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3 **Title:** Health for all? A qualitative study of NGO support to migrants affected by structural violence  
4 in northern France

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## 18 **Declarations**

19 *Conflicts of interest*

20 None declared.

21

22 *Author contributions*

23 BP conceived the study and drafted the manuscript. BP and AT collected, coded, and analysed  
24 data. HLQ provided interpretation and critical review. NH provided supervision, interpretation, and  
25 critical revisions. All authors approved the version for submission.

26

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32

33

34 **Abstract**

35 France hosts approximately 368,000 'persons of concern' (e.g. refugees, stateless, people in  
36 refugee-like situations, asylum-seekers). Northern France has become a focal area, due to its  
37 proximity to the Dover entry-point to the UK and larger numbers of migrants. This study used a  
38 structural violence lens to explore the provision of health services to migrants in Calais and La  
39 Linière in northern France, to contribute to discourse on the effects of structural violence on non-  
40 state service providers and migrants in precarious conditions and inform service provision policies.

41  
42 Our qualitative study design used semi-structured key-informant interviews, conducted in summer  
43 2017 with 20 non-governmental service-providers, 13 who had worked in Calais and 7 in La Linière  
44 migrant camp. We analysed interviews thematically, using inductive coding.

45  
46 Themes from analysis were: (i) power dynamics between NGOs and the state; (ii) resource  
47 allocation and barriers to accessing services; and (iii) effects of structural violence on social  
48 determinants of health. NGO service provision varied due to tense power dynamics between state  
49 and NGOs, shifting state requirements, and expanding roles. Interviewees described ongoing  
50 uncertainties, and inherent disempowerment associated with humanitarian aid, as negatively  
51 affecting migrant health and wellbeing, increasing illness risks, and providing unequal life chances.  
52 Structural realities including violence appeared to negatively affect migrant social determinants of  
53 health, reducing healthcare access, social inclusion, and sense of empowerment.

54  
55 The role of NGOs in providing migrant health services in northern France was complex and  
56 contested. Structural violence negatively affected migrant wellbeing through restricted services,  
57 intentional chaos, and related disempowerment. The violence exerted on migrants appeared to  
58 diminish their life chances while being an ineffective deterrent, indicating better approaches are  
59 needed.

60

61 **Keywords**

62 France; migrants; health services; structural violence; social determinants of health

63

64 **Introduction**

65 France hosts approximately 368,000 ‘persons of concern’, a UNHCR term for refugees, people in  
66 refugee-like situations, asylum-seekers, stateless, and internally-displaced people (UNHCR,  
67 2017a). Some settle in France, while others aim for intended destinations such as the United  
68 Kingdom (Millner, 2011; Monk, Stanton and Welander, 2017). Despite relatively small numbers,  
69 these migrants are subject to contentious political debate in France. With neither EU nor French  
70 authorities seemingly ‘willing to take responsibility’ for receiving and supporting migrants (Vigny,  
71 2018), this falls to local governments. In northern France, a Front National party stronghold, this  
72 has typically meant anti-migrant policies and government intolerance (Ramdani, 2017), e.g. Calais  
73 police forcibly removing migrants from informal encampments (Ticktin, 2006; Rygiel, 2011).

74

75 Calais and Dunkerque are two small northern towns at the centre of this debate (Alisic and  
76 Letschert, 2016). The Calais ‘Jungle’, an informal settlement recognised internationally, was home  
77 to approximately 8,000 migrants before being demolished in November 2016 (Welander and  
78 Gerlach, 2018). La Linière in Dunkerque, a joint humanitarian effort between the Dunkerque  
79 government and Médecins Sans Frontières, was the first formal migrant camp built in 20 years  
80 (UNHCR, 2017b). It hosted nearly 2,000 migrants before catching fire and being demolished in  
81 April 2017. Since these camps’ destruction, no settlements have been tolerated in either town  
82 (Rygiel, 2011). Despite this, approximately 1,000 migrants sleep rough in Calais and Dunkerque,  
83 supported by non-governmental organisations (NGOs) (MSF, 2016; Vigny, 2018). Academics have  
84 questioned whether NGO service provision impacts migrants long-term and allows states to shirk  
85 responsibility, particularly in high-income countries (Castañeda, 2010; PICUM, 2014; Andre and  
86 Azzedine, 2016). Additionally, the protracted situation in Calais – focusing the immigration debate  
87 since the Dover-Calais Eurotunnel opened - raises questions on the state’s role in immigration,  
88 Calais’s aggressive approaches to removing migrants from its streets (Ticktin, 2006; Rygiel, 2011),  
89 and structural exertions of power and discrimination (Farmer, 2005; Larchanché, 2012).

90

91 This paper uses a structural violence lens, assuming a right to health as described in both UN and  
92 French policy and drawing on three assumptions from Galtung and Farmer in analysis (16, 17).  
93 First, violence is exerted through and embedded within social and political institutions (Galtung,  
94 1969). Second, resource allocation can represent structural violence as it indicates an unequal  
95 power dynamic, adversely affecting “those who occupy the bottom rungs” (Gilligan, 1997). Third,  
96 these inequalities, combined with other systemic exertions of structural violence, result in unequal  
97 life chances that are otherwise avoidable (Vorobej, 2008). By examining the environment in which  
98 structural violence exists, the means by which it is exerted, and resulting unequal life chances, we  
99 consider ways in which migrants experienced structural violence in northern France.

100

101 Galtung first proposed that structural exertion of power creates inequities, arguing that structural  
102 violence is exerted by society through ‘tools of oppression’ internalised within bureaucratic  
103 systems, resulting in unequal structural violence - or social injustice - internalised within  
104 bureaucratic systems and resulting in unequal opportunities and life chances (Galtung, 1969;  
105 Vorobej, 2008). Galtung focussed on differentiating between individual potential and actual life,  
106 affected by various socially-embedded power structures creating structural violence through social,  
107 cultural, and political institutions (Galtung, 1969; Farmer, 2002; Farmer *et al.*, 2006). Structural  
108 violence has been used as a lens through which to examine numerous inequalities, from  
109 Foucault’s theories of biopolitics to Gilligan’s discussions of death and dignity (Foucault, 1976;  
110 Gilligan, 1997).

