

Public Disclosure Authorized

UNDERSTANDING THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF URBAN REFUGEES IN KENYA

VOLUME C: URBAN REFUGEES

Results from the 2020-21 Urban
Socioeconomic Survey

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UNHCR
The UN Refugee Agency



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Poverty & Equity

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This report is part of the socioeconomic survey series on the living conditions of refugees and host communities in Kenya. The Kalobeyei Socioeconomic Survey and the Kakuma Socioeconomic Survey precede the present Urban Socioeconomic Survey.¹ A comparative policy brief considering the three populations (refugees in Kalobeyei settlement, Kakuma camp and urban areas) will be jointly prepared and released by the World Bank and UNHCR. This report focuses on the living conditions of hosts and refugees in urban areas and does not provide comparative analyses.

¹ UNHCR and World Bank, "Understanding the Socioeconomic Conditions of Refugees in Kenya. Volume A: Kalobeyei Settlement"; UNHCR and World Bank, "Understanding the Socioeconomic Conditions of Refugees in Kenya. Volume B: Kakuma Camp."

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BDI	Burundi
COD/DRC	Democratic Republic of the Congo
ETH	Ethiopia
GoK	Government of Kenya
KCHS	Kenya Continuous Household Survey
KIHBS	Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
proGres	Profile Global Registration System
RRPS	Rapid Response Phone Survey
RSD	Refugee Status Determination
SDN	Sudan
SES	Socioeconomic Survey
SOM	Somalia
SSD	South Sudan
UN	United Nations
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
VRX	proGres Registration Verification Exercise

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Forcibly displaced people (FDP) are increasingly inhabiting urban areas where, together with urban hosts, they face an array of risks and heightened vulnerabilities that need to be addressed through evidence-based policies and programs. More than half of the world's population including FDPs live in urban areas. Urban refugees often face the problems confronting urban poor such as inadequate housing and marginalization, combined with unique challenges related to their refugee situation.² Such challenges, not restricted to only urban refugees, include the threat of arrest and detention, refoulement, harassment, extortion, vulnerability to sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV), human smuggling and trafficking. While socioeconomic data of urban non-displaced populations tends to be more easily accessible than that of rural communities, data of urban refugees is extremely scarce compared to that of their camp-based counterparts. Addressing the risks and vulnerabilities faced by urban refugees and their hosts, requires narrowing existing data gaps to inform advocacy, policy options, programs, and durable solutions.

As refugees in Kenya are not systematically included in national household surveys (NHS), their inclusion into NHS complemented by specific refugee and host community surveys are needed to provide evidence for policy planning and programming. Refugees in Kenya are not included in NHS, resulting in a lack of comparable socioeconomic data of forcibly displaced people (FDP) and their hosts.³ This limits efforts to design policies and programs that inclusively address the needs of vulnerable populations, especially when facing socioeconomic shocks such as those resulting from the COVID-19 pandemic. Developing and strengthening national and international policy frameworks that promote the inclusion of refugees into NHS is crucial to produce evidence needed to inform targeted response. Comparable refugee and host community surveys can help complement NHS data. Moving forward, making data and survey findings publicly available (after anonymization) is critical to ensure that key stakeholders have access to evidence to inform their action.

The Urban Socioeconomic Survey (SES) helps close data gaps by providing comparable socioeconomic profiles for refugees and host community members. Initiated jointly by UNHCR and the World Bank, the Urban SES helps inform evidence-based programming and policy development by addressing socioeconomic data gaps especially instructive in the economic downturn associated with the COVID-19 pandemic. Even though preceding surveys provide useful information on the living conditions of urban refugees and hosts, there is no analysis that uses national socioeconomic measurements to understand both communities' living conditions.⁴ Implemented during the COVID-19 lockdown, the Urban SES provides comparable socioeconomic profiles for urban refugees and hosts by using an instrument that is comparable to the Kenya Continuous Household Survey (KCHS) 2019.⁵ The Urban SES, ensuing analysis, and the recommendations provide a comprehensive snapshot of refugees' and hosts' demographics, housing characteristics, and access to services while covering refugee-specific details on livelihoods, education, food security, social cohesion, trajectories of displacement, and intentions to move.

The comparability between urban refugees and their host communities can be limited by the mode and timing of the data collections. While the Urban SES was collected through Computer-Assisted Telephone Interviews (CATI), the KCHS was done through Computer-Assisted Personal Interviews

² The use of the term "refugees" includes asylum-seekers.

³ FDP: refugees, asylum seekers, and internally displaced persons. UNHCR, "Key Indicators."

⁴ The Guardian, "UN Outlines Plan to Close Camps Housing 430,000 Refugees in Kenya."

⁵ The urban SES' modules on education and employment are designed to be comparable with the KCHS. However, due to the COVID-19 outbreak, its impact on education and labor force participation and since the KCHS data was collected before the COVID-19 outbreak, such modules are not compared across refugee and host communities.

(CAPI). Differences between these two modes of data collection can affect the comparability between refugees and host. Moreover, the urban SES was collected during the COVID-19 period while the KCHS was collected before the COVID-19 outbreak. Therefore, comparative insights mainly for education and employment are not feasible to be included.

Short-term policy and programming priorities shall focus on enhancing food security, improving access to water, sanitation and housing, and protecting highly vulnerable groups

Reducing food insecurity through livelihoods and targeted food security programs is critical to protect and maintain human capital. 60 percent of urban refugee households are highly food insecure and use consumption-based strategies to cope with the lack of food. Food insecurity is more common among households with fewer employed members. Livelihoods-based interventions, can help refugees secure adequate and sustainable income while contributing to the reduction of food insecurity. Targeting food security programs to refugee households hosting children, can help reduce food insecurity, prevent malnutrition and thus, help protect human capital.⁶ Mobile cash transfers can be a cost-effective instrument in urban settings to mitigate food insecurity in the short-term.⁷

Improving and providing adequate water and sanitation services is key to improve health outcomes. Access to improved drinking water is higher among refugee households (91 percent) than among host community households (71 percent). However, about 72 percent of refugee households reported insufficient water supply in the last month. Even though most refugees and hosts have access to improved sanitation (84 percent refugees, vs. 99 percent hosts), only 32 percent of refugee households do not share toilets with other households. Ensuring 20 liters of water per person per day and enhancing the quality of sanitation services can result in improved health outcomes for refugees and hosts.⁸ Increased investment through partnerships between humanitarian and development actors, governments, and the private sector to support integrated water, sanitation and hygiene service delivery can help boost access to improved water and sanitation. This can also support efforts to achieve the SDG 6.2 that targets universal access to improved sanitation.

Expanding access to adequate housing and non-biomass fuels can contribute to raising urban refugees' and hosts' living standards. Refugee households, mostly those headed by women, are more likely to live overcrowded than host households. Reducing overcrowding is key to prevent stress, domestic violence, and the spread of infectious diseases such as COVID-19.⁹ Increasing funding for national housing programs to help address host's needs while including refugee communities can help reduce overcrowding.¹⁰ A quarter of refugee households and 10 percent of host households, mainly those headed by women, use biomass (charcoal) for cooking. As pricing of non-biomass fuels is a binding constraint, subsidizing improved biomass and non-biomass fuels while making them more easily accessible can help prevent negative health impacts for women and children under age five.^{11,12}

⁶ Gundersen and Ziliak, "Food Insecurity And Health Outcomes."

⁷ HPN, "Mobile Phone-Based Cash Transfers: Lessons from the Kenya Emergency Response"; Ulrichs, Hagen-Zanker, and Holmes, "Cash Transfers for Refugees. An Opportunity to Bridge the Gap between Humanitarian Assistance and Social Protection."

⁸ WHO. 2020. "What Is the Minimum Quantity of Water Needed?"

⁹ WHO, "Preventing Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence. Taking Action and Generating Evidence."

¹⁰ UN Habitat, "The Right to Adequate Housing."

¹¹ Malonza and Fedha, "An Assessment Of Gender And Energy In Kenya: The Underlying Issues."

¹² Smith, Mehta, and Feuz. 2004. "Indoor Air Pollution from Household Use of Solid Fuels"; Kurmi et al. 2012. "Lung Cancer Risk and Solid Fuel Smoke Exposure: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis"; Dasgupta et al. 2004. "Who Suffers from Indoor Air Pollution? Evidence from Bangladesh." Children under age 5 normally remain in the proximity of the cooking area when food is prepared and thus breath airborne pollutants affecting their respiratory system.

Nakuru-based and women refugees face extremely vulnerable conditions. The Nakuru-based refugee population is the youngest (55 percent of them is 18 years old or below), they are mostly South Sudanese, their households are mostly headed by women and have the highest dependency ratios. Food insecurity levels are the highest among Nakuru-based refugees (82 percent), and they have the lowest employment rates (12 percent, 6 percent women, vs. 21 percent men). Supporting women's empowerment in Nakuru and also in other areas, through programs that consider domestic and caretaking responsibilities, intra-household and intercommunity dynamics can result in improved health and education of children, reduced poverty and smaller household sizes, while contributing to the economy and tax revenues through increased labor participation.¹³ Expanding subsidized access to childcare will be key to ensure women's participation in the paid labor market. Engaging men through awareness raising programs can be crucial to support women's economic participation, girls' education, and to prevent SGBV and discrimination. Further research can provide a deeper understanding regarding socioeconomic barriers and how to overcome them through gender-responsive solutions. Supporting the most vulnerable communities by making additional investments to reduce socioeconomic impacts resulting from the COVID-19 pandemic, will be critical to accelerate poverty reduction efforts, and to rebuild self-reliance and resilience to shocks.

Medium-term priorities shall focus on expanding livelihoods opportunities, easing access to education, fostering social cohesion, and ensuring access to information on movement options

Given that labor force participation is limited, strengthening refugees' job- and entrepreneurial skills, broadening job markets and access to financial services, and easing documentation procedures for wage employment, can support livelihoods opportunities. Only 42 percent of working age refugees are employed, mainly as wage workers (73 percent) and self-employed (59 percent).^{14,15} Small business management and professional skills are perceived to be the most needed skills to secure employment. The main self-perceived support needed among those outside the labor force and interested in self-employment is access to credit while among those interested in wage work, it is access to documentation and training. Addressing refugees' needs and interest through business and job-skills training can help increase employment rates. Expanding access to financial services through collaborations with the private sector and by simplifying requirements for SIM card registration is necessary to enhance access to finance.^{16,17} Financial literacy programs can help refugees make informed financial decisions.¹⁸ Easing documentation procedures to facilitate wage employment can contribute to expanding opportunities. Collaborations between the private sector, governments, humanitarian, and development partners will be essential to enable the creation of job markets. Further research on the employment activities of urban refugees is needed to understand important barriers and help overcome them.

¹³ ILO. 2017. "Gender in Employment and Labour Market Policies and Programmes: What Works for Women?"

¹⁴ Percentages do not sum up to 100 since refugees may have engaged in more than one activity.

¹⁵ Self-employment includes those employed in both formal and informal sectors.

¹⁶ In only 10 percent of household refugees own a bank account while in 78 percent of households, refugees own a mobile banking account. In 20 percent of households where refugees own a mobile banking account such an account is shared (compared to 2 percent of shared bank accounts). Only 4 in 10 households have access to loans with family and relatives being the most common source, while formal financing and community savings are barely used.

¹⁷ National Council for Law Reporting. 2015. "The Kenya Information and Communications Act." Buying a SIM card in Kenya requires registration and proof of identity (accepted documents: identity or service card, passport, or alien card), which many refugees do not have.

¹⁸ ILO, "Financial Education for Refugees, IDPs and Host Communities: New Addition to the ILO's Financial Education Programme." Financial education workshops such as the ones delivered by ILO under their Financial Education Programme can help increase access to finance.

Primary and secondary school Net Enrollment Rates (NER) are low, thus, increasing NER and supporting transition to secondary school can help develop transferable skills and expand access to tertiary education and socioeconomic opportunities.¹⁹ 69 percent of urban refugee children are enrolled in primary school (68 percent boys and 70 percent girls) while 28 percent are enrolled in secondary school (31 percent boys and 24 percent girls). The Government of Kenya (GoK) recognizes education as a human right while acknowledging its crucial role for human capital. As such, the GoK is committed to ensure inclusive and equitable access to education with measures to reach the most disadvantaged.²⁰ Improving enrollment in primary and secondary school can help develop transferable skills which can be used in current and future hosting countries. Identifying schools in areas with high densities of refugees while providing support for rehabilitation, equipment and building their capacity in terms of management and teachers' skills can be key in increasing attendance. Scholarship programs and financial incentives conditioned on attending secondary school can facilitate transition. Intervening issues such as documentation, indirect costs, language of instruction, recognition of qualifications need to be better understood to ensure refugee learners have equitable access. As the lack of birth certificates is a constraint for some, inclusion of refugees in the National Education Management Information System (NEMIS) using alternative documentation to birth certificates will be key. Campaigns to provide information about availability of formal schools for refugees, and requirements to join can help lift attendance. Continuing and expanding the programs that encourage girls' education can also help lift attendance.²¹ Girls' education can be promoted by introducing behavioral programs that identify cultural barriers and sensitize communities, teachers, parents, and students about the importance of boys' and girls' education.^{22,23} Second chance education programs which allow for flexible timetables and provide childcare and early childhood education, can also help increase attendance.

Fostering interactions between refugees and hosts and raising the voice of refugees through community leadership structures can be key to improve perceptions of social cohesion.²⁴ Refugees who recently interacted with a host community member tend to have more positive perceptions of social cohesion than those who did not. Social cohesion can be enhanced by designing programs that foster interaction and promote collaborations by enabling spaces where refugees and hosts can work towards shared goals.^{25,26} Refugees' perceptions of social cohesion are generally positive although negative regarding perceived consideration of their opinions for decision making. As local institutions play an important role in fostering social cohesion, strengthening communication mechanisms between refugees, organizations, and the government could be instrumental to raise concerns of refugees and improve perceptions of participation.²⁷

¹⁹ Comparisons between refugees and host for employment and education are limited due to the COVID-19 outbreak, comparisons for such sections are not presented. Comparable data for hosts about food insecurity, access to financial services and social cohesion is not available.

²⁰ Government of Kenya, "SESSIONAL PAPER NO. 1 OF 2019 on A Policy Framework for Reforming Education and Training for Sustainable Development in Kenya."

²¹ UK DFID, "Girls' Education Challenge. Project Profiles." Programs such as the Kenya Equity in Education Project (KEEP), Wasichana Wote Wasome (WWW- Let All Girls Read), Empowering Pioneering Inclusive Education Strategies for Disabled Girls in Kenya (Innovation), Improved School Attendance and Learning for Vulnerable Kenyan Girls through an Integrated Intervention (Innovation), The iMlango Project (Strategic Partnership) can help increase school attendance among girls.

²² Jesuit Refugee Service. 2019. "Her Future. Challenges & Recommendations to Increase Education for Refugee Girls"; Freeman et al. 2020. "Improving Attendance and Reducing Chronic Absenteeism."

²³ Behavioral campaigns do not refer to indiscipline but to overcoming constraints resulting from sociocultural norms.

²⁴ Information to help refugees know their rights, obligations and services in Kenya are provided by UNHCR on <https://help.unhcr.org/kenya/>.

²⁵ Information to help refugees know their rights, obligations and services in Kenya are provided by UNHCR on <https://help.unhcr.org/kenya/>.

²⁶ Information to help refugees know their rights, obligations and services in Kenya are provided by UNHCR on <https://help.unhcr.org/kenya/>.

²⁷ Information to help refugees know their rights, obligations and services in Kenya are provided by UNHCR on <https://help.unhcr.org/kenya/>.

With most refugees planning to leave Kenya, continuing existing efforts to inform them about resettlement, repatriation and integration options will remain important. About 93 percent of refugee households wish to leave Kenya, of which less than 1 percent want to return to their countries of origin. The large majority (86 percent) have all information they need to guide this decision. UNHCR and partners facilitate access to information on resettlement, repatriation and integration options through refugee leaders, social media, and an online help desk.²⁸ Such efforts should be continued to help forming realistic expectations on requirements, security conditions, repatriation options, and employment opportunities.²⁹

²⁸ Information to help refugees know their rights, obligations and services in Kenya are provided by UNHCR on <https://help.unhcr.org/kenya/>.


²⁹ Programs such as Migrant Care can be explored and adapted to the refugee context. UN Women. 2019. "Gaining Protection for Indonesia's Migrant Workers and Their Families."

Table 1: Findings and policy recommendations summary

Finding	Policy recommendation
Short-term priorities	
Food insecurity is high with 60 percent of households being highly food insecure. Households headed by unemployed refugees are more likely to cope with the lack of food by using severe livelihoods-based strategies which deplete assets and risk human capital, than those headed by employed refugees	Livelihoods-based interventions can help refugees secure adequate and sustainable income while contributing to the reduction of food insecurity. Targeting food security programs for households with children can help protect human capital. Mobile cash transfers can be a cost-effective instrument in urban settings to mitigate food insecurity.
Access to improved drinking water is higher among urban refugee households (91 percent) than among hosts (71 percent), with 72 percent of refugee households reporting insufficient drinking water in the last month. Access to improved sanitation is high for both refugees and hosts (84 percent refugees, vs. 99 percent hosts), with shared toilets being common among refugees (68 percent).	Improving and providing adequate water and sanitation services is key to improve health outcomes. Ensuring 20 liters of water per person per day and enhancing the quality of sanitation services can result in improved health outcomes for refugees and hosts. Increased investment through partnerships between humanitarian and development actors, governments, and the private sector to support integrated water, sanitation and hygiene service delivery can help boost access to these services.
37 percent of refugee households are overcrowded compared to 19 percent of host community households. 26 percent of refugee households compared to 10 percent of host community households, mainly those headed by women, use biomass (charcoal or firewood) for cooking.	Expanding access to adequate housing and non-biomass fuels can help raise urban refugees' and hosts' living standards. Increasing funding for national housing programs to ensure host's housing needs are adequately addressed while including refugee communities can be key to help reduce overcrowding. Subsidizing improved biomass and non-biomass fuels while easing access to them can help prevent negative health impacts for women and children.
Nakuru-based refugees face particularly vulnerable conditions. They are the youngest overall (55 percent of them is 18 years old or below), they are mostly South Sudanese, their households are mostly headed by women and have the highest dependency ratios. Food insecurity levels are also the highest among Nakuru-based refugees (82 percent). Nakuru refugees also have the lowest employment rates (12 percent, 6 percent women, vs. 21 percent men).	Supporting Nakuru refugees and hosts' participation in the paid labor market and enhancing their food security can help maintain human capital. Such efforts can also help lessen the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic through strengthened self-reliance and resilience to shocks. Further research can provide a deeper understanding regarding socioeconomic barriers and how to overcome them through gender-responsive solutions.
Medium-term priorities	
Only 42 percent of working age refugees are employed, mainly as wage workers (73 percent) and self-employed (59 percent). The skills perceived to be needed to secure employment are mainly small business management skills. The main support needed among those outside the labor force and interested in self-employment is access to loans and business training, while among those interested in wage work it is access to documentation, and training.	Strengthening refugees' job- and entrepreneurial skills, broadening access to financial services, and easing documentation procedures for wage employment, can support sustainable livelihoods. Multi-stakeholder collaborations can be essential to enable the creation of markets and job opportunities.

