized as it plays a critical role in facilitating positive relationships among diverse groups and reassuring “mutual aid and negotiation of differences” (Cheyne et al., 2000, p. 234). In summary, the notion of social capital serves the ideal purpose of integration of resettled refugees into the host society, while, exclusion ensures quite the opposite if not being addressed in New Zealand.

## **2.8 Conclusion**

This section provides concluding remarks regarding the literature reviewed for this thesis. This review has identified gaps in best practices, strategies and policies from New Zealand and international literature. This study also learned that the resettlement concepts varied between refugee resettling countries, and thus no single approach seems to have been applied. The same has been observed on the concept of housing in the literature, particularly on affordability of housing.

Some countries have developed best practice models, unlike New Zealand, for instance, in the United Kingdom refugee - specific strategies. This is one of the gaps identified in housing policy and strategic direction.

Based on the literature reviewed, the New Zealand housing policy is broadly understood and hence, there is no refugee – specific housing strategy in New Zealand. The lack of such a strategic focus impacts on access to suitable and affordable of housing by resettled refugees, particularly in the private housing markets in Auckland. Although the New Zealand Housing Strategy gives scant attention to diverse ethnic groups’ housing needs. However, there is a great deal of overlap with the housing concepts globally. In addition, there are two important gaps identified in the literature that is the lack of an overall refugee – specific health strategy and a language policy at national and regional levels in New Zealand.

The literature emphasises that several factors impact on the resettlement process. These factors include: household social conditions, limited prior information about the receiving countries, lack of access to English classes, finding a place to live, employment, social services and dealing with complex legal systems and institutional barriers.

The literature further reiterates that the barriers to settlement services impact upon housing as the key indicator of links between income, poverty and inadequacy of social housing (McCormack et al., 2003; Suleiman, 2002; Perry, 2005; Ministry of Health, 2002).

There is strong agreement in the literature that refugee receiving countries must develop appropriate strategies to achieve effective integration outcomes. This demands strategic capabilities supported by adequate funding and creative working relationships with refugee representatives at all levels of the decision-making process. There is also a widely supported view of integration as a reciprocal process and thus government policies must promote these concepts to achieve effective two-way integration between the resettling people and the host community. These are important lessons learned from the literature and used to answer the research question.

I used the literature review chapter to compare my own perspective in the present study of resettled refugees with the conventional analysis used by scholars. In the literature and the social policy the widely held view of former refugees has been inconsistently applied. Former refugees are no longer refugees once they have been granted a permanent residency permit. In contrast, I purposely studied them as 'resettled refugees or resettling people' where possible to balance the self-identity discourse in the dominant society to raise awareness of this identity crisis. As such, my literature review served as a bridge between the traditional approaches and provided the basis for the analysis of my own research in the rest of the thesis.

## **3. METHODOLOGY**

### **3.0 Introduction**

This chapter outlines the methodology used for this study. The best description of the methodology that can achieve the research objectives identified in chapter one is Participatory Research Design (PRD). These clearly identified objectives will assist a focus on the housing experiences of resettled refugees and how housing relates to the overall resettlement process. In this chapter a case study methodology, the PRD, feminist research approach, ethics and research instruments, methods of data collection and analysis will be discussed in turn.

The Participatory Research Design employing a case study approach with multiple data collection methods was deemed the best design to achieve the set of objectives of this study. The research design was negotiated from the outset with the reference groups recruited from the subject community. The PRD and Multiple-data collection research design involved a combination of discussion shaped by guidelines and a quantitative questionnaire. Each will be discussed consecutively. Therefore this study focuses on devising a contextually appropriate methodology.

A study noted that methodology is useful to address “the abstract and theoretical aspects” that strengthen a specific research approach, applied within certain “scientific or social science disciplines” (Grant & Giddings, 2002, p. 12). This research methodology covers the development of the research questions, instruments and implementation process by identifying the practical methods for collecting and analysing data.

### **3.1 A Case Study**

In this section the rationale for a case study and other analysis will be highlighted. A case study was preferred because it involves collecting information from a range of sources, which impact on the individual, group, institutions, host community and government.

Given that case studies have strength in gathering multiple sources of data enables coverage of a wide variety of “historical, attitudinal and observational issues” (Rountree & Laing, 1996, p. 105). The objective was deliberately to survey Somali households in Auckland and any person who is Somali and interested in participating in this study. The reason for choosing this group is particularly, the Somali community in Auckland is the major group of the Somali society in New Zealand. As well, the Somalis in Auckland represent the largest proportion of the African community in the Auckland region with a rapid community growth. In addition, Somalis exclusively differ compared to other refugee groups in their social, cultural and religion practices. The Somali community members have encountered social and cultural barriers and are transient in their housing experiences in New Zealand and indeed internationally (Guerin et al., 2003; Schaid & Grossman, 2003).

The Somali population has settled in Auckland in the suburbs close to Auckland Central particularly in Mt. Roskill and Mt Albert as well as the Waitakere area. The sample aimed to drawn in 100 potential Somali participants to attend five focus group workshops from suburbs such as Mt. Roskill, Mt. Albert, Pt. Chevalier, Avondale, Waterview, New Lynn, Henderson and the Massey area. Primarily, Auckland city is a home to the majority of the Somali population. There is no further selection criterion so long as potential participants are adults Somalis living in the Auckland region.

The qualitative and quantitative case oriented approaches have been taken to examine a wide variety of housing aspects that impact on their resettlement process. The qualitative approach takes a nonlinear course and emphasizes close examination of a specific cultural and historical context of the Somali housing concepts in an inductive and adaptable design. On the other hand, quantitative measures are also used in the form of a questionnaire that takes a linear direction to accentuate objectivity and measurement. It provides a process for description using variables in a deductive sequence of steps in data collection (Neuman, 2000, p.154).

The questionnaire covers: age, gender, marital status, occupation and employment, time taken to find a house in Auckland and immigration categories, social barriers to accessing housing, proficiency in English language and level of education, length of time, level of happiness and coping with life in New Zealand.

The PRD of this study has been informed by several previous studies. Each of these studies will be analysed. Mirafatab (2000:2); Murdie et al. (2002:14) used a combination of focus group workshops and survey questionnaire with Somali refugees in Canada. Moran, Mohamed and Lovel (2002) used focus group participants with Somali refugees in Britain to identify and address wider health issues (Temple & Moran, 2006, p. 61). Besides, Temple and Moran, (cites Grandy Toxteth Community Project, 1993) a descriptive cross-sectional method with the Somali households in Liverpool, Britain which also employed a similar technique for data collection in the form of survey questionnaire and interviews.

The present study uses a combination of focus group workshops and survey questionnaires taking a PRD approach to ensure that key Somali community issues are considered by and for their community. The Ministry of Social Development as part of the 'Regional Refugee Health and Well-Being Action Plan' in Wellington used a 'Participatory Action Research Model' (King and Newman, 2005, p. 2). It too used a focus group approach for data collection in New Zealand.

Guerin et al. (2003) have undertaken similar studies with the Somali Community in Hamilton, New Zealand. Their research method was based on "talk around" modified from the Pe-Pua (1989) model of "indigenous research of the Pagtatanung-tanong or asking around" method used with Filipinos (ibid, p. 28). Lilley (2004) also used an informal focus group and semi-structured interviews in which her study assesses the housing perspective of Somalis in Christchurch, New Zealand. These studies provide useful methodological lessons.

Others have used inadequate methodological approaches: for instance Meager's study (2005) of the interactions between Ethiopian culture and the material manifestations of contemporary state housing policy. Meager's study claims 'Multiple Method Approach' (MMA), for statistical data analysis from the New Zealand Census, ethnographic literature and her own media analysis. However, the absence of primary let alone secondary data suggests that the Ethiopian community in Auckland was not aware of her research. It also fails to provide the analysis of New Zealand Census and is not entirely MMA. This is further evidence of the unreliability of her research method.

The present study uses PRD and multiple data collection methods to fully account for all ethical, social and cultural issues through a case study where a variety of data can be measured. It has involved a combination of consultation with a reference group and a participant's focus group workshop for primary data collection. The use of a reference group for the case study ensured that key community issues were not overlooked and the cultural appropriateness of this research was acceptable to the Somali community. In this way methodological gap in Meager's study can be overcome.

In comparison, Foley and Beer's (2003) study used field assistants from refugee backgrounds with considerable knowledge who also helped with the recruitment of respondents, while a snowball sampling methodology was implemented. These authors piloted their study and checked the field assistants work for accuracy, although that produced no identified problems. Then the full survey was implemented with a total of 434 interviews. After coding, survey data was entered into a SPSS computer program for analysis.

Despite a pilot study, their study encountered difficulties in identifying all respondents' visa categories which was a major problem of its methodology. In verifying the limits of their study, however, Foley and Beer, 2003 suggest "this study is indicative rather than a representative sample" (ibid, p. 9).

A representative sample could not be provided because:

The exact refugee population in each city in Australia could not be known, due to the difficulties in recruiting informants, random selection process could not be used and refugees were not fully aware of the details of their immigration status (Foley & Beer, 2003, p. 9).

In consideration of Foley and Beer's study limited scope, the present study is also indicative for similar reasons and because of non-response bias.

Miraftab's (2000) study applies a combination of focus group workshops and survey questionnaires administered to a total of 133 participants. His recruitment process involved: focus group workshop participants through information flyers posted at the community's meetings places, such as temples, churches, and support groups and personal contacts within the participant communities. He used bilingual community workers to facilitate focus group workshops in the participants' own languages and an anonymous questionnaire in the respondents' languages was completed (ibid, p. 3). In summary, these methodological comparisons between New Zealand and international studies particularly have provided relevant and important information.

### **3.2 The participatory research design**

This section presents the participatory research design (PRD) and its implementation process. The PRD was preferred mainly to balance the difference in power relations and to create a friendly atmosphere "with and for participants", where the academics and the community work together to attain a culturally suitable research design that is acceptable to the Somali Community in Auckland (King & Newman, 2005, p. 4; also see Miraftab, 2000; Murdie et al., 2002). The use of a PRD therefore enabled the Auckland Somali population to participate in a transparent research process. The Somali community participation in the planning was encouraged to share innovative new skills for developing community research and to advocate for change. The PRD is so important for marginalised groups that may struggle to achieve goals of social transformation (King and Newman, 2005).

The definition provided by King and Newman (2005) is relevant as it provides the scope of conceptual interpretation for the analysis of this study. Therefore, the PRD enables the reciprocal process emphasised in the key resettlement concepts between those resettling and the host community. The research design and process were openly negotiated to ensure key community needs and culturally sensitive issues were included in its development.

By taking a PRD approach and multiple data collection methods, working with disadvantaged groups such as refugee communities, it is essential to create an environment of “respect, honesty, integrity and compassion to establish a strong level of trust” (King & Newman, 2005, p. 4). Therefore, this study has taken both positivist and interpretive approaches to collect data in a democratic process.

From the researcher’s perspective, applying these values and related behaviours would be critical in the research of refugee experiences. For example, the ethnographic literature emphasizes the limited research methods in many refugee studies acknowledging that research on refugees require distinct research techniques (Camino & Krulfeld, 1994).

### **3.2.1 Feminist research approach**

This section looks at the feminist research epistemology in the context of the participants’ background as resettled refugees. Epistemology is concerned with “the nature of knowledge”, its extent and foundation (Crotty, 1998, p. 8). On the other hand, the feminist point of view discards positivist science and promotes knowledge as developed in relation to the lived experience within a “multitude of culturally” unique societies and sub-groups (Rountree & Laing, 1996, p. 131). This view-point is interesting and important to refugee studies.

The present study embraces feminist epistemology to strongly place the participants’ voices in this research design. This will allow the researcher to seek appropriate research methods and adjust to the participants’ views.

The refugee research requires a well-defined research *modus operandi* to suit the social world of the participants, the way they see things in particular contexts. For instance, theorists and researchers have magnified diverse forms of knowledge of people as “social actors” together with “interpretive or social constructionist views” (Temple & Moran, 2006 citing Berger & Luckman, 1991, p. 39).

It is imperative to understand the resettled refugee’s perspectives such as language barriers, social and cultural impacts and socioeconomic status in the dominant society. Most importantly, their past experiences of “upheaval, uprooting, emotional and loss” distrust of any form of authority and the encountered difficulties in adjusting to a new environment (Camino & Krulfeld, 1994, p. 147). For example, the positivist approach often takes more structured and quantitative methods, while the interpretive-reflexive - sometimes referred to as postmodernist uses qualitative methods (Camino & Krulfeld, 1994, pp, 148-49). The positivist more structured approach has some shortcomings by itself and equally the qualitative may lack quantifiable measures. The interpretive-reflexive approach uses participant observation and life -course experiences that require a negotiation between the researcher and the researched (ibid, p. 149). The qualitative approach is important because people have specific histories and may hold various social positions and they can see the world from different perspectives (Temple & Moran, 2006, p. 40).

The strength of a qualitative approach is making an effort to unveil these views through “dialogue, accounts and reconcile complex, detail” and context (Young, 1997 in Temple & Moran 2006, p. 40). In fact, this was part of the present study’s motive to include a qualitative approach. The feminist research approach better emphasises the methodological dissimilarities and different world views, particularly the need to be vigilant in research on refugees.

The variety of methodological perspectives strengthens the present study by providing an alternative assessment, hence plays an important role in shaping this study.

The feminist research methods have also enhanced the researcher's approach in integrating reflexivity – the capability to take accounts of his routine actions and tasks in the research process by cross-examining analytically research communication (also see Temple & Moran 2006, p. 40).

Purposely the interpretive-reflexive and feminist research approaches were incorporated in the present study's PRD and multiple-data collection methods to specifically address the Somali refugees' past experiences complicated by distrust of researchers and investigatory forms of authority. For these reasons, feminist research epistemology perspectives have added a great deal of value to this study.

### **3.3 Ethics and research instruments**

In the following sections, in line with ethics requirements, the research instruments such as information sheets, informed consent to voluntary participation, survey design and implementation process will be discussed.

#### **3.3.1 Information sheets**

This section discusses the development and implementation process of information sheets. The information sheet was devised to provide an account of the objectives of this study. It also explains what happens in this research and contains both the quantitative questionnaire and the qualitative discussion guidelines. Information sheets for the reference group and focus group participants were designed slightly unlike to reflect the different roles of each group.

The distribution of information sheets was through the Somali Community Centre in the Mt. Roskill and Waitakere areas, Somali transfer offices, local shops, mosques, and support groups. Responses to the information sheets were followed up by contacting the prospective participants about their interest in participating in this research project.

The potential respondents were followed up by the researcher's attendance of one of the Somali community meetings. Some potential respondents contacted the researcher and the Somali bilingual recruitment assistant using the telephone number given on the information.

### **3.3.2 Informed consent**

This section looks at the ethical requirements developed for data collection. The research instruments and key ethical requirements were carefully administered to ensure the safety of the participants.

Prospective participants were informed about the purpose of the study via information sheets. They were advised that this study was voluntary and they could leave it at any time. Participants were assured that the information they provided will remain confidential, only the study findings will be used for presentation and publication.

Participants also were told that the background to their refugee status will not be discussed. A Somali bilingual interpreter suitably qualified in New Zealand with a PhD degree has translated all the research instruments.

### **3.3.3 Survey**

This section briefly outlines the survey development and implementation process. The development of survey instruments are a paper-based quantitative questionnaire and qualitative discussion guidelines with pre-set questions. Information about demographics, finding a house, income, tenure, health, level of education, household size, and way of life in New Zealand and social network were incorporated.

The survey was tested with a reference group and their feedback was included in the survey development. Then final research questionnaire was developed and implemented during the data collection.

### **3.3.4 Discussion guidelines**

The discussion guidelines are pre-set qualitative questions to guide the focus group participants' discussions regarding housing experiences and the resettlement process. A copy of the discussion guidelines translated into the Somali language was given to the participants at each workshop for discussion.

## **3.4 Methods of data collection**

This section summarises the data collection methods implemented. The questionnaire consisted of 36 items and the discussion guidelines of 15 points were implemented. The implementation process involved: participants' recruitment through the distribution of information sheets and bilingual recruitment assistant's telephone and personal contacts. The field research resulted in the successful completion of 72 survey questionnaires and 3 tape-recorded discussions.

### **3.4.1 Reference group**

In this section procedures to test the research instruments and PRD will be discussed in detail. The research design involved an initial consultation meeting with the reference group to devise the most appropriate procedures for data collection acceptable to the Somali community. This approach ensured the cultural appropriateness of the research and that key issues important to the Somali community were included. The reference group comprised six people: one female bilingual interpreter, a Somali health worker, a bilingual teacher aide and three members of the Somali community.

The members of the reference group are Somali resettled refugees themselves and were required to read, write, and speak fluently in Somali and English as well as having experience in community work. Each reference group member was recruited through Somali community contacts such as community leaders and relevant employers. The recruitment process involved sending to each prospective member an information sheet, and consent forms. The reference group was presented with a description of the project and the draft research instruments.

Voluntary consent forms were signed after relevant research information was given and questions were answered before the consultation. This initiated the discussion on the objectives of the research, the significant issues regarding housing, and to ensure the suitability of the research methods and their cultural appropriateness.

Considerations about cultural appropriateness include: guidelines for minimizing any psychological impact on participants and ensuring the free flow of opinions during the workshop discussions. In addition cultural barriers such as a lack of confidence, linguistic difficulties and power imbalance were addressed. Modifications were made to the Participatory Research Design according to the feedback received during the consultation process.

Overall, the use of the reference group and bilingual interpreters enhanced the quality of the research project design, buy-in from the Somali community, strengthened partnership, improved data collection, and enhanced discussion amongst the research team as well as the focus group workshop participants. The PRD encouraged contributions from the Somali community through the reference group, which was independent from the recruiting process of potential participants. The Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee has approved the protocol of this Participatory Research Design (AUTEK 06/07/82).

### **3.4.2 Participant's focus group workshop**

This section presents the participant's focus group workshop and its implementation process. A focus group is the meeting of research participants prearranged by the researcher to talk about the objectives of this study (see also Rountree & Laing, 1996).

The use of a focus group approach allowed flexibility and considerably increased the number of participants in this research project. The focus group participants were initially targeted for three focus group meetings. Due to potential participants' unavailability after work, alternative times were arranged. I was able to increase the number of workshops to five.

Of these three women only focus group workshops and two men only focus group workshops were held in separate locations. The workshops were facilitated by a clearly defined highly qualified bilingual facilitator who was assisted by a female bilingual interpreter. The first women's workshop was held at the Somali Community Centre in Mt. Roskill and the second and the third were held at the Presbyterian Church hall on Mt. Albert Road in Mt. Albert, Auckland.

The first men's workshop was held at the Wesley community centre in Mt. Roskill, which was followed by the second men's workshop convened at the Somali Community Centre in Mt. Roskill, Auckland.

The researcher has managed the data collection, while ensuring participants have a supportive environment. This process included a large venue in Mt. Roskill, Auckland Central during the workshops where participants were made comfortable and provided with a Somali cultural dinner. The workshop venues had adequate public facilities and were in proximity to the participants' homes for their convenience. There were only fifteen families in the Waitakere area and they had an English Class in the Mt. Roskill area and preferred to attend the focus workshop with the members of the larger Somali Community in Mt. Roskill.

There were two parts to the focus group workshop: the first part was completing a survey in Somali that had no personal details on it and took around 20 minutes to complete.

The second one was discussion, which took up to an hour and was tape recorded after participants' consent was sought. Instructions on how to participate in the discussions and completing the questionnaire, that signing an informed consent was required, and the purpose of the study were given in the Somali language. The minutes from this discussion was translated into English during the data processing.

Information about the community based counselling service of the 'Refugees As Survivors Centre' was made available in the Somali language throughout the workshops but was not used as there were no problems during the data collections as participants were relaxed and keen to contribute to the research. Any questions participants had were answered and voluntary informed consent was signed using the Somali bilingual interpreter prior to the data collection.

The qualitative data was gathered using the focus group discussion guidelines handed to participants at the beginning of the workshop. The semi-structured and informal approach taken involved participants openly and freely talking around issues identified in the discussion guidelines about their housing experiences and any other matters important to participants. This qualitative discussion was semi-structured and different from more structured interviews. The minutes and tape-recorded discussions ensured all participants' views were included in the data analysis.

### **3.5 Data processing**

In this section data processing and how it was managed will be discussed. Planning and contemplating the research topic and refocusing were an important part of initial data analysis. Based on previous research the researcher has developed steps in the PRD implementation process. This involved gathering secondary and primary data sorting, identifying and recording (Rountree & Laing, 1996). In the process I recorded my own assumptions so it can be seen as to how they may impact on the empirical data gathering. Then I read and re-read, contemplated, reflected on the data which was a challenge and was overcome with more practice. The themes and sub-headings identified in the literature review and discussion guidelines were used as a framework for the data analysis.

The secondary analysis was managed with selecting, simplifying massive information in the literature review which was not an easy task. However, several literatures, research instruments and ethics application electronic copies were kept as a back up using a flash disk through the whole process.

The primary data was gathered from both qualitative and quantitative measures was first organised for transcription and translation from the Somali language into English by the senior PhD Somali bilingual. This process involved checking content, technical, conceptual, and semantic translation equivalences. The Somali version of the survey results was back-translated into English using word processing for prescription and translation by the same senior Somali bilingual translator to ensure accuracy.

The process of pre-coding a questionnaire begun and followed with the transfer of information from each survey into a SPSS computer program at the School of Social Sciences, Auckland University of Technology. The computer program was also used to clean the quantitative data, thoroughly checking for accuracy during the data processing. For the qualitative data open coding during the first data processing phase was used to form categories and cases to identify themes as used by previous studies (see Neuman, 2000, p, 421). The open coding technique was applied to the English version of the survey results during the data processing. Then the quantitative survey results were pre-coded using a coding procedure placing the code categories on each questionnaire.

### **3. 5.1 Reliability and validity**

This section explains the steps taken to ensure reliability, validity and generalisation required to establish, the legitimacy and authority in the empirical work (Rountree & Laing, 1996; Rudestam & Newton, 2001). The research design consciously allowed for flexibility in ways that the analysis was possible to be modified both during and after data collection. The first phase of data processing was checked for possible errors and therefore ensured accuracy, reliability and validity. There were no major errors found as participants were able to discuss and complete the survey in their own language.

The PRD and multiple data collection methods were employed with care during the data collection. This was derived by the researcher's desire to get things done and understanding the participants' culture and related to them within the general context of refugee resettlement.

However, as in any research things did not go smoothly. The research instruments had been developed and translated. The translation work was completed according to plan although experienced some delays. Second, the workshop timetable had been altered and extended to fit the participants after work times. Getting times that better suited more participants was a problematic process particularly near to the date of collection. In the end with a lot of negotiation both with the participants by telephone and the community hall manager it was sorted out in time. Half of the expected number of participants attended the first workshop both for men and women. Nonetheless, subsequent workshops were reorganised as those who attended also helped to draw in more participants who already had the information sheets but were unable to attend.

The non-response bias was overcome through the care in data collection and the supportive environment for the participants made participants interested in the research project. The female interpreter worked hard and assisted with organising two more women workshops. As well, the male recruitment assistant also put more effort into organising the second men's workshop which together helped to increase the number of participants.

The challenges of organising the workshop involved debriefing the research team, re-planning and reflecting to adjust the unexpected hiccups and minor mistakes such as material forgotten in the car and so forth. In general, things worked out very well. I am pleased with the overall number of participants surveyed in line with originally planned for higher response rate of over 70 percent. Things like venues, research material and refreshment for the participants were well organised beforehand. Thus, the participants had a relaxing environment all through the data collection.

Things that should be given extra care in the future include: more attention needed to be paid to transportation issue for those participants who need help. However, thanks to the female interpreter as she transported some women for my research project.

Men did not need help with transport in this case but one needs to check. Nevertheless, when doing research with community groups allow more time as certain topics could take lengthy discussions. In addition gender imbalance means messages may not fully reach potential female participants about the research. This could be due to lack of support for families when men are away. In this regard, we organised women workshops at different times from men's focus group meetings. Particular effort should be placed on understanding culture boundaries. For example greetings are fine but hand shaking with women for example in Muslim community could be restricted. The researcher always needs to plan ahead and have a back up strategies for unexpected hiccups.

The data processing for translation took a lot longer than expected due to the translator's other unforeseeable personal and work issues which were out of my control. Doing research in a community bilingual setting requires patience in communications, time and finance.

### **3.5.2 Data analysis**

This section looks at a process required to analyse data and puts it in the perspective of this study. The concepts of data analysis helped identify patterns in data and intermittent behaviours, bits and pieces, or information. The process of data analysis involved examining, sorting, categorising, evaluating and comparing the coded data and reviewing the raw and recorded data.

Data was analyzed in relation to the resettlement process and concepts of housing, barriers to accessing housing, suitability and affordability of housing as a policy issue in the context of the literature reviewed. The qualitative data from open discussions supplemented the quantitative measures. The qualitative data is about words, norms and ideals, and meanings (Neuman, 2000). At the focus group's discussions notes were taken and marked under certain topics as they emerged while the entire discussion was tape-recorded. During the data analysis I had begun sorting notes to discover the truth from the participants' perspectives and reflected on my observations as well for data interpretation.

The discussion minutes were recorded using computer records. The discussion transcripts and 3 tape-recorded discussions were back translated into English. I read repeatedly the qualitative data to make sense of it all during the data processing. Then the qualitative data was analyzed by using 'ideal types' which has two multi-faceted levels that are context and analogies particularly relevant to this study to distinguish categories, concepts and place them in participants' contexts (see Neuman, 2000, p. 431).

The participants' views and issues were categorised and concepts were used to identify these issues as themes, deliberately every statement brought up during the discussion were recorded in the notes and categorised according to these themes (Rudestam & Newton, 2001, p. 156). Although the participants share similar backgrounds, they have encountered different housing barriers and resettlement experiences. The participants' diverse contexts were related to data interpretation. The second level of ideal type is 'analogies' used to categorize qualitative data according to the resettlement process, housing experiences and events which participants endured (see Neuman, 2000, p. 432).

The ideal types were chosen to better communicate a variety of views from the data and to group similar events. It is also useful to convey information about patterns in the data in order to describe relationships. The use of analogies enhanced the qualitative data and is an important methodological device to discover and comprehend new data. Then data was interpreted by giving meanings based on the participants' most significant issues categorized as themes. This enabled the researcher to integrate data and contexts into the thesis.

The quantitative data grouped participants using a 'correlation matrix' and cross-tabulation statistical analysis according to their demographic characteristics, housing experiences and their resettlement outcomes via information obtained from the questionnaire.

The data analysis was particularly related to the participants' rental housing provider, immigration categories and length of time in New Zealand. In addition, the analysis helped to measure their cultural and social integration outcomes. For the data interpretation, the correlation matrix was used for the assessment of six indicators of positive housing experiences. As well, cross-tabulation was used again to create categories for differences in perceptions.