111

112 Farmer defined structural violence as violence that is exerted systematically, or indirectly, by  
113 everyone belonging to a certain social order (Farmer, 2002). Gilligan defined structural violence as  
114 increased ‘death and disability suffered by those who occupy the bottom rungs in society, as  
115 contrasted with...those who are above them” (Gilligan, 1997). It is oppression through barriers to  
116 social equality enforced by socio-political systems (Galtung, 1969; Vorobej, 2008). While  
117 manifestations of discrimination may include other forms of violence, e.g. physical or political,  
118 oppression is largely exerted through social systems, and as such, is structural violence. Structural  
119 violence can manifest through language, fear, bureaucracy, and restrictive policies limiting services

120 access (Karl-Trummer, Novak-Zezula and Metzler, 2010; Larchanché, 2012; Parkinson and  
121 Behrouzan, 2015; Grace, Bais and Roth, 2018). If migrants are unwilling or unable to seek  
122 services due to discrimination within the system, this is structural violence (Stuber, Meyer and Link,  
123 2008).

124

125 Farmer argued that structural violence should be as integral to the examination of public health as  
126 is the study of specific diseases, as structural interventions arguably have a greater impact on  
127 health and wellbeing than most clinical interventions (Farmer, Paul E; Nizeye, B; Stulac, S;  
128 Keshavjee, 2006). Structural violence may be exerted upon migrants as they arrive in new  
129 countries, but health literature generally focusses on 'rights to health' rather than using a structural  
130 violence lens (Kelly, 2005; Fortuna, Porche and Alegria, 2008; Larchanché, 2012). In northern  
131 France, we can describe structural violence as embodying restrictions in accessing health and  
132 social support, whether provided by the state or NGOs, which prevent individuals from gaining  
133 'equal life chances' with other members of society. Castañeda and Willen focussed on legality and  
134 belonging as barriers (Castañeda, 2009; Willen, 2011; Castaneda *et al.*, 2015; Holmes and  
135 Castañeda, 2016), while Farmer described "the way in which resources [e.g. food]... are allocated"  
136 (Farmer, 2002, p 315). Similarly, we can consider social determinants of health (SDH) in the  
137 exertion of structural violence on migrants. The World Health Organisation (WHO) defines SDH as:  
138 *"The conditions in which people are born, grow, work, live, and age, and the wider set of*  
139 *forces and systems shaping conditions of daily life. These forces and systems include*  
140 *economic policies and systems, development agendas, social norms, and political*  
141 *systems."* (World Health Organisation, 2017, x)

142

143 This study describes structural violence experienced by NGO providers and migrants in northern  
144 France and examines its influence on WHO's ten SDH for migrants (i.e. social gradient, social  
145 exclusion, social support, stress, food, transport, early life, work, unemployment, addiction)  
146 (Wilkinson, R; Marmot, 2003). Many of these determinants are interrelated. For example, access to  
147 adequate food (and shelter) not only reduces stress but also influences migrant safety and risk of  
148 disease, which impacts health and wellbeing (Cole and Fielding, 2007; Castaneda *et al.*, 2015;

149 Dhesi, Davies and Isakjee, 2015). Social gradient, whether measured by wealth, residence, or  
150 education, shows those at the bottom having the least power and resources and averaging shorter  
151 and unhealthier lives. Social exclusion (e.g. through institutional racism, discrimination, and  
152 xenophobia) affects all determinants from stress, to work opportunities, to social support, which in  
153 turn affect health and wellbeing by reinforcing marginalisation and undermining individual dignity  
154 (Castañeda, 2010; Larchanché, 2012). Examining SDH allows consideration of how limiting access  
155 to services and support contributes to health risks and creates 'unequal life chances', which, when  
156 conducted by a social or political institution, indicates the exertion of structural violence (Farmer,  
157 Paul E; Nizeye, B; Stulac, S; Keshavjee, 2006).

158

159 This study aimed to explore the provision of health services to migrants in Calais and La Linière,  
160 through a structural violence lens. It can contribute to discourse on the effects of structural violence  
161 on the functioning of non-state providers and migrants in precarious conditions and consideration  
162 of structural violence in migrant health policy decisions.

163

## 164 **Methods**

### 165 *Study design and research questions*

166 We chose a qualitative interview study design, including participants delivering non-governmental  
167 services in Calais and Dunkerque. We adapted the Institute of Migration definition of 'migrant' as  
168 someone entering the EU away from 'his/her habitual place of residence' who has not completed a  
169 legal process of claiming asylum (e.g. refugees, asylum-seekers, undocumented/unclear) (IOM,  
170 2013). Our research questions were: (i) "How do aid worker perspectives illustrate instances of  
171 structural violence in Calais?" and (ii) "How do inductive themes exemplify the interaction between  
172 structural violence and SDH?"

173

### 174 *Data collection*

175 Participants were sampled and recruited purposively. An internet search identified 20 registered  
176 charities working with migrants in northern France. Interviewee inclusion criteria were: (i) aged  
177 over 18 and having worked in Calais or La Linière for at least two weeks in the past 12 months.

178 After responding positively to recruitment emails and providing written informed consent, 20  
179 current and former staff from 14 organisations participated during 2017, 13 who had worked in  
180 Calais and 7 in La Linière. Interviewees were an even mix of French and international NGO staff  
181 and one UN employee. As diversity and background were important considerations, we  
182 endeavoured to include perspectives from as broad a range of NGOs and staff as possible. Two of  
183 the NGOs included were international healthcare organisations, but no longer provided healthcare  
184 in the region since the camps were demolished. The other NGOs focussed on humanitarian and  
185 social services, with any clinically-qualified workers only acting in a lay capacity such as providing  
186 ad hoc first aid.

187

188 We collected data face-to-face, via telephone and in writing. We conducted 10 face-to-face  
189 interviews and seven over the phone, all in English. Three participants contributed written  
190 responses, one in English and two in French.