<p>Refugees' primary and secondary school net enrollment rates (NER) are low (primary 69 percent, 68 percent boys and 70 percent girls; and secondary 28 percent, 31 percent boys and 24 percent girls). Refugees' main barrier to access education is the cost of transport, books, uniforms, lack of birth certificate and other indirect costs.</p>	<p>Increasing primary school attendance and supporting transition to secondary school can help develop transferable skills and expand socioeconomic opportunities. Inclusion of refugees into the national education system would be critical to expanding access to equitable and sustainable educational opportunities. Identifying schools in areas with high densities of refugees while providing support for rehabilitation, equipment and building their capacity in terms of management and teachers' skills can be key in increasing attendance. A deeper understanding of the bottlenecks that hinder enrolment is needed. Strengthening systems of recognition of prior learning can ease access to education. Financial incentives, information campaigns, girls' and women's education programs can also help lift attendance.</p>
<p>Refugees who recently interacted with a host community member tend to have more positive perceptions of social cohesion than those who did not. Refugees' social cohesion perceptions are generally positive although negative regarding perceived consideration of their opinions for decision making.</p>	<p>Fostering interactions between refugees and hosts can be key to improve perceptions of social cohesion. Raising the voice and concerns of refugees through community leadership structures can also help improve social cohesion.</p>
<p>About 93 percent of refugee households wish to leave Kenya, less than 1 percent wish to return while the rest wish to stay. In 86 percent of households, refugees needed information to guide their movement choices.</p>	<p>Continuing existing efforts to inform refugees about resettlement, repatriation and integration options will remain important.</p>

Table 2: Summary findings for refugees and hosts

	URBAN KENYA		NAIROBI		NAKURU		MOMBASA	
	Refugees	Hosts	Refugees	Hosts	Refugees	Hosts	Refugees	Hosts
REFUGEE AND HOST TRENDS								
 Dependency Ratio	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.9	0.6	0.7	0.4
 Improved housing	82%	78%	82%	73%	93%	88%	83%	89%
 Access to Improved Drinking Water	91%	92%	92%	87%	93%	61%	76%	17%
 Biomass Fuels for Cooking	26%	10%	25%	1%	57%	34%	54%	22%
REFUGEE ONLY TRENDS								
 Countries of Origin	44% DR Congo 22% Somalia 13% Ethiopia 11% South Sudan 5% Burundi	48% DR Congo 18% Somalia 14% Ethiopia 9% South Sudan 6% Burundi	73% South Sudan 12% Somalia 8% DR Congo 6% Ethiopia	84% Somalia 7% DR Congo 1% Ethiopia 0.7% Burundi 0.2% South Sudan				
 Primary Net Enrolment Rate	69%		70%		79%		53%	
 Secondary Net Enrolment Rate	28%		29%		30%		12%	
 Employment Rate	42%		43%		12%		35%	
 High Food Insecurity	60%		61%		68%		54%	

A. BACKGROUND

I. Urbanization of displacement and data needs

1. **As the world undergoes a process of rapid urbanization, forcibly displaced people (FDP) are increasingly inhabiting urban areas seeking safety and self-reliance opportunities.**³⁰ More than half of the world's population including FDPs live in urban areas—progressively in highly-dense cities.^{31,32} While many refugees move to urban areas in the hope of finding safety and economic independence, others do so out of necessity—to access specialized health services, or to avoid being targets of violence in refugee camps. Many refugees are not able to return to their countries of origin mainly due to conflict, violence, or insecurity, and must build new lives in their adopted cities.³³

2. **Refugees in urban settings are often faced with an array of risks and heightened vulnerabilities, some of which are shared with those of host communities.** While UNHCR considers urban areas to be legitimate places for refugees to enjoy their rights, it recognizes the difficulties resulting from significant numbers of refugees settling in urban areas. Such movements can put pressure on existing services that are unable to meet the needs of the urban poor. Urban refugees often face the problems confronting urban poor such as inadequate housing and marginalization, combined with unique challenges related to their refugee situation.³⁴ Furthermore, the COVID-19 pandemic has exacerbated the difficult circumstances in which refugees live.³⁵ UNHCR highlights that protection must be provided to refugees irrespective of their location calling for host governments and the international community to continue their refugee protection efforts. Equally important is the protection of host communities who often face struggles similar to those of refugees.

3. **Addressing the risks and vulnerabilities faced by urban refugees and their hosts, requires narrowing existing data gaps to inform policy options and programs.** While data on urban non-displaced populations tends to be more easily accessible compared to that of rural communities, data on urban refugees is extremely scarce and is less often available than that of their camp-based counterparts. Data on urban refugees is mainly accessible through registration records. Registration and data collection of urban refugees are complex endeavors as refugees are often dispersed throughout highly-dense populated areas and irregular settlements, unlike those who reside in highly visible camps.³⁶ Furthermore, some people who are in refugee-like situations prefer not to be registered by the host government nor by UNHCR and thus, urban data collection efforts is often restricted to registered refugees.

4. **The Urban Socioeconomic Survey (SES) helps close data gaps to inform targeted response which is crucially needed to address the needs of urban refugee and host populations in Kenya.** Even though preceding surveys provide useful information on the living conditions of urban refugees

³⁰ UNHCR, "UNHCR Policy on Refugee Protection and Solutions in Urban Areas." Urban area is considered to be a built-up area that accommodates large numbers of people living in close proximity to each other, and where the majority of people sustain themselves by means of formal and informal employment and the provision of goods and services.

³¹ Ritchie and Roser, "Urbanization."

³² UNHCR, "Global Trends: Forced Displacement in 2016."

³³ IRC, "International Rescue Committee. Urban Refugees."

³⁴ Pavanello, Elhawary, and Pantuliano, "Hidden and Exposed: Urban Refugees in Nairobi, Kenya"; UNHCR, "UNHCR Policy on Refugee Protection and Solutions in Urban Areas." Such challenges include the threat of arrest and detention, *refoulement*, harassment, extortion, vulnerability to sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV), human smuggling and trafficking.

³⁵ UNHCR, "Urban Refugees Struggling to Survive as Economic Impact of COVID-19 Worsens in East, Horn and Great Lakes of Africa." "Without further support, many urban refugees will become extremely vulnerable to exploitation, risk falling into significant levels of debt and may be forced into desperate situations to survive, such as transactional sex or child labour."

³⁶ UNHCR, "UNHCR Policy on Refugee Protection and Solutions in Urban Areas."

and hosts, there is no analysis that uses national socioeconomic measurements to understand both communities' living conditions (see list of preceding surveys in Appendix I). Understanding the socioeconomic needs of urban refugees in Kenya is crucial especially in face of the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic and the potential closure of Dadaab and Kakuma refugee camps. Such potential closures may result in refugee influxes into urban settings.³⁷ The Urban SES provides comparable socioeconomic profiles for urban refugees and hosts by using an instrument that is comparable to the one used for the most recent national household survey, the Kenya Continuous Household Survey (KCHS) 2019. The survey provides one of the first comparable analysis on the economic lives of urban refugees and hosts in Kenya. The Urban SES, the preceding Kakuma SES and Kalobeyei SES can help address socioeconomic data gaps and inform targeted programming and development policy.³⁸ In doing so, they provide learning opportunities for how socioeconomic information may be collected and used in other urban and camp settings to facilitate replication.

II. Urban refugees in Kenya

5. Since the 1960s, Kenya has hosted refugees shifting its refugee policy from integration toward encampment in the early 1990s. The flow of asylum seekers into Kenya gathered momentum in the early 1970s, owing to the regime of Uganda's President Idi Amin. Many Ugandan refugees had relatives in Kenya and were relatively well-off professionals and businesspeople.³⁹ The refugee policy supported Kenya's interest in welcoming skilled workers and investment. Thus, refugees were able to work, move, and settle across Kenya. In the early 1990s, the refugee influx from Somalia, Ethiopia, Sudan, Burundi, Rwanda, and the DRC brought with it a shift in Kenya's refugee policy from integration toward encampment close to the borders with Somalia and South Sudan.⁴⁰

6. Kenya hosts more than 500,000 refugees who are under the responsibility of the Refugee Affairs Secretariat (RAS) with the support of UNHCR under its mandate.⁴¹ An estimated 16 percent of refugees in Kenya live in urban areas, while 84 percent reside in camps. Kenya's national refugee legislation came into force through the 2006 Refugees Act which established the Department of Refugee Affairs (DRA), replaced by the Refugee Affairs Secretariat (RAS) in 2016.⁴² A comprehensive review of the law was undertaken, and the draft Refugees Bill 2019 is pending at the last stages prior to adoption into law. In 2017, RAS assumed responsibility for reception, registration, documentation, refugee status determination (RSD), and refugee management, with UNHCR's active support. RAS grants refugee status through individual interviews and prima facie group determination (only for South Sudanese). Upon status determination, refugees should be provided with a 'refugee identity card', the Alien Refugee Certificate (ARC) issued by GoK and valid for five years (see Refugee identification documents Appendix II).

7. Despite Kenya's encampment policy, more than 81,000 registered—plus an unknown number of unregistered—refugees live in urban areas where their living conditions have remained

³⁷ The Guardian, "UN Outlines Plan to Close Camps Housing 430,000 Refugees in Kenya."

³⁸ UNHCR and World Bank, "Understanding the Socioeconomic Conditions of Refugees in Kenya. Volume A: Kalobeyei Settlement"; UNHCR and World Bank, "Understanding the Socioeconomic Conditions of Refugees in Kenya. Volume B: Kakuma Camp."

³⁹ Abuya, "Past Reflections, Future Insights: African Asylum Law and Policy in Historical Perspective"; Kagwanja, "Challenges and Prospects for Building Local Relief Capacity in Kenya: Reflections on Humanitarian Intervention."

⁴⁰ Lind, Mutahi, and Oosterom. 2015. "Tangled Ties: Al-Shabaab and Political Volatility in Kenya". Kenya's policy change can be partly explained by the escalation in the number of refugees which overwhelmed Kenya's coping capacities, as well as by ethnic, political, and economic aspects. Other aspects reinforcing the policy shift included a decline in the Kenyan economy, regional conflicts, social unrest, and a shortage of arable land.

⁴¹ UNHCR, "Kenya: Registered Refugees and Asylum-Seekers. February 2021."

⁴² The draft Refugees Act 2019 which is currently pending enactment.

largely unknown. Following a series of terrorist attacks in urban areas, in 2014, the Ministry of Interior and Coordination of National Government called refugees in cities to relocate to camps.⁴³ Constraining refugees' mobility and making it difficult for them to access employment and education.⁴⁴ Urban refugees have become rather invisible as they have been "absorbed into the urban fabric, are dispersed over the city and are highly mobile."⁴⁵ As a result, a better understanding about their numbers, distribution, living conditions as well as an on how they compare to the host community is limited. Such a limited understanding hinders efforts to help enhance urban refugees' and hosts' socioeconomic opportunities through evidence-based action.

8. Refugees in Kenya are not systematically included in national surveys and, as a result, there is a lack of data on refugee welfare and poverty that is comparable to the national population. Kenya made progress in data availability at the national and county levels and made efforts to measure the impacts of forced displacement for refugees, hosts, and nationals. However, socioeconomic data gaps remain. Refugees are not systematically included in national household surveys that serve as the primary tools for measuring and monitoring poverty, labor markets, and other welfare indicators. Such information is critical for area-based development and targeting of assistance, which is critical especially when facing shocks such as the COVID-19 pandemic. Data are also essential for engaging with development and humanitarian actors who require this information for planning and investment.

9. The Urban SES and preceding Kakuma SES, and Kalobeyi SES provide comparable socioeconomic profiles for refugees and host community members. Initiated jointly by UNHCR and the World Bank, the socioeconomic survey series to understand the living conditions of refugees in Kenya was designed to support the global vision laid out by the Global Compact on Refugees (GCR) and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).⁴⁶ The Urban SES covers socioeconomic indicators, both at the household and individual levels, aligned with the national 2019 Kenya Continuous Household Survey (KCHS). The Urban SES, ensuing analysis, and recommendations provide a comprehensive snapshot of refugees' and hosts' demographics, disabilities, housing characteristics, and access to services while covering refugee-specific details on livelihoods, education, food security, social cohesion, trajectories of displacement, and intentions to move.

Box A-1: Survey Design and Methodology

The Urban SES was conducted in parallel to an update of the refugee registration database (proGRES). The Government of Kenya, with the technical support of UNHCR, maintains and updates a database of all registered refugees and asylum seekers in the country. The SES was designed to take place during the 2020 Nairobi registration verification exercise (VRX). Due to COVID-19 social distancing measures, the Nairobi VRX, and the SES in Nairobi, Nakuru and Mombasa were conducted via Computer Assisted Telephone Interviewing (CATI).

Households are randomly selected to ensure a representative sample. The SES sample in Nairobi was selected in parallel to the VRX (in November-December 2020) while in Nakuru and Mombasa

⁴³ Ministry of Interior and Coordination of National Government, Press Statement by Cabinet Secretary of Interior & Coordination of National Government on Refugees and National Security Issues on 26th Mch 2014.

⁴⁴ Muindi and Mberu, "Urban Refugees in Nairobi. Tackling Barriers to Accessing Housing, Services and Infrastructure"; UNHCR and ILO, "Doing Business in Dadaab. Market Systems Analysis for Local Economic Development in Dadaab, Kenya."

⁴⁵ Pavanello, Elhawary, and Pantuliano, "Hidden and Exposed: Urban Refugees in Nairobi, Kenya," 11.

⁴⁶ The series is comprised by the Kalobeyi SES (vol. A), Kakuma SES (vol. B), Urban SES (vol. C), and a comparative brief. The present report focuses on hosts and refugees in Nairobi, Mombasa and Nakuru counties and does not provide comparisons with camp-based refugees.

it was selected by using the updated proGres dataset which was verified in 2019. The SES is designed to be representative of urban households living in Nairobi, Nakuru and Mombasa, (Appendix I. Definitions). The Urban SES covers 2,438 households, 1300 in Nairobi, 409 in Nakuru and 729 in Mombasa.

The SES questionnaire is designed to produce data comparable with national household survey instruments, as well as with the Kalobeyi SES 2018 and the Kakuma SES 2019. Modules on demographics, household characteristics, and assets, are aligned with the most recent national household survey, the KCHS 2019, and are comparable to results reported at the urban Nairobi, Nakuru and Mombasa levels.⁴⁷ The host community of urban refugees is defined as Kenyans who reside in the counties of Nairobi, Mombasa, and Nakuru (See VI. Methodology).⁴⁸ Additional modules on access to remittances, loans and credit, vulnerabilities, social cohesion, coping mechanisms in response to lack of food, displacement trajectories, and durable solutions were administered to capture refugee-specific challenges.

Box A-2: Limitations

The mode of data collection limits comparability between refugee and host communities. The Urban SES was conducted through CATI whereas the KCHS was done through Computer-Assisted Personal Interviews (CAPI). Phone surveys can limit the representativeness of the sample and the external validity of their estimates due to telephone coverage, low participation, and response rates.⁴⁹ These limitations are source of biases, which can be reduced by adjusting the survey weights using information from the population data. While the sampling weights for the SES control to some extent for differences in household profiles by phone ownership (households with phone vs. all households), it does not address the differences that might arise between the two modes of data collection. In addition, the training of enumerators and fieldworks may differ between phone surveys and face-to-face surveys. Hence, comparisons between refugees and hosts are limited. Poverty comparisons are also limited. Since collecting consumption data to estimate poverty can result in long interview times and reduced quality of phone survey data, the Urban SES did not include a consumption module. Therefore, poverty rates are not provided, although they are available through the KCHS for host communities.

Comparability between the refugee and host communities are also limited by the timing of the data collection. While the urban SES was collected during the COVID-19 period, the KCHS was collected before the COVID-19 outbreak. Therefore, comparative insights for education and employment are not feasible to be included.

⁴⁷ The urban SES' modules on education and employment are designed to be comparable with the KCHS. However, due to the COVID-19 outbreak, its impact on education and labor force participation and since the KCHS data was collected before the COVID-19 outbreak, such modules are not compared across refugee and host communities.

⁴⁸ The host community of urban refugees is defined as Kenyans who reside in the counties of Nairobi, Mombasa, and Nakuru.

⁴⁹ Ambel, McGee, and Tsegay, "Reducing Bias in Phone Survey Samples."

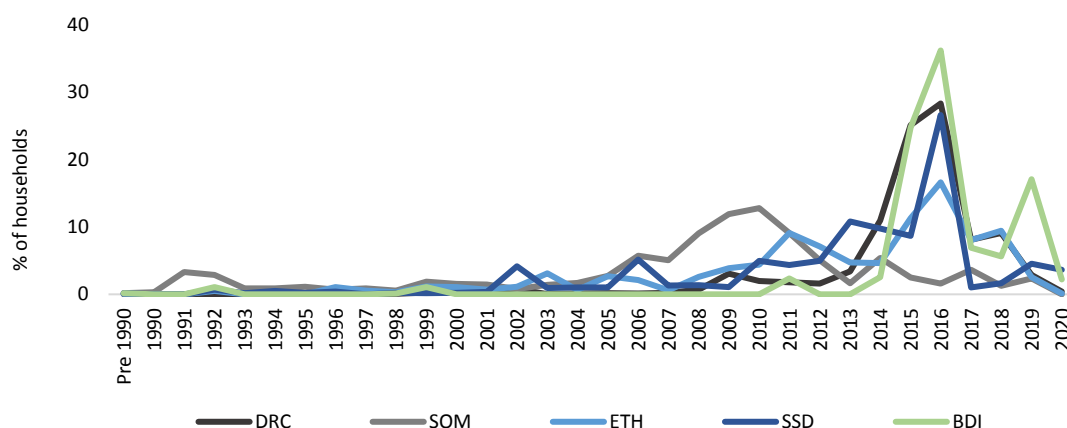
B. FINDINGS

I. Demographic profile⁵⁰

Most urban refugees fled conflict in DRC and Somalia, with most of them living in Nairobi. Refugees are younger than hosts, their households are more likely to be headed by women and have higher dependency ratios than host community households.

10. Since before 1990, Kenya's urban areas have hosted refugees mainly from DR Congo, South Sudan, and Somalia whose majority resides in Nairobi. Most urban refugees were displaced after 2007 with a peak in 2016 and a subsequent drop in 2017, despite the continuation of conflict in refugees' main countries of origin (Figure B-1; Appendix III. Overview of conflict events). Such a drop may be partly linked with the GoK's announcement to close Dadaab camps in mid-2016. The announcement prompted some refugees to return while it might have discouraged FDPs from seeking asylum in Kenya.⁵¹ Another potential explanation is the enforcement of the encampment policy which in 2017 began to require refugees registered in urban areas to reside in camps.⁵²

Figure B-1: Year of arrival by country of origin of household head



Source: UNHCR (2021). UNHCR Kenya ProGres Registration Database Sub-Sample. Data not publicly available.

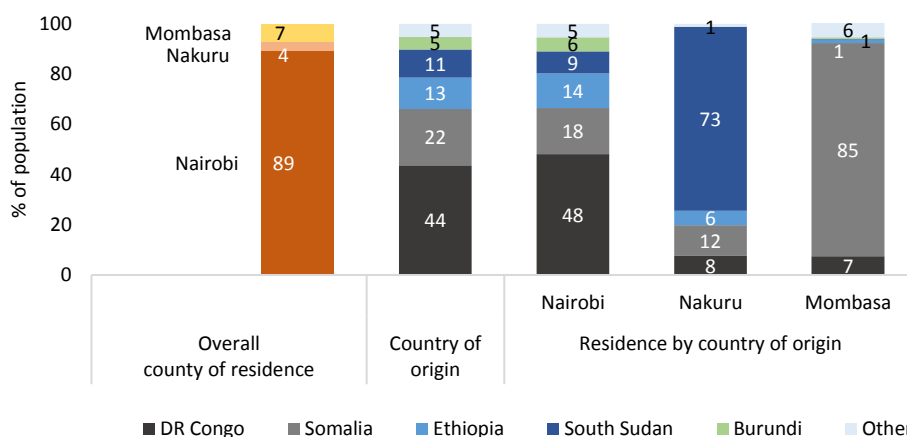
About 89 percent of refugees reside in Nairobi while 4 percent live in Nakuru and 7 percent in Mombasa. Refugees' counties of residence vary by country of origin (Figure B-2). While Nairobi hosts a population from a wider variety of countries, refugees in Nakuru are mainly from South Sudan and those in Mombasa are mainly from Somalia. Notably, Nakuru has an existing South Sudanese community of migrants and refugees while Mombasa has been the main county of residence for Somali refugees since before Kenya's policy shift towards encampment.