Both correlation matrix and cross-tabulation analysis were chosen for their strength in simplifying complex data and objectively measure categories comparatively. While it was assumed that the participants share common cultural and social backgrounds, it is highly likely that their housing experiences have been influenced by differential access. By categorizing the participants under different categories and analysing the factors that impacted on the participants' housing experiences, it was possible to isolate which differential categories were correlated.

The participants of this study were grouped using different factors incorporated into the questionnaire: that is, personal information asked in questions 1-5, information about level of paid job asked in questions 6-7, information about finding a house measured in question 8, source and category of income measured in questions 9 & 10, category of rent measured in question 11, information about types of housing obtained in questions 12 & 13, information about location is measured in question 14, housing condition or quality measured in questions 17 & 18, the sort of housing expected measured in question 19, number in bedrooms are asked in question 20, number in households measured in questions 21, 22 & 23, housing and keeping healthy measured in questions 24, 25 & 26, level of English proficiency measured in question 27, number of rooms for study measured in question 28, level of education measured in questions 28, 29 & 30, immigration categories measured in questions 31-35 and views about being happy living in New Zealand obtained via question 36.

The qualitative analysis will provide a multi-level check on the validity of the results produced by quantitative measures. The PRD and multiple data collection methods compensate for weakness one form of method could have and both forms of data collection strengthened the other. This multiple data collection was chosen consciously realising the key methodological significance in terms of reliability, internal and external validity of measures in dealing with this study (see Rudestam & Newton, 2001, p. 98).

The researcher asserts that the feminist epistemology research approach throws a light on the PRD perspective in the refugee context. The multiple data collection methods used was highly effective, flexible and helped to quickly mitigate adverse reactions from participants.

In summary, the research design was used to plan key issues such as addressing gender focus groups from the outset, recognising the Somali traditional men and women gender role differences which were expected by the participants.

Although the non-response bias was one of the limitations, the PRD and multiple data collection methods style enabled contemporary conventional methodologies, more specifically structured interviews to be adjusted as appropriate to suit diverse cultural groups.

### **3.5.3 Preliminary report**

The workshop discussions and survey results represent the findings of this study. After data interpretation was completed, a summary of the findings will be presented at the Auckland Somali community Annual General Meeting and interpreters will be used.

## **4.0 FINDINGS**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents research findings based upon the participants' responses to the survey questionnaire and workshop discussion.

### **4.2 Profile of the participants**

This section describes the profile of the participants and outlines findings concerning the demographic characteristics of survey participants in three parts. The first section looks at participants' age and gender and the second section at their marital status and number of children. The third section presents labour force outcomes, type of occupation and employment, income, source of income and income category to measure whether it is likely they can afford their housing consumption.

#### **4.2.1 Age and gender**

What is the demographic profile of the Somali population in Auckland? The participants in this survey and focus group discussions were adult members of the Somali community in Auckland. Twenty eight participants were under 30 years of age, with 18-29 years age group accounting for over one third (38.9 percent) and another one quarter being aged 30-39 years. Fifteen (20.8 percent) were 40-49 years old and 11 (15.3 percent) were between 50-79 years (Refer to Table 1 on page 80 for Demographics).

As the summary of age categories in Table 1 on page 80 shows, the younger adults between the 18-39 years of age represented the larger percentages. This finding is representative because most of the Somalis in New Zealand from the researcher's experience tend to be in the young to middle age group for three reasons. First, during the 1990s civil war in Somalia the majority of women and younger adults fled to neighbouring countries as refugees.

Secondly, the United Nations Refugee Agency and New Zealand first considers children and women - headed families on a humanitarian basis for resettlement. In this regard immigration category also contributed to the prevalence of this age-group in New Zealand. Thirdly, they were more interested and active groups in attending the research sessions and some of them held key community leaderships.

Of the Somalis who participated in this survey, slightly more were male than female, 39 (54 percent) who were male compared with 33 (45.7 percent) of female as presented in Table 1 Demographics on page 80. There should be more female-weighted as the majority of Somalis resettled in New Zealand were females and younger adults.

Table 15 Cross-tabulations types of housing on page 118 shows that about a quarter 17 (56.7 percent) of males were living in private rentals, while the same number lived in state rentals. Quite the opposite, 13 (43.3 percent) of females were living in private rental accommodation compared with a majority 21 (55.3 percent) living in state rentals. This appears to have been influenced by affordability of state rental housing as more female - headed families were unemployed and live in state housing.

Age is an important indicator of housing satisfaction and mediating what type of house a household ultimately occupies: 12 (40.0 percent) aged 18-29 were living in private rental houses compared with 14 (35.9 percent) living in state rentals. Ten (33.3 percent) living in private rentals were in the age range of 30-39 compared with 8 (20.5 percent) in state rentals. Only 5 (16.7 percent) of those living in private rentals were in the 40-49 age group while 9 (23.1 percent) were in state rentals (See cross-tabulations on page 118).

Resettled refugees have ongoing needs and several factors impact on their resettlement process. These include: proficiency in English, education and social skills to negotiate access to housing. For instance, gender plays an important part in the adaptation process.

During the research gender role played a key part in this predominantly Sunni Muslim group which preferred separate men's and women's workshops which was planned anyway. For example, a few women came to participate in the first men's workshop but shied away from it due to the gender role in this cultural context.

The participants identified the lack of information and understanding about their status and entitlements to services. The scarce resource impacted on some of these participants' marriage relationships as identified by the women workshop participants. In addition, a few women heads of families expressed frustration concerning services biased against them. This trend was exacerbated by English language barriers and lack of male support. This finding correlates with the "Refugee Voices Research" (Dunstan et al., 2004). Similar Somali housing experiences were evident in the Canadian literature (Hulchanski, 1997). Some older participants reported that they had to depend on their children for English language matters to access services, even though some young refugee students had limited education themselves and showed the lowest levels of literacy and faced difficulties developing educational skills "at an age" compared to other students (Ministry of Education, 2003b, p. 32). Such experience suggests that resettled refugees regardless of their age encounter different barriers in accessing services in New Zealand.

#### **4.2.2 Marital status and number of children**

The majority of the participants at the time of the study 38 (52.8 percent) were married, while 28 (38.9 percent) had never married. Despite the higher proportion being never married in the younger age group, some Somalis 5 (6.9 percent) were engaged and thus are likely to have a partner, whilst only 1 (1.4 percent) was a solo mum. More quota participants (28.6 percent) were married compared to (24.3 percent) never married. Whilst 23 percent of family reunification participants were married, 14.3 percent had never been married. A lower proportion of Asylum seeker participants were married (1.4 percent) compared with both quota and family reunification categories (see page 80).

By comparison, Refugee Voices (2004) found approximately the same number of “recently arrived refugees were married” and a slightly lower number had never been married (Dunstan et al., 2004, p. 381).

The finding of the present study differed in the smaller number of Asylum seekers compared to the higher proportion of married asylum seekers in the Refugee Voices Research. Of course, the number of asylum seekers in the present study was a quite smaller sample than the Refugee Voices Research.

The majority of the participants 39 (54.2 percent) had children, while 30 (41.7 percent) had no children. One quarter of the participants (35.0 percent) had 6-7 children compared with 5 (12.5 percent) who had 9 children, while 8 (29.0 percent) had between 8 and 14 children. Seventeen (56.7 percent) living in private rentals were married with children compared with 21 (58.3 percent) living in state rentals with their children. Twelve (40.0 percent) living in private rentals were never married compared with 14 (35.9 percent) living in state rentals. The only solo mum was living in a state rental house.

Clearly, the Somalis have larger family compositions between 5 to 14 children in most households. This has implications for household housing consumption. Children and number of children influenced participants’ housing outcomes positively or negatively depending on distinctive individual socio-economic status. For instance, those participants with more children expressed how difficult it was for them to access quality housing. A number of participants had to put up with landlords’ perceived and real negative attitudes due to their types and sizes of households. The participants have experienced negative housing outcomes such as overcrowding, housing related stress due to the lack of larger houses and limited housing options as identified by most participants during the workshop discussions. In summary, the participants’ age, gender, marital status and number of children section provides accurate demographics and answers question two out of the five research questions outlined on page 9.

### **4.2.3 Occupation and type of employment**

What can the Somali population experiences tell us regarding current resettlement services in Auckland? Refugees first seek a place to live, and finding meaningful employment that continues to provide a source of income is crucial.

Twenty three participants (31.9 percent) were employed, while 20 (27.8 percent) were unemployed and 29 (40.3 percent) students. Of these 19 participants (61.3%) who were working full-time compared with 10 (32.3 percent) casually. Most Somalis were actively participating in labour force activities and show positive employment outcomes as the majority were working fulltime. Of employed full-time participants, a quarter (50 percent) had been living in private housing rentals whereas 7 (17.9 percent) were living in state housing. However, a larger proportion of those living in State housing were unemployed, accounting for 14 (35.9 percent) compared with 6 (20 percent) living in private rental housing.

An interesting contrast is evident for those working full time 13 (72.2 percent) an afford living in private rentals compared with the far fewer 4 (36.4 percent) who were living in State rental housing. For example, those employed on a casual basis represented 4 (22.2 percent) of those who were living in private rentals and 6 (54.5 percent) of those living in State rental housing. This trend also extends to those studying, 9 (30 percent) of whom were living in private rental compared with 18 (46.2 percent) living in State house as an affordable housing option. For part-time workers 1 (5.6 percent) was in a private and the same number in a State rental housing.

Overall, the majority of the participants who had been studying were taking a positive step towards increasing their likelihood of upward mobility through long-term participation in the labour force.

Table 1 Demographics can be seen on page 80 which include occupation and income they are important variables.

During the workshop discussions participants were asked whether where they live had an impact on their ability to find a paid employment in terms of access. A larger proportion of the participants said: “yes, of course it does”, for example, proximity to work, transport and cost were linked as housing as important factors that had an impacting force on the participants in finding paid employment.

Moreover, some participants stated that had they state put their residential address as a low socio-economic area when filling an application for employment it was unlikely that they would have succeeded in getting that job. Refugee unemployment and social barriers were also noted in the literature (Fisk, 2003; J.R. McKenzie Trust, 2004; Refugee Voices, 2004, Auckland Settlement Strategy 2007). The participants were also asked, if their answer was yes, what kind of difficulties they encountered finding a paid work.

Some participants explained:

We have not chosen where we live at same time we are also afraid of moving out of where we live now, because we are on government income support that we had little choice in exercising a choice of where we want to live let alone embarking on to getting a paid employment.

## Survey Statistical Analysis

**Table 1: Demographics**

		Count	Col %
Gender	Male	39	54%
	Female	35	45.3%
Age	18-29 years	28	38.9%
	30-39 years	18	25.0%
	40-49 years	15	20.8%
	50-79 years	11	15.3%
Marital status	Married	38	52.8%
	Never Married	28	38.9%
	Engaged	5	6.9%
	Solo mums	1	1.4%
Children	Yes	39	54.2%
	No	30	41.7%
	Not applicable	3	4.2%
Number of children	1 child	3	7.5%
	2 children	5	12.5%
	3 children	5	12.5%
	5 children	3	7.5%
	6 children	7	17.5%
	7 children+	7	17.5%
	8 children	3	7.5%
	9 children	5	12.5%
	10 children	1	2.5%
	14 children	1	2.5%
Occupation	Employed	23	31.9%
	Unemployed	20	27.8%
	Student	29	40.3%
Type of employment	Full-time	19	61.3%
	Part-time	2	6.5%
	Casual	10	32.3%

### 4.3 Income

Income is a key resettlement indicator. At the time of the survey more participants 44 (64.7 percent) were receiving income from government benefit than from any other sources. Twenty (29.4 percent) identified that their sources of income were from wage or salary, while only 1 (1.5 percent) was receiving income from their own business. Five participants (16.7 percent) were earning an average weekly income from \$251-350 compared with 7(23.3 percent) who were in the weekly earning income range from \$352-\$452. Nearly a quarter (43.3 percent) had the highest wage or salary earnings with a weekly income ranging from \$453-\$553 and over (Refer to Table 2 below page 81).

In contrast, of those participants on government benefit, a quarter were receiving weekly income supports ranging from \$160-\$180 compared with 21 (50 percent) of those who were on an income supports ranging from \$240-\$260 and plus. Of the participants who were living in private rentals, about a quarter (48.3 percent) had an income source from wage or salary compared with 6 (16.2 percent) living in state rentals. Fourteen (48.3 percent) living in private rentals were on government benefit/assistance compared with 29 (78.4 percent majority) living in State rental housing as presented in Table 15 on page 118. Thus, income has shown a strong association between the types of house of the participants. Those with relatively higher income had an increased level of coping with life and happiness in New Zealand. Occupation, type employment and income answers the demographics part of question two of this research.

<b>Table 2: Weekly Income</b>		Count	Col %
Source of income	Government Benefit	44	64.7%
	Wage or Salary	20	29.4%
	Wage and Government supplementary assistance	4	5.9%
	Own business	1	1.5%
Wage	\$150-250	5	16.7%
	\$251-351	5	16.7%
	\$352-452	7	23.3%
	\$453-553+	13	43.3%
Benefit	\$120-140	4	9.5%
	\$160-180	14	33.3%
	\$200-220	3	7.1%
	\$240-260+	21	50.0%

#### 4.4 Finding a house

This section examines the experiences of the participants in finding housing, the length of time taken to find a house and their satisfaction with their housing. Participants were asked about the length of time taken to find a house in both private and state housing markets in Auckland. Finding suitable and affordable housing was crucial for the participants in Auckland. Key housing considerations by the participants while seeking a place to live in were length of time it takes to find a house, affordability, location and quality of housing.

The participants commented that some of those who more quickly found a place to live in were happier and settled. Whilst rather the opposite was true for those who had spent more time to find a house – again as commented on by participants. As the participants were asked during the focus group discussions: how did they go about finding rental accommodation in the Auckland region?

The majority of the respondents said the government agency Housing New Zealand Corporation (HNZC), through service providers such as the Refugee and Migrant Service (RMS), assisted them with finding state housing accommodation. This was an arrangement made between HNZ and RMS while the participants were still in the Refugee Resettlement Centre in Mangere during the Orientation Programme. Some of the participants said that they came to New Zealand under family reunification category and joined their children and spouses who had already been given accommodation. A few responded by saying they found their rental accommodation through newspapers. One said “I got it through the use of real state agents - and another said through the help of friends”. Another participant stated that:

There were mainly two things good about having state housing: firstly, lower rental cost and secondly, certainty for having a long-term housing tenure. The government (HNZC) through service providers such as RMS etc provided me a house. I came under the family reunification programme, and I joined my children who were already given an accommodation by the government agency for housing (HNZC). While I was still in Mangere Centre, RMS arranged for me to have a HNZC house.

Some participants claimed that single persons face high rent in the private housing market and often would encounter difficulty to afford the private rental housing on their own. As a result they may occupy shared accommodation or apartments.

#### 4.4.1 Duration of housing search

In this section duration of housing search or length of time taken to find their present house will be presented from the survey results. Twenty two participants (33.3 percent) had spent 1-4 weeks and the same number (33.3 percent) spent 4-8 weeks to find a house. Six of the participants (9.1 percent) had waited a year and 11 (16.7 percent) had been on a waiting list for two years and over for a State house (Refer to Table 3 below).

In comparison, 8 (30.8 percent) participants living in private rentals had spent 1-4 weeks to find a house in Auckland compared with 12 (32.4 percent) living in state rentals. Ten (38.5 percent) living in private rentals had spent 4-8 weeks searching for a house compared to 11 (29.7 percent) living in state rentals. Six (16.2 percent) living in state rentals spent 1year to find a house compared to none living in private rentals. Five (19.2 percent) had spent 2 years and plus to find a house in private rentals compared with 6 (16.2 percent) in state rentals which can be observed in Table 15 on page 118 from cross-tabulations.

<b>Table 3: Duration of housing search</b>		Count	Col %
State and private housing: general	1-4 weeks	22	33.3%
	4-8 weeks	22	33.3%
	8-12 weeks	2	3.0%
	3-6 months	3	4.5%
	1 year	6	9.1%
	2 years plus	11	16.7%

#### 4.4.3 Discrimination and housing trends

In this section the effect of discrimination on the participants will be examined. Most participants identified in the workshop discussions that perceived and real discrimination hugely impacted on their housing outcomes. What the Somali issues are and their experiences can tell us how the barriers to accessing housing impact on the resettlement process in Auckland.

The participants considered that they encountered discrimination while dealing with Housing New Zealand staff in Auckland. Participants emphasised that poor transparency in social housing allocation and management by Housing New Zealand limited their access to housing. Such barriers impact on their resettlement process and integration outcomes. The participants viewed that kind of practice as discriminatory social behaviour. The Housing New Zealand selection criteria were particularly criticized by participants as lacking transparency and limiting applicants' housing options.

The participants limited English language and a lack of information on their housing entitlement rights impacted on their access to state housing. In addition, those participants in State housing experienced overcrowded conditions of housing as a consequence of not having enough space for large households.

Participants emphasised overcrowding had health implications – affected by a lack of cultural and social understanding by housing providers. Also participants stressed that they experienced a lack of responses to their housing needs from both state and private rental housing providers. The problem is prevalent among most of the participants who felt that they were discriminated against by the Housing New Zealand staff, in particular those from the Pacific Island backgrounds, with a lack of prompt response to the participants' housing needs. Examples given by participants during the workshop include a single person having access problems to State housing due to a shortage of one to two bedroom accommodation and priorities being given to larger families. Moreover, a long waiting list for state housing in Auckland was identified another factor that some participants claimed lasted “as long as up to five years”. Some Participants also raised the issue of particular applicants being on waiting list for six years regarded by HNZA as not urgent cases. Housing New Zealand tenants who participated in this research expressed uneasiness about their Pacific Island neighbours who were not being willing to share common driveways and community facilities in the neighbourhoods with other newly settling ethnic groups.

The participants were also deeply concerned about one particular Pacific Island neighbour's behaviour who claimed a Somali household's State housing garage space which caused significant conflicts, tensions and housing related stress. Besides, a large number of participants characterised some of their State housing in deprived neighbourhoods as causing them unnecessary disruption, aggression and stealing. The unhealthy housing conditions in old State properties caused some health-related problems for the participants as well.

By contrast, the private housing markets were described by the participants as lacking fair opportunities for renting a house in Auckland. The major barriers identified include: family type and size, high housing rental costs and unemployment. For example, one of the participants described having a larger family size with children attracts discrimination from the private landlords and real-estate agents. The reason these participants have given include: "because the landlords and real-estate agents were primarily concerned about the impact of larger families will have on their properties and as a result favours single or smaller family size".

The other key barriers identified by the participants during the workshop discussions were – renting housing involves: rental deposits, rents in advance, real state fees, and language barriers. Consequently, participants suggested that there was uncertainty regarding their housing tenure in private rentals since real-estate agents sometimes are reluctant to respond to their housing requirements.

Some participants commented that the lack of response by real-estate agents had been motivated by a perceived negative stereotype and social class category "the level and source of income, racial and cultural profiles and communication barrier / accent." In one of the women workshop discussions a women who was a head of family described as: "when we go to view a rental property in private rental housing – as soon as the real-agent or landlord realise we are simply different from them they say sorry it is taken."

Similar experiences were evident with Somalis in Canada (Hulchanski, 1997). The majority of those participants living in the private housing rentals therefore maintained during the workshop discussions that they encountered prejudice based on their culture, ethnicity and race. In both State and private housing markets a number of participants showed dissatisfaction with housing providers.

In general all participants mentioned facing some difficulties in finding rental accommodation without assistance either from service providers or friends and family members due to lack of references, affordability and cultural misconceptions. Some participants said “HNZ staff some times acted as a judge and a jury“. The participants’ housing experiences and resettlement process show how difficult it is for them to access services. This part of the data provides strong response and answers question three of the research.

#### **4.5 Affordability**

In this section, affordability of housing and amount of rent paid by the participants are presented from the survey and discussions. How does suitability and affordability of housing as a policy issue impact on the Somali population’s resettlement process? For resettled refugees the affordability of housing has major implications. These include source of income and housing cost given that most of the participants identified their source of income as government assistance. This means they are in low-income compared to those receiving wage or salary. At the time of this research all the participants were living in rental housing rented either from the State rental housing or private rental markets.

Housing must be affordable so that households would have enough to spend on other needs. Those participants in State rental housing were motivated by rents being subsidised by the government compared to those in private rental housing. The Refugee Voices Research (2004) noted similar preferences among resettled refugees in New Zealand (Dunstan et al., 2004).

The participants were asked to categorise their housing weekly rental cost both in the private and state housing sectors. Table 4 rents category shows that 10 (31.3 percent) paid weekly rent ranging from \$151-\$251 in private rental, while a quarter (53.1percent) paid weekly rent ranging from \$252-352. Only 5 (15.6 percent) amongst private rentals in Auckland were paying the highest rent ranging from \$353-\$453 plus (Refer to Table 4 on page 89).

In comparison, 24 (70.6 percent) who had been living in State housing paid \$50-\$100 dollars a week. Nine (26.5 percent) were paying about \$101-\$151 weekly in state housing while, only one person (2.9 percent) paid a weekly rent to state housing in the range from \$152-\$202 and over (Refer to Table 15 on page 118). This is the highest rent paid by state tenants from those who participated in this study, although this is more affordable by comparison to private housing sector weekly rent in Auckland. In this regard, the Government housing policy of addressing affordability of housing can be said to be effective for participants who live in state rentals. How does suitability and affordability of housing as a policy issue impact on the Somali population's resettlement process in Auckland? As expected, however, those participants in private rental housing identified affordability of housing as one of the key issues. These participants further highlighted that particularly for those in low-income households, after paying high rents there is often not enough money left to be spent on other basic needs.

The issue of affordability resurfaced during the discussions around the Accommodation Supplement which the participants referred to as unclear. The widely held view of the participants regarding the Accommodation Supplement was a lack of information about it.

The importance of timely information was seen as important mainly for the family reunification and the asylum seekers participants. These participants maintained that they do not have an orientation to New Zealand such as that provided to the quota refugees on arrival.

All the participants agreed during the workshop discussion upon the lack of knowledge and information as a major barrier in utilising available provision of services. In addition, the participants commented that any information and guidelines such as pamphlets and leaflets are written in English with none in Somali. "So we do not know whether we are eligible for the Accommodation Supplement or not".

Most participants strongly believed that neither, the Ministry of Social Development Service nor Work and Income (WINZ) provide the services of interpreters as part of its service delivery to its customers. Although there is a language line telephone interpreting often is not utilized by this service. Some participants state that in most cases they do not understand WINZ information and decisions due to English language difficulties. The participants further described this situation as a key barrier to accessing employment and some important benefit entitlements. They further articulated: "instead WINZ case managers ask us to come with family members or a friend to help with our language matters, people are busy and not always available to go with us to WINZ offices."

The majority of those who participated in this study were state housing tenants who said they understand that state rental properties were already subsidised. Therefore, the Accommodation Supplement was in effect not applicable to them. Nevertheless, a few participants who were aware of their entitlements and live in private rental properties said they qualify for the Accommodation Supplement. Those who do not qualify for the Accommodation Supplement were asked to give reasons during the discussions. There were a few Somali asylum seekers who strongly believed that they had serious problem with WINZ. The main issue was related to a lack of a work permit.

However, a few asylum seekers who participated in this study commented that even though their application for refugee status has been accepted, they were denied access to a benefit and the Accommodation Supplement by WINZ offices in Auckland.

There is also a new and alarming phenomenon emerging more recently, which involves spouses who came to join their New Zealand resident/citizen partner. These spouses had to wait for their work permit for about two years and during that period they would not be entitled for any government assistance. This situation has created financial hardship, which has strained couples' relationships to a breaking point and some eventually ended up in divorce. Hence, the newly arrived partner without a work permit is living in limbo with members of the community. The participants raised the need for supporting especially those Somali women separated from their husbands after they had lived in New Zealand for two years as they will not qualify for any Government supports including the Accommodation Supplement.

Housing affordability relatively correlated with type of housing. Another key mediating factor related to affordability of housing was unemployment. This trend is a major problem for those participants in private housing markets that limit their ability to rent a house in a desirable location where they will not be racially harassed. Some participants were frustrated with social services that work in the refugee and ethnic sector being unhelpful at times and acting as restrictive. Participants expressed housing related stress such as poor quality of housing impacted on their health.

<b>Table: 4 Rents category</b>			Count	Col %
Private rental	\$151-251		10	31.3%
	\$252-352		17	53.1%
	\$353-453+		5	15.6%
State rental	\$50-100		24	70.6%
	\$101-151		9	26.5%
	\$152-202+		1	2.9%

#### 4.6 Types of housing

Of the 72 participants more 30 (41.5 percent) were living in private rental houses compared with 26 (80.2 percent) living in state rental houses. Of these 9 participants (12.5 percent) were living in a private rental townhouse, while 8 (11.11 percent) had been living in state rental apartments and only 4 (5.55 percent) had been living in a shared house which can be seen in Table 5 below.

During the focus group discussions, participants were asked to talk about the housing aspects of cultural appropriateness. Nearly half of the participants were dissatisfied with their housing mainly for lack of a study room or smaller bedroom for large families. This finding has correlations with previous research findings (see Refugee Voices, 2004; Ozaki, 2002, Cole & Robison, 2003; Foley and Beer, 2004). The importance of location and larger number of bedrooms are linked to previous studies in the Auckland context (Auckland Regional Strategy, 2003). Accordingly, types of housing had a possible relationship between the participants' level of coping with life in New Zealand. Those participants who were living in better types of housing suggested that they had improved their housing outcomes. Alternatively, those participants' living in a poor type of housing mentioned that although their types of housing had a negative impact on their life in New Zealand they believed they had no other housing options. There was a strong correlation between types of housing and the participants' housing outcomes.

<b>Table: 5 Types of housing</b>		Count	Col %
Type of house in Private Rental	House	30	41.5%
	Apartment	2	3.1%
	Townhouse	9	12.5%
Type of house in State rentals	House	39	54.2%
	Townhouse	1	1.4%
	Apartment	8	11.1%
	shared house	4	5.5%

#### **4.7 Choice of housing**

This section looks at the choice of housing and location that participants ultimately occupied. The participants emphasised the importance of having the right information about a house when making choices. In the workshop discussions, the location of housing in relationship to essential services was seen as an important indicator of housing satisfaction.

Participants emphasised having a lack of housing choice, and barriers to accessing to quality housing and location compromised the important features of housing. As one participant points out... "I like my neighbours but not the quality of the house we live in due to its inaccessibility to amenities".

When participants were asked about location of their housing, more 61 (84.7 percent: an overwhelming majority) responded that the location of their house was in Central Auckland suburbs: 30 (41.7 percent) a large proportion of the participants had been living in the Mt. Roskill locality and 15 (20.8 percent) in Mt. Albert. While 13 (18.1 percent) lived in Avondale and 11 (15.3 percent) lived in West Auckland suburbs: 3 (4.2 percent) New Lynn and 3 (4.3 percent) in Henderson, 3 (4.2 percent) Massey. Of these 26 (86.7 percent) in private rentals had been living in a Central Auckland locality compared with 32 (90.4 percent) of state rentals. In contrast 4 (13.3 percent) had been living in private rentals in West Auckland compared with 7 (17.9 percent) in state rentals (Refer to Table 6 on page 94).