191

192 [add Table 1]

193

194 The region that includes Calais and La Linière spreads across two governmental departments,  
195 Pas-de-Calais and Nord. Bureaucratic complexities vary between departments and towns, as do  
196 political context and services management. However, as most NGOs deliver services across both  
197 areas, interviewee perspectives were not delineated by governmental department unless relevant.

198

199 A topic guide included health services and resource provision, barriers/enablers to service  
200 provision, perceived impact of NGO services, state policy and police approaches, and perceived  
201 impact on migrant health and wellbeing. BP and AT conducted, translated and transcribed  
202 interviews, which took approximately 45-75 minutes each. Interviewees were anonymised using  
203 identification codes.

204

205 *Analysis*



206 The process of research question development, sample selection, data collection, and coding was  
207 inductive, with interviews analysed thematically, informed by our conceptual framework. Interview  
208 transcripts were coded using line-by-line analysis to identify and draw out themes, then coded  
209 concurrently and repeatedly until no new themes arose. We used exertion of structural violence on  
210 migrants as a lens through which to examine our data, using the literatures on structural violence  
211 and SDH to help guide our interpretations.

212

213 Initial codes were: (i) NGO roles; (ii) individuals' roles; (ii) institutional roles; (iii) criminalisation and  
214 physical violence; (iv) food; (v) material resources; (vi) other support; (vii) inclusion and integration  
215 (viii) dignity and empowerment (ix) barriers to service provision; (x) French state involvement; (xi)  
216 larger political context; and (xii) wider policy. These were combined and analysed into three final  
217 themes. The first theme of power dynamics describes how NGOs expanded their roles to meet  
218 migrant welfare needs usually met by the state, while the French state increasingly focused on  
219 enforcement. These complexities are further illuminated in the second theme on the complex  
220 nature of resource allocation and barriers to services access for migrants. Overall support for  
221 migrants was limited and resources available to migrants were only allocated through specific  
222 pathways with significant access barriers. Examining power differentials and resource allocation  
223 led to our third theme considering how structural violence affected migrant SDH. We thus reached  
224 thematic saturation of concepts related to structural violence in this setting. We continued to recruit  
225 until we were confident that no new themes were emerging and we had a rich description of  
226 themes and how they interrelated.

227

## 228 *Ethics*

229 The Observational Research Ethics Committee of the London School of Hygiene and Tropical  
230 Medicine (reference 13928) and Research Ethics Board of King's College London (reference LRU-  
231 16/17-4670) provided ethics approval. Ethical dilemmas focussed around language barriers, which  
232 were overcome by ensuring that consent forms and topic guides were translated and reverse  
233 translated into French.

234

235 We chose to interview NGO staff rather than migrants, as this study focussed on structural  
236 violence and unequal life chances through resource distribution, and NGO staff are critical to this  
237 and familiar with the complexities of NGO responses in the region. Additionally, time and resource  
238 constraints convinced us that it would be unethical to interview migrants during this phase of data  
239 collection. Thus, we chose to interview NGO staff directly involved in allocating resources in these  
240 unstable environments to gain a richer understanding of how the support system worked in  
241 northern France and the perspectives of those providing services. All interviewees had long-term  
242 experience of delivering NGO support in the region, and the interview guides focussed on their  
243 experience of working with migrants while acknowledging the limitation of this approach to data  
244 collection.

245

## 246 **Results**

247 Our themes were: (i) power dynamics between NGOs and the state; (ii) resource allocation and  
248 barriers to accessing services; and (iii) effects of structural violence on migrants' social  
249 determinants of health. These three themes help us understand the health and wellbeing of  
250 migrants, through a descriptive lens of structural violence, as we examined how power dynamics  
251 between NGOs and the state affected services and support to migrants, which in turn impacted the  
252 multi-factored social determinants of health for migrants.

253

### 254 *Power dynamics between NGOs and the state*

255 Significant power differentials between NGOs, the French state, and migrants became apparent  
256 with the expanded role of NGOs and state focus on law enforcement. NGOs navigated a delicate  
257 balance of providing humanitarian assistance and acting as advocate while encouraging the state  
258 to take on its human rights responsibilities. Interviewees expressed considerable frustration at the  
259 state's power to ignore humanitarian need. While NGOs wanted to "*work with and complement the*  
260 *system*" (C1), many interviewees expressed frustration that their work seemed to replace state  
261 responsibility.

262 "It's like... *the state should be doing this [service provision]. We'll do it, because you're [the*  
263 *French state] not, but this is not OK."* (C2)

264

265 Interviewees were clear that they had no wish to replace the state, and *“the system needs to be*  
266 *better and...until that happens...we need to step in to fill the gap”* (C1). However, interviewees  
267 reported feeling largely helpless to address these issues and even forced into creating a system  
268 that ran concurrently to the state, instead of complementing it. This was the case across  
269 emergency health support, social care, and food distributions – interviewees commented  
270 negatively that they were filling gaps, which was unhelpful for migrants.

271 *“It’s unhelpful to make people think there’s another safety net...and a system to run*  
272 *concurrent to the official one, but that’s where we are...”* (C1).

273

274 In addition to describing feeling as though they were replacing state responsibility, interviewees  
275 noted that the state actively limited their efforts. They were required to shift service delivery to fit  
276 within boundaries set by the government, such as limiting distribution points to one hour and  
277 constantly changing locations to ensure that individuals living on the streets were less able to  
278 access services.

279 *“The constant change... First, they let us hand out food and resources whenever we want,*  
280 *then it’s once a day in a specific place, and armed police come and watch us. Now we can*  
281 *stop on the side of the road, and they’ve taken out the waterspouts. It’s a structured effort*  
282 *by the authorities do everything they can to both undermine our work and to dehumanise*  
283 *the refugees. All we can do is adapt to the situation”* (C5)

284

285 Interviewees suggested that the French state exerted power by creating an environment of  
286 intimidation for both NGO workers and migrants.

287 *“...snatching phones out of volunteers’ hands, deleting videos off people’s phones...*   
288 *shutting doors while people are inside the vans... taking photos of IDs on their personal*  
289 *phones”* (C11)

290

291 Furthermore, interviewees described being viewed by the state as ‘agents of chaos’, when NGOs  
292 were actually making significant efforts to collaborate in providing effective and efficient services  
293 for migrants.