⁵⁰ Graphs and charts for refugee estimates were created based on the Urban SES 2020-21 data. Graphs and charts depicting host community information were created based on the Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey 2015/2016, (KIHBS 2015/16). Significance levels are reported as p-values for comparative figures, with 1% (p<.01) and 5% (p<.05) levels considered significant. Error bars in graphs display standard error estimates.

⁵¹ Frelick, "Kenya: Involuntary Refugee Returns to Somalia."

⁵² UNHCR-Kenya operation.

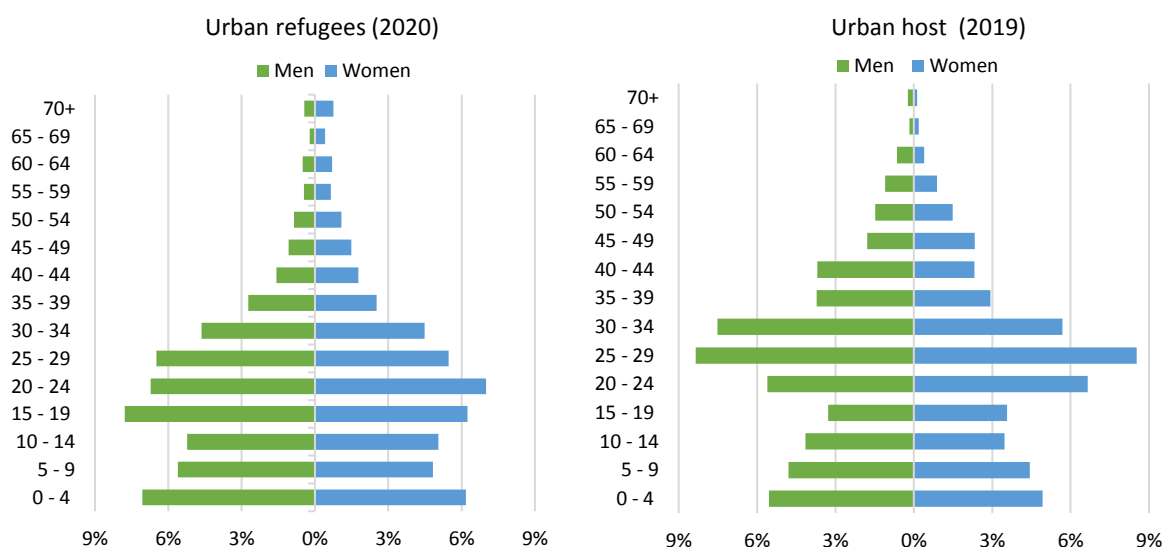
Figure B-2: Main countries of origin by county of residence



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

11. **Nearly half of the urban and refugee populations are between 15 and 34 years old, with urban refugees being younger than hosts, especially in Nakuru.** 49 percent of the refugees and hosts are between 15 and 34 years old (Figure B-3). However, variations between communities are noted. Refugees are younger than hosts with 45 percent of them being 18 years old or below, compared to 32 percent of hosts. Nakuru’s population is the youngest, 55 percent of refugees and 41 percent of hosts are 18 years old or below. In contrast, only 1.8 percent of the refugee population is elderly (65 and above) compared to 0.72 percent among urban nationals. Age distributions across populations are particularly important when considering dependency ratios and needs according to age.

Figure B-3: Population pyramids for urban refugees and hosts



Sources: Urban SES (2020-21); KCHS (2019).

12. **Most refugee and host community households are headed by men except for refugees in Nakuru, with dependency ratios being higher among refugee households, mainly women headed ones.** Refugee households in Nakuru, who are mainly South Sudanese, are more likely to be headed by women compared to those in other counties (Figure B-4, $p < 0.01$). In turn, host community households in Nairobi are more likely than those in other counties to be headed by women ($p < 0.01$). Dependency ratios are higher for refugee than for host community households (Figure B-5) with households headed by women hosts and refugees having higher dependency ratios than those

headed by men ($p < 0.01$). Nakuru-based households are the most likely to have the highest dependency ratios partly reflected by the higher proportion of young population. This highlights that mainly refugee women heading households in Nakuru, carry the responsibility to provide for large households.⁵³

Figure B-4: Households headed by women

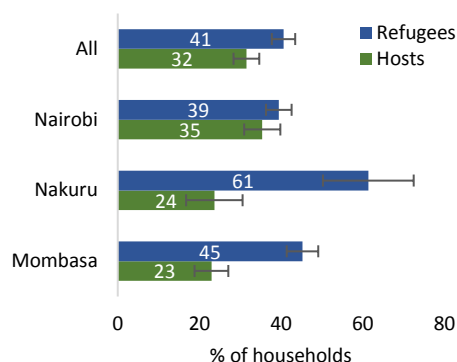
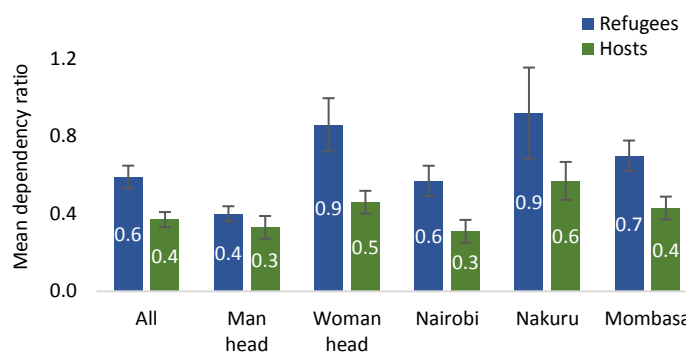


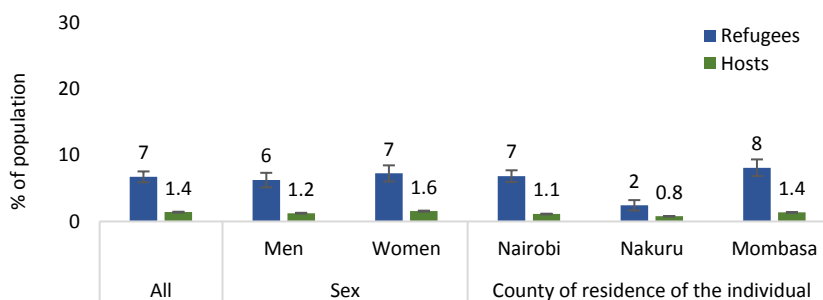
Figure B-5: Dependency ratios by county of residence



Sources: Urban SES (2020-21); KCHS (2019).

13. Refugees are more likely to have disabilities than urban nationals, with visual difficulties being the most common. Refugees in Mombasa and Nairobi are more likely to be disabled compared to refugees in Nakuru (Figure B-6). Refugees who are 65 and above, are the most likely to be disabled compared to refugees of other ages. The most common disability for refugees and urban nationals is visual impairments (38 percent refugees, 44 percent nationals) followed by mobility difficulties (33 percent refugees, 34 percent nationals). Disabled population face difficulties to access education and livelihoods opportunities.⁵⁴

Figure B-6: Disabled population, refugees, and urban nationals (5+)



Sources: Urban SES (2020-21); Kenya Population Census (2019).

Note: Nationals include urban nationals in the whole country.

I. Services

While most refugee and host community households have access to improved housing, water, and sanitation services, some face limitations. Overcrowding and the use of biomass fuels for cooking are more common among refugee households headed by women. Furthermore, refugees' enrollment rates are strikingly low, especially for secondary school.

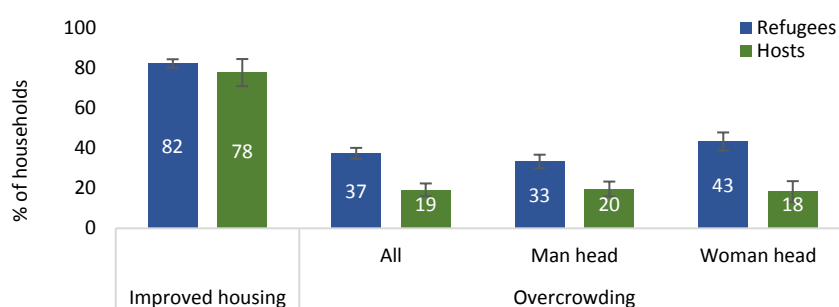
⁵³ In Kakuma camp and Kalobeyei settlement, most South Sudanese households are also headed by women and have large dependency ratios. This points to the heightened vulnerability of South Sudanese refugee households headed by women.

⁵⁴ Compared to urban Uganda (12 percent of the population lives with a disability), the prevalence of disabilities in Kenya is low. Nabulime, "Successes and Challenges in the Reporting about the Situation of Persons with Disabilities In line with the SDGs: The Uganda Case."

a. HOUSING, ENERGY, WATER AND SANITATION

14. Even though most urban refugee and host community households have access to improved housing, refugees are more likely to live in overcrowded rooms than hosts.⁵⁵ Nearly 8 in 10 refugee and host community households have access to improved housing. However, overcrowding is common. Refugee households in Nakuru are more likely to have access to improved housing than those in Nairobi and in Mombasa ($p < 0.01$; Figure B-7).⁵⁶ Overcrowding is most common among refugee households, especially those headed by women.⁵⁷ Refugee households in Nairobi and Nakuru are equally likely to face overcrowding (38 percent respectively), compared to 29 percent of households in Mombasa. In turn, the most overcrowded host community households reside in Mombasa (24 percent) followed by Nakuru (20 percent) and Nairobi (18 percent). Overcrowding is linked with a higher risk of mental distress and sexual assault.⁵⁸

Figure B-7: Access to improved housing and overcrowding by gender of head



Sources: Urban SES (2020-21); KCHS (2019).

15. Urban refugee and host community households largely use gas for cooking while access to improved sources of water and sanitation vary between communities.⁵⁹ Refugee households are more likely to use charcoal for cooking than host community households (Figure B-8). Among refugees, households headed by women are more likely to use charcoal than those headed by men (32 percent vs. 19 percent respectively). Variations by gender are not significant among hosts. The combustion of biomass fuels such as charcoal emits large amounts of airborne pollutants which can generate acute respiratory diseases and other ailments, especially for women and girls who are usually the main household cooks. This also affects children under age 5 who normally remain in the proximity of the cooking area when food is prepared.⁶⁰ Refugees have better access to improved sources of water than hosts, although 72 percent of refugee households reported insufficient water

⁵⁵ Improved housing is defined as having improved floor, wall and roof construction. Improved floor consists of floor constructed with tablets/wood planks, palm/bamboo/mat/adobe/polished wood, vinyl/asphalt, ceramic tiles, cement, carpet, stone and bricks. Improved wall materials consist of cement, stone with lime/cement, bricks, cement blocks, covered adobe, wood planks/shingles and burnt bricks with cement. Improved roof types are made with metal, wood, ceramic tiles, cement, asbestos. IFC, "DHS Analytical Studies. Using Household Survey Data to Explore the Effects of Improved Housing Conditions on Malaria Infection in Children in Sub-Saharan Africa."

⁵⁶ Most Nakuru refugees reside in Nakuru Town East and West where housing conditions may be better than those in Nairobi refugees' main areas of residence (Eastleigh, Kayole, Kawangware, Kayole, Ruiru, Githurai and Kangemi) and in 'Little Mogadishu', Mombasa, where most refugees live.

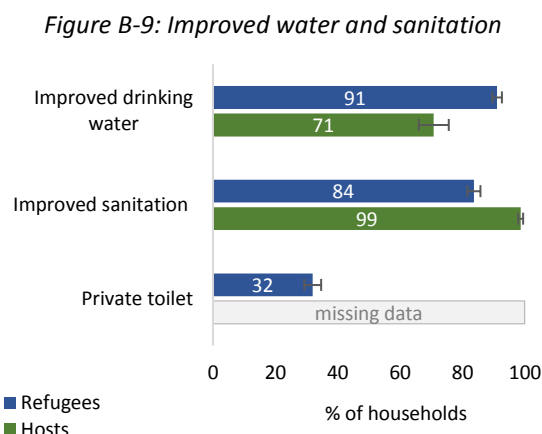
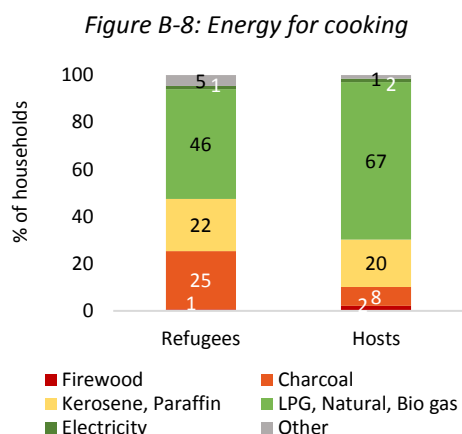
⁵⁷ UN Habitat. 2010. "A Practical Guide for Conducting Housing Profiles," 84. Overcrowding occurs if three or more people occupy each habitable room. According to a UN Habitat slum-related definition of overcrowding, a house is considered to provide a sufficient living area for the household members if not more than two people share the same room.

⁵⁸ WHO. 2020. "What Are the Health Risks Related to Overcrowding?"

⁵⁹ More than 95 percent of refugee and host community households use the electricity grid or generator for lighting.

⁶⁰ Smith, Mehta, and Feuz. 2004. "Indoor Air Pollution from Household Use of Solid Fuels"; Kurmi et al. 2012. "Lung Cancer Risk and Solid Fuel Smoke Exposure: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis"; Dasgupta et al. 2004. "Who Suffers from Indoor Air Pollution? Evidence from Bangladesh."

supply in the month preceding the interview (Figure B-9). In Mombasa, access to improved drinking water is low for both communities but, alarmingly low for hosts.⁶¹ In contrast, access to improved sanitation is better for hosts. Access to private toilets is low among refugee households while comparable information is not available for host community households. Low access to water and improved sanitation can increase the risk of contagion of COVID-19 and other diseases.

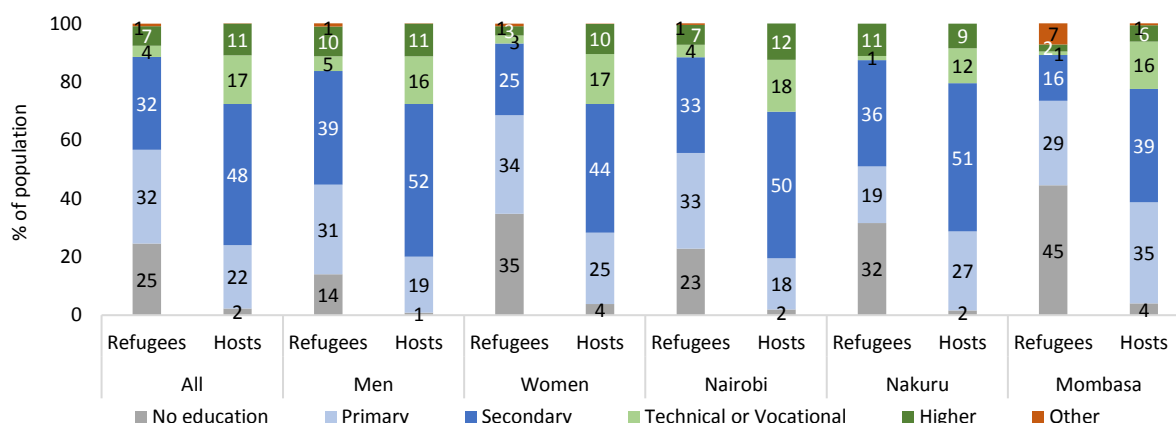


Sources: Urban SES (2020-21); KCHS (2019).

b. EDUCATION

16. Refugees have lower educational attainment than hosts with variations by gender and county of residence. Among both populations, women are more likely than men to have no education (Figure B-10). In Mombasa, refugees are the most likely to have no education and the least likely to have attained secondary education. Nairobi hosts have the highest level of education overall.

Figure B-10: Educational attainment by gender and county of residence (15+, not attending school)



Sources: Urban SES (2020-21); KCHS (2019).

17. Even though the GoK guarantees access to free primary education and free day secondary education, enrollment rates for refugees are low, while the COVID-19 may have hindered access to education.⁶² Refugees’ main barrier to access education is the cost of transport, books, uniforms, and other indirect costs.⁶³ To help overcome this, UNHCR and partners offer scholarships and support for

⁶¹ 76 percent of refugee households have access to improved drinking water compared to 17 percent of host community households.

⁶² As the SES data was collected during the COVID-19 pandemic, and thus, access to education estimates may have been impacted by it.

⁶³ Dix, “Urbanisation and the Social Protection of Refugees in Nairobi.”

refugee students. However, the number of available scholarships is very limited (see Appendix V. Scholarship programs). Furthermore, different educational experiences and linguistic competencies which can result in students falling behind or dropping out. Other key limitations include the lack of information and resources to support the processes for recognition for prior learning, and the limited access to of birth certificates which are required to be registered in the National Education Management Information System (NEMIS) and for national examinations.⁶⁴ The impact of COVID-19, resulting in recurrent lockdowns and school closures has also affected access and participation in education programs for refugees. For many, the loss of income has prevented households from meeting the wrap-around costs of public education (lunch, uniform, development fees, etc.).

18. Refugees' primary and secondary enrollment rates are low, especially in Mombasa, while in Nakuru, refugees are the most likely to be enrolled. School age refugee boys and girls are equally likely to be enrolled in primary school with Mombasa refugees being the least likely to be enrolled (Figure B-11). Transition to secondary school is low, especially in Mombasa and for refugee girls (Figure B-12). The most prevailing reason refugees have reported for being out of secondary school is cost. Despite progressive programs such as the Free Day Secondary Education (FDSE), only a small percentage of refugees can afford the costs of public secondary schools such as transport, books, food, uniforms. A small number of scholarships are available for learners with exceptional results at Kenya Certificate of Primary Education (KCPE), but opportunities are highly competitive. Slim prospects of work and university often result in the de-prioritization of secondary education.⁶⁵ In addition to barriers such as indirect and direct costs of education, the low primary enrollment rate in Mombasa may be explained by a preference among Mombasa-based refugees, who are mainly Somalis, to send children to faith-based schools (such as *madaris*).⁶⁶ In Nairobi, Madaris are also attended by Ethiopian or Somali children. These children may not attend formal schooling due to social-cultural reasons and the associated costs.⁶⁷

⁶⁴ UNHCR-Kenya operation.

⁶⁵ UNHCR-Kenya operation.

⁶⁶ *Madaris* is plural for *madrasa*, the Arabic word for school.

⁶⁷ Pavanello, Elhawary, and Pantuliano, "Hidden and Exposed: Urban Refugees in Nairobi, Kenya."

Figure B-11: Primary net (NER) and gross (GER) enrollment rates of refugees, during COVID-19 lockdown

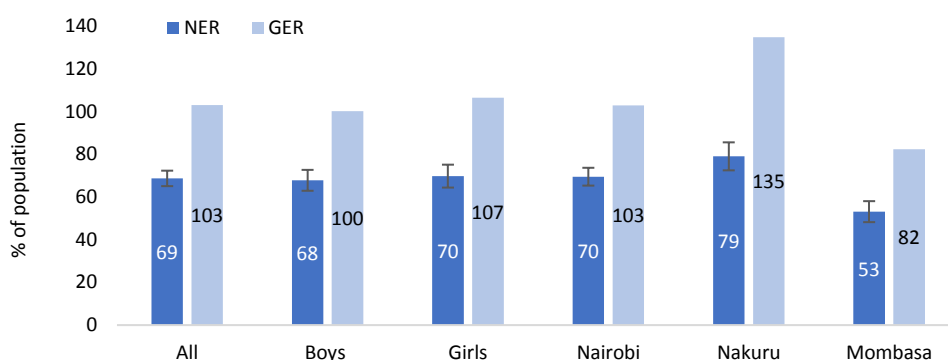
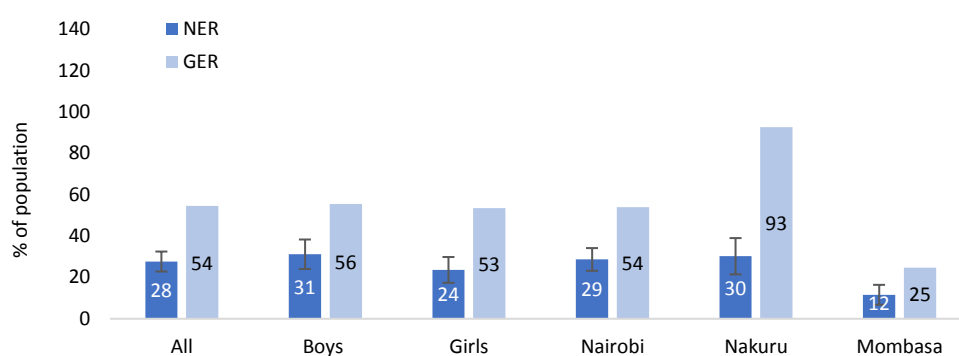


Figure B-12: Secondary net (NER) and gross (GER) enrollment rates of refugees, during COVID-19 lockdown



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Note: Comparable statistics for host community members are not available.