Participants were asked during the workshop discussions their experiences of choice of housing: What social factors do you consider important to you in choosing a place to live? The majority of the participants agreed that their priorities when making a decision to choose a place to live are based on:

- firstly, safe and secure neighbourhood;
- Secondly, access to education, health, community amenities and local shops/malls and community activities.

However, they accepted that these priorities depend on their ability to afford a house in certain locations where these services can be accessed. It also depends on the availability of housing and if the landlords or providers are willing to rent to them. A number of participants new to New Zealand and women opted for proximity to family, friends and people of their own ethnic background. There was a greater degree of agreement among participants that their priorities when choosing a location of their place to live were influenced by need and not necessarily choice.

The respondents also expressed that only when they are capable of renting a private rental house would they think of basing their choice of housing on safety and quality of neighbourhood, and access to key public amenities. This particular finding correlated with research in Europe, Canada and Australia regarding safety and access to essential services for refugees (Mateman, 1999, Carey-Wood, 1997; Murdie et al., 2004, Jupp, 1994).

Some participants stated that for renting private housing one must fulfil the requirements which include providing a reference, income status and family size. Thus, participants claimed that as refugees - particularly those new to New Zealand - will not satisfy these requirements and hence accept poor housing often situated in deprived socio-economic neighbourhoods. As well, the lack of knowledge concerning housing markets and limited English language was seen as a major barrier to accessing housing (HNZC, 2005). This finding shows a correlation with other Somali resettled refugee housing experiences in Canada and the United Kingdom (Hulschanki, 1997; Cole & Robinson, 2003).

The women's only workshop discussions highlighted that the private housing market proved difficult for renting a house in Auckland. One female participant said she had been waiting for a suitable house in the private market for five to seven years, while others mentioned that they were awaiting a HNZC house for 6 years. A number of participants suggested that they experienced psychological impacts as consequences of their inability to make housing choices. In particular, a number of participants identified as having experienced a lack of housing choice in Auckland.

In both only men's and only women's workshops some participants' indicated that the problems include: low income, for some family type and size and overall they believed racial profiles mattered in both state and private housing markets. In addition, participants have emphasised their background as refugees in New Zealand meant they had to accept any type of housing offered to them when they first arrived in New Zealand. This supports the claim made by the NGO Sector report (2000) in the literature.

A lack of choice of housing in terms of quality and location contributed to isolation from people of their own ethnic background for some participants. These types of housing experiences had also been identified in the literature in Australian context (Foley and Beer, 2003).

Some participants also expressed that limited housing options had negative settlement outcomes for them in the area of employment, school zones and community facilities. So more participants found these experiences difficult but few succeeded through their housing progression and managed to access a better housing in the long-term. Specially, participants also commented that a transfer to a better location and quality in state housing was unlikely, if not impossible, which is one of the several key housing issues identified during the workshop discussions. An overwhelming consensus was evident among the participants in the workshop and they noted:

as a matter of fact we do not have a choice when it comes to choosing where to live as most of us the Somalis came to New Zealand through refugee quota our accommodation was already decided for us, which means we basically had to take what we were offered. Some said we would have actually moved out but will not get anywhere else.

Hence, choice of housing and location play a major role in housing outcomes and thus it has shown a possible correlation with participants' housing satisfaction and their happiness with life in New Zealand. The participants' housing experiences show similarities with previous research in New Zealand and the United Kingdom, Canada, the United States of America and Australia related to some aspects of housing experiences for Somali refugees in those countries (see Lilley, 2004, NGO, 2000; Murdie et al., 2002; Foley and Beer, 2003; Cole & Robinson, 2003, Schaid & Grossman, 2003).

<b>Table: 6 Location</b>		<b>Count</b>	<b>Col %</b>
City Area	Central Auckland	61	84.7%
	West Auckland	11	15.3%
Suburbs	Mt Albert	15	20.8%
	Mt Roskill	30	41.7%
	Mt Eden	1	1.4%
	Avondale	13	18.1%
	New Lynn	3	4.2%
	Kelston	2	2.8%
	Henderson	3	4.2%
	Massey	3	4.2%
	Onehunga	1	1.4%
	Sandringham	1	1.4%

#### **4.8 Housing tenure**

In this section survey results concerning living at participants' current address and housing moves will be shown with a brief explanation. Of the total, 72 respondents 8 (11.6 percent) responded that they had been living at their current address for 1-6 months. More than a quarter (33.3 percent) had lived at their address for 1-2 years while one quarter (21.7 percent) had lived for 3-4 years. More than a quarter again 23 (33.3 percent) of participants had lived in one address for more than 5 years (Refer to Table 7 on page 95).

In Table 7 depicted on page 94, participants' general housing moves is illustrated. A quarter (24.2 percent) moved house 1-2 times compared with 22 (33.3 percent) who moved 3-5 times, compared with 21 (31.8 percent) who never moved. Five (17.2 percent) had lived at the same address for 1-6 months in private rentals compared to 3 (7.9 percent) in state rental housing. Thirteen (44.8 percent) had lived at same address for 1-2 years in private rentals compared with 10 (26.3 percent) in state rentals. As 7 (24.1 percent) had lived at same address for 3-4 years in private rentals compared with 8 (21.1 percent). (Refer to Table 15 Cross-tabulations on page 118).

At both only men’s and women’s workshops participants were asked what the impact on their housing tenure was in terms of moves if any (Refer to Table 7 below). The majority of the participants emphasized that the pattern that influenced their housing tenure includes: the need to make housing progression in terms of quality and larger housing, preferred location to be away from aggressive Pacific neighbourhoods, to live near school zone, seeking better job prospects, to get closer to their community resources and to access an affordable State housing. This finding supports the previous research (see Guerin et al, 2003a; McCormack, et al., 2003a).

<b>Table: 7 Housing tenure</b>		Count	Col %
Living at current address for	1-6 months	8	11.6%
	1-2 years	23	33.3%
	3-4 years	15	21.7%
	More than 5 years	23	33.3%
Number of house moves	1-2 times	16	24.2%
	3-5 times	22	33.3%
	More than 5 times	7	10.6%
	Never moved	21	31.8%

#### **4.9 Housing conditions**

In this section housing conditions will be analysed based upon the survey results. During the workshop discussions, the participants characterized their housing conditions as “damp, substandard, mostly wet and needing repairs which had not been done. As a result, the participants mainly women, claimed that they suffered tuberculosis due to poor housing conditions and overcrowding”.

For the purpose of this study ‘housing conditions’ are defined as the suitability and quality of dwellings indoor and outdoor features. Henceforth, the quality of housing include: dwelling physical structure, adequate rooms, insulation, heating, carpeting and fencing. In a broader sense it includes: neighbourhood utilities, location in terms of accessibility to schools, transportation and proximity to employment opportunities, health and social services.

Most participants reported housing-related stress such as unsettled housing tenure, frequent moves, isolation and discriminatory social behaviours against them by neighbours. Among those participants two households said they suffered from Asthma caused by poor housing conditions that exposed them to such health risks.

During the data analysis, the subjective quality of housing was used to measure the participants' housing satisfaction with five response options given: excellent, very good, good, fair and poor. In Table 8 on page 98, Twenty (28.6 percent) rated their houses as "excellent" - among these are 7 (25 percent) were living in private housing rentals compared with 12 (30.8 percent) living in state housing rentals. In total seven (10.0 percent) rated their accommodation as – "very good": of these only 1 (3.6 percent) had lived in private housing rental compared with 5 (12.8 percent) in state housing rentals. Ten (14.3 percent) rated the quality of their houses as - "good", of these 7 (25 percent) were living in private rentals compared with 3 (7.7 percent) in state rentals. While 23 (32.9 percent) rated their quality of accommodation as "fair", of these 9 (32.1 percent) were living in private rental compared with 13 (33.2 percent) in state rentals and 10 (14.3 percent) rated quality of their houses as "poor", of these, 4 (14.3 percent) were living in private rentals compared with 6 (15.4 percent) of those in state rental houses (Refer to Table 15 on page 118)..

Of the total 72 participants nearly all 66 (95.7 percent) responded as having "some housing problems", of these 6 (8.7 percent) had pests compared with 3 (4.3 percent) who said they had both some housing problems including pests. A quarter (28.6 percent) had a cold house with damp, mould, water leaks, peeled wall paper, and cracked ceiling paint while only 2 (2.6 percent) had high rent, noise and other problems with their neighbours ( see Table 8 on page 98). In Table 15 on page 118, a half of the participants 36 (50.0 percent) who were living in state rental housing responded as having "some sort of problems with their housing compared to 27 (37.5 percent) living in private rental housing. In contrast, thirty four (47.8 percent) from both private and state housing rentals said they had no problem with their housing conditions (Table 15 on page 118).

While still 2 (2.9 percent) of participants from both state and private rentals responded as having noise problems compared to 4 (5.8 percent) of those responded experiencing some other types of general housing problems. Again another 2 (2.9 percent) reported having all types of housing problems and 1 (1.4 percent) responded to the contrary as having “a very good housing condition”. The lack of access to quality housing forces some participants to ultimately occupy substandard or poor housing in both public and private sectors. The workshop discussion was centred on quality of housing, location and housing affordability as participants considered these issues were major barriers. Therefore, the participants’ quality of housing was an important housing satisfaction measure.

It can be observed in Table 8 on page 98 that the participants in state housing rentals had shown a slightly higher rating for housing satisfaction or “housing conditions” than those in private housing rentals. However, an overwhelming majority of the participants who had been living in state housing (97.3 percent) and nearly the same number (93.1 percent) in private housing said they all had some problems with their housing.

Participants were also asked about their housing conditions during the workshop discussions: What is good about your house? Some of the participants reported:

Nothing much that is good about it. We only live there, except that some of the neighbours are good and we have closer proximity to community facilities where we can take our children to but otherwise if there had been a choice we would not have been residing there.

Participants were also asked to describe what would make a good house as a place to live in. They responded that living where they reside was not their choice and it was only because they liked their neighbours and some of the community amenities like schools being closer to them. Some participants stated that in their houses family bedrooms were not of good quality. These participants stressed that only recently built houses are insulated, carpeted and warmer but most of the state houses are the old stock.

<b>Table: 8 Housing conditions</b>		<b>Count</b>	<b>Col %</b>
Housing conditions	Excellent	20	28.6%
	Very good	7	10.0%
	Good	10	14.3%
	Fair	23	32.9%
	Poor	10	14.3%
Problems with house: general	None	3	4.3%
	Some	66	95.7%
Problems with house: detailed	Pests	6	8.7%
	both	3	4.3%
	Cold	12	17.4%
	Noise	2	2.9%
	None	30	43.5%
	Other	4	5.8%
	All	2	2.9%
	Very good	1	1.4%
	Pests cold other old	1	1.4%
	damp and mould other problem with water	1	1.4%
	Damp and mould other high rent	1	1.4%
	Damp and mould other lack of safety and ill-health	1	1.4%
	Noise other neighbours	1	1.4%
	Damp and mould, cold	2	2.9%
	Pests cold	1	1.4%
Damp and mould cold other peeled wall paper and cracked ceiling paint	1	1.4%	

#### 4.10 Types of housing expected

This section presents participants' views of the types of housing expected in New Zealand and includes analyses from the cross - tabulated survey results. During the workshop discussions, the participants were asked to write on the blank line what types of housing they had expected prior to coming to New Zealand. Table 9 on page 99 shows that 3 (7.5 percent) said a four bedroom house, while one (2.5 percent) wanted 5 new bedrooms in a central location or close to school, 2 (5 percent) stated that they wish to have "a fenced house with a large backyard and for children safety specially from traffic danger or even driveway, house without cold, dampness and no bad neighbour". One (2.5 percent) wrote "warm pest-free house in good condition". Thirteen participants (30 percent) responded that they expected "suitable, better, quality, pleasant and spacious houses with several large rooms". One (2.5 percent) said a house with good view, 1(2.5 percent) a good house that is new, 1(2.5 percent) "a house that I own or one that I rented". One (2.5 percent) expected a spacious state house in good suburb and 1 (2.5 percent) said a Housing New Zealand house.

Two (5 percent) expected an excellent house composed of six bedrooms, 1 (2.5 percent) said “good house and good health condition but not expensive house”. One (2.5 percent) expected a new house without “stairs in peaceful neighbours”. One (2.5 percent) wished to have spacious new house close to most public amenities and located in a safe neighbourhood. While 1 (2.5 percent) expected a very beautiful house, 1 (2.5 percent) expected a two bedroom house, 1 (2.5 percent) preferred a house with less or no dust and if not carpeted and with varnished floors so he can put carpet on the floors (Refer to Table 9 below). Participants’ perceived expectation of developed countries such as New Zealand was that they would provide much better and quality housing compared to developing countries.

<b>Table: 9 Types of housing expected</b>		
	Count	Col %
A large house	1	2.5%
A 4 bedroom house	3	7.5%
5 new bedrooms in central location/close to school	1	2.5%
Suitable house	1	2.5%
A fenced house with a large backyard	2	5.0%
Expecting the best houses or at least a good house	2	5.0%
A house with good view	1	2.5%
A good house that is new	1	2.5%
The same as the one we are living in now and a better one	2	5.0%
A normal house	1	2.5%
A house that I own or one that I rented	1	2.5%
Housing New Zealand	1	2.5%
An excellent house composed of 6 bedrooms	2	5.0%
A better house	4	10.0%
Good house good health condition good air not expensive	1	2.5%
Good house	3	7.5%
Spacious state house in good suburb	1	2.5%
New house which does not have an up-stairs level, and peaceful neighbours	1	2.5%
Spacious new house close to most of public amenities and located in safe neighbourhood	1	2.5%
Very beautiful house	1	2.5%
2 bedroom house	1	2.5%
A pleasant house	1	2.5%
Didn't have any idea	1	2.5%
House with less or no dust and if not carpeted has varnished floors so I can put carpet on floors	1	2.5%
Spacious house with several large rooms	1	2.5%
Same house as now	2	5.0%
Fenced house for children to be safe from traffic danger or even driveway.	1	2.5%
House without cold, dampness no bad neighbour	1	2.5%
Warm pest-free house good condition	1	2.5%

#### 4.11 Number of Bedrooms

Participants were asked the number of bedrooms in their houses. A slightly higher number of participants 30.9 percent were living in 3 bedrooms compared to 20.6 percent living in 2 bedroom accommodation. As more participants were living in 4 bedrooms compared to 10.3 percent living in 5 and 6 bedrooms housing (see Table 10 below).

Further comparative cross-tabulation rental housing analysis between state and private rentals showed that 3 (10.7 percent) of those living in private rental housing said 1 bedroom compared with 1 (2.6 percent) in a state rental house. Eight (28.6 percent) living in 2 bedroom private rental houses compared with 5 (13.2 percent) of those in state rentals. While 12 (42.9 percent) had been living in 3 bedroom private rentals compared with 8 (21.1 percent) living in state rentals. Three (10.7 percent) were living in 4 bedroom private rentals compared to a quarter (44.7 percent) who had been living in state rental houses. Two (7.1 percent) respondents were living in 5 and 6 bedroom private rental houses compared with 5 (13.2 percent) in state rental houses. Only 2 respondents (5.3 percent) had been living in seven bedroom state rental houses compared with none in private rentals (Refer to Table 15 on page 118).

The number of bedrooms pattern appeared to have been influenced by the participants' number of children which was a larger family composition compared with the New Zealand standard.

<b>Table: 10 Number of Bedrooms</b>		Count	Col %
Number of bedrooms: general	1 bedroom	4	5.9%
	2 bedrooms	14	20.6%
	3 bedrooms	21	30.9%
	4 bedrooms	20	29.4%
	5 and 6 bedrooms	7	10.3%
	7 bedrooms	2	2.9%

#### **4.12 Number in households**

Participants were asked to identify the number in their households in general. In Table 11 on page 102 it can be seen that five person-households to 11 people-households were living in each of those dwellings. The participants' pattern of family composition is also influenced by a larger number of children and extended family members. This is again far higher than New Zealand average households' family composition.

Based on the cross-tabulations analysis in Table 15 on page 118, 2 (5.6 percent) were living on their own in a state housing rental compared with none in private housing rentals. Four (14.8 percent) two person households were living in a private rental house compared with 1(2.8 percent) in a state rental house. Three (11.1 percent) three-person households had been living in private rental housing compared with 5 (13.9 percent) in state rentals. While 7 (25.9 percent) four-person households were in private rentals compared with none in state rentals. Two (7.4 percent) five-person were living in private rentals compared with 6 (16.7 percent) in state rentals, 2 (7.4 percent) six-person had been living in private rentals compared with six (16.7 percent) in state rentals. One (3.7 percent) seven-person were living in private rental compared with the same number in state rentals. Eight (29.6 percent) eight-person households had been living in private rentals compared with 7 (19.4 percent) those in state rental housing. Four (11.1 percent) nine-person households had been living in state rentals compared with none in private. Three (8.3 percent) eleven-person households were living in state rentals compared with none in private rentals.

Participants were also asked if people sleep in a sitting room in their houses with "yes" or "no" response options: One quarter said "yes" and more than two-thirds majority (73.5 percent) said "no". 8 (47.1 percent) participants responded having two people usually sleep in their sitting room compared with 4 (23.5 percent) who stated that 3 people and over in general. Of these 7, (24.1 percent) living in private rentals responded 'yes' compared with 10 (27.8 percent) in state rentals whilst, 22 (75.9 percent) living in private rental responded 'no' compared with 26 (72.2 percent) in state rentals.

<b>Table: 11 Number in households</b>		Count	Col %
Number of households: general	1 person	2	3.1%
	2 people	6	9.2%
	3 people	8	12.3%
	4 people	7	10.8%
	5 people	9	13.8%
	6 people	8	12.3%
	7 people	2	3.1%
	8 people	15	23.1%
	9 people	4	6.2%
	10 people	1	1.5%
	11 people	3	4.6%
People sleep in the sitting room	Yes	18	26.5%
	No	50	73.5%
Number of people usually sleep in the sitting room	1 person	1	5.9%
	2 people	8	47.1%
	3 people and plus	4	23.5%
	It depends	3	17.6%
	A person or two	1	5.9%

#### **4.12.2 Overcrowding**

In this section, overcrowding including people sleeping in the sitting room is discussed. Of those participants who had been living in private rental housing 7 (24.1 percent) said “Yes” they had some people who usually sleep in the setting room, while 23 (88 percent) responded “No” compared to 10 (27.8 percent) of those living in state rental housing responded “Yes”, whereas 20 (55.6 percent) said “No”. (Refer to Table 15 on page 118).

Additionally most of the participants raised the issue of overcrowding in the focus group workshop discussion, particularly specific to one participant who described their housing conditions as:

Our house is overcrowded because 9 of us are living in only 4 bedroom dwelling. As for the most part of the dwellings were of poor quality including: old, damp and sometimes wet due to leaks and lack of repairs. This dwelling lacks proper maintenance being carried out in as part of some of the older state houses considered as a health hazard.

Consequently, another participant said that her family of 8 lives in a three bedroom-house and even the 3<sup>rd</sup> bedroom is a small one. This woman emphasised that out of the 8 people who live in this two-and-half bedroom house, 2 members of the family were discovered to have had Tuberculosis and one was suffering from asthma.

Further, discussions identified by the focus group participants that there were relationships between overcrowding and the Somali culture and their social wellbeing. A very important point raised by some participants was the fact that in the Somali culture and tradition, when any young adult in the family turns 18 years of age they are expected to continue living with the rest of the family at their parent's place until such a time they afford to live independently. As a result, participants acknowledged that it is culturally insensitive to ask their adolescents to move out. One mother in the women's workshop further articulated that:

I always suffer stress by hiding my two older children and only mention my other 5 younger children whenever I am filling any HNZC's forms for fear of losing my state house or the company of my two older children.

There seems to be a lack of cultural awareness and understanding on the part of the State housing provider (HNZC) to resolve or at least find an alternative solution to this genuine desire of family unity. Some also mentioned about stress related to neighbours picking on them because they were simply different and felt isolated and living away from their ethnic group.

Thus, participants highlighted overcrowding as a major problem for most members of the Somali population in Auckland. Similar Somali housing experiences have been evident in Christchurch and internationally (Lilley, 2004; Cole & Robin, 2003; Murdie et al., 2002).

The participants were also asked about their housing's cultural appropriateness in the workshop discussions: Does your house meet your cultural needs? Participants responded saying "not always" with a tendency to prefer housing built on one level rather than two story houses to avoid the use of stairs, which some of the newly built state housing provides. Specific issues such as housing layout - separate toilets, kitchen, living rooms and bigger bedroom options were characterised as of cultural significance to give privacy and social entertainments. The social and cultural housing requirements identified here by the participants had shown similarities with Somalis' housing experiences in Britain (Cole & Robison, 2003, also see Foley & Beer, 2003; Ozaki, 2002). The cultural aspects of home for the participants include: pray room and study room for children. The participants expressed the lack of mechanisms to make suggestion concerning state housing policy. For instance, some of the participants' mentioned specific issues as follows:

as tenants of state housing we have no input into the HNZC housing policy. There is no avenue to give feedback or a consultation mechanism related to housing design in terms of cultural and health requirements for the quality of state housing we live in. In order to facilitate dialogue a meeting should occur between the state tenants and HNZC to discuss the important housing issues raised in this research. Members of HNZC staff said to us, if you are not interested /or happy with what you got you are free to move out anytime. As a refugee, it is not easy for us to move out from state housing, because we do not know where to move to, private rental homes are simply an inaccessible to most of us under the circumstances previously mentioned.

The lack of feedback and consultation regarding the participants, housing needs as its consumers HNZC has a responsibility to develop strategies to address such problems. This can be done by sending out a small survey asking what are pressing housing needs of its tenants.

Clearly, the majority of the participants were frustrated with a lack of understanding by the Housing New Zealand staff concerning the extent of overcrowding. In particular, households sharing a bedroom has social cultural and health stigma.

The workshop discussions also showed that young adults were forced to move out of their parent's places due to overcrowding. Some participants commented that their family cohesion, cultural and social dynamics were interrupted after members of their adult families moved to less overcrowded types of housing. This worries the parents and has negative impacts on their psychological well-being. Those young adults forced to live in independent accommodation encountered financial difficulties and faced limited quality of housing options. Some of those young adult participants reported that they were struggling to cope with housing costs and living in poor housing in deprived neighbourhoods. This was reportedly causing social and cultural tensions as well as major housing stress for young adults and parents as identified by a number of participants.

In consequence, an overwhelming majority of participants agreed that "overcrowding" was a major problem. As well, overcrowding is highly correlated with participants' negative housing outcomes, poor health status for some and unhappiness with life in New Zealand. Overcrowding is shown a close relationship with the participants' health status. Thus, overcrowding is important with respect to measuring quality of housing and housing experiences, social integration, cultural and health outcomes (see also Cole & Robinson, 2003). A larger number of children and some people who sleep in sitting rooms leads to overcrowding. As a result, overcrowding is correlated with the participants' poor health outcomes (Refer to Table 19 correlation matrix on page 140).

#### **4.13 Housing and keeping healthy**

Participants were asked if they had housing-related health problems. Table 12 on page 107 shows that 19 (29.2 percent) had some health-related problems with their houses while 46 (70.8 percent) had no health problems.

Eight (12.3 percent) had Asthma, 5 (7.7 percent) acute rheumatic fever. While 1 (1.5 percent) had both and 3 (4.6 percent) had asthma, tuberculosis and acute rheumatic fever. Two (3.1 percent) had asthma and acute rheumatic fever. One-quarter of those who had been living in state rental housing (44.4 percent) had some health related problem compared with 3 (11.5 percent) living in private rentals. Twenty three (88.5 percent) living in private rentals responded they 'had no' health-related problems compared with 20 (55.6 percent) in state rentals.

Participants were also asked to rate their health status with four response options: excellent, very good, good, fair and poor. Nearly half of the participants (44.9 percent) gave the rating of their health as "excellent," while 6 (8.7 percent) rated it as "very good". Ten (14.5 percent) rated their health as "good", compared with double of that number (29.0 percent) rated as "fair" and only 2 (2.9 percent) rated as "poor". Then, participants were asked to rate their family health status with the same response options: 23 (35.4 percent) rated their family health status 'excellent' while, 11 (16.9 percent) rated 'very good' and 7 (10.8 percent) rated 'good'. Of these 21 (32.3 percent) rated 'fair' and 3 (4.6 percent) rated 'poor'. Of those 11(42.3 percent) had been living in private while the same number living in state rental houses rated their family health status as 'excellent'. Five (19.2 percent) rated their family health status 'very good' who had been living in state rentals compared with the same number living in private rental houses. While, only 3 (8.1 percent) living in state rentals rated their family health status 'poor' compared with none in private rentals. The participants' larger family sizes and a lack of large houses in Auckland influenced the pattern of housing-related health problems for a number of participants.

By and large, more participants 16 (57.1 percent) living in private rentals rated their health status 'excellent' compared with 14 (36.8 percent) in state rentals. Only 2 (5.3 percent) rated their health status 'poor' compared with none in private rentals (Refer to Table 15 on page 118).

<b>Table: 12 Housing and keeping healthy</b>		Count	Col %
Housing related health problems	Some	19	29.2%
	None	46	70.8%
	Asthma	8	12.3%
	Acute rheumatic fever	5	7.7%
	Both	1	1.5%
	None	46	70.8%
	Asthma tuberculosis acute rheumatic fever	3	4.6%
	Asthma acute rheumatic fever	2	3.1%
Participant's health status	Excellent	31	44.9%
	Very good	6	8.7%
	Good	10	14.5%
	Fair	20	29.0%
	Poor	2	2.9%
Family health status	Excellent	23	35.4%
	Very good	11	16.9%
	Good	7	10.8%
	Fair	21	32.3%
	Poor	3	4.6%

Participants were also asked to identify in the workshop discussions any types of issues that may had an impact on their access to public and primary health healthcare providers. The response was unanimous and typically identified some key issues that impact on their daily access to health and better health outcomes in Auckland. The issues that are related to accessing health services include: the need for health, cultural and linguistically appropriate information.

The majority of participants expressed concern at the lack of health information and awareness of New Zealand health system as one of the barriers to accessing timely and appropriate primary health care in the community.

More participants claimed their level of awareness of primary health organisations (PHOs) in the community is very low compared with public health and have no idea how the PHOs work. For instance, some of the participants referred to the complex enrolment process of primary health organisations. There was also a lack of understanding about the difference between a higher user health card and a community services card. In particular, this concern was predominantly expressed in the women's focus group workshop concerning the level of accessibility of health services.

The workshop discussions also included: general resettlement issues such as community and cultural activities and whether the participants belonged to any social clubs. These were raised with participants to ascertain what types of things they do to maintain their own Somali culture in New Zealand.