294 *“It’s been a lot of work with various associations trying to come together from across the*  
295 *political spectrum... but all volunteers are seen as agents of chaos and here to disrupt the*  
296 *state.... even though our goal is to underpin the system.” (C1)*

297

298 Dynamics between state and NGOs were further tested by NGOs stretching their role by taking the  
299 state to court for attempting to limit NGO work. In 2017, a ban on food distribution by the mayor of  
300 Calais was rejected in court because of NGO action. Such court cases have continued, forcing the  
301 state to withdraw some of its more restrictive policies on NGO action.

302 *“We’ll keep [providing services] as long as people need them... Distributions are normally*  
303 *finished by the police officers who arbitrarily and extra-judicially decide that we can only*  
304 *distribute an hour a day [but] we’ll [continue to] challenge this legally.” (C6)*

305

306 While the state and NGOs enacted power dynamics through policy and judicial systems,  
307 interviewees were clear that they also considered how their role created a power differential  
308 between NGOs and migrant communities.

309 *“There are a lot of questions about what we’re doing and why we have the ability to do it.*  
310 *Trying to balance advocacy and rights and empowerment, institutionally as an organisation*  
311 *it makes us uncomfortable. What gives us the right to decide who gets a clean pair of socks*  
312 *and who doesn’t? People lining up for loo roll, that is something that I want us to continually*  
313 *question” (C9)*

314

315 Despite questioning their roles, interviewees described advocacy efforts as an essential  
316 component of their work. Whether advocating on behalf of an individual at the hospital or taking the  
317 local government to court, advocacy helped ensure the services that were in place worked for  
318 migrants.

319 *“Even though the state does not provide some services, from our point of view, we must*  
320 *advocate, we must push them, we must make them do things. We cannot do things for*  
321 *them. It is not an underdeveloped country. Services exist. Money is present. This is not the*  
322 *problem. The problem is the lack of vision, the lack of plan” (C20)*

323

324 Interviewees continually questioned their ability to comment on the migrant experience or how the  
325 system worked, given their inherently privileged position.

326 *“I’m quite mindful as to how much of an opinion I can or should have, on what France is like*  
327 *for a young person of colour, for a young Muslim, or even to be a young immigrant within the*  
328 *climate, the context that exists here at present.” (C8)*

329

330 In addition to their hesitation in commenting on the migrant experience, some interviewees -  
331 particularly British workers - noted that they needed to constantly consider their privilege, to ensure  
332 that they were not biased against the town itself.

333 *“It’s very easy to forget that it’s different when it’s in your town...the inherent privilege you*  
334 *have as an individual because of where you’re born and the unearned freedoms from*  
335 *certain fears you have. It becomes a bit of an odd privilege to try and unpick, to do some*  
336 *self-work on. This isn’t my town every day. I can pack up and go back to the UK (C4).*

337

338 Finally, interviewees detailed the power dynamics between the French state and migrants as  
339 enacted by state exertion of its power over migrants through violence.

340 *“I think they exert a systemic level of violence against people here, and like the cold sort of*  
341 *creeping nature of it is far beyond individual acts of violence... its far beyond that.” (C18)*

342

### 343 *Resource allocation and barriers to accessing services*

344 Given the fluid environment in northern France, resource distribution was ad hoc, primarily through  
345 NGO efforts. Local NGOs distributed food and materials daily at specific points in Calais, which  
346 one interviewee described as *“essentially homeless outreach for up to 800 people” (C1).*

347 Interviewees reported that this included water distribution, as despite orders from a French judge in

348 July 2018, *“There are currently no points to get potable water in Calais”* (C2) (Welander and  
349 Gerlach, 2018).

350

351 In addition to humanitarian aid, NGO’s largely acted as intermediaries for migrants, supporting  
352 access to services. Although some NGOs provided healthcare services, at the time of data  
353 collection – after the destruction of La Linière and Jungle camps - this had been reduced to  
354 intermittent emergency aid only, and no NGOs provided consistent frontline healthcare support.  
355 Instead, NGOs focussed on supporting access to state health and social services. Interviewees  
356 described their role as driving migrants to hospital and acting *“as advocate, pushing for what you*  
357 *think is the best outcome, as well as translating what the doctors say”* (C2). Similarly, others  
358 reported their role as coordinating access to *“jurists, social workers and community workers... to*  
359 *identify those at risk and build relationships so we can help them”* (C4). These services were  
360 largely for underage migrants who were eligible for protections but needed support in accessing  
361 them.

362

363 Despite NGO efforts to provide at least basic support, barriers existed to both delivery and access.  
364 Most interviewees described a culture of criminalisation and marginalisation of citizen action.  
365 Rather than being perceived as supporting the state and human rights, NGO staff were *“framed as*  
366 *people who are going against the law”* (C3). Interviewees argued that criminalisation of migrants,  
367 “systemic levels of violence” by the state, and riot police tasked with implementing a zero-tolerance  
368 policy, affected migrants mentally, physically, and in terms of accessing services.

369 *“there is collective punishment... they pepper spray them in the eyes while they’re stood*  
370 *there not doing anything... taking people’s shoes, taking people’s phones, making people*  
371 *walk through muddy rivers at the point of tear gas guns... I wouldn’t be able to say that it’s*  
372 *anything less than systemic, calculated violence.”* (C4)

373

374 Aside from physical violence exerted on migrants, interviewees reported barriers to care through  
375 French state policy of limiting access to resources. Migrants without documentation, and therefore  
376 ineligible for universal healthcare insurance in France, were able to access PASS emergency

377 health centres that all public hospitals are mandated to provide (Andre and Azzedine, 2016; Noret,  
378 2017). However, in practice, public hospitals did not always provide this, and interviewees reported  
379 that migrants faced restricted access through bureaucratic barriers and doctors refusing to treat  
380 them.