II. Food security

In 60 percent of households, urban refugees face high levels of food insecurity, with Nakuru refugees being the most likely to be highly food insecure.⁶⁸

19. Food insecurity is measured by using the WFP livelihoods-based and consumption-based coping strategies indexes. The Livelihoods-Based Coping Strategies Index (LCSI) assesses the longer-term coping and productive capacity of households in the presence of food shortages and strategies commonly undertaken to address them in the last 30 days. These can include selling assets or livestock, reducing spending on health and education, using savings, and begging. The LCSI classifies households as using stress, crisis or emergency coping strategies to deal with food insecurity. The consumption-based or reduced Coping Strategy Index (rCSI) measures the level of stress faced by a household due to a food shortage by assessing the frequency of adoption of five coping mechanisms, and their severity. Strategies include reducing meals, eating less preferred foods, and limiting adult food intake for children to eat. The rCSI module inquires if in the last seven days, strategies were used to cope with lack of food.⁶⁹ The rCSI categorizes households as being in a situation of high, medium or low food insecurity. Consumption-based strategies are more severe than livelihoods-based ones. This section focuses mainly on the rCSI while results for the LCSI are presented in Annex VII.g.

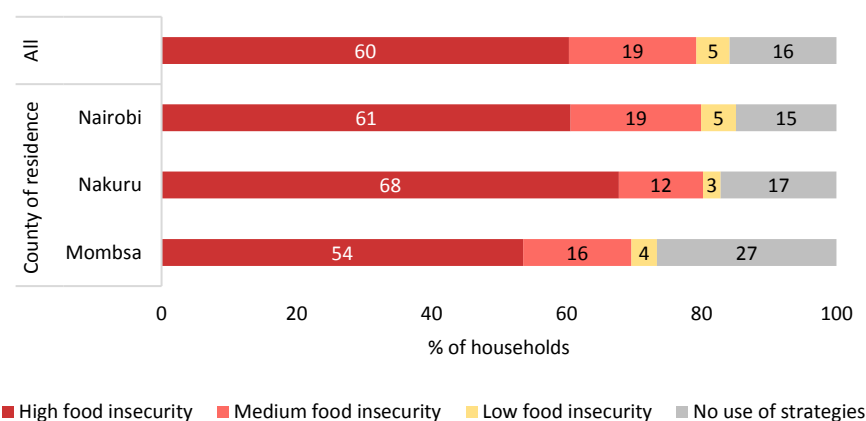
⁶⁸ Comparable data on food security are not available for nationals. Only refugee data is presented.

⁶⁹ WFP. 2019. "Cameroon: Emergency Food Security Assessment (EFSA) January 2019."

20. In Kenya, food insecurity is a threat for hosts and refugees with COVID-19 having exacerbated this already difficult situation. Food security defines a situation in which all people at all times have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe, and nutritious food, which meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life.⁷⁰ At least 4 million Kenyans are severely food insecure. The current food security problems in Kenya derive from multiple factors. These include droughts, high costs of domestic food production due to high costs of inputs (mainly fertilizer), and low purchasing power of consumers. In urban areas, however, nationals are less likely to face high levels of food insecurity than in rural areas, although the COVID-19 pandemic might have increased food insecurity levels. Generally, national households headed by women are more likely to face food insecurity.⁷¹

21. Refugees face high levels of food insecurity, especially in Nakuru. 84 percent of households used consumption-based strategies to cope with the lack of food. Most of them ate less preferred foods (80 percent). In 34 percent of households, refugees implemented the most severe strategy: restrict adult consumption for children to eat. Nakuru refugee households are the most likely to face high levels of food insecurity (68 percent) which is striking as most households in Nakuru have high dependency ratios reflecting young refugees are at risk of malnutrition (Figure B-13 **Error! Reference source not found.**). Women-headed households are more likely to be food insecure than men-headed households. Food insecurity is negatively associated with the number of persons employed in a household. An additional employed member in a household decreases the household chance of being highly food insecure by 4 percentage points (Table D-5). Food insecurity levels may have increased partly due to the socioeconomic impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Figure B-13: Food insecurity level, consumption-based strategies (rCSI) among refugees



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Note: Comparable statistics for host community members are not available

III. Employment during COVID-19 lockdown

Only 42 percent of refugees are employed, with the lowest employment rates among women and Nakuru-based refugees. Wage employment in the formal and/or informal sector is the most common activity. Most refugees who are outside the labor force consider that limited

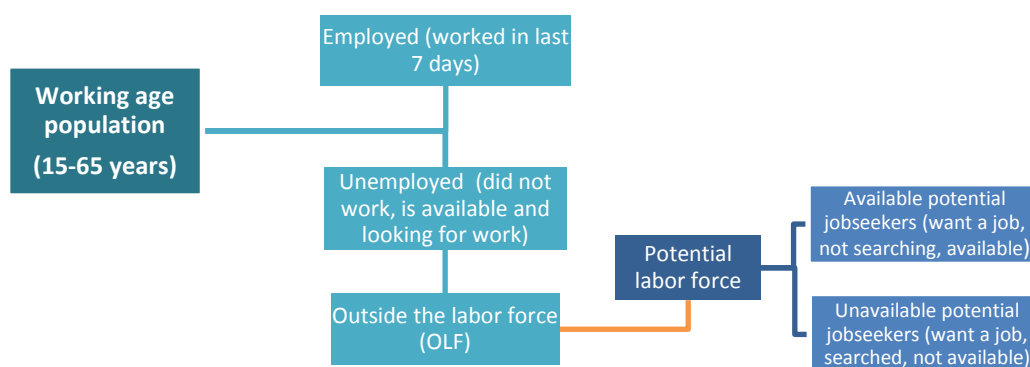
⁷⁰ FAO. 1996. "Rome Declaration on World Food Security and World Food Summit Plan of Action."

⁷¹ WFP. 2016. "Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Analysis (CFSVA) Kenya 2016." As of 2021, less than 10 percent of the population faced food insecurity in Nairobi, Nakuru, and Mombasa.

*employment opportunities and inadequate skills are the main obstacles to secure employment.*⁷²

22. The ILO labor force framework is used to understand employment dynamics of urban refugees. The working-age population (15–64 years) is classified into three categories according to their labor force status. A person is (i) in employment if they are engaged in any activity to produce goods or provide services for pay or profit, or only temporarily absent from such an activity.⁷³ Those who are not employed are either (ii) in unemployment, they recently carried out activities to seek employment and are available to take up employment given a job opportunity, or (iii) are outside the labor force (OLF) if they do not fulfill these criteria (Figure B-14). The categorization of labor force status refers to the seven days preceding the interview and are mutually exclusive and exhaustive. Within those OLF, the potential labor force is defined as all persons of working age who: (i) recently carried out activities to seek employment but are not currently available to start work (unavailable jobseekers); or (ii) did not carry out activities to seek employment but want employment and are currently available (available potential jobseekers).⁷⁴

Figure B-14: Labor force classification



Source: ILO 2013.

23. Even though refugees have the right to work in Kenya, they face practical restrictions. The 2006 Refugee Act stipulates that refugees can work if they have a ‘Class M’ work permit issued by the Ministry of Interior. Applications for permits need a recommendation from a prospective employer and must be accompanied by a letter from the RAS confirming refugee status.⁷⁵ While refugees are legally allowed to work, it is reportedly much more difficult given that work permits for asylum seekers or refugees are very rarely issued.⁷⁶ Refugees living in Nairobi are able to acquire business license from the City Council to start their business. However, the lack of capital or credit hinders refugees from obtaining this license. Limitations to freedom of movement also affect opportunities to engage in the labor market. While refugees in urban centers may be able to move more freely than camp-based refugees, freedom of movement for urban refugees has been significantly restricted by the 2012 Kenyan government relocation directive and the 2014 encampment directive.⁷⁷ Movement

⁷² Comparable statistics are not available for host community members. Only refugee data is presented.

⁷³ In this report, we have considered ‘employed’ those who have carried out activities.

⁷⁴ ILO. 2019. “ILO Glossary of Statistical Terms”; ILO. 2013. “Resolution Concerning Statistics of Work, Employment and Labour Underutilization. International Conference of Labour Statisticians.”

⁷⁵ Zetter and Ruadel. 2016. “KNOMAD Study Part-II Refugees’ Right to Work—An Assessment.”

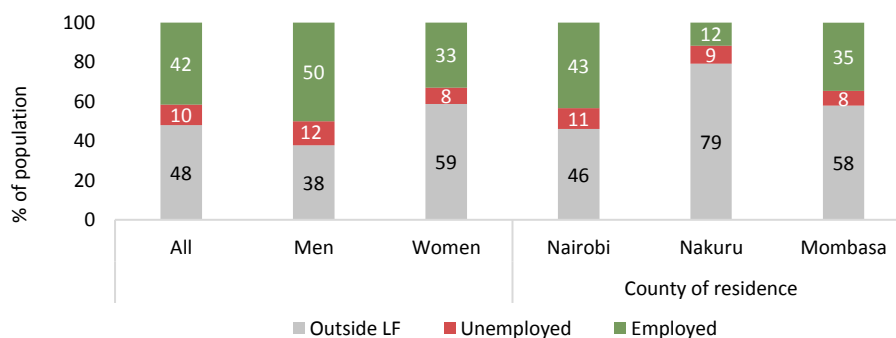
⁷⁶ Refugee Consortium of Kenya. 2012. “Asylum Under Threat. Assessing the Protection of Somali Refugees in Dadaab Refugee Camps and along the Migration Corridor.”

⁷⁷ O’Callaghan and Sturge, “Against the Odds: Refugee Integration in Kenya.”

restrictions and the obstacles faced in obtaining work permits and business licenses fundamentally curtail refugees' ability to work and generate income, undermining self-reliance.

24. Some 42 percent of working age refugees are employed, with women and Nakuru-based refugees being the least likely to be employed. Refugee women, as well as those who are heads of household are less likely to be employed than men. Importantly, women heads are more likely to be employed than women who do not head households ($p < 0.01$). Refugees in Nakuru are the least likely to be employed and the most likely to be outside the LF (Figure B-15). Importantly, Nakuru refugee households and households headed by women are the most likely to not have any working age member who is employed.⁷⁸ Low employment rates in Nakuru are alarming as these households have the highest dependency ratios and are mostly headed by women. The lower employment rates among women may be influenced by gender-based and cultural norms that refrain women from engaging in economic activities while prioritizing non-paid care and domestic work. This reflects that woman heading households in Nakuru face a particularly difficult situation as even though they need to provide for their dependents many of them are OLF or unemployed.

Figure B-15: Labor force status of refugees, during COVID-19 lockdown



Source: *Urban SES (2020-21)*.

Note: Comparable statistics for host community members are not available.

25. Wage employment in the formal and/or informal sector, is the most common activity among urban refugees.⁷⁹ Most employed refugees work as paid employees in the formal or informal sector with men being more likely to do so. Women are more likely than men to be self-employed in non-agricultural businesses. This may be partly explained by the flexibility that self-employment allows as it enables women to combine paid work with domestic and care responsibilities (Figure B-16). However, self-employment compared to wage employment, is a more vulnerable form of work. This form of work is more likely to be affected and have wide reaching effects during economic downturns such as the one resulting from the COVID-19 pandemic. Preceding research has shown that most refugees who have access to work are engaged in the informal economy and tend to participate in the sectors that have been hardest hit by the pandemic.^{80,81} Casual labor and petty trade are common. Several Somali refugees in Eastleigh have roadside stands where they sell fabrics, undergarments, fruit, and vegetables, among others. Many sell mira'a or khat, a herbal stimulant.

⁷⁸ In 35 percent of men-headed households and 46 percent of women-headed households any working age member is employed (37 percent Nairobi, 78 percent Nakuru and 50 percent Mombasa).

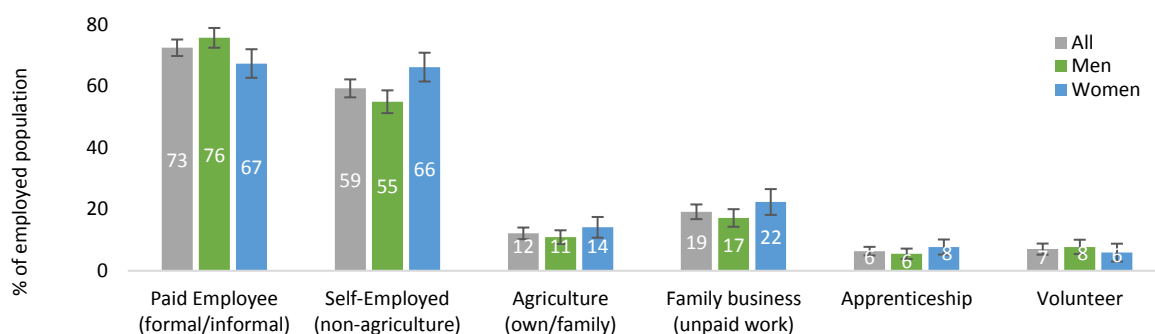
⁷⁹ The SES covers participation in the formal and informal sectors and does not differentiate between both sectors.

⁸⁰ Pavanello, Elhawary, and Pantuliano, "Hidden and Exposed: Urban Refugees in Nairobi, Kenya."

⁸¹ Peyton, "Refugees Working in Shops and Cafes Have Been Hit Hardest by Coronavirus." Refugees are disproportionately represented in the sectors that have been hardest hit by the pandemic, such as food services, manufacturing and retail.

Some refugees are involved in small businesses such as kiosks, restaurants, driving taxis and matatus and running hairdressing salons which are common among Congolese and Ethiopian refugees.⁸² Women mainly engage in petty trade, domestic labor, tea and coffee making.⁸³

Figure B-16: Type of work in last seven days among employed refugees



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Note: Percentages do not sum up to 100 since refugees may have engaged in more than one activity.

26. Most refugees who are OLF did not search for work mainly due to studies, lack of jobs and homemaking responsibilities; the skills perceived to be needed to secure employment are mainly small business management skills. About 89 percent of refugees OLF did not search for work. Reasons varied greatly by gender. Among men, studies are the most important reason for not having searched for work. Homemaking and childcare problems were important reasons mentioned almost exclusively by women (Figure B-17). Refugees, especially women, are interested in strengthening their small business management skills which may be partly explained by the timetable flexibility that entrepreneurship can offer (Figure B-18). Importantly, women often lack access to capital or credit to acquire business licenses and have to rely on men to borrow cash and/or material on their behalf.⁸⁴ Among men, driving and IT (information technology) are important skills that are perceived to be needed to secure a job. Relatedly, 44 percent of refugees report to be proficient in using the internet (55 percent men, 32 percent women) while 25 percent know how to use a computer (34 percent men, 15 percent women).

⁸² Campbell, "Urban Refugees in Nairobi: Problems of Protection, Mechanisms of Survival, and Possibilities for Integration."

⁸³ RCK, "Enhancing the Protection of Refugee Women in Nairobi. A Survey on Risks Protection Gaps and Coping Mechanisms of Refugee Women in Urban Areas."

⁸⁴ Pavanello, Elhawary, and Pantuliano, "Hidden and Exposed: Urban Refugees in Nairobi, Kenya."

Figure B-17: Reasons for not searching for work by gender, among refugees OLF

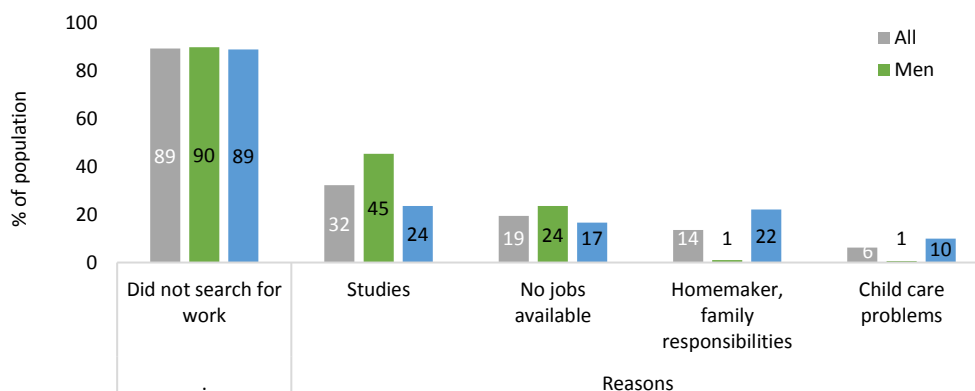
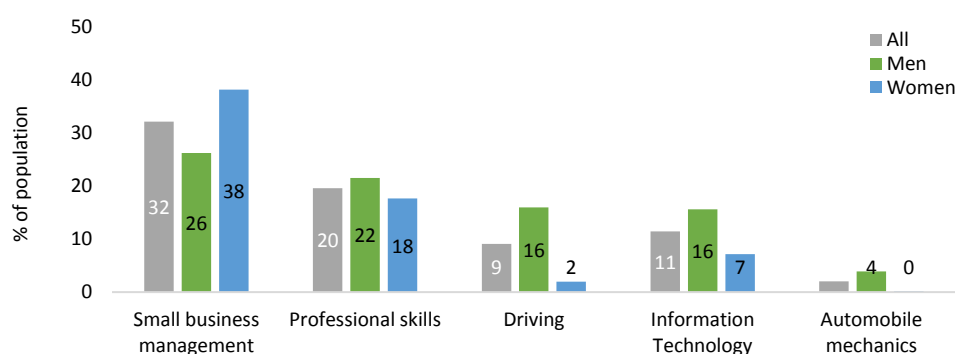


Figure B-18: Main skills perceived to be needed to secure employment, refugees



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

27. Among those OLF the main obstacles to secure employment are, limited job opportunities and inadequate skills, the main support needed include loans or credit and securing documentation. The main obstacles to secure employment among those OLF (Figure B-15), vary for refugees who are interested in wage work or in self-employment. Those who are interested in wage work report that the main obstacle to secure a job is lack of job opportunities (Figure B-19). Among those interested in self-employment access to expansion capital is the main obstacles. Lack of or inadequate skills is a key obstacle for those interested in wage work and in self-employment. The main support needed also varies depending on refugees' interest in wage work or in self-employment (Figure B-20). Among those interested in wage work the main support needed is securing a work permit. For those interested in self-employment, loans, credit, and business training are the main types of support needed.