Some participants commented that the ways in which they maintain their Somali culture while in New Zealand comprise strengthening their Somali language, performing their Islamic duties and continuing cooking their traditional foods, as well as practising and displaying their arts and cultural activities during public festivals, and participating in different sports activities. Furthermore, some of the participants said they had the opportunity to participate in religious studies, Somali language classes, while most of them said they belong to the Auckland Somali Community Association.

As for belonging to sports clubs, for example, most of the women were members of the women's only Somali swimming pool run by the Somali Association which is also open to other women's refugee groups in Auckland. Although the majority of workshop attendees mentioned they belong to the Auckland Somali Community Association and participate in cultural and social activities, only some young people said they were members of the Somali soccer team in Auckland.

#### **4.14 English proficiency**

In this section English proficiency of the participants will be analysed. Resettled refugees' access to English language and obtaining appropriate level of skills is crucial to participation in New Zealand Society. Participants were asked about their English proficiency.

The participants were also asked about their level of education. Seventeen (24.3 percent) responded that they could speak English 'very well', 13 (18.6 percent) said 'well', while 21 (30.0 percent) said their English proficiency was 'moderate'. Ten (14.3) rated the level of their English proficiency as "not well" and 9 (12.9 percent) can speak 'no more than a few words'. Ten (33.3 percent) of those living in private rental houses said they speak English "very well" compared with 7 (18.4 percent) in state rentals (see Table 13 on page 113).

Eight (26.7 percent) living in private rentals spoke English well compared with 5 (13.2 percent) in state rentals. Four (13.3 percent) living in private rental believe they speak 'moderate' English compared with 16 (42.1 percent) in state rentals. Five (16.7 percent) living in private rentals responded that their English proficiency is 'not very well' compared with 4 (10.5 percent) in state rentals. Three (10.0 percent) living in private rental said their English proficiency was 'no more than a few words' compared with 6 (15.8 percent) in state rentals. (Cross – tabulations detail is provided in Table 15 on page 118).

The patterns involved with the participants' English proficiency include their refugee backgrounds and limited or no English language skills. The English language impacted on participants' ability to negotiate with service providers. Of course this depends on distinctive participants' individual circumstances in coping with life in New Zealand. In this regard, further analysis of the correlation matrix showed the level of English proficiency was closely associated with coping with life in New Zealand, so was very important. (Refer to Table 19 on page 140).

The participants were also asked if they had learning and study rooms in their houses with 'yes' or 'none' response options. Eleven (15.7 percent) responded 'yes' while, 59 (84.3 percent) responded "none". (Refer to Table 13 on page 113). Of those participants who responded 'yes', 4 (13.3) were living in private rentals compared with 5 (13.5) living in state rentals. About a half of those participants 26 (86.7 percent) responded 'none' had been living in private rentals less than the 32 (86.5 percent) living in state rentals (Table 15, p. 118).

The majority of the participants had no study rooms, particularly those living in state rental housing. A number of them highlighted the poor quality of housing and high rents in private rental housing. As such, those participants living in state housing were the least satisfied with their housing. This is likely to suggest that the participants' ability to negotiate housing consumption and other resettlement outcomes was influenced by their level of proficiency in English language (Refer to Table 16 on page 124). The level of proficiency in the English language is critical for successful resettlement. As identified in the literature many refugees need English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) learning which are directly related with their needs for literacy. New Zealand has "lower ESOL quality-assured provision" compared to Canada and Australian schemes that "offer refugees free ESOL classes for a set number of hours" or "targeted level of proficiency" (Ministry of Education, 2003a, p.23).

In the workshop discussion the participants commented regarding needing more access to English language to indicate their determination to participate in the host community to negotiate life goals such as housing, education, and employment. Proficiency in English and occupation shows a relatively high relationship. The lack of competency in English language and literacy showed a possible association with unemployment which is a major barrier to increasing income levels for participants (Refer to Table 15 on page 118 for cross-tabulations). This finding shows similarities with past research in New Zealand and internationally (JR McKenzie Trust, 2004; Foley & Beer, 2003).

#### **4.14.1 Level of Education**

In this section the participants' level of education will be discussed based on the survey results. Participants were asked about their level of education in New Zealand with five response options: school certificate, diploma, degree, none of these, illiterate / or no education. A third of the participants 26 (36.1 percent) had a school certificate while a quarter 17 (23.6 percent) had a diploma. Seven (9.7 percent) had a degree compared with another one-quarter 19 (26.4 percent) who had no qualifications (See Table 13 on page 113). Of these, 13 of the participants (43.3 percent) had been living in private rental houses and had obtained school certificate in New Zealand compared with the same number living in state rentals. Twelve (40.0 percent) living in private rental houses had a diploma compared with 5 (12.8 percent) of those living in state rentals. Three (10.0 percent) living in private rentals had a degree compared with 4 (10.3 percent) those living in state rentals. Only 1(3.3 percent) living in private rentals had 'no qualification compared with a quarter 16 (41.0 percent) of those living in state rentals. The same number of the participants 1 (3.3 percent) living in both private and state rental housing were illiterate / or had no education (Refer to Table 15 on page 118).

Participants were also asked regarding their level of education in Somalia with six response options: primary, intermediate, secondary, university, none, illiterate or no education. Ten (13.9 percent) had primary level of education prior to coming to New Zealand while a quarter 16 (22.2 percent) had intermediate compared with 26 (36.1 percent) had secondary level of education (Refer to Table 13 on page 113). Nearly a quarter of the participants 12 (16.7 percent) had a university level of education in Somalia compared with 7 (9.7 percent) who had no qualification in Somalia (Refer to Table 13 on page 113). One-quarter of the participants (16.7 percent) who had been living in both private and state rental housing had primary and secondary level of education in Somalia. Whilst only 5 (6.7 percent) of those participants who had been living in private rentals had a university level of education in Somalia compared with 6 (15.4 percent) those living in state rentals. Seven (17.9 percent) living in state rentals had no education in Somalia compared with nil in private rentals (Refer to Table 15 on page 118).

The participants' varying education backgrounds showed also in different patterns in their housing experiences. For example, more participants who had primary and secondary education in Somali tended to live in State housing. It is likely that their low level of education and a lack of higher New Zealand education influenced their employability and so their housing outcomes. It is important to note that the differences of education systems between New Zealand and Somalia influenced the participants' educational attainment. The Somali education system is based on teacher's oral communication with students. By contrast, the New Zealand education system is both academic and practically oriented where students are involved in a lateral thinking, problem solving and critical analysis (see Humpage, 2000).

In view of those participants who had a lower level of education in Somalia, the participants' discussions emphasized that maintaining their own language in New Zealand is critical predominantly for the young Somali group. Henceforth, families will need to support their children in education. So, parents with children should get some support with childcare where they can trust their children are safe.

The participants identified in the discussions that childcare support is important in workforce, education, social and community activities. The key role children holiday activities plays were also highlighted by participants as imperative social and cultural activities that can help children to develop new skills. They believed this serves as a source for gaining confidence after good holidaying. In addition, some parents commented that on returning from school holidays children will have a lot to share with their school friends about places they visited during their holiday breaks and other activities. A lack of such holiday activities contributes to a low self-esteem as they do not have good stories to tell at school. However, participants raised the impact of financial constraints on refugee parents who are unable to take their children to quality holiday activities. In general, the level of education in New Zealand has correlated with the participants' positive housing experiences and increased levels of coping and happiness with life in New Zealand.

The level of education in New Zealand has shown as being a relatively higher level of importance than education in Somalia. Those participants with a low level of English language proficiency and education require more support. Several sources agree that impact of English language on the ability of refugees to communicate for almost all essential life goals is critical (MSD, 2004; Ministry of Education, 2003; NZIS, 2004; Woolford, 2005).

<b>Table: 13 English proficiency</b>		Count	Col %
Level of proficiency in English	Very well	17	24.3%
	Well	13	18.6%
	Moderate	21	30.0%
	Not very well	10	14.3%
	No more than a few words	9	12.9%
Learning and study rooms	Yes	11	15.7%
	None	59	84.3%
Level of Education in New Zealand	School Certificate	26	36.1%
	Diploma	17	23.6%
	Degree	7	9.7%
	None	19	26.4%
	Illiterate/ No Education	3	4.2%
Level of Education in Somalia	Primary	10	13.9%
	Intermediate	16	22.2%
	Secondary	26	36.1%
	University	12	16.7%
	None	7	9.7%
	Illiterate/ No Education	1	1.4%

#### **4.15 Integration and level of happiness**

This section examines the participants' integration and level of happiness in New Zealand. Participants were asked about their integration and level of happiness to be living in New Zealand with a three rating scale: very happy, not very happy and somewhat happy. Two-thirds of the participants (58.6 percent) rated their level of happiness to be living in New Zealand as "very happy" compared with 20 (28.6 percent) who gave the rating of as "not very happy". Whist 9 participants (12.9 percent) rated their level of happiness to be living in New Zealand as "somewhat happy". Of these, 9 (13.0 percent) gave the rating of as "very easy" compared with 8 (11.6 percent) rated as "not very easy" their coping with life in New Zealand (Refer to Table 14 on page 115 below).

The participants' level of happiness to be living in New Zealand was compared between types of rental houses. For example, one-quarter (62.1 percent) living in private rentals said they were "very happy" compared with 23 (60.5 percent) living in state rentals. Nine (31.0 percent) living in private rentals said they were "not very happy" compared with 10 (26.3 percent) living in state rentals, while only 2 (6.9 percent) said they were "somewhat happy" compared with 5 (13.2 percent) living in state rentals. (Refer to Table 15 on page 118).

Participants were also asked regarding their level of coping with life in New Zealand with a five rating scale: very difficult, somewhat difficult, neither / or neutral, not very easy and very easy. Of the 72, total number of participants 19 (27.5 percent) rated their level of coping with life in New Zealand as "very difficult" compared with again the same number (27.5 percent). Ten (34.5 percent) of those participants who had been living in private rental housing rated their level of coping with life in New Zealand as "very difficult" compared to 9 (23.5 percent) of those in state rentals who gave a rating of "somewhat difficult". Even though 4(13.8 percent) rated as "neither/ or neutral" in private rentals with more 9 (23.7 percent) of those in state rentals. Although 2 (6.9 percent) living in private rental rated coping "very easy" compared with 6 (15. 8 percent) living in state rentals as presented in Table 15 on page 118.

<b>Table: 14 Integration and level of happiness</b>			
Level of happiness in New Zealand (NZ)	Very happy	41	58.6%
	Not very happy	20	28.6%
	Somewhat happy	9	12.9%
Level of coping with life in NZ	Very difficult	19	27.5%
	Somewhat difficult	19	27.5%
	Neither/neutral	14	20.3%
	Not v easy	8	11.6%
	Very easy	9	13.0%

#### 4.16 Cross-Tabulations

In this section the effects flowing from different housing providers will be comparatively discussed. Cross-tabulations were created to assess differences in participants' housing outcomes between the two main rental housing providers: state housing and private rental housing in Auckland (See Table 15 below).

The cross-tabulations in Table 15 depicted on page 118 presents rental housing by type of housing provider. The types of housing provider - in this case private and state housing providers - were compared and found as important factors that impacted on participants' housing outcomes. The participants living in state rental housing rated their housing conditions as "excellent" (30.8 percent) compared to those living in private rental housing giving a rating of "excellent" (25.0 percent). The participants who had lived in houses were (70.4 percent) in private rental and (27.4 percent) in state rental.

The rating variances between the two housing providers were likely to have been influenced by the participants' perceptions of their housing experiences particularly – in State rental housing for two reasons. Firstly due to State rental housing affordability policy that includes: cost of State housing tenants' water usage within the rents subsidy and settled housing tenures compared with unlike private rental housing providers. Secondly, suitability of housing is being improved through modernising older State housing stock and building new housing in some areas (See HNZA Auckland Regional Strategy, 2005).

Nevertheless, not all participants were satisfied with their housing despite these reasons, because there were several other factors that were equally important and influenced the participants' housing dissatisfaction with housing. These factors were: a lack of large houses, inadequate quality of housing – dampness, leaking, maintenance not done, noise, proximity to work, school transport, distress due tension in the neighbourhoods particularly with the Pacific households.

An overwhelming majority of the participants were living in the central Auckland area (90.5 percent) in state rental housing, much the same (86.7 percent) for as those in private rental housing. It appears that those of the participants in this area would have more access to established local community facilities, proximity to school zones, higher education, jobs, than those participants living in the Massey area of West Auckland. And also the participants who had been living in central Auckland can access their own Somali shops, mosque and other key resettlement services more readily than those living in west Auckland. In fact during the focus group discussions a number of participants who had been living in the Massey area raised the issue of isolation from the larger group of Somalis who live in proximity of services. By the same token, these participants are likely to be paying more housing rents, may experience overcrowding, shortage of housing and so forth. Therefore, location has shown an impact on the participants' housing outcomes.

Housing satisfaction was also related to the number of bedrooms participants had lived in. For example 44.7 percent had been living in 4 bed-room state rental housing with affordable housing cost. Private rental housing on the other hand accounted for 42.9 percent of the participants who were living in 3 bedrooms in most cases and finding housing costs to be unaffordable (see Table 15 on page 118). The housing cost issues in private rental housing markets correlated with previous studies in the Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom and the USA housing experiences (Foley & Beer, 2003; Clark et al., 2003; Cole & Robinson, 2003; Murdie et al., 2002; McCormack et al., 2003a; Solomon, 2002; Schaid & Grossman, 2003).

Of the participants in state rental housing, 27.8 percent had been living in overcrowded housing conditions, while 24.1 percent of those in private rental housing were overcrowded. Overcrowding was a key theme that reoccurs in the housing literature which the participants reinforced in workshop discussion as a barrier to positive housing outcomes. Overcrowded circumstances of housing had been associated with negative housing experiences and health outcomes having physical and psychological impacts on daily life (NGO, 2000; Cole & Robinson, 2003; Lilley, 2004; Lawrence, 2004; MSD, 2004; Rankine, 2005).

The overwhelming majority of the participants in state rental housing 86.5 percent claimed they had inadequate study rooms as did 86.7 percent in private rental. A space in the home for young people's study and learning contributes to positive learning and educational outcomes. On the other hand, the lack of enough study rooms can have negative impacts on family housing and learning outcomes. For instance, those participants living in private rental shown a better level of proficiency in English 33.3 percent compared with those in state rental housing 18.4 percent.

With respect to the level of education by housing provider's category: in private rental housing certificate holders accounted for 43.3 percent, diploma 40 percent and degree 10 percent compared with 33.3 percent certificate, diploma, 12.8 percent and degree 10.3 percent for those in state housing.

Comparatively, most of those in private rental participants rated their health status as "excellent" 57.1 percent and those in state rental housing 36.8 percent. (Refer to Table 15 on page for the above figures 118). In this instance, the participants claimed during the discussion that overcrowded housing conditions had negative health effects on their life as well as their family's health status. Therefore, housing provider was correlated negatively with suitability and affordability of housing, which were seen very important.

#### 4.16.1 Number of house moves

In this section, participants' house moves in both state and private housing markets will be comparatively analysed. Participants were asked how many times they have moved house over time with four response options given: 1-2 times, 3-5 times, more than 5 times and never moved. Six (22.2 percent) living in private rentals said they had moved 1-2 times compared with 9 (15.0 percent) living in state rentals. Nearly one-quarter of the participants 11 (40.7 percent) who were living in both private and state rental housing had moved 3-5 times. While 5 (18.5 percent) participants in private rentals moved more than 5 times compared to 2 (5.6 percent) in state rentals. On the other hand 5 (18.5 percent) participants who had been living in private rentals never moved compared with a quarter of the participants (38.9 percent) living in state rentals. In Table 15 below the housing rental cross-tabulations can be referred to for details.

		Private rental		State rental	
		Count	Col %	Count	Col %
Gender	Male	17	56.7%	17	44.7%
	Female	13	43.3%	21	55.3%
Age	18-29	12	40.0%	14	35.9%
	30-39	10	33.3%	8	20.5%
	40-49	5	16.7%	9	23.1%
	50-79	3	10.0%	8	20.5%
Marital status	Married	17	56.7%	20	51.3%
	N Married	12	40.0%	14	35.9%
	Engaged	1	3.3%	4	10.3%
	Solo mums			1	2.6%
Children	Yes	17	56.7%	21	58.3%
	No	13	43.3%	15	41.7%
No. of children	1 child	3	17.6%		
	2 children	3	17.6%	1	4.8%
	3 children	2	11.8%	2	9.5%
	5 children	2	11.8%	1	4.8%
	6 children	3	17.6%	4	19.0%
	7 children+	2	11.8%	5	23.8%
	8 children +	1	5.9%	2	9.5%
	10 children			1	4.8%
	9 children	1	5.9%	4	19.0%
	14 children			1	4.8%
Occupation	Employed	15	50.0%	7	17.9%
	Unemployed	6	20.0%	14	35.9%
	Student	9	30.0%	18	46.2%
Paid jobs	Full-time	13	72.2%	4	36.4%
	Part-time	1	5.6%	1	9.1%
	Casual	4	22.2%	6	54.5%
Time taken to find a house	1-4 weeks	8	30.8%	12	32.4%
	4-8 weeks	10	38.5%	11	29.7%
	8-12 weeks	2	7.7%		
	3-6 months	1	3.8%	2	5.4%
	1 year			6	16.2%

Source of income	2 years plus	5	19.2%	6	16.2%
	Wage or Salary	14	48.3%	6	16.2%
	Government assistance	14	48.3%	29	78.4%
Type of house	Both	1	3.4%	2	5.4%
	House	19	70.4%	10	27.8%
	Townhouse	7	25.9%	25	69.4%
City Area	Apartment	1	3.7%	1	2.8%
	Central Auckland	26	86.7%	32	82.1%
	W Auckland	4	13.3%	7	17.9%
Current address	1-6 months	5	17.2%	3	7.9%
	1-2 years	13	44.8%	10	26.3%
	3-4 years	7	24.1%	8	21.1%
	More than 5 years	4	13.8%	17	44.7%
Number of moves	1-2 times	6	22.2%	9	25.0%
	3-5 times	11	40.7%	11	30.6%
	More than 5 times	5	18.5%	2	5.6%
	Never moved	5	18.5%	14	38.9%
Housing Conditions	Excellent	7	25.0%	12	30.8%
	Very good	1	3.6%	5	12.8%
	Good	7	25.0%	3	7.7%
	Fair	9	32.1%	13	33.3%
	Poor	4	14.3%	6	15.4%
Housing-related problems	None	2	6.9%	1	2.7%
	Some	27	93.1%	36	97.3%
Type of house expected	A large house			1	4.8%
	A 4 bedroom house	2	12.5%	1	4.8%
	5 new bedrooms in central location/close to school			1	4.8%
	A suitable house			1	4.8%
	A fenced house with a large backyard	1	6.3%		
	Expecting the best houses or at least a good house			2	9.5%
	A house with good view	1	6.3%		
	a good house that is new			1	4.8%
	the same as the one we are living in now and a better one	1	6.3%	1	4.8%
	a normal house			1	4.8%
	a house that I own or one that I rented	1	6.3%		
	housing NZ	1	6.3%		
	an excellent house composed of 6 bedrooms			2	9.5%
	a better house	1	6.3%	3	14.3%
	good house good health condition good air not expensive	1	6.3%		
	good house	2	12.5%		
	spacious state house in good suburb	1	6.3%		
	new house which does not have an up-stairs level, and peaceful neighbours			1	4.8%
	Spacious new house close to most of public amenities and located in safe neighbourhood	1	6.3%		
	2 bedroom house	1	6.3%		
	a pleasant house	1	6.3%		

	didn't have any idea			1	4.8%
	house with less or no				
	dust and if not carpeted				
Type of house expected	has varnished floors so			1	4.8%
	I can put carpet on				
	floors				
	spacious house with			1	4.8%
	several large rooms				
	same house as now			2	9.5%
	fenced house for				
	children to be safe from				
	traffic danger or even	1	6.3%		
	drive-way & a house				
	without cold, dampness				
	a safe neighbourhood				
	warm pest-free house			1	4.8%
	good condition				
Number of bedrooms	1 bedroom	3	10.7%	1	2.6%
	2 bedrooms	8	28.6%	5	13.2%
	3 bedrooms	12	42.9%	8	21.1%
	4 bedrooms	3	10.7%	17	44.7%
	5 and 6 bedrooms	2	7.1%	5	13.2%
	7 bedrooms			2	5.3%
Households size	1 person			2	5.6%
	2 people	4	14.8%	1	2.8%
	3 people	3	11.1%	5	13.9%
	4 people	7	25.9%		
	5 people	2	7.4%	6	16.7%
	6 people	2	7.4%	6	16.7%
	7 people	1	3.7%	1	2.8%
	8 people	8	29.6%	7	19.4%
	9 people +			8	22.2%
Sleep in the sitting room	Yes	7	24.1%	10	27.8%
	No	22	75.9%	26	72.2%
Housing related-health	Some	3	11.5%	16	44.4%
problems	None	23	88.5%	20	55.6%
Health status	Excellent	16	57.1%	14	36.8%
	Very good	3	10.7%	2	5.3%
	Good	4	14.3%	6	15.8%
	Fair	5	17.9%	14	36.8%
	Poor			2	5.3%
Family health status	Excellent	11	42.3%	11	29.7%
	Very good	5	19.2%	5	13.5%
	Good	3	11.5%	4	10.8%
	Fair	7	26.9%	14	37.8%
	Poor			3	8.1%
Level of proficiency in	Very well	10	33.3%	7	18.4%
English	Well	8	26.7%	5	13.2%
	Moderate	4	13.3%	16	42.1%
	Not very well	5	16.7%	4	10.5%
	No more than a few	3	10.0%	6	15.8%
	words				
Study rooms	Yes	4	13.3%	5	13.5%
	None	26	86.7%	32	86.5%
Level of education in New	School Certificate	13	43.3%	13	33.3%
Zealand	Diploma	12	40.0%	5	12.8%
	Degree	3	10.0%	4	10.3%
	None	1	3.3%	16	41.0%
	illiterate no education	1	3.3%	1	2.6%
Level of Education in	Primary	5	16.7%	4	10.3%
Somalia	Intermediate	5	16.7%	11	28.2%

Immigration categories	Secondary	14	46.7%	11	28.2%
	University	5	16.7%	6	15.4%
	None			7	17.9%
	Illiterate/ no education	1	3.3%		
	Quota refugee	13	43.3%	25	67.6%
Length of time in New Zealand	Asylum Seeker	2	6.7%		
	Family reunification	15	50.0%	12	32.4%
	6-10 months	3	10.7%	1	2.7%
	1-4 years	10	35.7%	11	29.7%
Level of happiness living in New Zealand	5-9 years	11	39.3%	17	45.9%
	10-14+ years	4	14.3%	8	21.6%
	Very happy	18	62.1%	23	60.5%
	Not very happy	9	31.0%	10	26.3%
	Somewhat happy	2	6.9%	5	13.2%
Level of coping with life in New Zealand	Very difficult	10	34.5%	9	23.7%
	Somewhat difficult	9	31.0%	10	26.3%
	Neither/neutral	4	13.8%	9	23.7%
	Not v easy	4	13.8%	4	10.5%
	Very easy	2	6.9%	6	15.8%

#### 4.17 Immigration category

In this section the participants' immigration arrival categories in New Zealand - refugee quota program, asylum seeker and family reunification - were analysed both from the arrival category table and the cross-tabulation results. Are there any relationships between the Somalis' immigration categories and their access to housing, English language classes, education, employment, and welfare benefits?

Participants were asked regarding their immigration arrival category with four response options given: quota refugee, asylum seeker, family reunification and other immigrant. A majority of the participants (57.1 percent) identified themselves as "quota refugees" resettled in New Zealand compared with 28 (40.0 percent) who had come to New Zealand as "family reunification". Of the 72 participants only 3 (4.3 percent) said they came to New Zealand as "asylum seekers" while only 1 (1.4 percent) came to New Zealand under "other immigrant." (Refer to Table 16 on page 124). Of those participants living in private rental housing 13 (43.3 percent) were quota refugees compared with 25 (67.6 percent) living in state rental houses. (See Table 15 on page 118 above).

A quarter of the participants (50.0 percent) who had been living in private rental houses came under the family reunification categories compared with 12 (32.4) living in state rentals. There were only 2 (6.7 percent) asylum seekers living in private rentals compared with none in state rental housing. (Refer to Table 15 on page 118). This is because asylum seekers would not qualify for state housing on the basis of their lack of a residency permit.

Of the 72 who participated in this study there were more quota refugees (57.1 percent) compared to family reunification (40 percent). Asylum seekers were only (2.9 percent) and were therefore not statistically significant. There were more quota refugees on government income support (74.3 percent) compared with the family reunification group (50.0 percent). A lesser number of quota refugees 50 percent are in full-time paid employment than these in the family reunification category (71.4 percent) as illustrated in Table 17 on page 125 below. Evidently, more (27.5 percent) quota refugees were unemployed compared with (25 percent) family reunification. Of the 25 percent of those quota refugees employed, 30.8 percent were earning \$300-\$500 a week compared with 37.24 percent family reunification. Forty two percent of quota refugees were paying \$75.00 rent a week - an affordable housing cost - while 25.0 percent of them were paying \$300-\$400 of their income in rent – an unaffordable housing cost. (See Table 17 on page 125 below).

The issue of affordability of housing has becoming of more concern to all New Zealanders as they are paying a highest housing cost on the global scale compared with their incomes. By comparison, Auckland was next to “London, the city recognized as one of the most expensive housing markets internationally and Auckland ranks 21<sup>st</sup> of 159 cities in the world” (New Zealand Herald, 2007, January 22).

Most of quota refugees have lived at same address for more than five years (43.2 percent). In contrast, there were more participants (50.0 percent) from family reunification who lived at the same address for 1-2 years and there were more frequent house moves (40.7 percent) among this group compared with quota arrival category of the participants (see Table 17 on page 125 below).

As shown in the cross-tabulations rating some participants indicated their level of housing satisfaction or housing conditions as “excellent”. Of these the quota refugee participants (33.3 percent) and same number rated “fair”. Whilst (25.9 percent) of the family reunification group rated ‘their housing conditions “fair” and (22.2 percent) rated their satisfaction as “excellent”. (Refer to Table 17 on page 125 below).