381 *“In theory they can [access hospital care], but I’ve been there in incidences where it hasn’t*  
382 *happened... its very bureaucratic because you’re meant to go to a surgeon’s hospital for a*  
383 *surgical problem... and then if it’s an emergency the hospital just says, ‘No, you’re not in*  
384 *the right hospital.” (C16)*

385

386 Even when migrants were able to access services, restrictions on support provided additional  
387 barriers, such as being required to return each day to the pharmacy for medication.

388 *“The PASS only covers urgencies, and it does cover antibiotics and drugs but you have to go*  
389 *back to the hospital, there is the pharmacy in the hospital, where they like, the pharmacy de*  
390 *PASS where they give you the medication every day, you can’t just get...like go to a regular*  
391 *pharmacy and get them all at once, you have to go back to that thing every day” (C8)*

392

393 Literacy and language were an additional barrier for migrants, although many picked up basic  
394 English. Navigating available services or interacting with authorities was often challenging.

395 *‘... he got robbed and his telephone got taken, his only link to his family, and I went*  
396 *to the cops and the most hilarious thing of broken telephone, because he spoke*  
397 *Bahi, which is like a language of Afghanistan, and spoke to a man who spoke Farsi*  
398 *and English who spoke to me and then I spoke French.” (C19)*

399

400 Accessing transport was a significant additional barrier.

401 *“...due to lack of information, language barriers, or difficulty in moving to health services*  
402 *few migrants manage to access these services of the state.” (C14)*

403

404 Interviewees often described migrants general fear of the system, e.g. due to the constant state  
405 presence.

406 *“The constant presence of police, even when it’s not the ones with the big guns, its super*  
407 *intimidating, just the constant presence of just like, the authorities, it’s not helpful. It’s a*  
408 *problem for the migrants. They should be scared as well, it’s not like those men are there to*  
409 *help them. (C8)*

410

411 While support such as transport did exist when the official camps were in place, these services  
412 quickly disappeared after the camps were closed.

413 *“[In Grande-Synthe], we had the possibility to bring people...to PASS, there was a shuttle*  
414 *to take them there, I think City Hall organised, but now that doesn’t happen.” (C15)*

415

416 Efforts to surmount these barriers passed by default to NGO staff, who took on the role of  
417 supporting migrant access to health services.

418 *“Whether that is driving them to the clinic or the emergency room, acting as translator,*  
419 *taking a first kit out with us, or just waiting with a refugee until they’re seen at the*  
420 *hospital.” (C6)*

421

422 Because of these barriers, it seemed that migrants rarely sought medical assistance for  
423 anything other than severe medical emergencies – the data yielded no findings related to  
424 migrant experiences with chronic diseases. This was partly because of our focus on general  
425 health services and interviewee focus on emergency healthcare, as available healthcare  
426 services at the time of data collection did not include provision for chronic and non-  
427 communicable diseases. The PASS system was solely for emergency healthcare provision and  
428 the few NGOs providing healthcare services focussed on acute and first-aid support.

429

#### 430 *Social determinants of health*

431 Interviewees highlighted numerous effects of structural violence on migrant SDH, which we  
432 categorised under the sub-themes of: (i) food, as well as shelter and material goods; (ii) work and  
433 unemployment; (iii) early life, in terms of welfare and education for children and young people (iv)  
434 social gradient, exclusion, and support. Access to, or lack of, these essential determinants affected



435 migrants' health and wellbeing and appeared controlled significantly through structural violence.  
436 Stress permeated and therefore crosscut all determinants discussed, while addiction was not  
437 mentioned by interviewees.

438

439 *Food, shelter, and material goods.* Though food and material goods were the most frequently  
440 available resource for migrants due to daily NGO distributions, supply limitations due to reliance on  
441 charitable donations meant migrants often could not access all they needed.

442 *"In terms of material donations, it's up and down. Sometimes we receive a lot of stuff,*  
443 *sometimes we have periods, where there is nothing, and we just have to make do, people*  
444 *don't get what they need, which doesn't seem fair. With some things, we have to go out and*  
445 *buy it, like toilet paper..." (C5)*

446

447 Limited access to clean clothes, combined with barriers to accessing hygiene facilities, directly  
448 affected migrants' physical health, demonstrating the need for bathing and laundry facilities in even  
449 the most precarious environments.

450 *"The health is dire. A lot of very avoidable things as well, like scabies, because people don't*  
451 *have clean clothes, they don't have anywhere to wash. Infections are massive, people*  
452 *jumping over fences, don't have anywhere to wash, anywhere to keep clean, people get*  
453 *horrible feet because they never get new shoes." (C4)*

454

455 Sleeping bags and blankets were limited by police action, despite being essential.

456 *"They find a sleeping bag, it gets pepper-sprayed or it gets tear-gassed, and that's the end*  
457 *of that. Like that's why we're always running out of bedding. It's because we distribute more*  
458 *now than we did in terms of bedding during the Jungle. Yeah, it's wildly unsustainable to a*  
459 *large extent. People can use their blankets maybe one time before it gets ruined. We do*  
460 *have people going around trying to collect bedding so we can wash and de-contaminate*  
461 *bedding but it can only go so far. And tents, there's no point in even trying, they just get*  
462 *destroyed." (C14)*

463

464 *Work and unemployment.* Although important SDH, with limited opportunities for migrants in  
465 northern France, interviewees rarely mentioned livelihoods. Several did note that while the Jungle  
466 was in place, migrants had homes, however precarious, and the ability to have an income through  
467 running restaurants or small shops, all of which disappeared when the camps were torn down.

468 *“When there was a Jungle, it was different because people were living there,*  
469 *they had jobs. They had restaurants. They had a place to live.” (C5)*

470

471 *Early life.* Large numbers of children and young people were often unaccompanied, and NGOs  
472 have published several reports on support for young migrants. However, despite increased  
473 awareness, early life opportunities for migrants were constrained. Interviewees frequently  
474 discussed education, particularly its shifting availability. Despite large numbers of young migrants,  
475 their access to education was limited. In both La Linière and the Jungle, NGOs started pop-up  
476 schools for young people and the French government provided some access to schools for older  
477 children.