Figure B-19: Main obstacles to secure employment by interest in self-employment or wage work, refugees

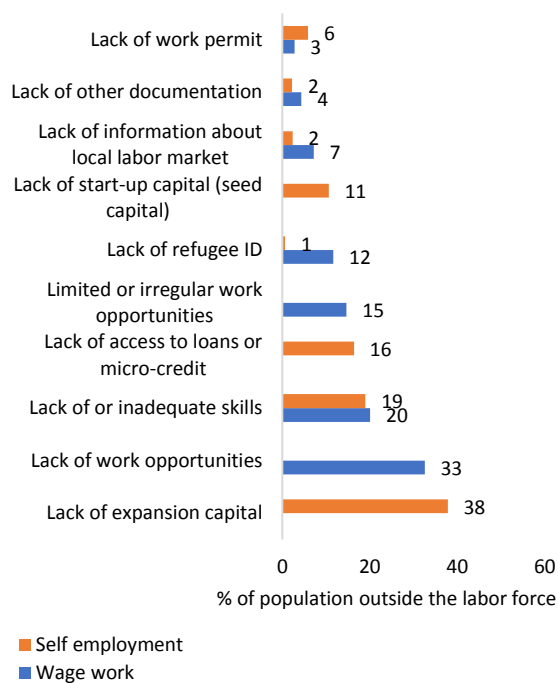
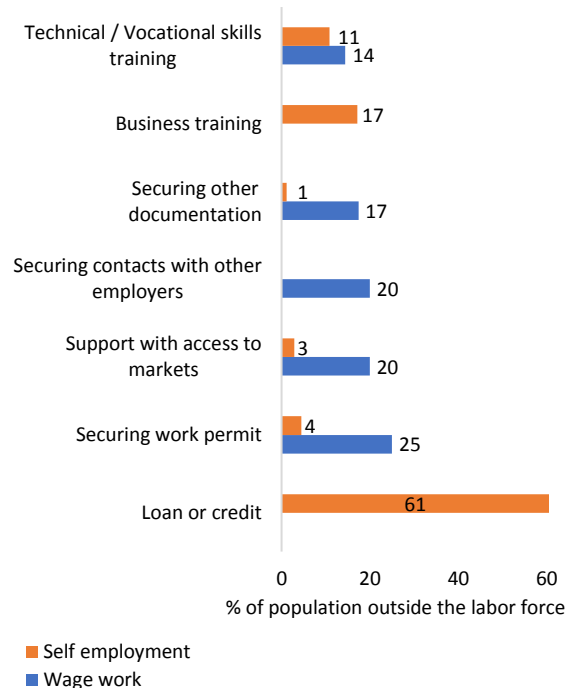


Figure B-20: Main support needed to secure employment, interest in self-employment or wage work, refugees



Source: Kenya Covid-19 Rapid Response Phone Survey, round 5.⁸⁵

Note: more details in online dashboard: www.kenyacovidtracker.org.

IV. Access to finance and remittances

Mobile banking ownership is higher than bank accounts ownership while access to formal sources of loans is low. Refugee households whose heads have been displaced for longer are more likely to have received remittances in the last year.⁸⁶

28. Ownership of bank accounts is lower than mobile banking while formal sources of loans are barely used. Refugees in Nairobi are more likely than refugees in other counties to own a bank account (Figure B-21). In 98 percent of households where refugees own a bank account, such an account is individually owned. In turn, mobile banking accounts are more likely to be shared. In 20 percent of households where refugees own a mobile banking account such an account is shared, 15 percent of such accounts are shared with a Kenyan while 5 percent are shared with a refugee. The most widely used bank services is Equity Bank (42 percent). Despite documentation requirements to buy a SIM card in Kenya, most refugee households own a mobile banking account with men headed households being more likely to own one. Only 4 in 10 households reported access to loans with family and relatives being the most common source, while formal financing and community savings are barely used (Figure B-22).

⁸⁵ As the Urban SES did not cover information on obstacles and support needed to secure employment, the Kenya Covid-19 Rapid Response Phone Survey (RRPS)-Round 5 data was used to complement the employment findings for urban refugees in Nairobi, Nakuru and Mombasa. The RRPS-round 5 was collected in April-May 2021 while the Urban SES data was collected in November-December 2020.

⁸⁶ Comparable data on bank account ownership and loans is not available for nationals. Only refugee data is presented.

Figure B-21: Bank account and mobile banking ownership among refugees

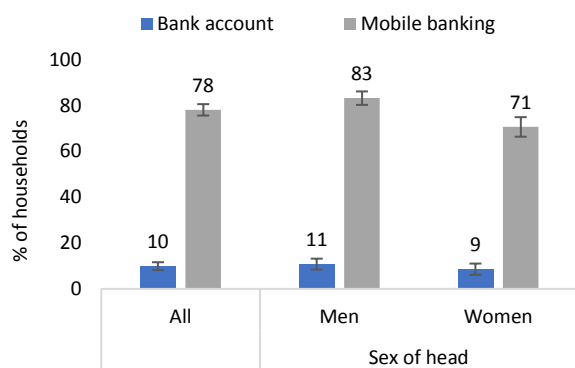
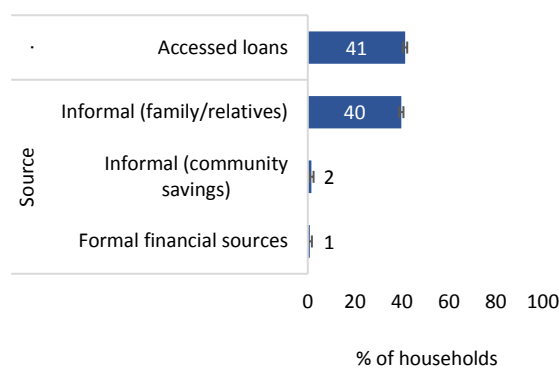


Figure B-22: Access to loans in last 12 months and main sources among refugees



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Note: Comparable statistics for host community members are not available.

29. **Refugee households whose heads have been displaced for longer are more likely to have family members resettled to high-income countries and to have received remittances in the last year.** Refugee households whose heads arrived before 2008 are more likely to have nuclear family members and relatives or friends resettled to high-income countries than those who arrived in 2015 (Figure B-23), and are also the most likely to have received remittances in the year preceding the interview (Figure B-24). Refugees displaced for longer generally have more opportunities to be considered under annual quotas of resettlement programs, which could explain why their relatives who remained receive more remittals.

Figure B-23: Refugee households with nuclear family members and relative resettled to high-income countries

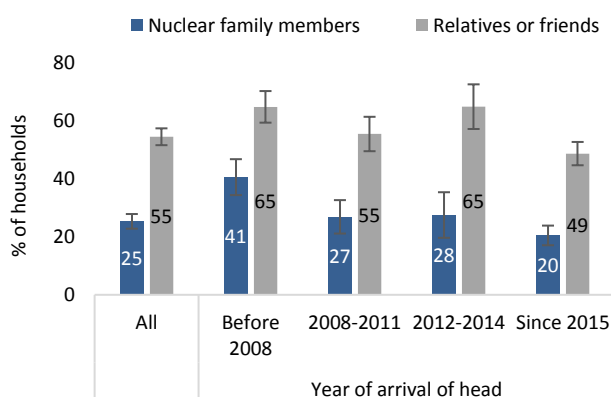
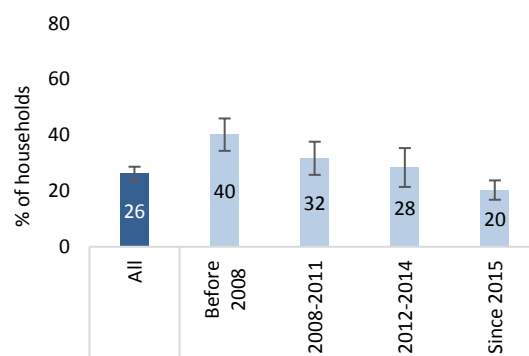


Figure B-24: Refugee households that received remittances in the last 12 months



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Note: Comparable statistics for host community members are not available.

V. Social cohesion

Perceptions of trust, safety, and participation are generally positive. Refugees who recently interacted with a host community member tend to have more positive social cohesion perceptions than those who did not recently interact with hosts.⁸⁷

⁸⁷ Comparable data on social cohesion is not available for nationals. Only refugee data is presented.

30. The concept of social cohesion in the context of displacement is rarely coherently defined and its usage is elastic. Social cohesion is rather a “composite concept that encompasses a range of vectors, including the attitudinal and emotional (e.g., acceptance, empathy, and trust), the collective (for example, identity and propensity for joint action), the institutional and systemic (e.g., political participation), and the socioeconomic vector (e.g., relative deprivation and access to opportunities). Moreover, these vectors run both horizontally (between persons and groups) and vertically (between persons, communities, and institutions).”⁸⁸ In sociological terms social cohesion refers to “the extent to which there are bonds within a group or society, which foster trust among strangers, willingness to cooperate, and confidence in institutions.”⁸⁹ In contexts affected by fragility, conflict and violence (FCV), social cohesion focuses on intergroup perceptions and interactions.

31. Refugees’ perceptions of social cohesion are generally positive although negative regarding perceived consideration of refugees’ opinions for decision making, and safety at night. Perceptions of participation tend to be worse than those for other dimensions of social cohesion (Figure B-25). Nearly 7 in 10 refugees feel that the Kenyan political system does not allow refugees to have a say in what the government does. However, they tend to have a more positive perception about their ability to express their opinion through the community leadership structure. Perceptions of safety at night and crime are generally negative. Notably, perceptions of trust in both neighbors and the host community tend to be positive.

32. Perceptions of trust and participation vary between refugees who did and did not recently interact with host community members. Refugees who interacted with a host community member in the 7 days preceding the interview more often agree that the host community is trustworthy than those who did not recently interact (Figure B-26). Similarly, refugees who recently interacted with hosts, report to feel comfortable with their children socializing with host community children and tend to have a more positive perception about their ability to express their opinion through the community leadership structure than refugees who did not recently interact with hosts. Social cohesion is being stretched thin during the COVID-19 pandemic with riots, political and mob violence having increased substantially, especially in fragile and conflict-affected contexts.⁹⁰ Further, social cohesion and interactions have critical consequences for integration efforts.⁹¹ Hence, exploring interactions between groups and how they shape perceptions of trust, safety and participation is key to inform social cohesion programs which can help face the adverse social consequences of the pandemic.⁹²

⁸⁸ De Berry and Roberts. 2018. “Social Cohesion and Forced Displacement,” 27.

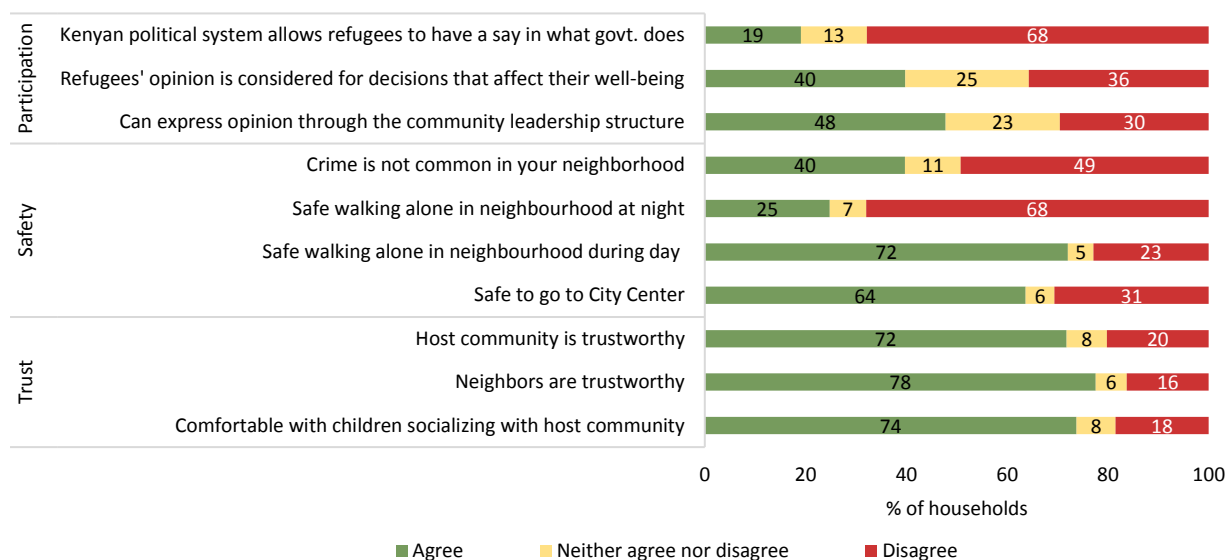
⁸⁹ Rodgers. 2020. “What Does ‘Social Cohesion’ Mean for Refugees and Hosts? A View from Kenya.”

⁹⁰ UNDP, “Development Futures Series.”

⁹¹ University of Groningen, *Integration despite Isolation*.

⁹² Miller, “Social Cohesion Has Helped Communities Cope Better during Covid-19.”

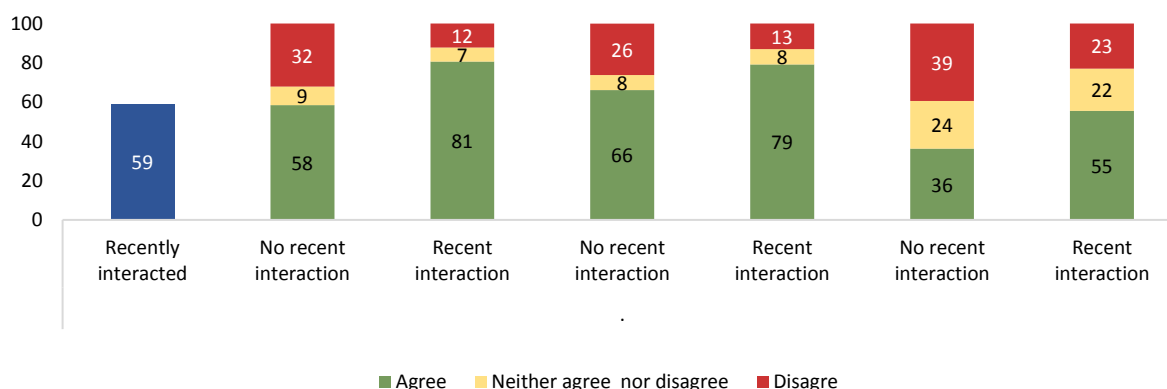
Figure B-25: Perception of trust, safety, and participation among refugees



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Note: Comparable statistics for host community members are not available.

Figure B-26: Refugees' perception of social cohesion by recent interaction (7 days preceding the interview)



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

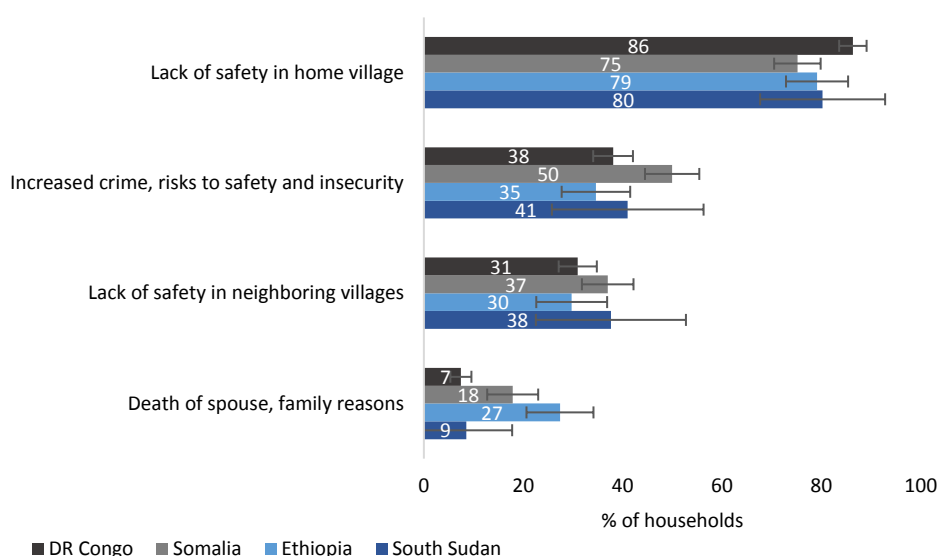
Note: Comparable statistics for host community members are not available.

VI. Trajectories of displacement and intentions to move

Most refugees fled conflict and violence and most of them wish to leave Kenya.

33. Security concerns are the main reasons for refugees to have fled which coincide with the most important reasons for not wanting to return to their country of origin. 8 in 10 refugee households fled due to lack of safety in their home villages, with DR Congolese households being the most likely to have fled due to such a reason (Figure B-27). Increased crime, safety risks and insecurity were the second most common reasons for having fled (40 percent). Somali households are the most likely to have fled due to said reasons (50 percent).

Figure B-27: Main reason for having fled, refugees



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

34. Most refugee households plan to leave Kenya at some point in time, less than 1 percent wish to return to their countries of origin and 14 percent need information to guide their movement choices. About 93 percent of refugee households wish to leave Kenya, less than 1 percent of whom wish to return to their country of origin while the rest wish to move to another area.⁹³ Armed conflict is the most common reason for not wanting to return for DR Congolese and South Sudanese households. Ethiopian households are more likely to not want to return mainly due to fear of ethnic, political, and religious discrimination. With the continuation of conflict in main countries of origin, it is not surprising to note that most refugees do not want to return due to security reasons (Figure B-B-29; Overview of conflict events in Appendix III). Despite these ambitions of wanting to leave Kenya at some point in time, the average refugee in urban Kenya has resided in Kenya for 7 years. About 73 percent of households who wish to move to another area would go to North America while 11 percent would go to Europe. In 14 percent of households (Nairobi 15 percent, Nakuru 8 percent, Mombasa 9 percent), refugees do not have enough information to guide their decisions to move or stay in Kenya. Security information is the most critically needed by those who report not to have enough information to guide their mobility plans (Figure B-28).

⁹³ When asked about plans for the foreseeable future, 96 percent of refugees reported to want to seek a solution in a third country, 4 percent would stay in urban area in Kenya, and only 0.1 percent would move to a refugee camp.

Figure B-28: Plans to leave and most needed information to guide mobility plans, refugees

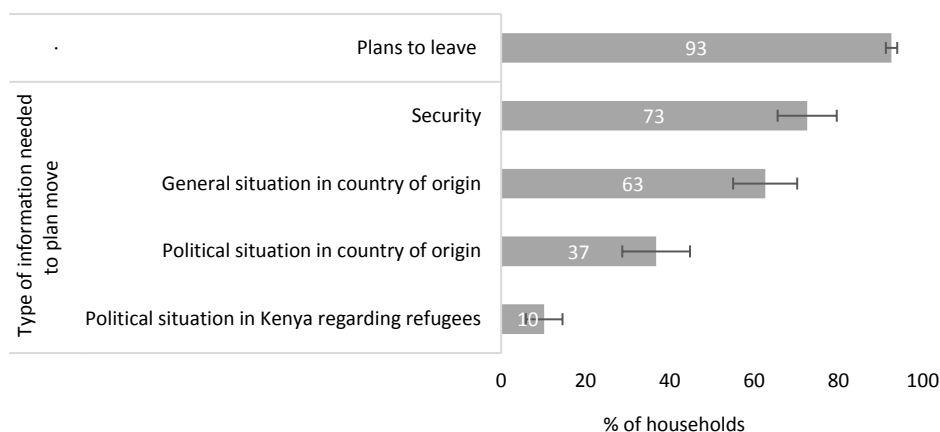
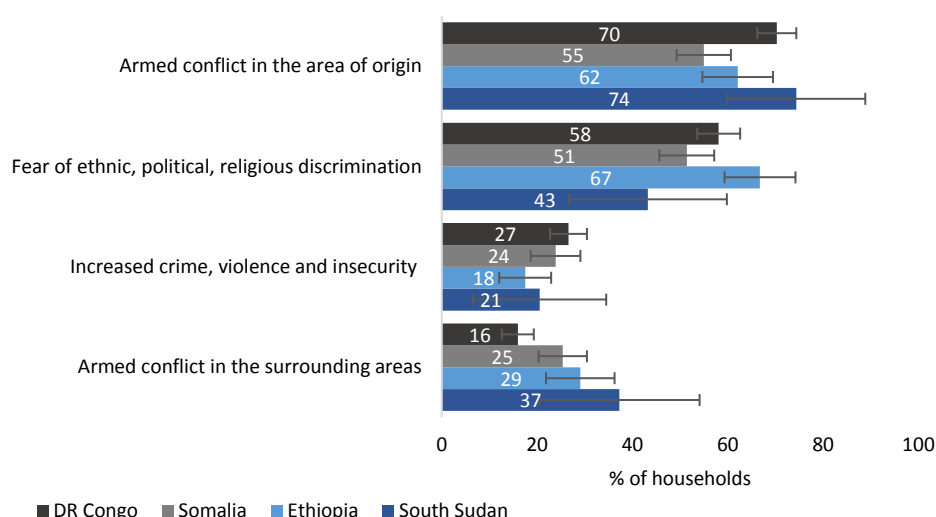


Figure B-B-29: Main reasons for not wanting to return, refugees



VII. Conclusions

35. Refugees are younger than hosts, their households are more likely to be headed by women and have higher dependency ratios than host households. Most of the urban refugee and host community populations are above 18 years old (55 percent of refugees and 68 percent of hosts; Figure D-3) with refugees being younger than hosts, mainly in Nakuru (Figure B-3). Most refugee and host community households are headed by men except for refugees in Nakuru, with dependency ratios being higher among refugee households, mainly women headed ones.