For ‘length of time taken to find a house’ more of the quota refugee participants’ (36.8 percent) waited for 1-4 weeks to find a house while a slightly less number (30.8 percent) of the family reunification group spent same length of time to find a house. In the case of the quota refugees, (34.2 percent) spent 4-8 weeks to find a house, same duration with their stay at the Mangere refugee resettlement centre for orientation programme. The family reunification refugees 34.6 percent spent 4-8 weeks to find a house. While quota refugee participants (13.2 percent) compared to family reunification group (19.2 percent) had to wait for about two years and more to find a house. This is more likely to be in a state housing waiting list as identified by the participants during the workshop discussion. More of the family reunification category (100.0 percent) participants experienced some problems with their housing a slightly higher than quota refugee (94.9 percent). At same time, more of the family reunification group lived in two bedrooms (33.3 percent). In contrast a somewhat higher proportion of quota refugee groups (37.8 percent) occupied 4 bedrooms while, almost same number in three bedrooms (32.4 percent). The number of quota refugee participants lived in overcrowded housing conditions (15.4 percent) is a slightly higher than (14.8 percent) of the family reunification category. (Refer to Table 17 on page 125). As a result, more of the quota refugee participants encountered housing related health problems, such as Tuberculoses, Asthma, Acute rheumatic fever and stress. Refugee Voices reached similar conclusion (Dunstan, et al., 2004).

The quota refugee participants show a moderate level of proficiency in the English language (33.3 percent) compared with (25.0 percent) of the family reunification category.

However, there were more quota refugees (17.9 percent) who had a shortage of study rooms while (14.3 percent) of the family reunification category had the same problem. Interestingly, there was a larger proportion of the family reunification participants who had a qualification – a certificate level of education in New Zealand (39.3 percent) than quota refugee participants (35.0 percent). At the same time, the family reunification participants had more diplomas (35.7 percent) than (15.0 percent) of the quota category, however, the majority of the quota refugee participants (12.5 percent) had degrees compared to (7.1 percent) family reunification category (see Table 17 on page 125 below).

In relation to housing providers' category, the quota refugee participants were the majority of state rental housing tenants (65.8 percent), while the opposite was true with the family reunification group who were mainly living in private rental housing (44.4 percent). More of the quota refugees (14.3 percent) had expected "better houses" prior to their arrival in New Zealand compared to the family reunification category (5.9 percent) expected "best houses" or "at least good houses". The greater numbers of the quota refugee participants (67.5 percent) were happier than the family reunification category (48.1 percent). Nonetheless, the majority of quota refugees show a "lower" level of coping with life in New Zealand rating this as "very difficult" (28.9 percent) compared with the family reunification category (25.0 percent) and asylum seekers category (50.0 percent. (Refer to Table 17 on page 125).

<b>Table: 16 Immigration category</b>		Count	Col %
Refugee Categories	Quota refugee	40	57.1%
	Asylum Seeker	2	2.9%
	Family reunification	28	40.0%
	Other immigrant	1	1.4%
Length of time in New Zealand	6-10 months	4	6.0%
	1-4 years	22	32.8%
	5-9 years	29	43.3%
	10-14+ years	12	17.9%

<b>Table: 17 Cross- tabulations by Immigration Category</b>				
		Participant's immigration arrival categories		
		Quota refugee	Asylum Seeker	Family reunification
		Col %	Col %	Col %
Gender	Male	35.9%	100.0%	64.3%
	Female	64.1%		35.7%
Age	18-29	37.5%		42.9%
	30-39	22.5%		32.1%
	40-49	27.5%	50.0%	10.7%
	50-79	12.5%	50.0%	14.3%
Marital status	Married	50.0%	50.0%	57.1%
	N Married	42.5%		35.7%
	Engaged	7.5%	50.0%	3.6%
	Solo mums			3.6%
Children	Yes	59.5%	100.0%	50.0%
	No	40.5%		50.0%
Number of children	1 child	4.2%		15.4%
	2 children	16.7%		7.7%
	3 children	16.7%		7.7%
	5 children	4.2%		15.4%
	6 children	16.7%	50.0%	7.7%
	7 children+	20.8%		15.4%
	8 children +	20.9%	50.0%	23.1%
Occupation	Employed	25.0%	50.0%	42.9%
	Unemployed	27.5%	50.0%	25.0%
	Student	47.5%		32.1%
Type of employment	Full-time	50.0%	100.0%	71.4%
	Part-time	6.3%		7.1%
Length of time taken to find a house	Casual	43.8%		21.4%
	1-4 weeks	36.8%		30.8%
	4-8 weeks	34.2%		34.6%
	8-12 weeks	5.3%		
	3-6 months	5.3%		3.8%
	1 year	5.3%		11.5%
Source of income	2 years plus	13.2%	100.0%	19.2%
	Private	23.1%	50.0%	42.3%
	Both	2.6%		7.7%
	Government assistance	74.4%	50.0%	50.0%
	Wage or Salary	20.5%	50.0%	42.3%
	Government Benefit	74.4%	50.0%	50.0%

	Wage and Government accommodation assistance	2.6%		3.8%
	Own business	2.6%		
	wage or salary			3.8%
	government benefit			
Income	130.00	5.1%		7.7%
	170.00	23.1%		15.4%
	200.00	2.6%		7.7%
	210.00	7.7%		
	250.00	30.8%	50.0%	30.8%
	300.00	5.1%		7.7%
	400.00	10.3%	50.0%	7.7%
	500.00	15.4%		23.1%
Housing Cost	75.00	41.7%		30.8%
	125.00	19.4%		7.7%
	175.00	2.8%		
	250.00	11.1%	50.0%	15.4%
	300.00	19.4%	50.0%	34.6%
	400.00	5.6%		11.5%
Lives in a house rented from	Private rental	34.2%	100.0%	55.6%
	State rental	65.8%		44.4%
Type of house	House	43.2%	100.0%	48.0%
	Townhouse	10.8%		16.0%
	Apartment	45.9%		36.0%
City Area	Central Auckland	82.5%	50.0%	89.3%
	West Auckland	17.5%	50.0%	10.7%
Living at current address for	1-6 months	8.1%		17.9%
	1-2 years	21.6%		50.0%
	3-4 years	27.0%	50.0%	14.3%
	More than 5 years	43.2%	50.0%	17.9%
Number of house moves	1-2 times	25.0%		25.9%
	3-5 times	25.0%	50.0%	40.7%
	More than 5 times	8.3%	50.0%	11.1%
	Never moved	41.7%		22.2%
Housing Conditions	Excellent	33.3%		22.2%
	Very good	7.7%		14.8%
	Good	10.3%		22.2%
	Fair	33.3%	100.0%	25.9%
	Poor	15.4%		14.8%

Problems with house	None	5.1%		
	Some	94.9%	100.0%	100.0%
	Pests	12.8%		3.7%
	both	2.6%		7.4%
	Cold	12.8%		25.9%
	Noise	5.1%		
	None	46.2%		44.4%
	Other	5.1%	50.0%	3.7%
	all	5.1%		
	pests cold other old damp and mould other problem with water			3.7%
	damp and mould other high rent	2.6%		
	damp and mould other lack of safety and ill-health	2.6%		
	noise other neighbours	2.6%		
	damp and mould, cold	2.6%	50.0%	
	pests cold			3.7%
	damp and mould cold other peeled wall paper and cracked ceiling paint			3.7%
	Sort of house expected	A large house	4.8%	
	A 4 bedroom house	9.5%	100.0%	
	5 new bedrooms in central location/close to school		5.9%	
	A suitable house	4.8%		
	A fenced house with a large backyard		11.8%	
	Expecting the best houses or at least a good house		11.8%	
	A house with good view		5.9%	
	a good house that is new	4.8%		
	the same as the one we are living in now and a better one		5.9%	
	a normal house	4.8%		
	a house that I own or one that I rented	4.8%		
	housing NZ		5.9%	
	an excellent house composed of 6 bedrooms	9.5%		
	a better house	14.3%	5.9%	

	good house good health condition	4.8%		
	good air not expensive			
	good house	9.5%		5.9%
	spacious state			
	house in good suburb	4.8%		
	new house which does not have an up-stairs level, and peaceful neighbours	4.8%		
	spacious new house close to most of public amenities and located in safe neighbourhood	4.8%		
	very beautiful house	4.8%		
	2 bedroom house			5.9%
	a pleasant house			5.9%
	didn't have any idea			5.9%
	house with less or no dust and if not carpeted has varnished floors so I can put carpet on floors	4.8%		
	spacious house with several large rooms			5.9%
	same house as now			11.8%
	fenced house for children to be safe from traffic danger or even drive way, house without cold, dampness no bad neighbour			5.9%
	warm pest-free house good condition	4.8%		
Number of bedrooms	1 bedroom	2.7%	50.0%	7.4%
	2 bedrooms	13.5%		33.3%
	3 bedrooms	32.4%	50.0%	29.6%
	4 bedrooms	37.8%		18.5%
	5 bedrooms +	13.5%		3.7%
Number of households	1 person	2.8%		3.7%
	2 people	11.1%		7.4%
	3 people	11.1%		14.8%
	4 people	8.3%		14.8%
	5 people	16.7%		11.1%
	6 people	11.1%		14.8%
	7 people			3.7%
	8 people	30.6%	100.0%	11.1%
	9 people +	8.4%		18.5%
People sleep in the sitting room	Yes	31.6%		21.4%
	No	68.4%	100.0%	78.6%
Housing related health problems	Some	38.9%		17.9%
	None	61.1%	100.0%	82.1%

Participant's health status	Excellent	41.0%		50.0%
	Very good	7.7%		10.7%
	Good	15.4%	100.0%	10.7%
	Fair	30.8%		28.6%
	Poor	5.1%		
Family health status	Excellent	34.2%		38.5%
	Very good	13.2%		23.1%
	Good	10.5%		11.5%
	Fair	36.8%	100.0%	23.1%
	Poor	5.3%		3.8%
Level of proficiency in English	Very well	20.5%	50.0%	28.6%
	Well	20.5%		17.9%
	Moderate	33.3%		25.0%
	Not very well	10.3%	50.0%	17.9%
	No more than a few words	15.4%		10.7%
Study rooms	Yes	17.9%		14.3%
	None	82.1%	100.0%	85.7%
Level of education in New Zealand	School Certificate	35.0%	50.0%	39.3%
	Diploma	15.0%	50.0%	35.7%
	Degree	12.5%		7.1%
	None	32.5%		14.3%
	illiterate no education	5.0%		3.6%
Level of education in Somalia	Primary	15.0%		14.3%
	Intermediate	27.5%		14.3%
	Secondary	30.0%	50.0%	46.4%
	University	12.5%	50.0%	21.4%
	None	12.5%		3.6%
	Illiterate or no education	2.5%		
Participant's immigration arrival categories	Quota refugee	100.0%		
	Asylum Seeker		50.0%	
	Family reunification			100.0%
	other immigrant		50.0%	
Length of time in New Zealand	6-10 months	5.3%		7.4%
	1-4 years	26.3%		44.4%
	5-9 years	52.6%	100.0%	29.6%
	10-14+ years	15.8%		18.5%
Quota refugee's level of coping with life in New Zealand	Very difficult	28.9%		66.7%
	Very easy	13.2%		
	Somewhat difficult	28.9%	100.0%	
	Not very difficult	13.2%		
	Neither difficult nor easier	2.6%		
	Neutral	13.2%		33.3%
Asylum seeker's level of coping with life in New Zealand	Very difficult	20.0%	100.0%	100.0%

	Somewhat difficult	20.0%		
	Neutral	60.0%		
Family reunification's level of coping with life in New Zealand	Very difficult	25.0%		25.9%
	Very easy			14.8%
	Somewhat difficult		100.0%	22.2%
	Not very difficult			11.1%
	Not very easy	25.0%		
	Neither difficult nor easier			7.4%
	Neutral	50.0%		18.5%
Level of coping	Very difficult	28.2%	50.0%	25.0%
	Somewhat difficult	12.8%		14.3%
	Neither/neutral	30.8%	50.0%	21.4%
	V easy	12.8%		10.7%
Immigration Status	Quota refugee	100.0%		
	Asylum Seeker		50.0%	
	Family reunification other immigrant		50.0%	100.0%
Level of happiness to be living in New Zealand	Very happy	67.5%		48.1%
	Not very happy	17.5%	50.0%	44.4%
	Somewhat happy	15.0%	50.0%	7.4%
Level of coping	Very difficult	28.9%	50.0%	25.0%
	Somewhat difficult	31.6%	50.0%	21.4%
	Neither/neutral	13.2%		28.6%
	Not v easy	13.2%		10.7%
	V easy	13.2%		14.3%

#### 4.18 Length of time in New Zealand

In the questionnaire the participants were asked their length of time since they came to New Zealand, with four response options given: 6-10 months, 1-4 years, 5-9 years and 10-14 years. Table 18 on page 134 shows that of the 72 participants 22 (32.8 percent) had been living in New Zealand for 1-4 years compared with a half the total number of the participants (43.3 percent) who had been living in New Zealand for 5-9 years.

The pattern involved with length of time in New Zealand is influenced by the participants' immigration arrival categories and individual circumstances. For example, asylum seekers arrive spontaneously and their immigration status often dictates a level of services they may be able to access. This is likely to impact on the speed of their resettlement and length of time appears to have limited utility as other factors impact on their resettlement process.

Nonetheless, length of time will contribute to their better adaptation process. Some family reunification groups such as spouses have similar difficulties in resettlement and the length of time could be a smaller factor in the adaptation process as equivalent progress should be made in other areas of their resettlement outcomes.

On the other hand quota refugees have better prospects in terms of legal status and can make progress in their resettlement process. The longer time they spend in New Zealand, they would likely to pursue their life goals such as access to housing, employment and education. However, the speed of adaptation is not only influenced by the length of time in the country. They need to be supported with access to equitable resources within a favourable timeframe. For example, those participants who had lived in the country for less than 5 years may still be able to adapt to the challenges of an unfamiliar environment depending on their situations. Those participants who had the longer length of time in New Zealand 10-14 plus years 12 (17.9 percent) were greater than 4 of the participants (6.0 percent) who had 6-10 months the least length of time living in New Zealand.

These participants who had a longer length of time in the country have more knowledge of the culture, language and are more familiar with some aspects of the institutional structures and practices. (See Table 18 on page 134 below). In spite of this, their experiences can differ again depending on their distinctive circumstances and they are likely to have gained New Zealand education, training and better life prospects.

Of those participants living in private rentals, 10 (35.5 percent) had been in New Zealand for 1-4 years compared with 11 (37.1 percent) living in state rentals. While 11 (39.3 percent) of those living in private rentals had been living in New Zealand for 5-9 years compared with one-quarter (45.9 percent) living in state rentals. Four (14.3 percent) living in private rentals had been in New Zealand for 1-14 years plus compared with 8 (21.6 percent) living in state rentals. (See Table 15 on page 118 above).

The participants' length of time in New Zealand was an important indicator of satisfaction with housing outcomes and correlated with gender, occupation, location quality of housing and level of happiness and coping with life. The longer the length of stay in New Zealand the more the participants were able to develop enough knowledge of housing systems and increased participation in the labour force. This finding supports previous findings (Spoonley et al., 2005).

In comparison, a higher proportion of the participants who had lived in New Zealand for 5-9 years (18.8 percent) said they had a "better housing expectation" prior to coming to New Zealand. Two-thirds of the participants who had 1-4 years length of time in New Zealand lived in State rental housing (52.7 percent), while over a half (47.6 percent) lived in private rental housing. Another over two thirds of the participants' (60.7 percent) in State housing and (39.3 percent) in private rental had been living in New Zealand for 5-9 years. (Refer to Table 18 on page 134).

The majority of the participants who lived in New Zealand for over a year had a settled address. In particular, those who had lived in the country for 5-9 years (40.7 percent) had spent 1-4 weeks to find a house compared with a somewhat higher number (47.6 percent) of those who had lived 1-4 years in the country who found a house within 4-8 weeks (see Table 18 below).

80.0 percent participants who lived in New Zealand for 1-4 years were in full-time paid employment. While, 5-9 years category 46.2 percent would be in similar position compared with (57.1 percent) of those who lived in the country for 10-14 years and over who seemed to have a lower education. At the same time, the participants who lived in New Zealand for 5-9 years had a higher unemployment rate (37.9 percent) and more problems with their rental houses (100.0 percent) as shown on Table 18 below.

This indicates that even the length of time alone would not measure of a successful resettlement outcomes and it all depends on the specific individual conditions and the level of resources accessed.

Of those participants who had 5-9 years length of time in the country have lived at same address for more than five years (46.4 percent). As those who had 1-4 years length of time in the country (42.9 percent) had lived at the same address for two years. The larger proportion of the participants with 5-9 years length of time in the country were living in state rental housing and had relatively higher level of happiness with life in New Zealand (75.9 percent). However, of these participants a quarter (24.1 percent) had lived in crowded housing conditions and of this (42.9 percent) had housing related health problems. Overall, 27.6 percent of them rated their own health status as “excellent” while 25.0 percent gave the same rating for their family health status, lower than those of 1-4 years length of time in New Zealand (63.6 percent) for their own health status. Nevertheless, they had a higher rating of their health status as “fair” (37.9 percent) than 6-10 months and 1-4 years categories. Amongst the participants whose length of time in New Zealand was 1-4 years, their family health status was rated “excellent” higher, (52.4 percent) than other categories. This explains why the participants’ who had 5-9 years length of time in New Zealand experienced more (100.0 percent) housing related health stresses (see Table 18 on page 134 below).

The participants had differing level of housing experiences. For example, the two thirds of the participants who have lived in New Zealand for 5-9 years lived at same address for more than five years compared with half of them spent between 1-4 years at their address. Among those living in New Zealand for 5-9 years the majority had lived at one address.

In terms of number of house moves, the majority had moved 3-5 times among those spent 10-14 plus years in New Zealand compared with one in five among those who had lived between 6-10 months in New Zealand. While, a slightly higher numbers of moves were evident among those who had 5-9 years length of time in New Zealand. A slightly lesser number of moves were measured among those lived in New Zealand for 1-4 years on the other hand.

The level of proficiency in the English language was slightly lower (13.8 percent) for those who had 5-9 years length of time in the country than those who had 1-4 years length of time in the country (38.1 percent). In addition, those participants who had 5-9 years length of time show a very low level of degree education (3.4 percent), though they had a higher level of certificate and diploma qualification in New Zealand (34.5 percent). Albeit they indicated level of satisfaction with their housing condition giving a rating as “excellent” (27.6 percent) lower than those participants (36.4 percent) who had 1-4 years of length of time in New Zealand (see Table 18 below).

On the whole, the housing and health outcomes as well as relatively lower language skills and education achievements tended to have a negative effect on the majority of those participants who are in the 5-9 years length of time category. This was rated by participants in the 5-9 years length of time category as “somewhat difficult” (34.5 percent) as shown in Table 18 below.

<b>Table: 18 Cross-tabulations length of time</b>					
		6-10 months	1-4 years	5-9 years	10-14+ years
		Col %	Col %	Col %	Col %
Gender	Male	75.0%	57.1%	41.4%	41.7%
	Female	25.0%	42.9%	58.6%	58.3%
Age	18-29	75.0%	72.7%	20.7%	16.7%
	30-39	25.0%	18.2%	31.0%	25.0%
	40-49		9.1%	24.1%	25.0%
	50-79			24.1%	33.3%
Marital status	Married	25.0%	27.3%	65.5%	75.0%
	N Married	75.0%	68.2%	20.7%	25.0%
	Engaged			13.8%	
	Solo mums		4.5%		
Children	Yes	25.0%	22.7%	84.6%	66.7%
	No	75.0%	77.3%	15.4%	33.3%
Number of children	1 child		20.0%	8.7%	
	2 children		20.0%	13.0%	12.5%
	3 children			13.0%	12.5%
	5 children		20.0%	4.3%	
	6 children	100.0%	20.0%	17.4%	12.5%
	7 children+		20.0%	17.4%	25.0%
	8 children +			8.7%	
	10 children			4.3%	
	9 children			13.0%	25.0%

Occupation	14 children				12.5%
	Employed	25.0%	31.8%	27.6%	50.0%
Type of employment	Unemployed		13.6%	37.9%	16.7%
	Student	75.0%	54.5%	34.5%	33.3%
	Full-time		80.0%	46.2%	57.1%
Length of time taken to find a house	Part-time			7.7%	14.3%
	Casual		20.0%	46.2%	28.6%
	1-4 weeks	50.0%	23.8%	40.7%	27.3%
Source of income	4-8 weeks	50.0%	47.6%	29.6%	18.2%
	8-12 weeks			7.4%	
	3-6 months		4.8%	3.7%	9.1%
	1 year		4.8%	3.7%	27.3%
	2 years plus		19.0%	14.8%	18.2%
	Private		42.1%	24.1%	45.5%
Source of income	Both		5.3%	3.4%	9.1%
	Government assistance	100.0%	52.6%	72.4%	45.5%
	Wage or Salary		36.8%	24.1%	45.5%
	Government Benefit	100.0%	52.6%	72.4%	45.5%
	Wage and Government accommodation assistance		5.3%	3.4%	
Income	Own business		5.3%		
	wage or salary				9.1%
	government benefit				
	130.00	25.0%	4.8%	3.7%	9.1%
	170.00	25.0%	23.8%	18.5%	9.1%
	200.00		14.3%		
	210.00	25.0%	4.8%	3.7%	
	250.00	25.0%	19.0%	37.0%	45.5%
	300.00		9.5%	7.4%	
	400.00		9.5%	11.1%	18.2%
Housing Cost	500.00		14.3%	18.5%	18.2%
	75.00	25.0%	36.8%	33.3%	50.0%
	125.00		15.8%	18.5%	
	175.00				10.0%
	250.00		26.3%	11.1%	
	300.00	25.0%	21.1%	29.6%	40.0%
	400.00	50.0%		7.4%	
Type of rental house	Private rental	75.0%	47.6%	39.3%	33.3%
	State rental	25.0%	52.4%	60.7%	66.7%
	House	66.7%	45.0%	42.3%	41.7%
	Townhouse		20.0%	11.5%	16.7%
	Apartment	33.3%	35.0%	46.2%	41.7%
City Area	C Auckland	100.0%	81.8%	82.8%	83.3%
	W Auckland		18.2%	17.2%	16.7%
Living at current address for	1-6 months	66.7%	23.8%	3.6%	
	1-2 years		42.9%	25.0%	41.7%
	3-4 years		28.6%	25.0%	16.7%
	More than 5 years	33.3%	4.8%	46.4%	41.7%
Number of house moves	1-2 times	100.0%	20.0%	22.2%	27.3%
	3-5 times		30.0%	29.6%	63.6%
	More than 5 times		5.0%	11.1%	9.1%

Condition of house	Never moved		45.0%	37.0%	
	Excellent	33.3%	36.4%	27.6%	27.3%
	Very good		9.1%	10.3%	18.2%
	Good		27.3%	10.3%	9.1%
	Fair	66.7%	18.2%	27.6%	36.4%
Problems with house	Poor		9.1%	24.1%	9.1%
	None		4.5%		8.3%
	Some	100.0%	95.5%	100.0%	91.7%
	Pests			10.7%	25.0%
	both	33.3%		7.1%	
	Cold		18.2%	14.3%	25.0%
	Noise		4.5%		
	None	66.7%	63.6%	39.3%	16.7%
	Other		4.5%	3.6%	8.3%
	all			3.6%	8.3%
	very good				8.3%
	pests cold other old		4.5%		
	damp and mould other			3.6%	
	problem with water				
	damp and mould other			3.6%	
high rent					
damp and mould other			3.6%		
lack of safety and ill-					
health			3.6%		
noise other neighbours			3.6%		
damp and mould, cold			7.1%		
pests cold		4.5%			
damp and mould cold					
other peeled wall paper				8.3%	
and cracked ceiling					
paint					
Sort of house expected	A large house			6.3%	
	A 4 bedroom house		9.1%	6.3%	
	5 new bedrooms in			6.3%	
	central location/close to				
	school				
	A suitable house			6.3%	
	A fenced house with a			12.5%	
	large backyard				
	Expecting the best				
	houses or at least a		9.1%		
	good house				
	A house with good view			6.3%	
	a good house that is				11.1%
	new				
	the same as the one we				22.2%
	are living in now and a				
	better one				
	a normal house		9.1%		
	a house that I own or			6.3%	
	one that I rented				
	housing NZ		9.1%		
	an excellent house				22.2%
	composed of 6				
	bedrooms				
	a better house			18.8%	11.1%

	good house good health condition good air not expensive			6.3%	
	good house		18.2%		
	spacious state house in good suburb			6.3%	
	new house which does not have an up-stairs level, and peaceful neighbours			6.3%	
	spacious new house close to most of public amenities and located in safe neighbourhood			6.3%	
	very beautiful house		9.1%		
	2 bedroom house		9.1%		
	a pleasant house	100.0%			
	didn't have any idea		9.1%		
	house with less or no dust and if not carpeted has varnished floors so I can put carpet on floors			6.3%	
	spacious house with several large rooms		9.1%		
	same house as now		9.1%		11.1%
	fenced house for children to be safe from traffic danger or even driveway, house without cold, dampness no bad neighbour				11.1%
	warm pest-free house good condition				11.1%
Number of bedrooms	1 bedroom		5.0%	3.6%	
	2 bedrooms		35.0%	21.4%	8.3%
	3 bedrooms		20.0%	35.7%	41.7%
	4 bedrooms	66.7%	25.0%	28.6%	41.7%
	5 bedrooms +	33.3%	10.0%	10.7%	
Number of households	1 person			3.4%	
	2 people		11.1%	10.3%	8.3%
	3 people		16.7%	6.9%	25.0%
	4 people	33.3%	11.1%	10.3%	
	5 people		11.1%	13.8%	16.7%
	6 people	33.3%	11.1%	17.2%	
	7 people		5.6%		8.3%
	8 people	33.3%	22.2%	20.7%	33.3%
	9 people +			13.8%	
	11 people		5.6%	3.4%	8.3%
	10 people		5.6%		
People sleep in the sitting room	Yes		9.5%	41.4%	27.3%
	No	100.0%	90.5%	58.6%	72.7%
Housing related health problems	Some		5.0%	42.9%	45.5%
	None	100.0%	95.0%	57.1%	54.5%
Participant's health status	Excellent		100.0%	63.6%	27.6%
					41.7%

	Very good		18.2%	3.4%	8.3%
	Good		9.1%	24.1%	8.3%
	Fair		9.1%	37.9%	41.7%
	Poor			6.9%	
Family health status	Excellent	50.0%	52.4%	25.0%	27.3%
	Very good	50.0%	23.8%	3.6%	36.4%
	Good		4.8%	17.9%	
	Fair		19.0%	42.9%	36.4%
	Poor			10.7%	
Level of proficiency in English	Very well		33.3%	20.7%	33.3%
	Well		19.0%	20.7%	16.7%
	Moderate	50.0%	38.1%	13.8%	41.7%
	Not very well	50.0%		20.7%	8.3%
	No more than a few words		9.5%	24.1%	
Study rooms	Yes	50.0%	9.1%	10.7%	25.0%
	None	50.0%	90.9%	89.3%	75.0%
Level of education in New Zealand	School Certificate	75.0%	36.4%	34.5%	16.7%
	Diploma		36.4%	20.7%	25.0%
	Degree		9.1%	3.4%	33.3%
	None	25.0%	18.2%	31.0%	25.0%
	illiterate no education			10.3%	
Level of education in Somalia	Primary	50.0%	13.6%	10.3%	8.3%
	Intermediate		31.8%	17.2%	25.0%
	Secondary	50.0%	40.9%	27.6%	41.7%
	University		13.6%	20.7%	25.0%
	None			20.7%	
	Illiterate / no education			3.4%	
Participant's immigration arrival categories	Quota refugee	50.0%	45.5%	69.0%	54.5%
	Family reunification	50.0%	54.5%	27.6%	45.5%
	other immigrant			3.4%	
Level of Coping	Very difficult	100.0%	18.2%	24.1%	16.7%
	Somewhat difficult		18.2%	6.9%	25.0%
	Neither/neutral		36.4%	34.5%	8.3%
	V easy		13.6%	10.3%	16.7%
Status	Quota refugee	50.0%	45.5%	69.0%	54.5%
	Family reunification	50.0%	54.5%	27.6%	45.5%
	other immigrant			3.4%	
Level of happiness to be living in New Zealand	Very happy	50.0%	47.6%	75.9%	41.7%
	Not very happy	50.0%	47.6%	13.8%	33.3%
	Somewhat happy		4.8%	10.3%	25.0%
Level of Coping	Very difficult	100.0%	18.2%	24.1%	16.7%
	Somewhat difficult		36.4%	34.5%	8.3%
	Neither/neutral		13.6%	24.1%	33.3%
	Not v easy		13.6%	10.3%	16.7%
	V easy		18.2%	6.9%	25.0%

#### 4.19 Correlation Matrix

In this section, correlations are used to analyse the participants' different aspects of housing experiences. While the participants share common cultural and social backgrounds, housing will shape others of their experiences. Differences in the participants' housing experiences are examined to test these possibilities. Some of the responses have been categorized according to the types of variables correlated with positive and negative housing experiences in the correlation matrix (see Table 19 on page 138 below).