478 *“There was a school for children and there was activities only to make them busy because the*  
479 *children in the camp were really crazy... But actually, the state had to provide school for the*  
480 *children. Yeah, its French law which is like this. Every children under 16, they have to go to*  
481 *school. So, there were shuttles from the camp to school and college in G-S.” (C20)*

482

483 However, despite migrants’ legal right to education, zero-tolerance approaches meant these efforts  
484 ceased when the camps were destroyed.

485

486 *Social gradient, exclusion, and support.* These issues were pervasive, encompassing harassment,  
487 discrimination, and access barriers described earlier as well as frequently discussed and  
488 interrelated issues of safety, integration, dignity, and empowerment. While food and clothing were  
489 relatively readily available for migrants, robust shelter was a luxury most were unable to access  
490 after the camps were destroyed. Safety was thus an ongoing and stressful issue, whether due to  
491 criminality, police violence, or freezing temperatures. After destruction of the camps, many

492 migrants lived in small pockets around Calais, constantly disrupted by police activity. This included  
493 tear-gassing tents and moving or destroying any semi-permanent encampments.

494 *“Another aspect of this is another, less direct, form of violence whereby they don’t allow*  
495 *people to settle at all. So, if they find camps and things, or if they find any sort of*  
496 *settlement, they move it on or destroy it.” (C2)*

497

498 Structural and police violence were not the only ways in which being ‘on the bottom rungs’ of the  
499 social gradient could be unsafe for migrants, as safety issues had also existed in the camps.

500 *“When I was there [La Linière], there were locks on the toilets and lighting...but*  
501 *towards the end of my time there, AFEGL, removed the locks on the toilets because*  
502 *they said it was safety reasons for women...I couldn’t quite figure out the reasons*  
503 *they felt like women could get locked in there. There were cases of abuse already*  
504 *happening, even with locked doors.” (L13)*

505

506 However, interviewees described camps as having provided a level of stability and social inclusion,  
507 even though temporary. Lack of any temporary ‘home,’ in addition to increased physical health  
508 risks, removed an essential source of stability and normality for migrants who were already  
509 navigating an unstable and unwelcoming environment.

510 *“In the Jungle...there was a community and people had somewhere to call their home,*  
511 *regardless of how precarious that was.” (C8)*

512

513 After the camps were destroyed, interviewees described social exclusion increasing due to lack of  
514 integration with both local residents and other migrants. The zero-tolerance policy in Calais meant  
515 anyone who looked ‘other’ was at risk of interrogation and dispersal by the authorities.

516 *“The authorities in Calais had a zero tolerance towards refugees so there was no refugees*  
517 *allowed in Calais, so if there...someone from a different community was walking down the*  
518 *street, he would be immediately asked to present his documents, so whether that would a*  
519 *local man from Calais who happens to be black or from an ethnic background to anyone who*  
520 *was a refugee, they would be immediately asked to present their documents” (C1)*

521

522 Interviewees reported mixed social exclusion reactions from local residents. While considerable  
523 support for zero-tolerance policies fit political stereotypes of the area, a significant proportion of  
524 the population provided social support to migrants in the ways they could, and one of the largest  
525 operational NGOs in the area was founded by Calais residents. However, interviewees reported  
526 that the protracted existence of migrants in the area had resulted in fatigue and, while once  
527 migrant social integration might have been welcomed by residents, much of that good will had  
528 dissipated.

529 *“There have been a lot of residents in Calais doing things over the years... You know..*  
530 *l’Auberge de Migrants was started by Calais residents, people who live in the area... there is*  
531 *a certain amount of fatigue amongst people, even if you were, 20 years ago when you were*  
532 *30, giving out bottles of water, cooking pans of soup, letting people eat in your garden, 20*  
533 *years later, it’s still happening, there’s no end in sight, and the people of Calais are being left*  
534 *to deal with this and respond to it...Calais sort of has a very odd relationship with it. It is being*  
535 *asked to pick up the slack of a lot of global and European questions that are not being*  
536 *asked” (C2)*

537

538 Interviewees indicated that most migrants chose to remain with their compatriots, establishing  
539 small temporary camps with those with whom they could share a common cultural and linguistic  
540 bond, a small semblance of security amidst constant change. These commonalities appeared to  
541 enhance feelings of social support, meaning that even if migrants had not socially integrated into  
542 surrounding communities, they created their own communities in what could otherwise be a hostile  
543 environment.

544 *“Yeah its camps... the two biggest ones are the Sudanese and the Afghans because they*  
545 *mostly stay with their communities – it’s a language and support thing.” (L12)*

546

547 Interviewees often mentioned the related values of dignity and empowerment, with dignity  
548 essential in enabling individuals to feel included, supported, and valued in any context, while  
549 empowerment increases informed choice, active participation, inclusion, and equity. While the

550 overarching goal of NGOs in northern France was to *“to provide dignity and support...whatever*  
551 *that means”* (C11), interviewees often noted that their actions, while essential, had the opposite  
552 effect on dignity and empowerment. They indicated that NGO services had mixed value for  
553 migrants, in that although NGO services provided essential support - including food and transport -  
554 that migrants could not access elsewhere, the very reliance on NGO support and material  
555 donations could inadvertently cause migrants to feel disempowered and without dignity.  
556 Interviewees described emergency aid provided by NGOs as inherently disempowering, noting that  
557 issues of dignity and empowerment must be considered when developing services, as they  
558 struggled to navigate the interplay between providing services that fit the material needs of  
559 migrants, while at the same time undermining their dignity and empowerment.

560 *“A lot of the more dignified elements... allowing people to cook for themselves...build stock*  
561 *for themselves and have food security.... Helping people build and maintain their shelters...*   
562 *have shifted to direct necessary assistance based on the reality, which is a shame because*  
563 *a lot of what we do is deeply disempowering.”* (C4)

564  
565 Interviewees described how concern for dignity increased as camps in the area were destroyed  
566 and NGOs had to transition from providing a wide range of services to providing essential  
567 humanitarian aid.