36. While food insecurity is alarmingly high among refugees, their employment rates are also very low. About 60 percent of urban refugee households are highly food insecure, more common among households with fewer employed members (Figure B-13). Only 42 percent of working age refugees are employed. Urban refugees are more likely to be employed as wage workers (73 percent) and self-employed (59 percent). Strengthening refugees' job and entrepreneurial skills, broadening job markets and access to financial services, and easing documentation procedures for wage employment can support livelihood opportunities, while contributing to a decrease in food insecurity.

37. Most refugee and host community households have access to improved housing, water, and sanitation services, while overcrowding is more common among refugee households. Most urban refugee and host community households have access to improved housing. Overcrowding is most common among refugee households, especially those headed by women. Overcrowding is linked with a higher risk of mental distress and increased risk of Sexual and Gender-Based Violence (SGBV). Refugees have better access to improved sources of water than hosts, although 72 percent of refugee households reported insufficient water supply in the month preceding the interview (Figure B-9). In Mombasa, access to improved drinking water is low for both communities but, alarmingly low for hosts.⁹⁴ In contrast, access to improved sanitation is better for hosts. Increasing investment through partnerships between humanitarian and development to support integrated water, sanitation and hygiene delivery can improve access to improved water and sanitation. 26 percent of refugee households compared to 10 percent of host community households, mainly those headed by women, use biomass (charcoal or firewood) for cooking. Thus, expanding access to non-biomass fuel can improve the living standards of refugees and their hosts.

38. Women refugees have lower educational attainment and employment rates than men. Women refugees tend to have lower secondary enrollment rates than men, especially in Mombasa (Figure B-12). Similarly, women refugees' employment rates are lower than those of men, with those employed participating in lower earning sectors compared to those in which men participate (Figure B-15). Women refugees are also less likely to have access to financial services than men which severely impacts their capacity to start and grow businesses (Figure B-21). Understanding the differences in refugees' and hosts' living conditions according to gender can help inform targeted responses to sustainably improve their socioeconomic opportunities by considering gender norms and restrictions.

39. Nakuru-based refugees, who are mostly South-Sudanese and whose households are mainly headed by women experience particularly vulnerable conditions. Worldwide, 80 percent of the South Sudanese refugee population are women and children, while 63 percent of them are under age 18.⁹⁵ Conflict and generalized violence in South Sudan have forced hundreds of women to become the sole breadwinners for their families, with some of them having entered the labor market for the first time in their lives.⁹⁶ In urban Kenya, South Sudanese refugee households headed by women mimic some international trends.⁹⁷ South Sudanese refugee households are mainly based in Nakuru and are the most likely to be headed by women (Figure B-4; Figure B-5). Nakuru's population is the youngest overall, 55 percent of them is 18 years old or below, and they have the highest dependency ratios. Food insecurity levels are also the highest among Nakuru-based refugees (82 percent), reflecting the high vulnerability in which refugee women and their dependents live (**Error! Reference source not found.**). The higher incidence of food insecurity among women-headed households in Nakuru exacerbates their existing vulnerabilities and may increase the risk of using other negative coping strategies, such as exchanging food for gender and abandoning children, while it can also result in children's malnutrition and stunting. Nakuru refugees also have the lowest employment rates (12 percent, 6 percent women, vs. 21 percent men; Figure D-20). Evidently, refugee women-headed

⁹⁴ 76 percent of refugee households have access to improved drinking water compared to 17 percent of host community households.

⁹⁵ USA for UNHCR. 2020. "South Sudan Refugee Crisis."

⁹⁶ USA for UNHCR. 2019. "South Sudan Refugee Crisis Explained." Many South Sudanese men—often husbands and fathers—are either staying behind to work or fight, or are missing or presumed dead.

⁹⁷ Similar trends are noticed in Kakuma camp and Kalobeyei settlement. UNHCR and World Bank, "Understanding the Socioeconomic Conditions of Refugees in Kenya. Volume A: Kalobeyei Settlement"; UNHCR and World Bank, "Understanding the Socioeconomic Conditions of Refugees in Kenya. Volume B: Kakuma Camp."

households in Nakuru, as well as women members of households headed by men, need support to be able to provide for and take care of their dependents, as well as to support household expenses and control their earnings, strengthen their bargaining power, and secure their self-reliance.

Table 3: Findings and policy recommendations summary

Finding	Policy recommendation
<i>Short-term priorities</i>	
Food insecurity is high with 60 percent of households being highly food insecure. Households headed by unemployed refugees are more likely to cope with the lack of food by using severe livelihoods-based strategies which deplete assets and risk human capital, than those headed by employed refugees	Livelihoods-based interventions can help refugees secure adequate and sustainable income while contributing to the reduction of food insecurity. Targeting food security programs for households with children can help protect human capital. Mobile cash transfers can be a cost-effective instrument in urban settings to mitigate food insecurity.
Access to improved drinking water is higher among urban refugee households (91 percent) than among hosts (71 percent), with 72 percent of refugee households reporting insufficient drinking water in the last month. Access to improved sanitation is high for both refugees and hosts (84 percent refugees, vs. 99 percent hosts), with shared toilets being common among refugees (68 percent).	Improving and providing adequate water and sanitation services is key to improve health outcomes. Ensuring 20 liters of water per person per day and enhancing the quality of sanitation services can result in improved health outcomes for refugees and hosts. Increased investment through partnerships between humanitarian and development actors, governments, and the private sector to support integrated water, sanitation and hygiene service delivery can help boost access to these services.
37 percent of refugee households are overcrowded compared to 19 percent of host community households. 26 percent of refugee households compared to 10 percent of host community households, mainly those headed by women, use biomass (charcoal or firewood) for cooking.	Expanding access to adequate housing and non-biomass fuels and can help raise urban refugees' and hosts' living standards. Increasing funding for national housing programs to ensure host's housing needs are adequately addressed while including refugee communities can be key to help reduce overcrowding. Subsidizing improved biomass and non-biomass fuels while easing access to them can help prevent negative health impacts for women and children.
Nakuru-based refugees face particularly vulnerable conditions. They are the youngest overall (55 percent of them is 18 years old or below), they are mostly South Sudanese, their households are mostly headed by women and have the highest dependency ratios. Food insecurity levels are also the highest among Nakuru-based refugees (82 percent). Nakuru refugees also have the lowest employment rates (12 percent, 6 percent women, vs. 21 percent men).	Supporting Nakuru refugees and hosts' participation in the paid labor market and enhancing their food security can help maintain human capital. Such efforts can also help lessen the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic through strengthened self-reliance and resilience to shocks. Further research can provide a deeper understanding regarding socioeconomic barriers and how to overcome them through gender-responsive solutions.
<i>Medium-term priorities</i>	
Only 42 percent of working age refugees are employed, mainly as wage workers (73 percent) and self-employed (59 percent). The skills perceived to be needed to secure employment are mainly small business management skills. The main support needed among those outside the labor force and interested in self-employment is access to loans and business training, while among those interested in wage work it is access to documentation, and training.	Strengthening refugees' job- and entrepreneurial skills, broadening access to financial services, and easing documentation procedures for wage employment, can support sustainable livelihoods. Multi-stakeholder collaborations can be essential to enable the creation of markets and job opportunities.
Refugees' primary and secondary school net enrollment rates (NER) are low (primary 69 percent,	Increasing primary school attendance and supporting transition to secondary school can help develop

<p>68 percent boys and 70 percent girls; and secondary 28 percent, 31 percent boys and 24 percent girls). Refugees' main barrier to access education is the cost of transport, books, uniforms, lack of birth certificate and other indirect costs.</p>	<p>transferable skills and expand socioeconomic opportunities. Inclusion of refugees into the national education system would be critical to expanding access to equitable and sustainable educational opportunities. Identifying schools in areas with high densities of refugees while providing support for rehabilitation, equipment and building their capacity in terms of management and teachers' skills can be key in increasing attendance. A deeper understanding of the bottlenecks that hinder enrolment is needed. Strengthening systems of recognition of prior learning can ease access to education. Financial incentives, information campaigns, girls' and women's education programs can also help lift attendance.</p>
<p>Refugees who recently interacted with a host community member tend to have more positive perceptions of social cohesion than those who did not. Refugees' social cohesion perceptions are generally positive although negative regarding perceived consideration of their opinions for decision making.</p>	<p>Fostering interactions between refugees and hosts can be key to improve perceptions of social cohesion. Raising the voice and concerns of refugees through community leadership structures can also help improve social cohesion.</p>
<p>About 93 percent of refugee households wish to leave Kenya, less than 1 percent wish to return while the rest wish to stay. In 86 percent of households, refugees needed information to guide their movement choices.</p>	<p>Continuing existing efforts to inform refugees about resettlement, repatriation and integration options will remain important.</p>

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D. APPENDICES

I. Definitions

VRX, Verification Registration Exercise: UNHCR update and verification of refugee registrations into the Profile Global Registration System (proGres) data set.

ProGres family: defined upon registration. The VRX classifies individuals into proGres families, which are groups of people who “live together and identify as a family and for whom a relationship of either social, emotional, or economic dependency is assumed.”⁹⁸

Household: This definition is aligned with what is used by the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) and was adapted to the refugee context. According to the KNBS 2015/16 Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey (KIHBS), households are groups of people who are living together, have a common household head, and share “a common source of food and/or income as a single unit in the sense that they have common housekeeping arrangements [. . .]”. Based on the KNBS definition of a household, as well as on the feedback from the field testing carried out before the data collection, the household definition adopted for this survey is: *a set of related or unrelated people (either sharing the same dwelling or not) who pool ration cards and regularly cook and eat together.*

Household head: the household member who makes the key day-to-day decisions for the household. His/her headship must be accepted by all the members of the household.

⁹⁸ UNHCR, “Implementing Registration within an Identity Management Framework.”

II. Refugee identification documents

Type of document	Purpose of document	Validity	Authority that issues document
Alien card	Identity card that includes a notation (either in the card's title or elsewhere) to indicate the holder is a refugee. Since 2006 they have been formally called "refugee identity cards" in Kenyan legislation. Depending on where and when the card was issued, its title could be "refugee identity card," "refugee certificate," "refugee certification," or "alien certificate." They can be renewed.	5 years	Government
Waiting card	Document, or appointment slip could refer to any number of documents. These documents usually indicate that the holder is waiting for a document, such as an alien card, that they are entitled to (but it may not state this is the case) or has an appointment for an interview as part of the RSD process. These are common documents that vary significantly in form. Some refugees may have received multiple waiting documents, issued one after the other.		DRA/RAS or UNHCR.
Movement pass	Document that requires a refugee to move from an urban area to a camp within 10 days. It is also the name used for the document DRA/RAS issues to camp-based refugees that gives them permission to leave the camp on a temporary basis.		DRA/RAS
Proof of registration	Document that lists the members of a family registered in an urban setting. Its camp equivalent is usually referred to as a "manifest" and is very similar in form. Proof of registration documents appear to have been issued by DRA/RAS at various points, including to refugees who took part in the urban verification exercise that was carried out by RAS and UNHCR in 2016/17.		DRA/RAS
Refugee recognition letter (or notification of recognition)	Letter that states the holder has been recognized as a refugee by the government and is waiting for an alien card.	1 year	DRA/RAS
Asylum seeker pass	Document that indicates the holder has been recognized as an asylum seeker by the government.	6 months or 1 year	DRA/RAS

Source: NRC and IHRC (2017).⁹⁹

⁹⁹ NRC and IHRC, "Recognising Nairobi's Refugees : The Challenges and Significance of Documentation Proving Identity and Status."

III. Overview of conflict events in major countries of origin

40. The Democratic Republic of Congo experiences multiple conflicts affecting several parts of its vast territory. Since its constitution as the Democratic Republic of the Congo, previously Zaire (and before that), the DRC has lived in political unrest, conflict and violence. War and conflict between rebels—who have reportedly been supported by different African countries—and the government, continued from 1997 to 2002 when a peace agreement was signed in South Africa between rebel groups and Kinshasa government. Nevertheless, after the peace agreement, the DRC has seen waves of fighting – especially in the Eastern parts of the country. In 2016, a devastating wave of violence affected the DRC’s Kasai region, a vast area in the south and center of the country which has pushed thousands to flee. More than 800,000 DR Congolese live as refugees and asylum-seekers, while more than 5 million of them have been internally displaced.¹⁰⁰

41. In Somalia, clan conflict, violence by armed nonstate actors, and droughts have caused the displacement of nearly 2 million people. Somalia is one of the poorest countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. Since the Siad Barre government collapsed in 1991, the country has experienced successive cycles of conflict, mostly in the south. Somalia has also experienced violent jihadism, as well as conflicts over land, natural resources, pastureland, and economic rents. Furthermore, levels of criminality, interpersonal violence, and gender-based violence are high. Added to conflict and generalized violence, Somalia is extremely vulnerable to climate shocks and has long experienced cyclical droughts, as well as floods, desertification, and land degradation. Violence and environmental hazards have caused the displacement of over 900,000 Somalis in the Horn of Africa and Yemen, while an estimated 2.6 million people are displaced within the country itself.¹⁰¹

42. Clashes between Eritrea and Ethiopia have marked the history of conflict in Ethiopia with Tigray region being the main conflict-affected area. Since 1999, the Ethiopian-Eritrean border tensions turned into a full-scale war. Coupled to that, ethnic clashes against Gambella region's ethnic Anuak exacerbated insecurity conditions. In 2005, Human Rights Watch accused the army of "widespread murder, rape and torture". The same year, election violence erupted while in 2006 Ethiopian troops fought Somali Islamists. In 2015 the victory of the ruling EPRDF in general the election widely sparked criticism by the opposition leading to violent protests that continued up to 2018. In 2018, the war with Eritrea was declared to be over putting an end to 34-year armed rebellion. In November 2020, long-rising tensions between the federal government and the leadership of the northern Tigray region exploded into military confrontation.¹⁰² Many Ethiopians have been displaced due to long-lasting conflict mainly in the northern region.

43. South Sudan has faced war and conflict that has led to mass displacement of over 2 million people. South Sudan is the youngest African country. It gained independence from Sudan in 2011 after years of secessionist war that started in 1955 up to 1972, restarted in 1983 and ended in 2005. South Sudan has faced continuous violence between security forces and rebels, and ethnic clashes, as well as conflict over recently found oil fields since independence. In 2013 a civil war erupted forcing thousands more to flee. In September 2018, a peace deal between the government, opposition, and other parties was signed. However, continued outbreaks of violence render the peace precarious. As a result, more than 2.2 million South Sudanese live as refugees; 63 percent of them are under the age

¹⁰⁰ UNHCR, “DR Congo Emergency”; BBC News, “Democratic Republic of Congo Profile - Timeline”; UNHCR, “Global Trends. Forced Displacement in 2019.”

¹⁰¹ UNHCR, “Somalia”; Federal Government of Somalia et al., “Somalia Drought Impact & Needs Assessment”; UNHCR, “Global Trends. Forced Displacement in 2019.”

¹⁰² Gavin, “The Conflict in Ethiopia’s Tigray Region: What to Know.”

of 18, and 1.3 million have been internally displaced within South Sudan. South Sudanese refugees are hosted in Uganda (39 percent), Sudan (36.5 percent), Ethiopia (15 percent), Kenya (6 percent), and DR Congo (4 percent).¹⁰³

44. Decades of protracted conflicts and human rights violations have been the main drivers of forced displacement in Sudan. Peace in Sudan has been almost nonexistent due to war between north and south Sudan, tensions with Chad, fighting over oil in Abyei, Islamic extremism and sharia law punishments, ethnic clashes, and numerous rebel groups conflicts against the government, as well as protests against the reelection of former Sudan's president Omar al-Bashir who ruled Sudan from 1989 to 2019. Since 2003, conflict has mainly been concentrated in the western part of Sudan, Darfur. Approximately two-thirds of all conflict events in Sudan since 2003 took place in the five Darfuri states.¹⁰⁴ Although Sudan is a host country of refugees mainly from South Sudan, there are nearly 800,000 Sudanese refugees, and an estimated 2.1 million Sudanese have been internally displaced.¹⁰⁵

¹⁰³ World Bank, "Using Micro-Data to Inform Durable Solutions for IDPs"; Africa Union, "Final Report of the African Union Commission of Inquiry on South Sudan and the UN Panel of Experts Report to the UN Security Council"; BBC News, "South Sudan Profile - Timeline"; USA for UNHCR, "South Sudan Refugee Crisis."

¹⁰⁴ "ACLED (Armed Conflict Location and Event Database)." n.d.

¹⁰⁵ UNHCR. 2020. "Global Trends. Forced Displacement in 2019."

IV. Preceding socioeconomic surveys for refugees and host communities in Kenya

Survey ¹⁰⁶	Details
IFC. 2018. Kakuma as a Marketplace. "A Consumer and Market Study of a Refugee Camp and Town in Northwest Kenya.	Consumer and market study, which examines Kakuma camp and town through the lens of a private firm looking to enter a new market. The study comprises four components: an in-depth review of previous studies, a survey of 1,417 households in Kakuma camp and town, interviews with UNHCR and other agencies present in Kakuma, and case studies of private companies already active in the camp or that might be potentially interested in launching operations there. The household survey instrument covered modules on business ownership, access to finance and credit markets, telecommunications, employment, education, housing, sanitation, energy, and financial literacy.
Kimetrica; UNHCR; World Food Programme. 2016. Refugee Vulnerability Study: Kakuma, Kenya.	The study contributed to an increased understanding regarding refugee livelihoods and the level and differences in vulnerabilities faced by refugee households. It also explored the feasibility of delivering targeted assistance and identifying the mechanisms that would need to be put in place to do so. The study comprised three phases of fieldwork: an initial scoping study, a survey of 2,000 refugee households, and a follow-up mission to explore the feasibility of various targeting mechanisms. The household survey instrument covered modules on employment, access to finance and credit markets, social and physical networks, food security, consumption, and expenditure.
World Bank "'Yes' In My Backyard? The Economics of Refugees and Their Social Dynamics in Kakuma, Kenya." Kenya: World Bank and UNHCR, 2016.	This report provides an original analysis of the economic and social impact of refugees in Kenya's Kakuma refugee camp on their Turkana hosts. The authors use a methodology that enables running policy scenarios in a rigorous manner, ranging from encampment to decampment (that is, camp closure). A household survey for refugees and hosts in Turkana (in Kakuma and in other towns) was carried out. The survey instrument included modules on household demography, income, and perceptions. Information on consumption was also collected, albeit in a limited fashion, and only intended to detect short-term changes in consumption.
Betts, Alexander, Remco Geervliet, Claire MacPherson, Naohiko Omata, Cory Rodgers, and Olivier Sterck. "Self-Reliance in Kalobeyei? Socio-Economic Outcomes for Refugees in North-West Kenya." 2018. Refugee Studies Centre, Oxford University.	The report draws on data collected from the first of three waves of surveys to be carried out over a three-year period. The resulting panel data set will be used to compare the self-reliance and the socio-economic indicators of recent arrivals living in the Kalobeyei settlement and the Kakuma camp. Focus groups and semi-structured interviews were conducted with refugees, host community members in the region, and other stakeholders. The Kalobeyei refugee interviews cover individuals from South Sudan, Ethiopia, and Burundi; while in Kakuma, they cover individuals from South Sudan.

¹⁰⁶ This is a non-exhaustive list including surveys that used a representative sample and were published between 2016 and November 2020.