The analysis of correlation matrix focuses on two key output variables – self-reported level of coping in New Zealand and happiness at being in New Zealand. Level of coping in New Zealand is correlated (but only moderately strongly) with a wide range of variables. Those coping less well are:

- low income:  $r = -.31$
- poor health status:  $r = .29$
- paying high rent:  $r = .23$
- include more than one household:  $r = -.21$

Some other difficulty – engendering characteristics are also associated – but more modestly – with lower levels of coping. It is interesting and relevant to the line of analysis of this thesis that several of these factors are housing related, including the difficulties of large household sizes. Lower levels of coping also are linked with health and more generally with the income situation of the household.

Happiness at being in New Zealand is also related slightly with a range of variables. Only two stand out: source of income and occupation. Interestingly, happiness is less linked to housing and other conditions. It is possible that this is affected by experiences which occurred as part of the refugee resettlement process before they came to New Zealand rather than by consequent events.

**Table: 19 Correlation Matrix**

Correlation	Gender	Age	Marital status	Children	Occupation	Source of income	Income	rent	Housing Provider	Type of house	City Area	Address	No. of Moves	Quality	No. of households	No. in Bedroom	Overcrowding	Health status	happiness in NZ	coping in NZ
Gender	1.000	-.050	.012	-.123	.059	-.411	.015	-.027	-.176	.118	-.116	.279	.294	.194	.090	-.004	-.011	-.182	.191	.014
Age	-.050	1.000	-.263	-.739	-.072	.213	.310	-.050	-.148	.143	.136	.093	.365	.049	.218	.305	.117	-.197	.431	.407
Marital status	.012	-.263	1.000	.467	.173	-.205	-.028	-.218	-.159	.125	.171	-.071	.082	.408	.004	-.158	-.066	-.045	-.054	.072
Children	-.123	-.739	.467	1.000	.092	.017	-.336	-.099	.057	-.017	.072	-.142	-.320	.060	-.170	-.401	-.111	.243	-.407	-.394
Occupation	.059	-.072	.173	.092	1.000	-.150	.670	-.594	-.206	.247	.128	.197	.099	.233	.067	.248	.261	.005	.195	.223
Finding housing	-.411	.213	-.205	.017	-.150	1.000	-.062	.045	-.015	.079	.210	-.087	-.221	-.105	-.070	.097	.137	.091	-.064	.021
Source of income	.015	.310	-.028	-.336	.670	-.062	1.000	-.665	-.285	.338	.124	.056	.362	.137	.201	.397	.418	.041	.474	.418
Income	-.027	-.050	-.218	-.099	-.594	.045	-.665	1.000	.467	-.440	-.220	.079	-.121	-.171	-.198	-.247	-.281	-.105	-.313	-.333
Housing Cost	-.176	-.148	-.159	.057	-.206	-.015	-.285	.467	1.000	-.863	-.532	-.120	-.323	-.142	.074	-.319	-.328	.053	-.254	-.187
Rental House	.118	.143	.125	-.017	.247	.079	.338	-.440	-.863	1.000	.575	.063	.328	.107	-.059	.233	.392	-.041	.207	.182
Type of house	-.116	.136	.171	.072	.128	.210	.124	-.220	-.532	.575	1.000	.074	.054	.039	-.138	.157	.187	.035	.075	.130
City Area	.279	.093	-.071	-.142	.197	-.087	.056	.079	-.120	.063	.074	1.000	.092	.087	-.090	.119	.122	.173	.182	.029
Time at address	.294	.365	.082	-.320	.099	-.221	.362	-.121	-.323	.328	.054	.092	1.000	.215	.078	.151	.148	-.060	.419	.088
No. of house moves	.194	.049	.408	.060	.233	-.105	.137	-.171	-.142	.107	.039	.087	.215	1.000	.112	-.022	-.128	-.087	.309	.208
House condition.	.090	.218	.004	-.170	.067	-.070	.201	-.198	.074	-.059	-.138	-.090	.078	.112	1.000	-.003	-.170	-.301	.389	.288
No. of households	-.004	.305	-.158	-.401	.248	.097	.397	-.247	-.319	.233	.157	.119	.151	-.022	-.003	1.000	.697	-.231	.305	.280

No. of bedroom	-.011	.117	-.066	-.111	.261	.137	.418	-.281	-.328	.392	.187	.122	.148	-.128	-.170	.697	1.000	.013	.123	.207
Overcrowding	-.182	-.197	-.045	.243	.005	.091	.041	-.105	.053	-.041	.035	.173	-.060	-.087	-.301	-.231	.013	1.000	-.048	-.203
Poor health	.006	-.560	.011	.400	-.151	-.165	-.422	.178	.308	-.352	-.450	-.071	-.294	-.085	-.102	-.283	-.391	.074	-.424	-.266
Health status	.142	.448	-.054	-.327	.129	-.090	.366	-.294	-.270	.271	.048	.087	.388	.198	.358	.154	-.012		.771	.411
Family health status	.191	.431	-.054	-.407	.195	-.064	.474	-.313	-.254	.207	.075	.182	.419	.309	.389	.305	.123	-.048	1.000	.365
proficiency in English	.014	.407	.072	-.394	.223	.021	.418	-.333	-.187	.182	.130	.029	.088	.208	.288	.280	.207	-.203	.365	1.000
Immigration status	-.281	-.077	-.024	.089	-.184	.113	-.231	.083	.231	-.214	-.082	-.086	-.341	-.153	.026	.016	-.157	.115	-.121	-.056
Length of in NZ	.175	.507	-.291	-.418	-.209	.168	-.104	.200	-.126	.176	.077	.047	.376	-.075	.074	.003	.015	-.235	.250	-.053
Happiness	-.011	.112	.125	-.103	.247	-.306	.121	-.094	-.098	.057	-.011	.112	.152	-.002	.092	.127	-.013	-.050	.033	.140
Level of Coping	.122	-.024	-.094	.007	-.056	-.185	-.313	.230	-.183	.152	.115	.204	.080	-.087	-.209	-.190	-.186	.287	-.094	-.273

#### **4.20 Summary**

The majority of quota refugee participants had lived in State housing and were paying an affordable rent. Housing-associated issues were more evident for those participants in low-income brackets who were paying high rents in private rental housing markets. The low level of incomes was influenced by lack of access to sustainable job markets due to limited or lack of skills and discrimination from employers.

The socio-economic factors related to demographics levels and source of incomes, race, English proficiency and family composition were identified as major barriers to access housing. As such Affordability of housing is also key issue for those participants in private housing market in Auckland.

Further analysis revealed that limited English language skills and to some extent low level of education influenced the participants' employability in Auckland job markets. Therefore, the participants' housing satisfaction varied depending on distinctive individual circumstances that included: level of income, type of housing and availability of housing.

The immigration category also impacted on the family reunification and asylum seekers participants' access to income, occupation, state housing provision, type of housing, higher number of moves and overcrowding to a considerable extent.

Overall, the findings have fully answered the research questions from 1-4 which were important. As a result, new insights have been gained about the participants' key issues and this can help shape the solution-focused recommendation that this study seeks to make in chapter six.

## **5. DISCUSSION**

### **5.0 Introduction**

In this chapter, summary of data interpretation from key themes in the study will be discussed.

### **5.1 Key Themes in the Study**

A number of themes have emerged from this study. There are three key themes drawn from the findings of the study:

- the influence of the housing experiences of participants on their integration outcomes;
- the barriers that limited the participants' potential housing options and strategies used to mitigate them
- Housing satisfaction

#### **5.1.1 Influence of housing experiences**

The participants' background as former refugees from Somalia, where they suffered multiple violations of human rights by a number of successive dictatorship governments forced them to seek resettlement in New Zealand. This and other factors were actually seen by the participants in the study as having influenced their level of happiness in New Zealand in many ways.

The vulnerability of resettled refugee housing experiences in Auckland has also showed similar trends with that of the resettled refugee experiences internationally regardless of geographical location (Lilley, 2004, Guerin et al., 2004; Foley & Beer, 2003, Murdie et al., 2002; Cole and Robin, 2003; Jones, 2004). Conversely, dissimilarities lie between distinctive individual circumstances, institutions, refugee/or host communities, and government policies.

The participants' ability to improve their housing experiences was limited by finance, the information available and housing markets pre-conceived judgment about them. Such housing experiences are commonly reported in New Zealand and international resettlement research (Lilly, 2004, Guerin et al. 2003, Foley & Beer, 2003, Hulchanski, 1997).

The housing experiences are used to identify patterns that have influenced the participants' housing outcomes. A series of housing experiences is the progression of physical dwellings, demographic, associations, occupancy and financial connections with a household's eventual growth (Foley and Beer, 2003, p. 6).

The housing progression is also referred to in the literature as "a housing career" that is tenure and the quality or cost of dwellings that household can afford to live in (Clark et al., 2003; van Kempen & Ozuekren, 2002) and a "housing trajectory" is the progressive pathways that a household may pass through in housing markets (Hulchanski, 1997; Murdie et al., 2002).

Of course, the level of influence of the housing experiences on other needs depends upon the individual participants' ability to afford housing and other goods. Therefore, household's housing options can be limited by several factors: their ability to afford housing both in relation to financial and intellectual (knowledge and information) resources, the reality of housing availability in certain locations and housing providers' attitudes towards the participants' based on their 'race' and social backgrounds in the housing markets. For example, households' housing preferences and taste and other goods are competing decisions that ultimately affect housing progression.

The types of decisions households take in this regard could affect participants other integration outcomes, such as health and so forth. This finding supports the previous research particular to Somalis and in general (Lilley, 2004; Cole & Robinson, 2003; Guerin, et al, 2003; Jones, 2004; Jameson & Nana, 2004).

The participants' mixed housing experiences reflect the different challenges that influenced their resettlement outcomes. In most instances, the participants' housing path-way was negatively impacted by frequent moves to lower quality housing. Based on the participants' discussion, this was due to high rents for those in private housing, overcrowding and tensions with Pacific Island neighbours in state housing. The participants experienced discrimination both in the private and state rental housing sector in Auckland. In comparison, the Somalis in Christchurch housing experiences were described as unaffordable and thus affordability was a major barrier (Lilley, 2004).

The participants housing experiences in this regard show similar trends to Somali housing experiences in Christchurch. However, Lilley claimed, Somalis in Christchurch had not encountered discrimination in the private rental housing market, therefore this is a difference. One-quarter of the participants had poor housing experiences in state rental housing in Auckland while almost the same proportion (14.3 percent) had lived in the same situation in private rental housing (Table 15 on page 118).

Evidently, quota refugee participants lacked a choice of housing on arrival. This was due to assistance provided to them by the HNZC and RMS with finding a house as stated by the participants. As well, they had lived at the same address for more than 5 years. Nevertheless, more resettled quota participants had a shortage of study rooms. Though the majority of quota refugee participants showed moderate level of proficiency in English language and the higher level of certificate qualifications, they had lower levels of diploma and degree qualifications.

There were more quota refugee participants on government assistance and who were unemployed. The larger number of quota refugees were happier to be living in New Zealand, although they had a lower level of coping with life than family reunification refugee participants. More than two-thirds of the participants had been living in New Zealand for 5-9 years. Overall, majority of the participants were in paid employment and pursuing further education.

### **5.1.2 Barriers to housing options**

In this section barriers to housing and how they influence the resettlement outcome will be summarised. The analysis of the findings on the participants' specific barriers to access housing in Auckland have been identified. The participants' ability to pay for market rental costs was a prerequisite for them to access state and private housing provisions. The challenge for New Zealand is to assist resettled refugee population in their resettlement process to achieve optimum integration outcomes.

Albeit some of the factors that affected the participants' ability to access suitable and affordable housing involves multiple factors. Other barriers that had severe effects on the participants' housing outcomes include: race, ethno-cultural backgrounds - religious practices, and gender. Other factors such as the participants' demographic profiles that are level and source of income, English language proficiency, household composition, experience of housing markets and institutions, discrimination, lack of housing availability, immigration status, and difficulty with neighbourhoods were key barriers to the participants in their housing experiences. As well, to a lesser extent, limited length of time in New Zealand, overcrowding, and lack of social participation and unfamiliarity with New Zealand housing systems were identified as barriers that limited participants' housing progressions.

The participants' housing experiences were influenced by the barriers identified above that also impacted on their integration outcomes. As expected, this finding coincided with general refugee experiences in New Zealand and overseas (Hulchanski 1997; Dunstan, et al., 2004; Strategy, 2007; MSD & Treasury, Auckland Regional Settlement 2005; HNZC, 2005; Foley & Beer, 2003; Cole & Robinson, 2003). For example, the participants demonstrated that the real estate agents in private housing markets sometimes favoured local tenants over their housing needs. Similar incidents were reported by the participants in the State housing providers in New Zealand like Somalis in Canada and Britain (Murdie et al, 2002; Cole & Robinson, 2003).

The participants believed such discrimination was based on their race and demographic profiles. Therefore their housing options were influenced by these barriers that constrained from accessing quality housing in certain locations in Auckland. In particular, the participants' level of discrimination and the lack of transparency from the state housing provider appeared to be key barriers. Furthermore, the participants' description of how difficult it was for them to qualify for a transfer from poor quality of housing in deprived neighbourhoods to a better location highlighted the housing trends. These barriers were exacerbated by a shortage of housing supply accelerated by high demand for state housing. Inadequate state housing maintenance, socially distressing neighbourhoods and discriminatory behaviours negatively affected the participants' housing outcomes. Participants' housing issues were compounded by fewer locations, higher rents and more frequent moves in the private housing rental market and longer housing searches.

Although state housing is affordable, its limited large houses for those participants living with more number of households tends to add pressure such as overcrowding, cultural and social distress. This was linked with the lack of having a choice of housing, and shortage of study space, which corresponded with previous studies (Dunstan, et al., 2004; Lilley, 2004; Cole & Robinson, 2003; Foley and Beer, 2003). The option to overcome overcrowding and shortage of housing in pursuing home ownership is not considered by the participants. The participants suggested that they would not afford owning their own homes, therefore, all the participants except one were living in rental housing as opposed to owning their own homes in Auckland, like Somalis in Canada (Murdie et al, 2002).

The finding of this study indicates that the vast majority of participants were living in the central Auckland area. This finding confirms previous findings that claimed resettled refugees congregate in certain location of a city. The literature supposed that this could be due to their family and community that already resettled in some part of a city (Johnson, 2002; Hulchanski, 1997).

There were similar trends that have influenced the participants' circumstances of their settlement in the Central Auckland area. In summary, the impact of barriers to integration at societal level contributes to separation and exclusion of refugee communities from participating in the host community. This is particularly so for resettled refugees' access to housing which unfairly limited their housing options in most cases.

### **5.1.3 Housing satisfaction**

For the purpose of analysis, the housing conditions here indicate the participants' level of satisfaction with their housing. Of the 72 participants in this study (32.1 percent) in private rental housing rated their housing conditions as "fair" whilst somewhat higher (33.3 percent) in state rental gave a rating of as "fair" level of housing conditions. On the other hand, less than half of the participants (25 percent) living in private rental housing rated their housing conditions as "good" while only (12.8 percent) in the state rental housing rated them as "very good".

The affordability of state housing and its longer tenure were favoured options among state participants. More state participants rated their housing conditions as "excellent" compared to those in private rental housing. The participants' satisfaction with state housing in this instance had been influenced by the lower rental housing cost – water usage included within state subsidised low rents and housing tenure.

Clearly, this will have implications for government in terms of crown land, financial and material resources as well as overcoming public perceptions to increase state housing. Alternatively, the government can make a compelling case such as that quality housing increases better health outcomes and a more educated workforce can in turn afford quality housing. These are some of the implications for the government.

The government housing affordability policy must be further emphasised with an increased supply intervention focus. This means more land for building new state properties to address the soaring demand for state housing, particularly in the Auckland region where more population growth is likely to continue (see Auckland Regional Growth Forum; HNZA, 2005). For example, the housing experiences that the participants identified in this study relates to some of these concerns. Key issues for the participants were long waiting list for state housing, socially deprived tenants causing unnecessary interruption, stealing and aggression by state housing neighbours. In this regard, the government must consider appropriate action to address these concerns while ensuring safer communities and better quality of housing. A large number of participants in this study were dissatisfied with aspects of access to state housing due to the long waiting lists for up to two years. In particular, the participants said that the state housing workers from the Pacific community tended to favour their own people and sometimes advised the participants to move to south Auckland or elsewhere. The participants therefore are of firm belief that their neighbours from Pacific backgrounds wished to assert dominance in some areas of Auckland. As a result, there was an overwhelming consensus among the participants for 'a Somali housing broker' position to be considered by the state housing provider to ease this tension.

The participants in private rentals also confirmed they suffered discriminatory practices from the real-estate agents which limited their housing options. In consequence, these participants were dissatisfied with the private rental housing market. These findings show similarity with previous findings in New Zealand and internationally (Dunstan et al. 2004; Foley & Beer, 2003; Murdie et al., 2002; Carey-Wood, 1997; Jones, 2004).

Immigration arrival category influenced the level and types of services resettled refugees can access. More quota refugee participants have gained access to state housing within 4-8 weeks in most cases, although this depends on the availability of state housing. This finding reconfirms the Refugee Voices finding in this instance (Dunstan et al., 2004).

A different situation applied to the family reunification group who directly came from their home countries to seek asylum in New Zealand. Therefore immigration arrival category and the participant's immigration status show a relationship between access to housing and other resettlement services.

## **5.2 Implications of the Study**

This section looks at three levels of analysis and a number of implications that can be drawn from the study. These levels involve: Micro level: Somali Households, Group level: Auckland Somali community, Macro Societal level: institutions, host community and the government.

## **5.3 Micro level**

### **5.3.1 Somali households**

The participants in this study have displayed a responsibility to learn about their new country and to adapt to the dominant systems and structures that they have joined. At the micro households level, perhaps the most important and the first task is to satisfy their basic needs: for example accessing suitable and affordable housing, getting jobs, taking children to schools, taking care of the health and welfare of their families (see Watts et al. 2004; Dunstan et al. 2004).

With respect to the resettlement reciprocal process, the participants had been actively engaged in social networks, integration and interactive relations amongst their own groups. In spite of this, the participants raised concerns regarding the lack of input into the State housing policy which has impacted on their social and cultural housing requirements. For examples, key issues raised were housing design, layout, housing suitability social tensions with their neighbours and fencing. Therefore, the state housing should take broader housing-related issues into consideration.

Approximately one half of the participants who had been living in State housing were unemployed. The data suggests that the majority of these participants were living on low levels of incomes.

Of these, more quota refugees were unemployed. An overwhelming majority of participants indicated they were having some housing-related problems, and as a result were dissatisfied with housing.

The majority of the participants felt finding a suitable housing was a major concern due to lack of suitable housing, limited choice of housing, high rental costs, language barriers and institutional discrimination. For example, access to services social and health services was impacted by a lack of linguistically appropriate information as demonstrated by the participants. For example, there was greater consensus amongst the participants regarding the lack information concerning the Accommodation Supplement.

The majority of participants claimed housing proximity to key services is most important to their resettlement outcomes. More participants had a shortage of study space in their homes, while a number of participants experienced a poor standard of housing and overcrowding.

The findings of this study suggest gender differences have impacted on access to services. In particular, women participants particularly expressed a concern about lack of information to access primary health organisations and Work and Income. Hence, the participants have developed social and cultural maintenance strategies to mitigate these barriers. These strategies include: women's swimming pools where strong social networks were created - soccer teams for sport and social activities which were promoted amongst the participants' younger group. The adult older families were encouraged to attend English language classes and women's sewing training which were organised through community development strategies. The participants housing barriers were considered personal responsibility and lesser emphasis on these were given by the community. This has impacted on families with no housing solutions at a community level. The participants believed lack of housing broker requires some consideration. This means families and individuals had to deal with their own housing problems and thus encountered several housing barriers.

As a consequence, some participants depended on the state housing as an alternative housing provider.

The state housing affordability of rental housing and tenure had been key attraction. Even so, state housing was to be expected having health related problems due to the lack of carpeting, heating, insulation, overcrowding, social problems and fencing as identified by the participants. In this instance, the participants' experiences showed similarity with past research findings (Lawrence, 2004; Dunstan, et al., 2004, MSD, 2005). Therefore, the state housing provider should take broader housing-related issues into consideration, such as income and social issues.

The literature regarding participation and consultation maintains that only valuing differences and respecting diverse view points are not alone indicators of equality (Temple and Moran, 2006). This has implications for state housing provider, HNZC. The housing service providers should not need to operate without encouraging individuals and group involvement in matters that affect them. So, housing providers must not continue to overlook their tenants housing needs.

Access to quality housing ought to be considered regardless of consumers, social, cultural and ethnic backgrounds. In this regard, the participants stated using social networks to overcome their problems as commented: "we are trying to develop a sense individual and groups' social networks and belong to our Somali community in Auckland". This becomes an important indicator for identifying key housing trends, through networks and close working relationships. For this reason, HNZC has the responsibility to consider ways in which the Somali households and other can have inputs into housing provision and policy related matters.

## **5.4 Group Level**

### **5.4.1 Somali community**

Somali community groups have an important role and responsibility in the resettlement process. Thus, ethnic communities provide the resettlement services required to fill gaps in provision of settlement services specific to their own social and cultural context. However, the participants claimed that their community has difficulties with housing related services, although they have been successfully delivering culturally and linguistically appropriate English classes and community based health promotion resettlement services.

As demonstrated in the focus group workshop and the researcher's observation, the Somali community has been playing an active role between the government and Non-government organisations to improve the quality of their resettlement service delivery and policy development.

The refugee resettlement strategies should encourage ethnic groups to fully participate in the wider community in the social, economical and cultural developments. In particular they should be supported to share their own talents that can benefit New Zealand (see Watts et al., 2004).

Community integration was central to this research question motivated by the need to raising the awareness of these perspectives and to encourage a point of debate. This raises the need to critically analyse policy measures to ensuring appropriate policies are in place and effectively implemented. In view of the talents and resources exist in the community which need to be enhanced to celebrate an increasingly multicultural society of New Zealand. In this regard, social service providers should ensure social justice at all levels of service provision to members of society who may be under performing. In summary, it is important to improve the quality of service delivery and formulations of housing, education, economic and other social polices at institutional and government levels. Finally, the Somali community and other ethnic groups have a key role to play in advancing their talents and pursuing new opportunities in New Zealand.

## **5.5 Macro societal level**

### **5.5.1 Institutions**

This section looks at the impact of housing policy and provision at the institutional level. How does housing policy and provisions influence the Somali population's resettlement process in Auckland?

The institutions have particularly key responsibilities and roles to play in improving access to services, and assist households and groups to learn new skills. For instance, through proficiency of English, seek higher levels of education careers. In this way newcomers can equally participate in the economic, cultural and social developments in New Zealand.

At the institutional level particularly State housing providers can establish collaborative working relationships with individuals, groups and service providers by developing appropriate housing strategies. This could enhance the capacity of existing services and create new approaches to shape devising social and economic policies to address key housing trends.

While planning and developing housing strategies and other resettlement strategies institutions should take the issues of impartiality and social justice seriously to address the barriers identified in this study. The development of policies for the most part, in the state housing provision, should consciously consider qualified people from diverse refugee communities in relevant positions to enhance mode of service delivery. Such measures can contribute to positive housing outcomes for consumers and improve community partnerships.

Cultural awareness will need to be promoted by institutions such as State housing, private rental housing providers and employers. These types of strategies have the potential to strengthen community relationships and encourage the refugee communities to share some responsibilities for their own people (see Perry, 2005; Carey-Wood, 1997).

### **5.5.3 Host community**

In this section the role of the host community in integrating resettled refugees will be discussed. The host community is crucial in any resettlement if reciprocal resettlement concepts are to be achieved in New Zealand.

The resettlement process is likely to have constructive immigration outcomes if host community is educated about of the Somali community and ethnic migrants in general. The host society can support the resettlement process objectively when they also see added value to existing societal structures.

While refugees and newcomers are expected to make necessary adjustments to the social, cultural and economic developments of the host society, at the same time, they should be supported to maintain their own cultural heritage. In consequence, the host community has a responsibility to make this possible (see also Watts et al., 2004; Spoonley et al., 2005).

The crucial role the host community can take is helping with practical community development initiatives such as funding and community activities at local levels. For instance, community facilities where refugees can meet for planning, service delivery and enhance their cultural and social developments (see Watts et al., 2004, p. 44; Auckland Regional Settlement Strategy, 2007).

As well as addressing social barriers to access existing social services and making resources available to increase housing stock and service provision. When newly settling people have equitable access to services and community resources they can make better contribution to the host society. In turn the host community can maximise the benefit of international migration and enhance the value of cultural diversity in New Zealand.

#### **5.5.4 Government**

In this section the affordability of housing policy and its implications for the Government will be discussed. The suitability and affordability of housing, a shortage of supply and the resettlement issues have been highlighted by the participants as impacting factors. This has implications for the government in New Zealand. The central government is responsible for regulating immigration, economic and social policies. As well, it is imperative to educating the host community regarding the benefit and the impact of immigration (see also Watts et al., 2004; Spoonley et al., 2005). This demands a strategic settlement policy framework which is capable of coordinating settlement strategies and provision between local and regional government and community sector.