568 *“So, where we were able...where we were once able to focus on dignity and access to*  
569 *services and different forms of support, including information and legal support, where we*  
570 *were once able to do that because people had enough blankets...of course we’d rather be*  
571 *able to help people help themselves, but unfortunately this is the reality now.”* (C12)

572  
573 Disempowerment concerns were not only related to NGO roles. Interviewees described concerns  
574 about the impact of the environment, particularly lack of information access on migrants’  
575 empowerment. Migrants were often stranded without access to internet or any other information  
576 sources.

577 *“The disempowerment that comes from people not knowing what the situation is in the*  
578 *world, not being able to contact their families”* (C12)

579

580 Interviewees reported several NGO efforts to empower migrants, including providing legal and  
581 social information, advice, and contact with families. One NGO's sole purpose was to provide WIFI  
582 and charging points to migrants sleeping rough so they could research their options and contact  
583 families.

584 *"It's important to be able to do things for yourself if you can, so that's another thing we*  
585 *have, the van and information about how you can apply for sponsored phone top-up. So,*  
586 *there are few little pieces of information like that, translated into as many languages as we*  
587 *could think of, that we'll have in the van, which will hopefully provide a little bit of human*  
588 *dignity."* (C13)

589

590 These worsening challenges to migrants' dignity and empowerment arguably contributed to their  
591 isolation and social exclusion, further evidencing migrants' occupation of a 'bottom rung' of French  
592 society.

593

## 594 **Discussion**

595 We have considered structural violence in northern France, from a non-state provider perspective,  
596 as primarily embodying access restrictions to material resources, healthcare, and support services.  
597 The literature supports this interpretation of restrictions as a *"tool of oppression"* (Galtung, 1969, p  
598 180). The state exerted a typical conception of structural violence by restricting access to PASS  
599 health services, thus threatening migrant livelihoods (Galtung, 1969; Larchanché, 2012). WHO  
600 defines full access to health services as a key social determinant and exclusion as disempowering  
601 and dangerous (Jakab, 2015). Policy changes to restrict health services access, combined with  
602 language barriers and intimidation, aligned with Larchanché's description of structural violence  
603 manifested through *"intangible obstacles"* (Larchanché, 2012, p 858). State-exerted intangible  
604 barriers pressured migrants to seek NGO support for facilitation and advocacy (Stuber, Meyer and  
605 Link, 2008).

606

607 NGO services provision for migrants in northern France was complex and contested. NGOs  
608 provided services the state would not, facilitation, and advocacy. However, navigating this complex  
609 landscape could at times contribute to 'othering' and disempowering the migrants that interviewees  
610 aimed to help, supporting Ticktin's findings on 'casualties of care' (Ticktin, 2011) and the literature  
611 on services provision in fragile settings. Replicating state services and acting as a voice for  
612 migrants, while arguably helpful and well-intended, could obscure and in some senses diminish  
613 both state responsibility and migrant agency (FRA (European Union Agency for Fundamental  
614 Rights), 2015; Pottie *et al.*, 2015). The French state was legally obliged to provide some services,  
615 but could more readily avoid providing others if NGO services were forefronted. 'Giving voice' to  
616 migrants, through spaces and platforms, was an ethical imperative. 'Being a voice,' though often  
617 equated, could be presumptuous and othering in its privileging of Western narratives. Interviewees  
618 expressed awareness of these challenges, as we similarly interrogated our focus on provider  
619 perspectives.

620

621 Power dynamics in northern France enacted an environment of structural violence. Contentious  
622 dynamics between NGOs and the state, both of which migrants relied on for support while having  
623 little influence over either, likely affected migrant wellbeing (Castaneda *et al.*, 2015). While  
624 structural violence is embedded within state systems, conflict between state and NGOs also  
625 exerted structural violence on migrants. When contentious relations between NGOs and the state  
626 flared, migrants were caught between dependency on these institutions and limited power to  
627 advocate for themselves. This reinforced migrant marginalisation, negatively affecting perceived  
628 dignity and empowerment (Castañeda, 2010; Duguet and Bévière, 2011; Larchanché, 2012;  
629 Schaffer, K; Smith, 2016). Structural and political violence thus contributed to what Ansems de  
630 Vries described as 'politics of exhaustion' (Welander, M; Ansems De Vries, 2016), in which both  
631 migrant and aid-worker agency was worn down by uncertainty, criminalisation, and state-  
632 sanctioned violence.

633

634 Structural violence threatened migrant wellbeing through restricted services, intentional chaos, and  
635 potential disempowerment. Migrants in northern France experienced multiple inequalities. Service

636 restrictions created actual and anticipated barriers that reduced access to needed resources. State  
637 interactions - primarily by police - appeared intentionally chaotic and fragmented, as enacting zero-  
638 tolerance potentially violated Article 4 of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights prohibiting  
639 degrading treatment or punishment ('Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union',  
640 2012). As such, these interactions exemplified political rather than structural violence (Hollander,  
641 2008) and reflected the literature on homelessness and state-sanctioned rights abuses.

642

643 Examination of migrant SDH, and the barriers affecting them, also illustrated structural violence.  
644 Those SDH discussed by interviewees related to one or more systemic barrier of oppression,  
645 which in turn risked migrant health and wellbeing. For example, Farmer described restrictions  
646 enacted by the state on allocation of food and material supplies, as tools of oppression (Farmer,  
647 2002). The state's ability to limit public and NGO services negatively affected migrant 'life  
648 chances.' Exertion of state powers to destroy encampments and tents, were examples of political  
649 violence aimed at instilling insecurity, fear and stress, and thus indicative of structural violence in  
650 terms of a social or political institution using its power to systematically discriminate against a  
651 particularly group of people. Along with overt state efforts to limit migrants' SDH, the culture of  
652 intolerance had additional repercussions on migrant health and wellbeing. Zero tolerance meant  
653 migrants lost access to transport and education, and could be required to provide identity  
654 documents at any time. These efforts to undermine the human rights of migrants also  
655 demonstrated a culture of structural violence and were indicative of Willen and Castañeda's focus  
656 on legality and belonging (Castañeda, 2009; Willen, 2012). By ensuring that migrants, at all times,  
657 were 'illegal' and 'other,' the state created a culture of systemic ingrained discrimination. Migrant  
658 dignity was further challenged by reliance on NGOs, lack of information, and a disempowering  
659 environment. These conditions evoke consideration of Agamben's 'bare life' conceptualisation,  
660 with migrants in northern France navigating within a precarious and agency-limiting space  
661 (Agamben, 1998).