<p>Betts, Alexander, Naohiko Omata, and Olivier Sterck. "Refugee Economies in Kenya." 2018. Refugee Studies Centre, Oxford University.</p>	<p>The study explores the distinctive regulatory environment faced by refugees in urban and camp contexts. The report represents a first systematic comparison of economic outcomes for refugees and host communities. The data collection is based on participatory methods, including the recruitment and training of refugees and host nationals as peer researchers and enumerators. The data were collected in and around both Nairobi and the Kakuma refugee camps, and the quantitative methods are based on representative sampling, with a total of 4,355 survey respondents (1,738 from the host communities and 2,617 refugees).</p>
<p>Betts, Alexander, Antonia Delius, Cory Rodgers, Olivier Sterck, and Maria Stierna. 2019. "Doing Business in Kakuma: Refugees, Entrepreneurship, and the Food Market." Refugee Studies Centre, Oxford University.</p>	<p>The report draws upon a business survey with food retailers to assess the impact of the 'Bamba Chakula' (BC) model of electronic food transfers and business contracts. The aim was to examine what role BC status, among other factors, has played in influencing business performance and market structure. The study is based mainly on a business survey of three groups of food retailers: successful BC applicants, unsuccessful BC applicants, and food retailers who have not applied to be BC traders. The survey targeted all traders in WFP's registry of applicants to BC and a random sample of non-applicant food retailers, sampled from a Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC) census. 730 entrepreneurs (of whom 629 currently have a business), were interviewed. The survey was complemented with qualitative data collection based on semi-structured interviews and focus groups.</p>
<p>Vemuru, Varalakshmi, Rahul Oka, Lee Gettler, and Rieti Gengo. 2016. "Refugee Impacts on Turkana Hosts." World Bank.</p>	<p>This social impact analysis describes the complexities of the interactions between refugees and their host community and assesses their positive and negative outcomes within the current relief paradigm, contextualized by: (1) the history of interactions between the Turkana people and the central Kenyan government from the British colonial period to the current administration; (2) recent developments regarding devolution, oil, and water; and (3) since 1992, the arrival and continuing flow of large numbers of refugees into northern Turkana. To better understand the social economies of the Turkana people and the refugees of Kakuma, ethnographic approaches were used.</p>
<p>UNHCR, World Bank. 2020. "Understanding the Socioeconomic Conditions of Refugees in Kalobeyei, Kenya: Results from the 2018 Kalobeyei Socioeconomic Profiling Survey."</p>	<p>The Kalobeyei Socioeconomic Survey (SES) employed a novel approach to generating data that are statistically representative of the settlement's population and comparable to the national population. The SES included a range of standard socioeconomic indicators, both at the household and individual levels, aligned with the national 2015/16 Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey (KIHBS) and Kenya Continuous Household Survey (KCHS). The SES and ensuing analysis provide a comprehensive snapshot of the demographic characteristics, standards of living, social cohesion, and specific vulnerabilities facing refugees regarding food security and disabilities.</p>

V. Scholarship programs

As refugee students also access secondary education through private scholarships, the list below is indicative only.

- UNHCR directly supports a small number of urban refugees to attend day and boarding secondary schools. These students are supported due to their vulnerability – that is, they reside in urban areas for protection reasons. Fee payments are made directly to the school while the wrap-around costs are paid through cash transfers to the student or guardian. While UNHCR monitors these students, in most cases, the school community is not aware of the students' refugee status.
- Wings to Fly is a merit-based scholarship initiative from Equity Foundation which aims to support secondary school students from financially challenged backgrounds for the duration of their secondary education, based on their academic achievements or demonstrated talent. The program includes payment of tuition fees, accommodation, books, uniforms, pocket money and transport to and from school during their four years of secondary education. It has so far supported 8 refugee students. Students are selected by specially appointed boards made up by key leaders in the community and chaired by the County or Sub-County Director of Education.
- Elimu Scholarship Programme is an initiative funded by the World Bank and Government of Kenya, through the Ministry of Education, which seeks to improve access to secondary education under the Secondary Education Quality Improvement project (SEQIP). To be eligible to apply, candidates must have been granted admission to a public or private secondary school which is registered with the Kenyan MoE (therefore camp schools are not eligible). The scholarship, in most cases, will cover 100% of tuition, a monthly stipend, a dormitory room and board (where applicable) and other associated costs such as books, uniforms and travel. 7 refugees were admitted in the first cohort – all from Kakuma but attending public primary schools in the host community.
- M-Pesa Foundation Academy (MFA) is a mixed boarding high school supported by Safaricom. Full secondary school scholarship and bursary opportunities are offered for talented but economically disadvantaged students across Kenya. The focus is not only on academic performance, but also on 'building the whole person' by engaging the students in talent and skill development, enhancing self-reliance and establishing linkages in the job market. MFA accepts applications from urban refugees directly while UNHCR supports the process for refugees in Turkana West. No refugee from Dadaab has benefited to date.
- Other partners who have offered scholarships to refugees in the past include Education For All Children (EFAC) and KEEP (a recipient of the Girls' Education Challenge Fund).

VI. Methodology

A. DESIGN AND SURVEY INSTRUMENT

45. **The SES was conducted by using the ProGres data set of UNHCR as a sampling frame.** The aim of the SES was to interview refugees living in urban Kenya – Nairobi, Nakuru and Mombasa counties. The UNHCR’s registration dataset – proGres, was used as the sampling frame. Since the period of the data collection occurred during the COVID-19 lockdown (Nov 2020 – Jan 2021), face-to-face interviews were not possible. Hence, the survey data was collected via telephone. Selected proGres families (See Annex Definitions for more details) were called by trained enumerators who conducted the SES interviews via Computer Assisted Telephone Interviewing (CATI). The SES is representative of households with active phone numbers registered by UNHCR.

46. **While UNHCR proGres families were sampled, households were surveyed.** The units in the proGres list are UNHCR proGres families, which are different from households as defined in standard household surveys. Upon registration, UNHCR groups individuals into ‘proGres’ families which do not necessarily meet the criteria to be considered a household. A proGres family is usually comprised by no more than one household. In turn, a household can be integrated by one or more proGres families.¹⁰⁷ Households were selected as the unit of observation to ensure comparability with national household surveys. Households are a set of related or unrelated people (either sharing the same dwelling or not) who pool ration cards and regularly cook and eat together (See Definitions Annex for details).¹⁰⁸ As proGres families were sampled, the identification of households was done by an introductory section that confirms that each member of the selected proGres family is a member of the household and whether there are other members in the households that belong to other ProGres families. Thus, the introductory section documents the number of proGres families present in the household under observation.

47. **The SES was designed to produce data comparable with national household survey instruments as well as with the Kakuma SES 2019 and Kalobeyei SES 2018.** Modules on education, employment, household characteristics and assets were aligned with the most recent national poverty survey, the Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey (KIHBS) 2015/16 and the Kenya Continuous Household Survey (KCHS) which, since end-2019, has collected comparable statistics on an annual basis for all counties in Kenya, hence making the comparison between refugees and nationals possible. Additional modules on access to remittances, loans and credit, vulnerabilities, social cohesion, coping mechanisms to lack of food,¹⁰⁹ displacement trajectories, and durable solutions were administered to capture specific challenges facing refugees. The questionnaire was divided into 11 sections (**Error! Reference source not found.**); four of them are comparable to the KIHBS and the KCHS, eight are comparable to the Kalobeyei SES 2018, and nine to the Kakuma SES 2019. The questionnaires were administered in English. The instrument was not translated into different languages but rather enumerators were hired to interpret the questions during the interview. The questionnaire was interpreted from English to Oromo (West-central), Somali, Dinka,

¹⁰⁷ For instance, someone may at the time of registration have identified a group of people as her family, yet they do not or no longer live together nor cook and eat together. She would thus be registered as part of the same proGres family but not be part of the same household. Or, a person may live and eat with a group of people, but not have a shared proGres family ID. They will then be part of the same household but not be part of the same proGres family.

¹⁰⁸ Registered individuals have both an individual proGres ID and a proGres family ID, which are stated on a ‘UNHCR manifest’ document. Single individuals who are not part of a family are registered as proGres family size 1. ProGres IDs grant access to ration cards and thus, food rations vary depending on the registered proGres family size.

¹⁰⁹ World Food Program Livelihoods Coping Index.

Rwanda, Kinyarwanda, Lingala, Kinyamurenge, Kongo, Kikongo, Congo, Rundi, Kirundi, Tigrigna, Amharic, and French.

Table D-1: 2015/16 KIHBS, 2019 KCHS, Kalobeyei 2018, Kakuma 2019 and Urban 2020 questionnaires

Questionnaire modules	KIHBS 2015/16	KCHS 2019	Kalobeyei 2018	Kakuma 2019	Urban 2020
Random household selection	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Informed consent	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Education	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Employment	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Household characteristics	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Assets	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Consumption and expenditure	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Access to finance			✓	✓	✓
Vulnerabilities			✓	✓	✓
Social cohesion			✓	✓	✓
Coping mechanisms			✓	✓	✓
Displacement and durable solutions				✓	✓

Source: KIHBS (2015/16), Kalobeyei (2018), Kakuma (2019), Urban (2020).

48. **The Urban SES data can be linked to UNHCR’s proGres database for additional analysis and targeted programming.** The SES questionnaire recorded the proGres IDs of the participants, which enables cross-checks and comparisons across the proGres and SES data sets. Such comparisons allow verifying the accuracy and plausibility of the data in the analysis. The correlation between variables in the proGres database and the more detailed SES indicators can be further explored and used for informing targeted program design. Moreover, proGres-SES comparisons can be useful to better understand the implications of the currently available proGres data, which are collected for a large number of refugee populations worldwide.

B. SAMPLE SIZE ESTIMATION AND SAMPLING WEIGHTS CALCULATION

49. **A sample size of 2500 was needed to ensure a margin of error of less than 5 percent at a confidence level of 95 percent for groups represented by at least 50 percent of the population.** The sample for the urban SES is designed to estimate socioeconomic indicators, such as food insecurity, for groups whose share represents at least 50 percent of the population. Considering the total urban refugee population as of August 2020 (Table D-2) and the proportions of main countries of origin, as well as a 10 percent of nonresponse rate, the target sample size is 2,500 households in total, with 1250 in Nairobi, 700 in Nakuru and 550 in Mombasa. 2,438 households were reached, with 1,300 in Nairobi, 409 in Nakuru and 729 in Mombasa.¹¹⁰

¹¹⁰ The formula for the sample size is $n = \frac{Z^2 \cdot p(1-p)}{1 + \left(\frac{Z^2 \cdot p(1-p)}{e^2 N}\right)}$ where $Z = 1.96$, $p = 0.5$, $e^2 = 0.03$ and $N = 43,340$ this yields a total sample size of $\approx 1,050$. In order to make sure that the sample is large enough to be representative of the Nairobi population ($N=39,667$ households), using the given formula (where $Z = 1.96$, $p = 0.3$, $e^2 = 0.05$ and $N = 39,667$), and 20 percent of nonresponse rate, the target sample size per stratum is $460 \approx 500$. Each stratum sample ensures proportional representation of main countries of origin. Mombasa considers 75% of Somali households = $500/.75 \approx 700$, Nairobi considers 41% of Congolese households = $500/.40 \approx 1250$, while Nakuru includes 93% of South Sudanese households = $500/.93 \approx 550$.

Table D-2: Number of families in locations, and selection probabilities

	Nairobi	Nakuru	Mombasa	Total
ProGres families in population	40,096	934	2,755	43,785
ProGres families	1250	550	700	2,500
Families proGres selection probability	3.1%	58.9%	25.4%	

Source: Authors' calculations.

50. Before selecting the survey strata, the team attempted to better understand the type of bias observed by focusing on refugees with access to phones. From the proGres data, phone penetration in urban areas is high (Nairobi and Mombasa: 93 percent, Nakuru: 95 percent). To understand the type of bias observed by focusing on refugees with access to phone, we looked at socio-economic outcomes for proGres family refugees with access to a phone number and those without. There are clear differences with respect to phone number ownership across the three locations with refugees with phone numbers seemingly better off with better educational outcomes, larger family sizes (larger households are typically poorer), and length of stay in Kenya (Table D-3).

Table D-3: Households (head) by phone ownership

	Has phone: No		Has phone: Yes		Two-tailed
	Mean	St Dev	Mean	St Dev	P-value
Age	29.81	13.49	32.39	12.71	0.00
Family Size	1.44	1.16	1.88	1.75	0.00
Female Headed HH	0.43	0.50	0.45	0.50	0.13
Married	0.27	0.45	0.35	0.48	0.00
Separated/Divorced	0.01	0.11	0.01	0.11	0.88
Single	0.67	0.47	0.59	0.49	0.00
Window	0.04	0.20	0.05	0.21	0.24
Burundi	0.15	0.35	0.07	0.25	0.00
DRC	0.34	0.48	0.38	0.49	0.00
Eritrea	0.03	0.18	0.03	0.17	0.12
Ethiopia	0.15	0.36	0.16	0.36	0.31
Somalia	0.20	0.40	0.24	0.43	0.00
South Sudan	0.06	0.23	0.08	0.27	0.00
Rwanda	0.02	0.13	0.02	0.12	0.66
Other	0.05	0.23	0.03	0.17	0.00
Tenure In Kenya	5.94	6.56	7.76	6.48	0.00
No Education	0.26	0.44	0.24	0.43	0.01
Some Primary	0.29	0.45	0.25	0.43	0.00
Completed Primary	0.04	0.20	0.04	0.19	0.06
Some Secondary	0.17	0.37	0.17	0.38	0.36
Completed Secondary	0.03	0.16	0.04	0.18	0.01
Tertiary	0.21	0.41	0.27	0.44	0.00

51. **To obtain unbiased estimates from the sample, the information reported by households needs to be adjusted by a sampling weight (or raising factor).** To construct the sampling weights, the steps outlined in Himelein, K. (2014) were followed, (i) base weights, (ii) derive attrition-adjusted weights, (iii) trim weights, (iv) post-stratify weights to known population totals.¹¹¹

52. **As a first step, the Base weights (w_{i1}) are computed.** The base weights (w_{i1}) will equal 1 for all households interviewed:

$$w_{i1} = 1$$

53. **Derive attrition-adjusted weights for all households.** To obtain the attrition adjustment factor, the probability that a sampled household was successfully interviewed in the survey is modeled with the linear logistic model at the level of the household. A binary response variable is created by coding the response disposition for eligible households that are not interviewed in survey as zero, and households that are interviewed as one. These calculations use a logistic response propensity model with the binary variable as dependent and the household and individual characteristics measured in ProGres dataset as covariates.

Let X_i be a vector of characteristics, where i indicates the household in the location j :

$$\ln\left(\frac{P_{ij}}{1 - P_{ij}}\right) = \beta X_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (1)$$

Where, P_{ij} is the probability that household i living the location j is surveyed and $1 - P_{ij}$ as the probability that the household is not surveyed, and X_i is the set of regressors considered (the characteristics of households and heads). Usually, the characteristics of the household head (i.e. education, labor force status, demographic characteristics), characteristics of the household (consumption, assets, financial characteristics), and characteristics of the dwelling (house ownership, overcrowding) are used. While the proGres database is limited in the number of socio-economic variables, we have characteristics of the household head and household. β is a vector of parameters and ε_i is the idiosyncratic error term.

Based on the estimation results of (1), the attrition correction factor (ac_i) is computed as:

$$ac_{ij} = \hat{P}_{ij}$$

Consequently, the weights are adjusted and computed as follows:

$$w_{ij}^2 = w_{i1} * ac_{ij}$$

54. **The weights of the previous step are trimmed to correct outlier weights.** Complex weight calculations have the potential to produce outlier weights, which increase the standard errors of estimates. A common practice is therefore to “trim” the weights at this stage to eliminate the outlier weights. Common values for trimming range between one and five percentage points at the top and bottom of the distribution. We trim weights by replacing the top two percent of observations with the 98th percentile cut-off point (r_{98})

$$w_{ij}^3 = \begin{cases} w_{ij}^2, & w_{ij}^2 < r_{98} \\ r_{98}, & w_{ij}^2 \geq r_{98} \end{cases}$$

¹¹¹ Himelein, “Weight Calculations for Panel Surveys with Subsampling and Split-off Tracking.”

55. As part of post-stratification, weights were scaled to the number of households in each location. The number of households in each location (N_{HH_j}) were projected by the number of proGres families ($NfamPG_j$) in the location j divided by family household factor conversion ($Conv_{FamToHH_j}$), which is the average number of proGres families in surveyed households of a given location.

$$N_{HH_j} = \frac{NfamPG_j}{Conv_{FamToHH_j}}$$

The final weights are given by:

$$w_{ij}^4 = w_{ij}^3 * \frac{N_{HH_j}}{\sum_j (w_{ij}^2)}$$

56. Estimates of national averages are calculated using the 2019 KCHS. The KCHS data used to obtain national estimates are downloaded from the KNBS website.¹¹² Nationally representative estimates from the KCHS data are compared to population figures from the urban SES data to enable comparisons of socioeconomic indicators between urban refugees and Kenyans living in the three counties where urban refugees reside – Nairobi, Mombasa and urban Nakuru (**Error! Reference source not found.**)¹¹³ However, since the KCHS data was collected before the COVID-19 outbreak, employment and education comparisons are not meaningful. Hence, for these two sections, no comparisons with nationals are made. P-values from one-sample t-tests to test for differences between the KCHS estimates and the refugee population values are shown throughout the main report. Confidence intervals (95 percent) are also provided for figures based on the national estimates.

Table D-4: Sample allocation for KCHS 2019

County	Number of households
Nairobi	543
Nakuru	211
Mombasa	471

Source: KCHS 2019

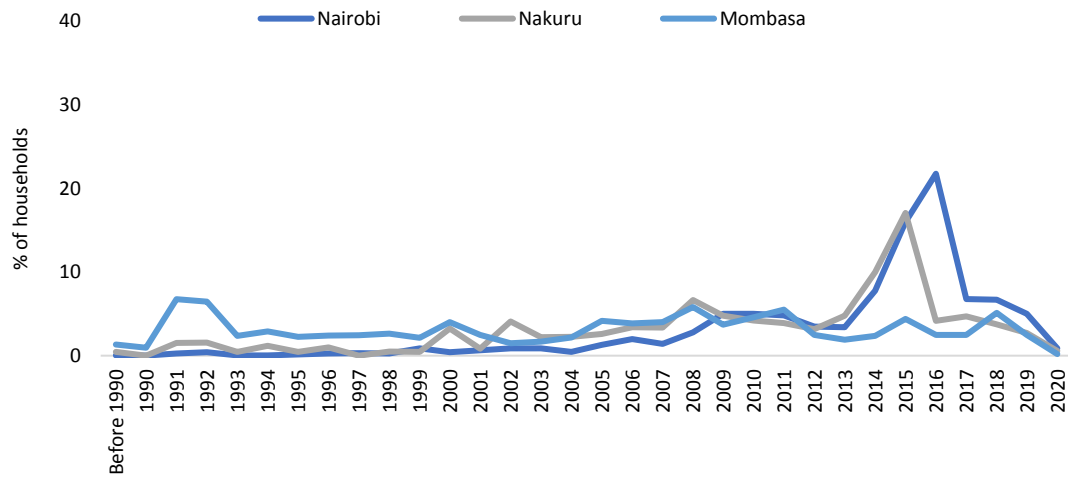
¹¹² <https://www.knbs.or.ke/>

¹¹³ Both Nairobi and Mombasa counties are all urban areas

VII. Additional figures

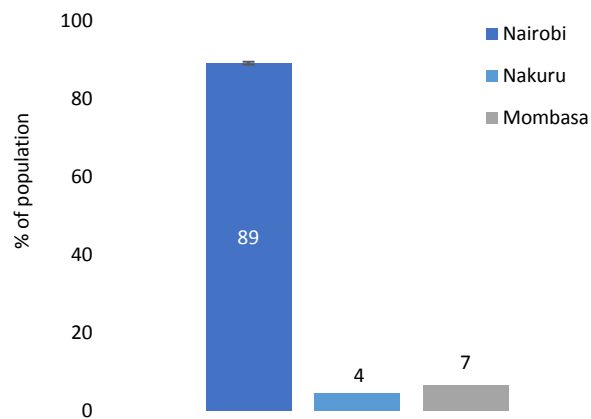
a. DEMOGRAPHICS

Figure D-1: Year of arrival by county of residence



Source: UNHCR (2021). UNHCR Kenya ProGres Registration Database Sub-Sample. Data not publicly available

Figure D-2: County of residence of urban refugees



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Figure D-3: Population 18 years and below

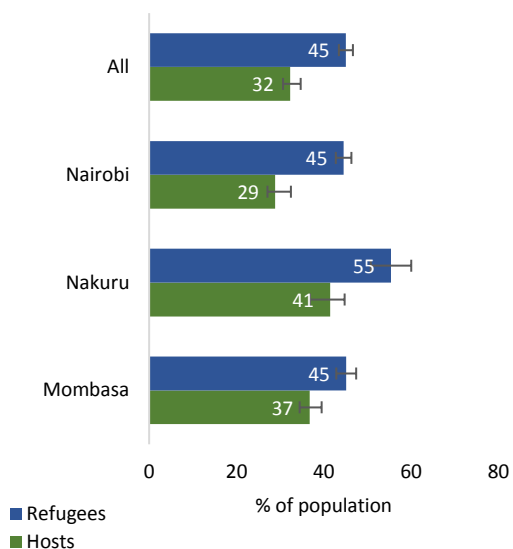
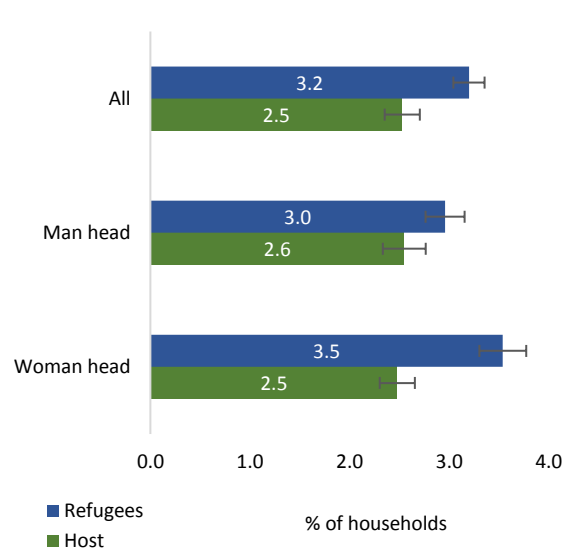


Figure D-4: Household size



Source: Urban SES (2020-21); KCHS (2019).