This study has identified the effect of settlement policies and provision, particularly housing suitability and affordability for policy development. It also demonstrated the links to employment, education health and community integration.

In general, the study highlighted the substantial resettlement barriers faced by refugees in Auckland. These barriers are influenced by differential factors such as race, immigration status, household composition, levels of incomes and a shortage of suitable and affordable housing compounded by limited English language skills. This requires appropriate intervention at a policy and provision levels. Therefore, the government settlement policy coordination and successful implementation must focus on addressing these key settlement issues to improve resettled refugees integration outcomes.

The government housing policies need to have refugee – specific strategies in New Zealand. The resettlement policies should be comprehensive and encourage private institutions such as employers and private housing providers to effectively address housing, education and employment prospects. Most institutions working in the resettlement sector recognise the importance of such resettlement policies and can appreciate the need to take appropriate action. Henceforth, the settlement policies and strategies developed to address the whole government policy and delivery of services should be fully implemented.

Although existing evidence regarding settlement policies suggest the development of settlement strategies, these are yet to be fully implemented (Auckland Regional Settlement Strategy, 2007; NZ Settlement Strategy, 2005). It is important for the central government to ensure new and enacted policies are developed and appropriately implemented. For instance, lack of refugee-specific housing, refugee - specific regional and national health strategies and overall language policies in New Zealand are gaps identified in the literature that should be considered. These policies need to be developed and fully implemented by all government agencies and must be strengthened as part of ethnic social policy (see Watts et al., 2004; the Office of Ethnic Affairs, 2002).

The lack of strong and strategic settlement policy have direct negative effects on newly and established refugee communities. For example, resettled refugee groups have encountered social barriers accessing housing and other settlement services as identified by this study. So, the New Zealand Government has the responsibility to address the impact of suitability and affordability of housing at a policy level.

The recent government concern to address the affordability of housing issues are emerging positive steps that include: the “new use of planning rules, special sector partnerships and Government projects on surplus crown land” (New Zealand Herald, 2007, January 22).

In most recent months the housing affordability also got momentum in the media for low levels of incomes was seen as one of the factors that had aggravated New Zealand’s housing high prices (New Zealand Herald, 2007 January 22). These factors also impacted on the participants’ housing experiences and their integration outcomes due to barriers identified in this study. Whilst addressing the affordability of housing and increasing housing stock is a positive measure in general, however it must be focused to have any effect on resettled refugee community housing needs. These are some of the implications for the government.

## **6. CONCLUSION**

In this final chapter, concluding statements are made on the basis of the findings of this study. This study has examined the housing experiences of the 72 Somali participants and linked the impacts of these experiences on their resettlement outcomes. The participants' experiences have been contrasted with refugee experiences in New Zealand and internationally in general.

In the resettlement process, resettled refugees and the host community are expected to engage in a reciprocal process whereby the arriving people and host society make changes to facilitate the full and equal integration of newcomers into a new society. It is an evolving process of learning, adapting, and developing new skills to deal with new challenges (Dunstan et al., 2004).

The housing experiences reflect the progressive pathways that the participants have taken during their life-course in the housing markets. In general tenure, quality, and cost of the dwellings that they lived in while they made an equivalent effort in family upbringing and finding sustainable employment.

The objectives set out in this study were successfully implemented and they were relevant throughout the preparation of this thesis which helped focus the analysis. They were realigned with the overall purpose of the study in light of the research questions that were revised after the consultation with reference group. Overall the five research questions set out in this study were fully and effectively answered which will provide better understanding.

Doing research in community settings has some ethical and practical challenges such as communication barriers, translations, time and cost.

The issues associated with housing and other variables were tested from sociological, feminist epistemology and ethnographic perspectives at household, group as well as institutional and societal levels in this study. This was informed by the definition of the resettlement process and housing experiences adopted during the data collection.

On a housing policy level, the study concludes that there are policy related issues that has to be addressed. The lack of a refugee – specific housing strategy was identified that has a potential to address specific issues related to quality and affordability of housing in terms of policy development.

The housing affordability problem had been as a result of the demand and inadequate supply by the housing markets and low levels of incomes. Although, the Labour-led Government affordability of housing policy has ensured low-income households living in state subsidised housing including those participants in this study who are living in State housing. Henceforth, housing demand will continue to push up the housing prices as well as rents in Auckland and the quality of housing could be compromised. Consequently, those participants who are living in private rental housing and already paying high rents may experience further soaring housing cost as housing affordability and low income issues will remain one of the trends in Auckland.

This study shows that there is a possible relationship between quality and affordability of housing. Nevertheless, measuring quality of housing as a policy issue might not be easy and requires a longitudinal housing and health studies.

Resettled refugees have limited access to housing services due to a number of barriers such as discrimination and lack of an equitable and fair process in both the state and private housing markets. Even so, the majority of the participants were state housing tenants and believed this was the only reliable housing provider. Although state housing was of great help in providing affordable housing in Auckland's housing market where affordability of housing is a major issue, there were certain specific barriers that refugees could receive improved assistance in overcoming. The effect of the barriers that the participants experienced in the housing market in Auckland include: barriers finding housing, limited choices of housing and transfer to better location and quality of housing, overcrowding, high rental cost in private housing sector, discrimination, and in severe circumstances a few households minimised the number of family members to accommodate larger families in small houses.

The Accommodation Supplement was not accessible by the majority of the participants in private rental due to lack of information and understanding. Consequently, nearly half of the participants were paying high and unaffordable housing rents. As expected there is a close correlation between the housing experiences of participants and the type of housing and income.

Approximately half of the participants received income from government assistance sources. Of these, quota refugees had the larger proportion dependent on government income support. Two thirds of the quota refugees were in paid full-time employment and more than half were working as casuals, while over a quarter were unemployed. The quota refugee's experiences also impact on a number of life goals such as lost educational opportunities and limited or no English skills. Thus they take a longer period of time to compensate for lost opportunities. Half of the participants rated their ability to speak English language as "very well to well", although a half of them rated "well" to "moderate". In this sample, both quota and family reunification categories had similar levels of English proficiency rated as "very well to well", whilst more quota refugees rated their abilities as "moderate". The vast majority of quota refugees were happy to be living in New Zealand compared to more than half of the family reunification refugees. Their responses were likely to have been influenced by unsafe conditions in their homeland the safety, peace and overall enjoyable lifestyle and a quality environment in New Zealand.

Childcare - availability, time and resources-impacted on the participants' access to English classes and education as well. However, bilingual community education was provided by the Somali community in Auckland to address English proficiency issues. More Somali younger adults were studying and likely to improve their future career prospects.

In comparison, greater proportion of the family reunification categories - more than two thirds majority of the participants were in paid full-time employment. Overall the participants are making progress in their housing and the resettlement process within the medium to long-term timeframe.

Nonetheless, the impact of housing is evident on some participants. This applied in particular to those with large families as most participants tend to have between 5-14 children which are comparably higher than New Zealand standard family size. Moreover, housing related issues further caused distress and tensions with some neighbours. A number of participants were living in overcrowded housing conditions. As a result, some of the participants reported having health issues.

More family reunification refugee participants had a higher level of diploma while quota refugees had more degree qualifications acquired in New Zealand. Most of the family reunification participants had moved house 3-5 which is more times than quota refugee participants.

In contrast, those participants who had lived in New Zealand for 1-4 years had made a reasonable housing progression, while they made comparable growth in their other life goals at a differing pace in the resettlement process. This shows the different level of resettlement process depending on the distinctive individual circumstances and resources made available to them. Those participants who had no family support, particularly women - headed families without male support, limited or no English skills and lack of experience with housing markets had a slower pace of resettlement. The participants had diverse housing experiences such as many house moves, although a number of participants had a long - term housing address.

This study reconfirmed similar experiences that occur in international and New Zealand studies. For example, similar to previous studies, half of the participants had lived in substandard poor-quality housing in deprived neighbourhoods less desirable in the housing market. Two-thirds of the participants who had been in New Zealand for 5-9 years still had unmet resettlement housing needs. These unmet needs are compounded by a relatively higher unemployment rate compared with those with 1-4 years' length of time in the country. Those with 10-14 plus years had slightly more housing and health - related issues.

Thus, poor quality of housing, low level of English proficiency and educational attainment, unemployment and negative health outcomes show inter-relationships. In these instances the findings corresponded to the previous studies (Suleiman, 2002; Dunstan et al., 2004; Cole & Robinson, 2003; Foley and Beer, 2003; Guerin, et al., 2003; Lawrence, 2004). There are more similarities between the participants' experiences and those resettled refugee experiences in Australia, Britain, Canada, the United States of America, the Netherlands and Europe. There was correlation regarding the participants' housing experiences in terms of fewer choices, location, poor quality of housing, overcrowding, in extreme cases hiding children information from housing providers.

The above findings support previous findings in Toronto, Canada (Murdie et al., 1995). While the Canadian study was undertaken 12 years ago, the barriers to access housing by resettled refugees regardless of geographical location continues to be the key issue in resettling countries. The participants' housing moves and being transient also show similarities with previous studies (Liev, 1996; McCormack et al., 2003; Guerin, et al., 2003; Dunstan et al., 2004; Lilley, 2004).

In most cases, there were commonalities in responses and key issues identified across the participants' immigration arrival categories and length of time in New Zealand. Nonetheless, there are some differences in the speed of resettlement and housing progression influenced by individual circumstances, English language skills, level of education and available family, social-economic and political support. For instance, a previous study suggests the Somalis in Christchurch had not experienced discrimination in the private housing (Lilley, 2004). This greatly differed for the participants as they encountered a high level of discrimination in both the private and state housing sector in Auckland.

Although the level of discrimination varied amongst the participants' housing experiences and the resettlement process, the researcher holds a strong view concerning setting a timeline for the resettlement process.

When resettlement is supported with adequate resources, it is likely to be coordinated with individual and community level support for better outcomes in a more favourable time-frame. The open-ended and more generalised view of resettlement as a continuum overlooks the importance of timely progression for the achievement of housing and settlement outcomes.

The evidence of this study suggests a consistent relationship exists between poor quality of housing, low level of English skills and educational attainment, unemployment and health outcomes. Alternatively, the participants' housing experiences also show a relative association with employment, English proficiency education and level of income.

The corresponding analysis identified two key output variables - self-reported level of coping with life and happiness at being in New Zealand. For instance, the level of coping in New Zealand is associated with (but only moderately strongly) with a wide range of variables. Those coping less well are: low income poor health status, paying high rent and including more than one household. A number of other difficulty – engendering characteristics are also associated – but more modestly with lower levels of coping.

It is remarkable and important to the line of analysis of this thesis that several of these factors are housing related, including the difficulties of large family sizes. Lower levels of coping also are related with health and more generally with the income situation of the household.

Happiness at being in New Zealand is also correlated slightly with a variety of variables. Only source of income and occupation stick out. In particular, happiness is less correlated with housing and other circumstances. It is likely that less concurrence of happiness with housing and resettlement process could be influenced by refugee's protracted flights before they came to New Zealand as opposed to post resettlement challenges.

The housing experiences were measured using participatory research design and multiple data collection methods. This involved quantitative and qualitative data that found overall the participants' housing experiences were directed towards a fair level of satisfaction with their housing conditions in Auckland. Overall, more than two-thirds of the participants' were feeling "very happy" and coping well with life in New Zealand.

This study is important because it has achieved a sense of shared vision and power balance in research with the participants and helped identify key community issues for them. The research design and implementation process has added value to the Auckland Somali population's social capital and hopefully will assist with new efforts to address their social issues.

This study has also established trust and partnerships between the Somali community in Auckland and AUT University Faculty of Applied Humanities. The findings of this study have implications for this academic institution to strengthen research capability as well as teach and facilitate public policy debate on refugee theory and social policy in New Zealand. In turn an advanced understanding of refugee theoretical knowledge and the social policy sphere will assist the formulation of appropriate settlement strategies and policy developments.

The analysis of this study has identified the resettled refugees' needs requiring social and economic developments reflected in focused policy direction. The new insights gained by this study will give resettled refugee communities ample opportunity to seek equal economic, social and political participation at individual, institutional, academic and governmental levels supported by this evidence. Therefore, this study and its significance have implications for the academic field, government, the host community, private housing providers and employers in New Zealand.

## **6.1 Recommendations**

This section summarises the implications of the study and suggests solution-focused recommendation. What types of strategies and policies will improve the provision of housing and resettlement services?

The implications of the study are applicable at the individual, household, group, institutional and government levels. In this process, resettled refugees and their community groups are expected to learn new skills and seek opportunities to deal with unfamiliar ways of doing things, such as how New Zealand systems and housing markets operate. This demands that they adapt to local conditions while they must not forget their own cultural heritage and should embrace the host culture as well. The participants in this study had by and large diverse housing experiences which also influenced their resettlement outcomes at different levels. Though the participants' refugee backgrounds impacted on them, it is critical that they integrate favourably and rapidly, so they can fully participate in the host community.

The Local Authorities will have an important role to play in facilitating and promoting local issues among all communities. Such an approach will improve community participation at the local government level. At the central government level, a policy framework should be developed and monitored in the attempt to increase awareness of newcomers and facilitate integration with the host community.

Central Government policies must be clearly communicated to all communities and involve local authorities, private sector and academic institutions. The settlement policy framework should enhance collaborative working relationships across all these institutions to ensure equitable services are provided at all levels. This demands particular awareness that some groups may require more assistance than others in terms of access to community resources. The government policy should strengthen the institutions' capability to coordinate the resettlement strategies to improve the quality of service delivery and diverse groups' cultural and social developments.

In the process of improving housing and overall resettlement policies and provision, the central government has more responsibility to assist with developing refugee-specific housing strategies which may ease some of the housing trends identified in this study. Therefore, the housing providers should collaborate to facilitate equitable and transparent housing services to different groups such as the Somali households at the individual and group levels.

The findings of this study point to the need to do more in addressing the housing experiences and resettlement related basic issues, such as income, adequate housing, English skills, employment and social participation to ensure refugees are well settled. The pattern of the participants' housing experiences related well with the authenticity of the data and other refugee experiences.

The empirical findings of the study can contribute to the development of refugee-specific housing strategies, refugee-specific health strategies and the improvement of resettlement outcomes in New Zealand.

Based on the findings of the study, solution-focused recommendations follow:

- That HNZC should put greater emphasis on developing and implementing refugee-specific housing strategies to establish more inclusive housing provision;
- That HNZC develops partnerships with key stakeholders in its planning and policy;
- That service providers give more attention to refugees' demographic profile, information about who they are, what their needs are and where they live;
- That HNZC and the Police pay more attention to Somali households' concerns regarding neighbourhood ethnic conflicts between them and Pacific Island households;
- That HNZC should focus on public relations training for state housing staff to increase transparency and reduce discriminatory practices
- That HNZC directs more resources to increasing state housing stock to address key housing issues for large families, and single young adults;

- That HNZ gives priority to translating housing information into Somali and other ethnic groups' languages to increase accessibility of housing and understanding of entitlements and process;
- That Work and Income translate the Accommodation Supplement information into Somali and other ethnic groups' languages to raise awareness and understanding;
- That Ministry of Health and local District Health Boards develop national, regional and local refugee-specific strategies that could ensure primary health services are accessible to Somalis and other ethnic groups;
- That the Department of Labour Settlement section places greater emphasis on educating housing providers regarding the impact of housing on positive refugee resettlement;
- That urgent action should be taken for the co-ordination and implementation of settlement strategies to raise greater awareness within public and private institutions, particularly employers, to help refugees settle well and contribute to the economic, social and cultural development of New Zealand sooner than later.

## **6.2 Limitations**

A number of limitations of the study are worth noting. The key ones are time, resources, ethical requirements, and non-response bias. Refugee research demands specific care due to their past refugee flights and obstacles to communication (Camino & Krulfeld, 1994). To address the language matters, bilingual interpreters and translators were used to gather data, which could impact on the participants' understanding and thus influence the results. In particular, data transcriptions and translations have proved time-consuming and costly.

The Auckland Somali population is the largest group of the Somali society in New Zealand. Seventy two participants were successfully surveyed. The recruitment process used in this study was through information sheets, personal contacts and Somali bilingual interpreters, which could have resulted in a selection bias.

Consequently, I could not guarantee a random selection, and thus influenced the results. Some members of the Somali community had lived in New Zealand for the past decade and almost all of the participants have encountered a number of housing and social barriers in their resettlement process. The data on the Somali population in New Zealand is scarce and outdated. Hence, accurate numbers required to calculate an exact representative sample are not available. The greater proportion of the participants came to New Zealand after similar refugee flights and protracted stays in camps. Although the participants differ in their immigration arrival categories, this was related to the majority having similar demographics and they share social, cultural, linguistic and religious values in New Zealand.

Despite, these limitations, the findings provide specific facts about the participants and have linked their housing experiences to other key resettlement outcomes making the analysis of this study important. My desire to contribute to the refugee theoretical paradigm and social policy was a fulfilling journey. Therefore, I hope this study can contribute to informing policy and the delivery of resettlement and housing services in New Zealand.

### **6.3 Further Research**

This section briefly provides commentary on the future area of housing research.

The findings of this study offers direction for future research, more specifically in light of the scarcity of research on the Somali housing experiences and work force participation. In addition, the housing and health relationships are important output variables that can be considered as future areas of inquiry. In particular the relationships between the housing quality and health can be better measured using cohort longitudinal survey which was outside the scope of this study.

## 7. APPENDICIES

### 7.1 Survey

#### The Somali focus group participants Quantitative questionnaire

Date: 12 November 2006



Case No. \_\_\_\_\_

Please answer the following questions either tick (✓) the box or write on the line.

#### A. About you

This section asks about your personal information.

1. Gender:      Male                    |      Female

2. Age: which of the following age categories best describe your age?

18-29 yrs    30-39yrs    40-49yrs    50-79 |    Over 80 years of age

3. What is your marital status?

Married      Never married      Solo parent      Engaged

4. Do you have children?

Yes                      No

5. If yes, how many children do you have? \_\_\_\_\_

6. What is your current occupation?    Employed    Unemployed    Self-employed  
Student

7. If you are in paid employment, is it?

Full-time    Part-time    Casual

## **B. Finding a house**

In this section we are interested in finding out what helped you find a house.

8. How long did it take you to find a house from either state or private housing markets?

1-4 weeks    4-8 weeks    8-12 weeks    3 -6 months    1year    2 years plus

## **C. Cost of your rental house and income**

This section looks at your earnings and /or benefit and how much you are able to pay for your house rent on a weekly basis.

9. Where does your money come from?

Wage or salary    Government benefit    Own Business

10. Which of the following income categories best describe your weekly earnings?

Wage    \$150.00 - \$250.00    \$251.00 - \$351.00    \$352.00 - \$452.00    \$453.00 -  
\$553.00 +

Benefit    \$120.00 - \$140.00    \$160.00 - \$180.00    \$200.00 - \$220.00    \$240.00-  
260.00 +

11. Which of the following housing cost categories best describe your weekly rent?

Private Rental    \$151.00 – \$251.00    \$252.00 - \$352.00    \$353.00 – \$453.00 +  
State Housing    \$50.00 – \$100.00    101.00 - \$151.00    \$152.00 – 202.00 +

## **D. Type of house**

This section is about which sort of house you live in.

12. Do you live in?

Private rental house    State rental house

13. What type of house do you live in?

House    Apartment    Townhouse    Shared house  
other\_\_\_\_\_

### E. Location

In this section we are interested in where you live and how long have you been there.

14. What suburb do you live in?

Mt. Albert    Mt. Roskill    Mt. Eden    Avondale    Blockhouse Bay  
Waterview    Pt. Chevalier    New Lynn    Kelston    Henderson    Massey

15. How long have you lived there?

1-6 months    1-2 years    3-4 years    more than 5 years

16. How many times have you moved since arriving in New Zealand?

1-2 times    3-5 times    more than 5 times    never moved

### F. Conditions and quality of your house

This section looks at how good your house is and your level of satisfaction with it.

17. How good do you think your house is?

Excellent    Very good | Good    | Fair    Poor

18. Are there any problems with your house?

Damp and Mould    Pests    Cold    Noise    None

Other \_\_\_\_\_

19. What sort of house did you expect to live in?

\_\_\_\_\_

20. How many bedrooms are there in your house? \_\_\_\_\_

21. How many people live in your house as well as you? \_\_\_\_\_

22. Do some members of your extended family/friends usually sleep in the sitting room?

Yes    No

23. If yes, how many? \_\_\_\_\_

### G. Housing and keeping healthy

24. Does anyone in your family have the following health problems?

Asthma    Meningococcal disease    Tuberculosis    Acute rheumatic fever  
None

25. How would you rate your health?

Excellent    Very good    | Good    | Fair    Poor

26. How do you rate the health of your family?

Excellent    Very good    | Good    | Fair    Poor



## 7.2 Discussion guidelines

### **The Somali focus group participants Qualitative discussion guidelines**

**Date: 12 November 2006**



Case No. \_\_\_\_\_

Please feel free to express your opinions in the following discussion topics through the Somali facilitator.

#### **A. Finding a house**

1. How do you go about finding rental accommodation in the Auckland region?  
(Prompts):

- Seek information about housing markets
- Ask for help from a friend
- Use Real Estate agents
- Prioritize by location, housing cost and cultural appropriateness

2. What barriers have you faced in finding adequate and affordable house in the Auckland region?

(Prompts):

##### **2.1. Private housing markets**

- Discrimination by private/state landlords based on culture, ethnicity and race
- Limited proficiency in the English language
- Source of income (low socio-economic e.g. Government benefits etc.)
- Lack of information particularly on selection criteria
- High housing deposits, rents in advance and rental costs
- Mistrust and lack of response
- Other \_\_\_\_\_

## 2.2. State housing provision

- Limited housing options e.g. larger families
- Small rental units and shortage of four or five large bedrooms
- Unmet housing needs of extended families add to overcrowding and health risks
- Long waiting lists and no response to housing needs
- Complex eligibility criteria
- Others \_\_\_\_\_

## B. Affordability of housing

3. Is your weekly housing rent an affordable?

(Prompts):

- An affordable
- Un an affordable

4. Do you qualify for accommodation supplement?

- Qualify for accommodation supplement
- Do not qualify for accommodation supplement
- Other \_\_\_\_\_

5. If your answer to Q 4 is do not qualify for accommodation supplement why?

(Prompts):

- Lack of work permit \_\_\_\_\_
- Other \_\_\_\_\_

## C. Choice of housing

6. What social factors do you consider important to you in choosing a place to live?

(Prompts):

- Safe and secure neighbourhood
- Proximity to family, friends and people of own ethnic backgrounds
- Access to education, health, community facilities and local shops/malls and community activities

#### **D. Condition of your house**

7. What is good about your house and how satisfied are with it? \_\_\_\_\_

8. What are the essential things that make a house a place to live in?

(Prompts):

- Suitable number of single/ and large family bedrooms
- Insulated, carpeted and warmer houses
- Other \_\_\_\_\_

#### **E. Housing and employment**

9. Does where you live impact on your ability to find paid employment in terms of access?

10. If so, what difficulties did you experience finding a paid job? \_\_\_\_\_

#### **F. Housing and keeping healthy**

11. Does the condition of your household impact on your health?

(Prompts):

- Overcrowding
- Poor housing condition
- Other \_\_\_\_\_

12. What type of issues do you think impact on access to health and better health outcomes in Auckland?

(Prompts):

- English language
- High General Practitioner's fees
- Culturally safe and linguistically appropriate mental and physical health services
- A lack of awareness about contraception and sexual health in general
- Limited information about a subsidized primary healthcare
- A lack of refugee-specific national and regional health strategies to address these issues
- Others \_\_\_\_\_

### **G. Housing and cultural appropriateness**

13. Does your house meet your cultural needs?

- Housing design and layout e.g. separate kitchen from sitting room
- Cultural specific meaning of boundaries of home between neighbours
- Reluctance of state housing provision of fencing contributes to neighbourhoods crimes
- Others \_\_\_\_\_

### **I. Culture and community activities**

14. What types of things do you do to maintain your own culture in New Zealand?

(Prompts):

- Language
- Religion
- Food
- Art and cultural festivals
- Sports
- Other \_\_\_\_\_

15. Do you belong to any of the following social clubs?

- Religious and
- ethnic associations
- Sports clubs
- Other \_\_\_\_\_

**Thank you for your time and participation in this workshop**

### 7.3 Steps in the PRD process

<b>Step 1: Planning and performing</b>	
o	Topic chosen and refocused: the pre-writing process
o	Review of the literature: free writing, editing and completion
o	A case study: the housing experiences of the Auckland Somali population
o	Research instruments: survey and discussion guidelines developed and translated
o	AUT Ethics Committee: research proposal developed and approved
<b>Step 2: Recruiting participants and building partnerships</b>	
o	Initiated contact with the Somali community to identify a reference group
o	Organised reference group meeting to discuss the objectives of the research project:
o	the cultural appropriateness of the research design
o	the key issues important to the Somali community
o	the research questionnaire's content including the issues covered
o	the participants recruitment process and the mode of delivery of information
o	Developed a shared understanding of identified key issues
o	Devised a shared plan for action and outcomes
<b>Reflection:</b> refocus, re-asses, ownership, partnership, representation and responsiveness	
<b>Step 3: Data collection</b>	
o	The research project implementation process
o	Data collection through focus group participants' workshop
o	Used a clearly identified bilingual facilitators for each focus group discussions
o	Used discussion guidelines and anonymous questionnaire for data collection
<b>Step 4: Analysis of findings</b>	
o	Data processing: gathering, identifying themes, selecting, legitimacy, and authority and desiring (Rountree & Laing, 1996, p. 132).
o	Data interpretation
o	Discussion and presentation
<b>Reflection:</b>	Preliminary report presentation, re-participation, evaluation, feedback, adjustment, reflection, final product and publication (Neuman, 2000:25; King & Newman, 2005:5).

## 9. REFERENCES

- Abdullahi, M. (2001). *Culture and customs of Somalia*, Westport. Greenwood Press.
- Adkins, M. Birman, D., & Sample, B. (1998). *Cultural adjustment and mental health: The role of the ESL Teacher*. Paper presented at the national conference. Office of Refugee Resettlement, Washington.
- Altinkaya, J., & Omundsen, H. (1999, December). "Birds in a gilded cage": resettlement prospects for Adult refugees in New Zealand. *Social Policy Journal of New Zealand*. 13: 31-42.
- Anderson, I. (2003) *Migration and homelessness in the UK: Report for the European Observatory on Homelessness*, Brussels: FEANTSA.
- Auckland Regional Council Group. (2003) *Auckland regional affordable housing strategy: Auckland Regional Growth Forum*. Auckland. Retrieved on 06 May, 2006 from [www.arc.govt.nz](http://www.arc.govt.nz)
- Auckland Regional Growth Forum. (1999) *Growth strategy*. Auckland, New Zealand.
- Auckland Regional Settlement Strategy. (2007, January) *The Auckland regional settlement strategy and the Auckland settlement action plan, Auckland Sustainable Cities Programme*. Retrieved on 23 January, 2006 from [www.sustainableauckland.govt.nz/settlement](http://www.sustainableauckland.govt.nz/settlement)
- Auckland Regional Settlement Strategy. (2004, August) *Overview paper refugee resettlement in New Zealand*. Auckland. Retrieved on 23 January, 2007 from [www.immigration.govt.nz/settlement](http://www.immigration.govt.nz/settlement)
- Australian National Housing Strategy. (1999) *Affordable housing policy*. Canberra, Australia.
- Bell, D. (Ed.). (2005). *New to New Zealand: A guide to ethnic groups in New Zealand*. Auckland: New Reed Publishing.
- Berger, P., & Luckmann, T. (1991) *The social construction of reality: A treatise in the sociology of knowledge*, Harmondsworth: Penguin (original work published 1966).
- Berry, J. W. (1997). Immigration, acculturation and adaptation: Applied psychology. *An International Review* 46, 5-68.