662

663 The structural violence exerted on migrants in northern France was not unique – it is enacted  
664 against migrants across the continent, as they are stuck in complex power dynamics, reliant on



665 NGO services, and have SDH negatively affected and restricted. No resolution of the migrant  
666 situation in France is possible without resolving the global migrant crisis and cycles of war and  
667 famine that displace millions of people globally. The situation remains complex and tensions  
668 between the French state and NGOs continue. However, interviewees suggested that small steps  
669 could improve the situation on the ground, such as easing service distribution restrictions and  
670 installing toilets and waterspouts. Continued efforts to alleviate the crisis in northern France, while  
671 discouraging migrants coming to the area, require articulation of the negative effects of currently  
672 enacted policy. For example, the zero-tolerance policy for migrants threatens migrants' right to  
673 health while being ineffective in removing them from the streets.

674

675 Implications of this research are varied in terms of research, policy, and practice. It is imperative  
676 that future research not only continues to analyse the constantly changing roles of NGOs and the  
677 state, further interrogating the complex roles of NGOs operating in wealthy nations, but also  
678 includes the voices of migrants, and is adequately resourced and safeguarded to do so. In terms of  
679 social policy, replacing police violence with supportive government services, would not only  
680 address issues of systemic fear and physical injury but also contribute to social inclusion and  
681 integration - therefore creating a more sustainable environment for both migrants and host  
682 communities. In terms of practice, state support for basic humanitarian requirements, such as  
683 toilets and court-ordered waterspout reinstallation, food distribution, safe shelter, communication  
684 with loved ones, and right to request asylum, could immediately help to improve migrants' safety  
685 and dignity, address several social determinants of health, and reduce disease and welfare risks  
686 (e.g. deaths from cold or unsafe fires). This does not mean establishment of a new 'Jungle,' or  
687 even La Linière, as the way forward. Instead, well-planned and adequately-resourced spaces for  
688 migrants to exist with dignity and opportunities to integrate with local communities and access  
689 livelihoods and education, while their next steps are determined are urgently needed.

690

691 Broader policy change, not just in northern France, but across Europe, is needed to address these  
692 complex issues. Although the structural violence currently exerted by the French government can  
693 and should be addressed through policy changes on social support, safety, education and

694 inclusion, the larger migrant crisis will continue to push individuals towards the border of France  
695 and the UK. Until EU governments honour their international commitments on asylum, and work  
696 collaboratively to address migration, situations such as in northern France will continue indefinitely.

697

698 Several study limitations should be considered. First, research was based on NGO staff interviews  
699 and therefore subject to respondent bias, particularly due to conflicts between NGOs and the  
700 French state. Second, the absence of migrant interviews meant their voices could not be included.  
701 We chose not to conduct migrant interviews for two reasons. Primarily, we did not have sufficient  
702 time and resources to conduct them rigorously and ethically in a way that would strengthen  
703 existing health literature. Additionally, we wanted to examine provider experiences of and  
704 perspectives on structural violence. Third, our inclusion of SDH within analysis was constrained by  
705 a lack of theoretical clarity and agreement in the literature on WHO's health determinants. Fourth,  
706 given the fluidity of this context, details around service delivery may rapidly become historical.  
707 However, the issues examined are unlikely to change while the state continues to contest  
708 migrants' rights to remain in northern France. Finally, as peer-reviewed health research was  
709 minimal, we relied on government statistics, grey literature, and NGO estimates for data.

710

## 711 **Conclusions**

712 Interviewees described NGOs' role in providing migrant services in northern France as complex.  
713 Services were imperfect, and migrants were required to access them within a restrictive and  
714 intimidating policy environment. NGOs worked within a context of structural violence exerted by the  
715 French state, which required migrants to navigate these complex power dynamics in ways that  
716 reduced their dignity and wellbeing. Enacted barriers negatively affected migrants' social  
717 determinants of health, further linking structural violence and migrant health and wellbeing. The  
718 structural and political violence exerted on migrants in northern France appeared to diminish their  
719 life chances while being an ineffective deterrent, indicating better approaches that enable social  
720 integration and empowerment are needed.

721

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840 **Tables and figures**841 **Table 1. Interviewee characteristics**

<b>ID code</b>	<b>Site</b>	<b>Organisation type</b>	<b>Role</b>	<b>Interview location</b>	<b>Interview language</b>
C1	Calais	International NGO	Delivery Manager	In-person (Calais)	English
C2	Calais	National NGO	Youth Worker	In-person (Calais)	English
C3	Calais	National NGO	Translator/Advocate	In-person (Paris)	English
L4	La Linière	National NGO	Youth Worker	In-person (Paris)	English
C5	Calais	National NGO	Delivery Manager	In-person (Calais)	English
L6	La Linière	International NGO	Outreach Manager	In person (Paris)	English
C7	Calais	International NGO	Volunteer	In-person (Calais)	English
C8	Calais	National NGO	Advocate	In-person (Calais)	English
C9	Calais	National NGO	Chief Executive	Telephone	English
C10	Calais	National NGO	Volunteer Social Worker	Telephone	English
C11	Calais	National NGO	Outreach Worker	In-person (Calais)	English
L12	La Linière	National NGO	Outreach worker	Telephone	English
L13	La Linière	International NGO	Service delivery manager	Telephone	English
L14	La Linière	International NGO	Volunteer	Telephone	English
L15	La Linière	International NGO	Volunteer	Written	French
L16	La Linière	International NGO	Volunteer	Written	French
C17	Calais	International NGO	Volunteer	Written	English
C18	Calais	UN Agency	Support Worker	Telephone	English
C19	Calais	National NGO	Volunteer	Telephone	English
C20	Calais	International NGO	Service delivery manager	In-person	English

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