- Bihi, A. (1999). *Cultural Identity: Adaptation and well being of Somali refugees in New Zealand*. Unpublished research paper submitted in partial fulfilment for the degree of Masters of Development Studies, Wellington, Victoria University of Wellington.
- Black, R. (2002) Conceptions of “home” and the political geography of refugee repatriation. *Applied Geography*, vol. 22, no 2, pp. 123-38.
- Black, R. (1994) Livelihoods under stress; a case study of refugee vulnerability in Greece. *Journal of Refugee Studies*, vol. 7, no 4, pp. 360-77.
- Bloch, A. (2002) *The migration and settlement of refugees in Britain*, New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Bowes, A. Dar, N., & Sims, D. (2002). Differentiation in housing careers: The case of Pakistanis in the United Kingdom. *Housing Studies*, 17 (3): 381-400.
- Canadian Council for Refugees. (1998, February). Best settlement practices: Settlement services for refugees and immigrants in Canada. *Canadian Council for Refugees*.
- Carey-Wood, J. (1997) *Meeting refugees needs in Britain: The role of refugee – specific initiatives*. London, Home Office Research and Statistics Directorate. Retrieved 9 May, 2006, from, <http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/pdfs/occ-refugee.pdf>
- Centre for Housing Research Aotearoa New Zealand. (2005) *Towards a New Zealand Housing Strategy*. Wellington, New Zealand. Retrieved 8 August, 2006, from [www.chranz.govt.nz](http://www.chranz.govt.nz)
- Centre for Housing Research Aotearoa New Zealand. (2004) *Housing Costs and Affordability in New Zealand*. Wellington. Retrieved 23 August, 2006, from [www.chranz.govt.nz](http://www.chranz.govt.nz)
- Cernea, M. (1995). Understanding and preventing impoverishment from displacement: Reflections on the state of knowledge. *Journal of Refugee Studies*, 8(3) 245-264.
- Chapman, P. (2006). Housing and health research program Victoria University of Wellington. In D. Healy (Eds.), *Housing, Fuel Poverty and Health UK, 2004. A Pan-European analysis* (pp.194-195). London: Ashgate.
- Cheyne, C., O'Brien, M., & Belgrave, M. (Eds.). (2000). *Social Policy in Aotearoa New Zealand: A critical introduction*. Auckland: Oxford University Press.

- Chimni, B. S. (1999, May). New issues in refugees' research: From resettlement to involuntary repatriation: Towards a critical history of durable solutions to refugee problems. Geneva: *Centre for Documentation and Research, UNHCR*.
- Clark, W. A. V., Deurloo, M. C., & Dieleman, F. M. (2003). Housing careers in the United States, 1968 – '93; modelling the sequencing of housing states. *Urban Studies*, vol. 40, no, 1, 143 – 160, 2003.
- Cole, I., & Robinson, D. (2003). *Somali housing experiences in England*, Centre for regional economic and social research. London, Sheffield Hallam University, England.
- Crampton, P. (2003). *A new population, a new direction: An evaluation of primary care provided to the Hutt Valley refugee population by Hutt Union and Community Health Service*. Wellington: Department of Public Health, Wellington School of Medicine and Health Sciences.
- Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. St Leonards, NSW: Allen & Unwin.
- Cullen A. (2005) *Urban intensification and affordable housing in Auckland: A thesis submitted for the degree of Master of regional and resource planning, the University of Otago, Dunedin*. Wellington: Centre for Housing Research Aotearoa New Zealand. Retrieved 9, August, 2006, from [www.chranz.govt.nz](http://www.chranz.govt.nz)
- Davies, E., McCormack, F., Hanna, K., & McDermott, K. (not dated). *Roskill Youth Programme. How can the literature inform us?* Auckland. Institute of Public Policy, Auckland University of Technology.
- Department of Labour. (2005) *Minutes of the National Refugee Resettlement Forum*. Wellington, New Zealand.
- Dummett, M. (2001) *On immigration and refugees*, London: Routledge.
- Dunstan, S. Dibbley, R., & Shorland, P. (2004). *Refugee voices: A journey towards resettlement*. Wellington: Department of Labour's New Zealand Immigration Service.
- Dunn, J. (2002). *A population health approach to housing: a framework for research*. A report prepared for the national housing research committee and the Canadian mortgage and housing corporation. Canada.
- Durie, M. (Ed.). (1998). *Whaiora: Maori health development*. Melbourne: Oxford University Press.

- Elliot, S., & Gray, A. (1997). Like falling out of the sky: Communities in collision. In C. Bell (Eds.), *Community issues in New Zealand*. Palmerston North: Dunmore Press Ltd.
- European Commission on Refugees and Exiles (ECRE). (1999). *Good practice guide on the integration of refugees in the European Union: Education, employment, and health, housing, training, community and cultural adaptation, task force on integration*. Brussels, Belgium.
- Fisk, B. (2003, March 6). Employment and migrants: An Auckland Focus. Auckland: *Work and Income New Zealand, the Ministry of Social Development*.
- Fletcher, M. (1999, September). Migrant Settlement: A review of the literature and its relevance to New Zealand. Wellington: *New Zealand Immigration Service*.
- Foley, P., & Beer, A. (2003) *Housing need and provision for recently arrived refugees in Australia*. Melbourne: Australian Housing and Urban Research Institute, Southern Research Centre. Retrieved 3 March, 2006, from [www.ahuri.edu.au](http://www.ahuri.edu.au)
- Garvie, D. (2001) *Far from home: The housing of asylum seekers in private rented accommodation*, London: Shelter.
- Goldberg, D. T. (1993) *Racist culture: Philosophy and the politics of meaning*, Malden: Blackwell Publishers Inc.
- Granby Toxteth Community Project. (1993). A survey of the Somali community in Liverpool: An in-depth analysis, Liverpool: Granby Toxteth Community project. In Temple, B. and Moran, R. (Eds.), *Doing research with refugees: Issues and guidelines*. Bristol: The Policy Press.
- Grant, B. M., & Giddings, L. S. (2002). Making sense of methodologies: A paradigm framework for the novice researcher. *Contemporary Nurse* 13(1), 10-28.
- Gray, A., & Elliot, S. (2001). *Refugee resettlement research project*. 'Refugee voices'. *Literature review*. Wellington: New Zealand Immigration Service.
- Green, J. W. (3<sup>rd</sup> Eds.). (1999). *Cultural awareness in the human services: A multi-ethnic approach, social work with minorities in the United States, cultural studies*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Guerin, B. Guerin, P. Diirye, R., & Adbi, A. (2004, June 2003). What skills do Somali refugees bring with them? Labour, Employment and work in New Zealand 2004. Hamilton: Department of Psychology, University of Waikato.

- Guerin, B. Abdi, A., & Guerin, P. (2003a). Experiences with the Medical and Health systems for Somali refugees living in Hamilton, *New Zealand Journal of Psychology*, 32(1), 27-32.
- Guerin, P., & Guerin, B. (2003b). Relocating refugees in developed countries: the poverty experiences of Somalis resettling in New Zealand. In Lyon, K. & C. Voight, G. (Eds.), *5<sup>th</sup> International APMRN Conference, Fiji 2002: Selected papers (pp. 64-70)*. Wollongong: University of Wollongong.
- Home Office. (2000) *Full and equal citizens: A strategy for the integration of refugees into the United Kingdom*, London: The Stationer Office.
- Housing New Zealand Corporation. (2006) *Statement of Intent 2002-2006*. Retrieved June 22, 2006, from <http://www.hnzc.govt.nz>.
- Housing New Zealand Corporation. (2005) *New Zealand housing strategy*: Wellington, New Zealand. Retrieved June 22, 2006, from <http://www.hnzc.govt.nz>.
- Housing New Zealand Corporation. (2005) *Auckland regional strategy 2005-2008*. Retrieved 8, October, 2006, from <http://www.hnzc.govt.nz>.
- Housing New Zealand Corporation. (2002) *Briefing to the incoming Minister of Housing*, Wellington, New Zealand.
- Howden-Chapman, P., & Carroll, C. (Eds.). (2000). Housing and health: Research policy and innovation Wellington: *Department of Public Health, Wellington School of Medicine and Health Sciences, New Zealand*, pp. 79-80.
- Hulchanski, D. (1997) *Immigrants and access to housing: How welcome are newcomers to Canada?, Summary of keynote presentation to the Housing and neighbourhoods' workshop, Metropolis year II conference, the development of a comparative research agenda, Montreal, November 23-26, 1997*. Retrieved 17 February, 2006, from <http://www.library.utoronto.ca/hnc/publish/keynote.pdf>
- Humpage, L. (2000). *Refuge or turmoil? Somali refugee adolescents in Christchurch secondary schools*. Christchurch: Refugee Resettlement Support Centre.
- Jameson, B., & Nana, G. (2004). *Furthering our understanding of tenure transition: The impact of financial circumstances on tenure choices in New Zealand*. Wellington: *Business and Economic Research Limited*: Report to Centre for Housing Research Aotearoa New Zealand. Retrieved 9, August, 2006, from [www.chranz.govt.nz](http://www.chranz.govt.nz)

- Jenkinson, B. (2000). *Somali women's voices: Being a Somali woman in New Zealand*. Masters Thesis: University of Waikato.
- Jones, M. (2004). *Somali immigrant settlement issues: Domestic migration to former Mill town of Lewiston, Maine, United States*, University of Maryland. Retrieved 22, August 2006, from <http://www.academic.evergreen.edu/g/grossmaz/Somali.html>.
- Johnson, A. (2003). *Room for improvement: Current New Zealand Housing policies and their implications for our children*. Auckland: Child Poverty Action Group.
- Johnson, R., Poulsen, M., & Forrest, J. (2002) "Rethinking the analysis of ethnic residential patterns: Segregation, isolation, or concentration thresholds in Auckland, New Zealand" *Geographical Analysis*, 34:245-261.
- Jupp, J. (1994). *Exile or refuge? The settlement of refugee, humanitarian and displaced immigrants*. Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service.
- King, M., & Newman, N. (2005). *African youth health and well-being: Participatory action research project*, unpublished research paper. Wellington: Department of Geography, Victoria University.
- Kissoon, P. (2006). Home and homelessness as an indicator of integration: Interviewing refugees about the meaning of home and accommodation. In Temple, B. and Moran, R. (Eds.), *Doing research with refugees: Issues and guidelines*. Bristol: The Policy Press.
- Kizito, H. (2001). *Refugee health care: A handbook for health professionals*. Wellington: Ministry of Health, New Zealand.
- Korac, M. (2002) The role of the state in refugee integration and settlement: Italy and the Netherlands compared, *Forced Migration Review*, no 14, Jun, pp 30-2.
- Korac, M. (2003) The lack of integration policy and experiences of settlement: A case study of refugees in Rome, *Journal of Refugee Studies*, vol. 16, no 4, pp. 398-421.
- Krulfeld, R. M. (1994) Methods in refugee research: Two ethnographic approaches Pp. 147. In Camino, Linda A., & Krulfeld, R. M. (Eds.), *Reconstructing lives, recapturing meaning: Refugee identity, gender, and culture change*. -149. Switzerland: Gordon and Breach Science Publishers S.A.

- Lawrence, J. (2003). *Draft report on health research council summer studentship, unpublished research paper*. Auckland: School of Geography and Environmental Science, University of Auckland.
- Liev, M., & Kezo, T. (1998). *Refugee resettlement issues: An Ethiopian perspective*. The six national conference on community languages and ESOL, Palmerston North.
- Liev, M. (1996). *Tontine: An alternative financial instrument in Cambodian communities*. Unpublished thesis presented in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Philosophy in Development Studies, Auckland, University of Auckland.
- Lilley, S. (2004). *Vulnerable migrant groups: a housing perspective, a project undertaken in satisfaction of the course requirements of a Bachelor of Arts degree, School of Geography, University of Canterbury, Christchurch*. Wellington: *Centre for Housing Research Aotearoa New Zealand*.
- MacGibbon, L. (2004). *We do not want to seem demanding: Information needs of refugee and new migrants to Christchurch*. Christchurch: Christchurch City Council.
- Madjar, V., & Humpage, L. (2000). *The experiences of Bosnian and Somali refugees. Working Paper Series No. 1 School of Sociology and Women's Studies*. Albany: Massey University
- Manukau City Council. (2003) *New settlers' policy community development initiatives*. Auckland, New Zealand.
- Mateman, S. (1999). *Housing for Refugees in the European Union*. Brussels: ECRE task force on integration.
- Meager, Z. (2005). *The home of exile: Housing the Auckland Ethiopian refugee population. A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Masters of Arts in Sociology at the University of Auckland*. Wellington, Centre for Housing Research Aotearoa New Zealand, Wellington. Retrieved 6 April, 2006, from [www.chranz.govt.nz](http://www.chranz.govt.nz)
- McCormack, F., Davies, E., Nakhid, C., & Shirley, I. (2003a). Community profile of selected suburbs in the Mt. Roskill. Auckland: *Institute of Public Policy and Safer Auckland City*.
- McCready, K. (1997) At-risk youth and leisure: An ecological perspective. *Journal of Leisurability*, 24(2). Retrieved 12 July, 2006 from <http://www.lin.ca/resource/html/Vol24/v24n2a5.htm>

- McDermott, K. (2003b) *Refugee resettlement to New Zealand: Policy and practice*. Unpublished doctoral paper, Auckland University of Technology.
- McKenzie Trust. (2004) *The journey to work: Jobs for refugees*. Retrieved July 9, 2006, from [www.jrmckenzie.org.nz](http://www.jrmckenzie.org.nz).
- McSpadden, L., A. (1999). Negotiating masculinity in the reconstruction of social place. In D. Indra (Ed.), *Engendered forced migration: Theory and practice: Vol. 5. Refugee and forced migration studies*. New York and Oxford: Berghahn Books.
- Miraftab, F. (2000). Sheltering refugees: The housing experiences of refugees' in metropolitan Vancouver, Canada. *Canadian Journal of Urban Research Bulletin No.*, 9, Iss.1, p. 42.
- Ministry of Economic Development and the Treasury. (2005) *Growth through innovation sustainable economic growth for New Zealanders*. Wellington, New Zealand. Retrieved 25 January, 2007 from [www.immigration.govt.nz/settlement](http://www.immigration.govt.nz/settlement)
- Ministry of Education. (2003a) *The adult ESOL strategy: Tertiary Education learning outcomes policy*. Wellington, New Zealand. Retrieved 30 November, 2006 from [www.minedu.govt.nz](http://www.minedu.govt.nz)
- Ministry of Education. (June, 2003b) *Improving the English language outcomes for students receiving ESOL services in New Zealand's schools, with a particular focus on new immigrants*. Wellington, New Zealand. Retrieved 30/11/2006 from [www.minedu.govt.nz](http://www.minedu.govt.nz)
- Ministry of Health. (2002) *Reducing health inequalities report*. Wellington, New Zealand.
- Ministry of Health. (2001) *Refugee healthcare: A handbook for health professionals*. Wellington, New Zealand.
- Ministry of Social Development. (2005) *The social report 2005: Cultural identity in New Zealand*. Wellington, New Zealand.
- Ministry of Social Development. (2004) *Key social issues and priorities as identified by Auckland, Waikato, Wellington and Christchurch refugees and migrants*, unpublished paper. Wellington, New Zealand.
- Mohamed, H. (1999). Resistance strategies: Somali women's struggle to reconstruct their lives in Canada, *Canadian Women Studies*, V. 19 (3), pp. 52-57.

- Moran, R. A. Mohamed, Z., & Lovel, H. (2002). *Breaking the silence: Participatory action research with refugees in Britain, paper presented at XV world congress of Sociology, Brisbane*. In Temple, B. and Moran, R. (Eds.), *Doing research with refugees: Issues and guidelines*. Bristol: The Policy Press.
- Mumford, L. (1961) *The city in history: Its origin, its transformations and its prospects*, New York, NY: Harcourt, Brace and World.
- Murdie, R., A. Cambon, D. H., & Teixeira, C. (2002) A comparison of the rental housing experiences of Polish and Somali Newcomers in Toronto. *Centre for Urban and Community Studies, Research Bulletin No. 9*.
- Murdie, R. A., & Teixeira, C. (2000) Towards a comfortable neighbourhood and appropriate housing: Immigrant experiences in Toronto, CERIS Working Paper no 10, ([ceris.metropolis.net/frameset\\_e.html](http://ceris.metropolis.net/frameset_e.html)).
- Murdie, R. A. Cambon, D. H., & Teixeira, C. (1995). *Housing issues facing Immigrants and Refugees in Greater Toronto: Initial Findings from the Jamaican, Polish and Somali Communities*. Unpublished research report, Housing New Canadian Research Working Group, Toronto, Canada.
- Nam, B., & Ward, R. (2006). *Refugee and migrant needs: An annotated bibliography of research and consultations*. Wellington: Refugee and Migrant Service, Ministry of Social Development.
- National Asylum Seekers Forum. (2005, May 22). Minutes of National Asylum Seekers Forum: Asylum and determination policy and service provision in New Zealand. Auckland: *Department of Labour*.
- National Health Committee. (1998) *The social, cultural and economic determinants of health in New Zealand: Action to improve health. A report from the national advisory committee on health and disability*. Wellington, New Zealand. Retrieved 29 October, 2006, from [www.nhc.govt.nz](http://www.nhc.govt.nz)
- Neuman, W. L. (Eds.). (2000). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Non-Governmental Organisations. (2005, January 5). Refugee resettlement policy in New Zealand: An integrated approach, a report for the incoming coalition government. Wellington: *NGO Sector*.
- New Zealand Herald. (2007) International housing affordability survey. The third demographic. Auckland: January 22, *New Zealand Herald*.

- New Zealand Immigration Service, Department of Labour. (2005) *A future together: The New Zealand settlement strategy in outline*. Wellington, New Zealand. Retrieved 15 March, 2006, from [www.immigration.govt.nz/community/stream/support/nzimmigrationsettlementstrategy/](http://www.immigration.govt.nz/community/stream/support/nzimmigrationsettlementstrategy/)
- Office of the Deputy Prime Minister. (1998) *Housing policies in Britain circular 6/1998*, London.
- Ozaki, R. (2002). Housing as reflection of culture: privatised living and privacy in England and Japan. *Housing Studies*, 17(2), pp. 209-227.
- Pearl, M., & Zetter, R. (2002). From refugee to exclusion: housing as an instrument of social exclusion for refugees and asylum seekers, in P. Somerville and A. Steele (Eds.), *Race, housing and social exclusion*, London: Jessica Kingsley, pp. 226-44.
- Pernice, R. (1989). Refugees and mental health. In M. Abbot (Eds.), *Refugee Resettlement and Wellbeing*. Auckland: Mental Health Foundation of New Zealand.
- Perry, J. (2005). *Housing and support for asylum seekers and refugees: A good practice guide*. Foundation by the Chartered Institute of Housing, London. Retrieved on 26 March, 2006, from <http://www.jrf.org.uk/knowledge/findings/housing/0455.asp>
- Quilgars, D. (1993) *Housing provision for refugees*, New York: Centre for Housing Policy, University of New York.
- Rankine, J. (2005). Housing and health in Auckland: A summary of selected research. Auckland: *Auckland Regional Public Health Services*.
- Ray, B. (2002) *Immigrant integration: Building to opportunity, migration fundamentals*, Migration Policy Institute ([www.migrationinformation.org](http://www.migrationinformation.org)).
- Refugee Issues Forum. (2005). *Key refugee related issues in the Wellington region*. Unpublished paper, Wellington, Refugee and Migrant Service, Wellington.
- Renaud, J., and Gingras, L. (1998). *Landed refugee claimants first three years in Quebec*, Studies Research and Statistics Collection No 2, Quebec: Direction de la planification strategique.
- Robinson, V. (1993). Marching into the middle class? The long-term resettlement of East African and Asians in the UK. *Journal of Refugee Studies*, 6(3), 230-247.

- Rudestam, K. E., & Newton, R. R. (Eds.). (2001). *Surviving your dissertation: A comprehensive guide to content and process*: California: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Rountree, K., & Laing, T. (1996). *Writing by degrees: A practical guide to writing thesis and research papers*. Auckland: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Schaid, J., & Grossman, Z. (2003). *Somali immigrant settlement in small Minnesota and Twin Cities of Midwestern Wisconsin Communities: The case of Barron, University of Wisconsin – Eau Claire, United States*. Retrieved 22, August 2006, from [www.uwec.edu/grossmzc](http://www.uwec.edu/grossmzc)
- Solomon, N. (2002). *Everybody's got to be somewhere: Household crowding and children of the Auckland region – trends and impacts*. Auckland: Auckland District Health Board Public Health Service.
- Solomon, N. (1997). The cost of health services for refugees and asylum seekers in Auckland region: *A health profile and health services purchasing strategy*. Auckland: Hygeia Health Services Consultancy.
- Spoonley, P., Peace, R., Butcher, A., & O'Neill, D. (2005). Social Cohesion: A policy and indicator framework for assessing immigrant and host outcomes, *Social Policy Journal of New Zealand*, vol. 85-110.
- Spoonley, P. (1988). *Racism and ethnicity: Critical Issues in New Zealand Society*. Auckland: Oxford University Press.
- Staley, H., & Howden-Chapman, P. (2004, February 25). A healthy return from investing in insulation, presentation to Government officials: Research policy and innovation. Wellington: *Steele and Roberts*.
- Statistics New Zealand. (2006) *Census 2006*. Wellington, New Zealand. Retrieved on 15 October, 2006 from, [www.statisticsnz.govt.nz](http://www.statisticsnz.govt.nz)
- Statistics New Zealand. (2001) *Census 2001*. Wellington, New Zealand. Retrieved on 15 October, 2006 from, [www.statisticsnz.govt.nz](http://www.statisticsnz.govt.nz)
- Stenström, E. (2003). Best practices and key lessons learned for integration of resettled refugees following the integration conference in Sweden, in *Listening to the evidence: The future of UK resettlement*, Conference Proceedings, London: Home Office, pp. 28-32.
- Stone, R. (2003). *Auckland regional affordable housing strategy and draft Manukau city affordable housing action plan, report to Manukau City Council*.

- Suleiman, I. (2002). *East African Refugees Issues of immigration and integration 1993-2002 in Wellington Area, New Zealand*. Unpublished research report presented in partial fulfilment of the degree of Master of Social Work (Applied), Massey University, Albany.
- Temple, B., & Moran, R. (2006). *Doing research with refugees: Issues and guidelines*, Bristol: The Policy Press.
- Temple, B., & Edwards, R. (Eds.). (2002) Interpreters/translators and cross language research: reflexivity and border crossings, *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, vol. 1, no 2, Article 1 ([www.ualberta.ca/~ijqm](http://www.ualberta.ca/~ijqm)).
- The Office of Ethnic Affairs. (2002) *Ethnic relations policy perspective*. Wellington, New Zealand.
- The School Digital Collection. (2001). *Somali settlement experience in Canada*. Retrieved July 17, 2006, from <http://collections.ic.gc.ca/somalia/history.html>.
- United Kingdom Home Office. (2006). *Somalia country information*. Retrieved 14 August, 2006 <http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/>.
- United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees. (2002) *Refugee resettlement: An international hand book to guide reception and integration*. Retrieved 16 July, 2006, from <http://www.unhcr.ch/cgi-bin/>.
- United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees. (1998) *Tripartite Regional Consultation on international refugee resettlement*. Geneva: UNHCR. Retrieved 10 March, 2006 <http://www.unhcr.ch/cgi-bin/>.
- United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees. (1996) *Convention and protocol relating to the status of refugees*. Geneva: UNHCR. In Australian Housing and Urban Research Institute. Retrieved 3 March, 2006, from [www.ahuri.edu.au](http://www.ahuri.edu.au)
- United Nations. (1995). *Conference on human settlement*. New York: United Nations.
- Valtonen, K. (1999). The societal participation of Vietnamese refugees: case studies in Finland and Canada. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 25(3), 469.
- Van der Veer, R. (1992). *Counselling and therapy with refugees: Psychological problems of victims of war torture and repression*, Bognor Regis: John Wiley and Sons Ltd.

- Van Kempen, R., & Ozuekren, A. S. (2002). Housing careers of minority ethnic groups: Experiences, explanations and prospects, *Housing Studies*, 17(3), pp. 365-379
- Watts, N., White, C., and Trlin, A. (2004). The cultural capital contribution of immigrants in New Zealand: New settlers program, Massey University, Palmerston North.
- Weiss, Thomas G., & Collins, Cindy (Eds.). (2000). *Humanitarian Challenges and Intervention: Dilemmas in world politics* Colorado: Westview Press
- Williams, F. (1998). Agency and structure revisited: Rethinking poverty and social exclusion, in Monica Barry and Christine Hallett (Eds.), *Social exclusion and social work: Issues of theory and practice*. Russell Housie Publishing, Lyme Regis.
- Wilkinson, L. (2002). Factors influencing the academic success of refugees' youth in Canada, *Journal of Youth Studies*, 5(2), 173-193.
- Woolford, G. (2005). *Settlement services project and framework for the development of a Wellington regional settlement strategy*: Unpublished report to the Wellington Mayoral Forum 25 February, 2005. Wellington.
- Yeabsley, J., & Duncan, I. (2004). *Towards a New Zealand housing strategy*: Wellington: Centre for Housing Research Aotearoa New Zealand.
- Young, I. M. (1997) *Intersecting voices; Dilemmas of gender, political philosophy and policy*, Princeton, NJ, Princeton University Press.
- Zetter, R. Griffiths, D. Sigona, N., & Hauser, M. (2002). *A survey of policy and practice related to refugee integration*, European Commission ([www.brookes.ac.uk/school/planning/dfm/RefInt/](http://www.brookes.ac.uk/school/planning/dfm/RefInt/)).
- Zlobina, A., Basabe, N., Paez, D., & Furnham, A. (2005). Socio-cultural adjustment of immigrants: Universal and group-specific predictors. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations* , 30, 195-211.
- Zwart, R. (2000, February). Quota refugees in New Zealand: Perspectives on policy and resettlement service provision. Auckland: *New Zealand Immigration Service*.