Figure D-5: Refugee women headed households by country of origin

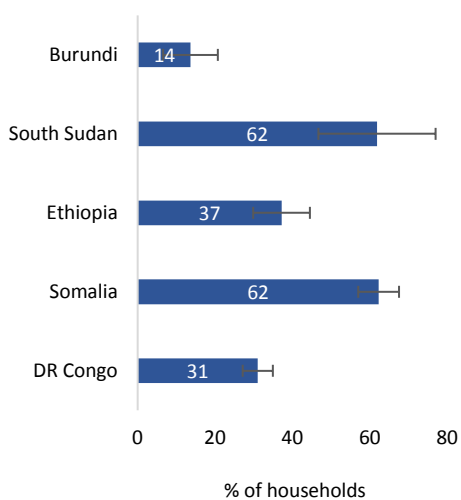
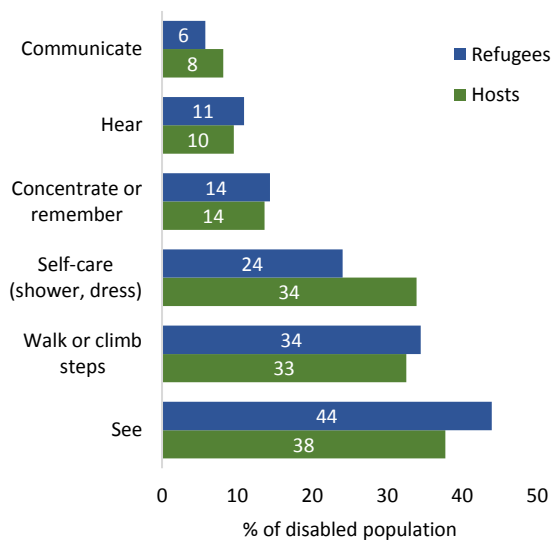
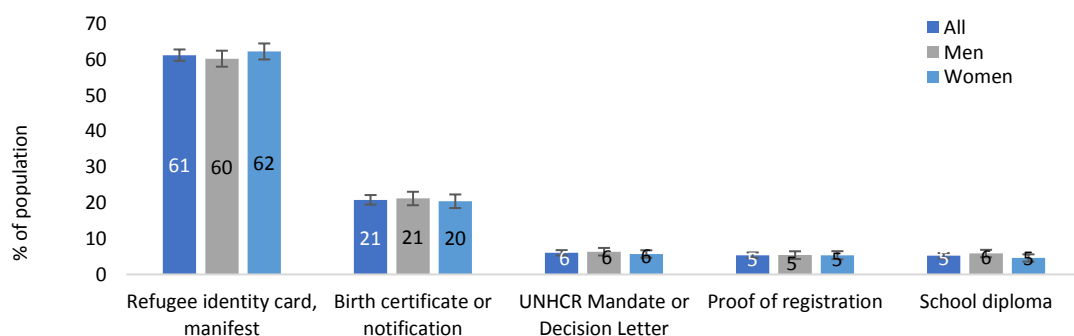


Figure D-6: Type of disability, refugees (5+) and urban nationals (5+)*



Source: Urban SES (2020-21); KCHS (2019).

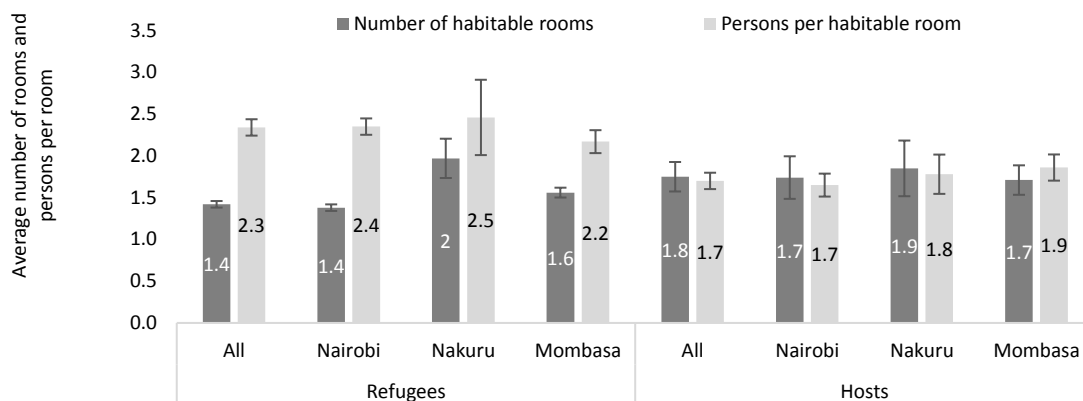
Figure D-7: Type of document held by gender



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

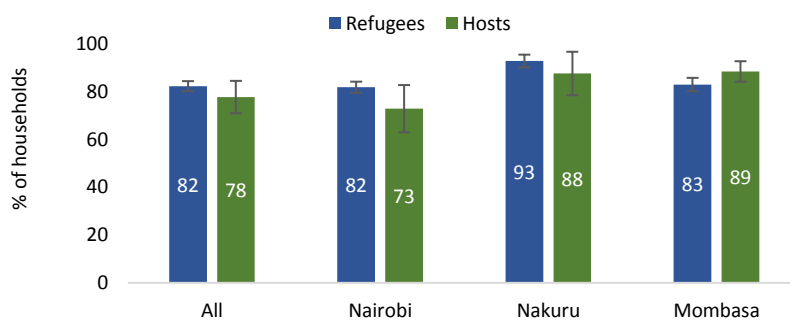
b. SERVICES

Figure D-8: Number of habitable rooms and density by county of residence



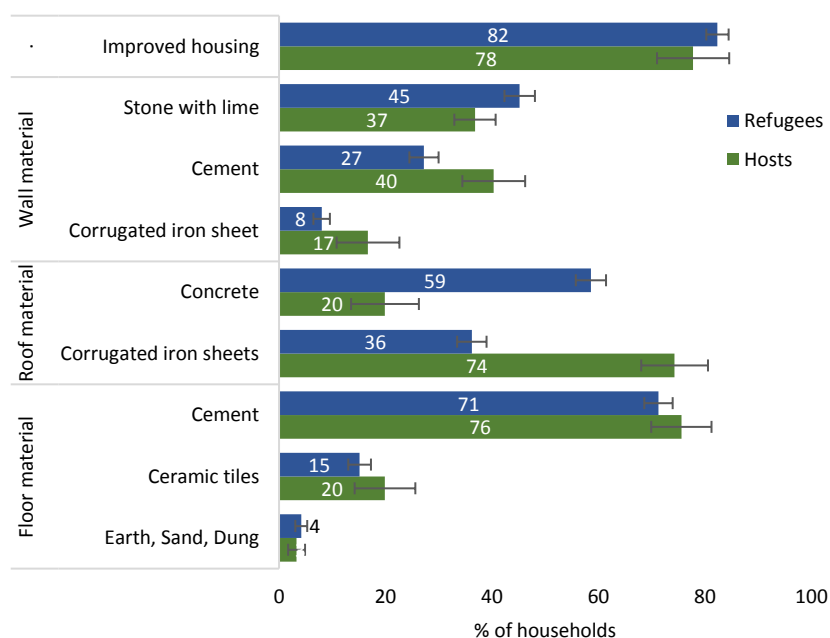
Source: Urban SES (2020-21); KCHS (2019).

Figure D-9: Access to improved housing by county of residence



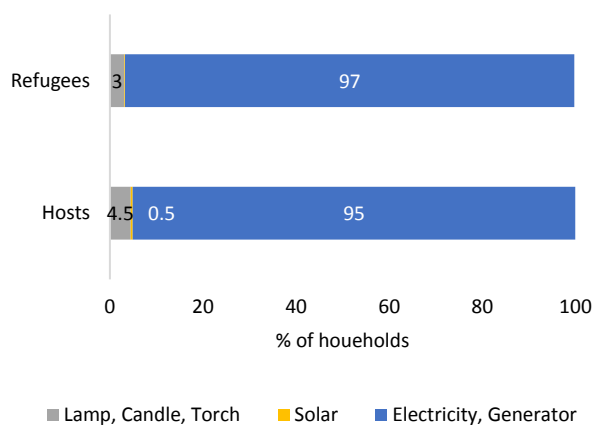
Source: Urban SES (2020-21); KCHS (2019).

Figure D-10: Main housing materials



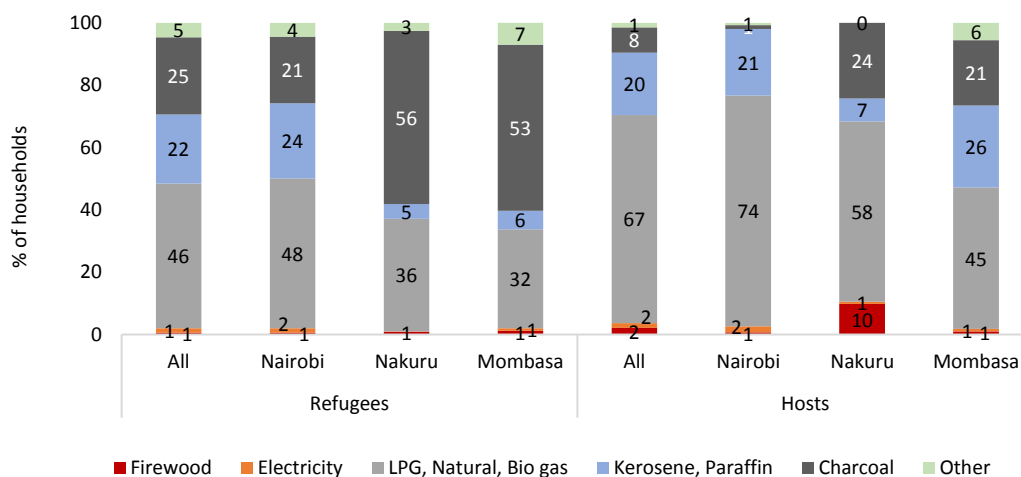
Source: Urban SES (2020-21); KCHS (2019).

Figure D-11: Energy for lighting



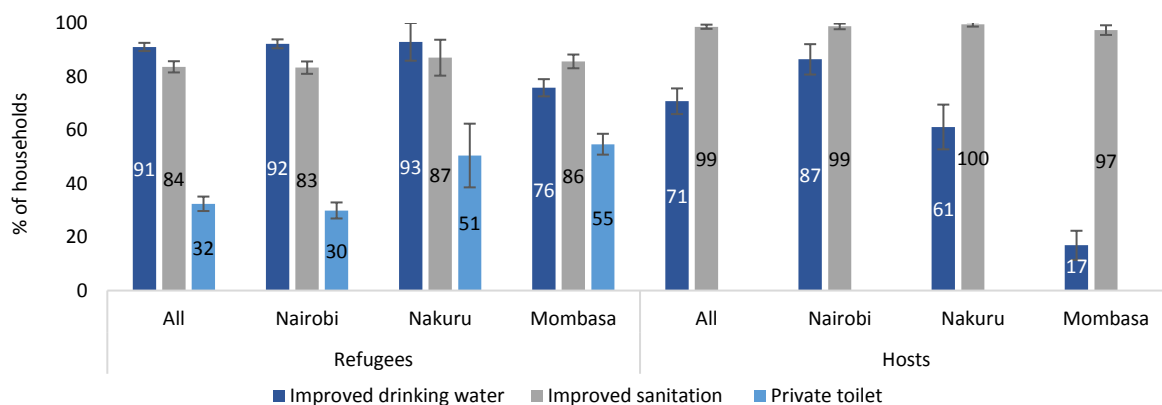
Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Figure D-12: Energy for cooking



Source: Urban SES (2020-21); KCHS (2019).

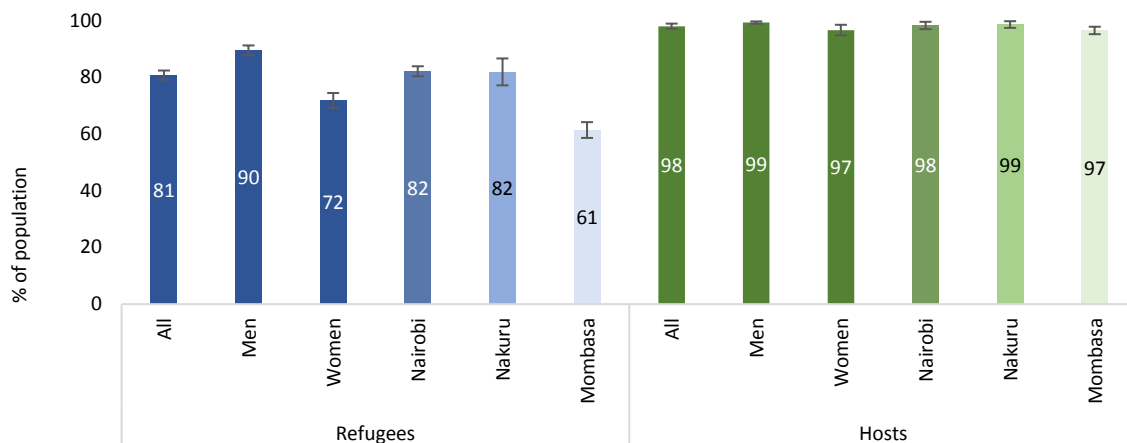
Figure D-13: Water and sanitation



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

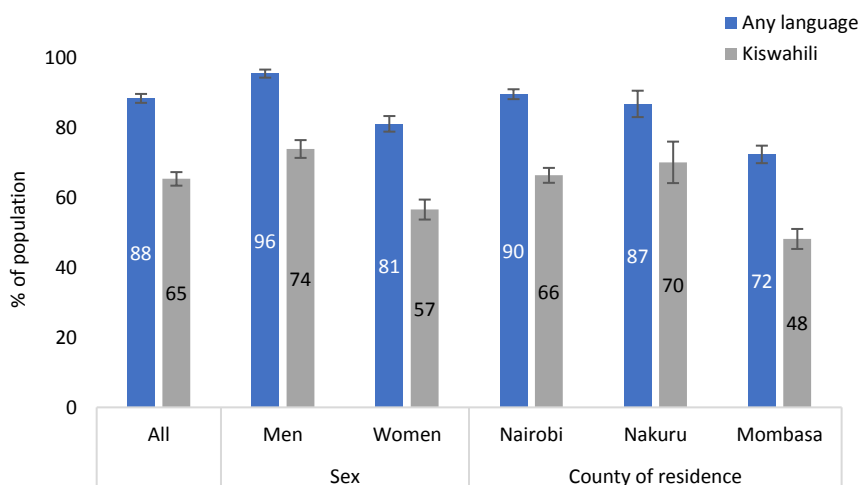
C. EDUCATION

Figure D-14: Distribution of population who have ever attended school, (15+)



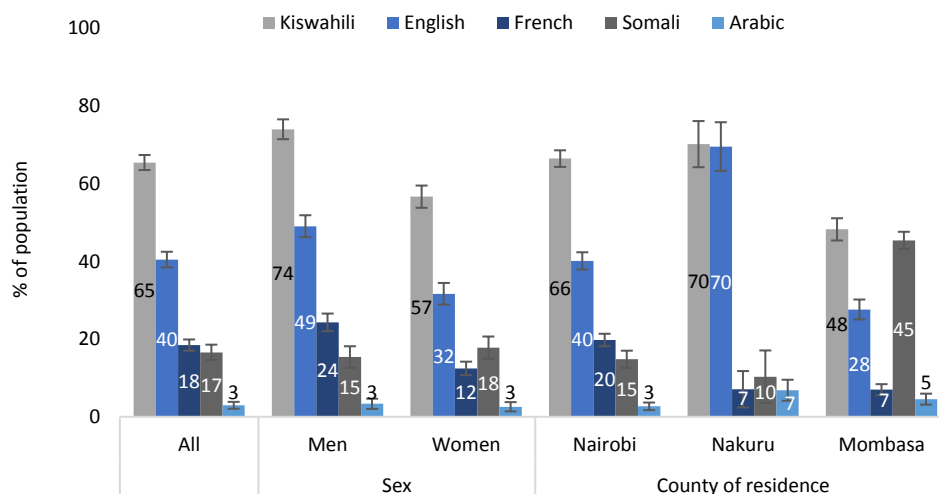
Source: Urban SES (2020-21); KCHS (2019).

Figure D-15: Literacy by gender and county of residence



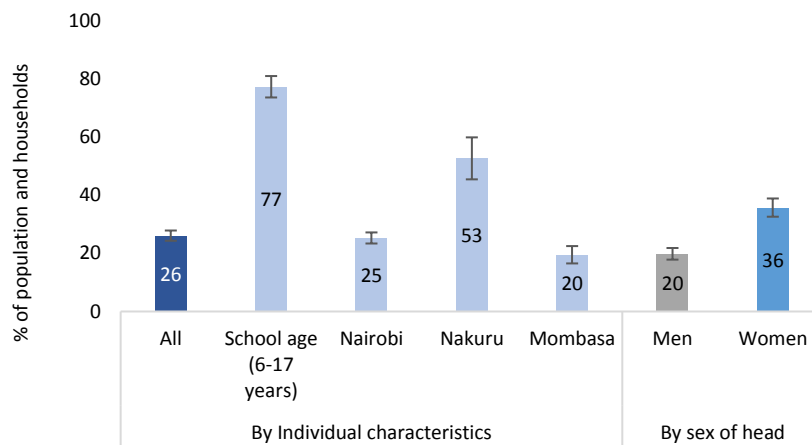
Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Figure D-16: Literacy in languages by gender and county of residence



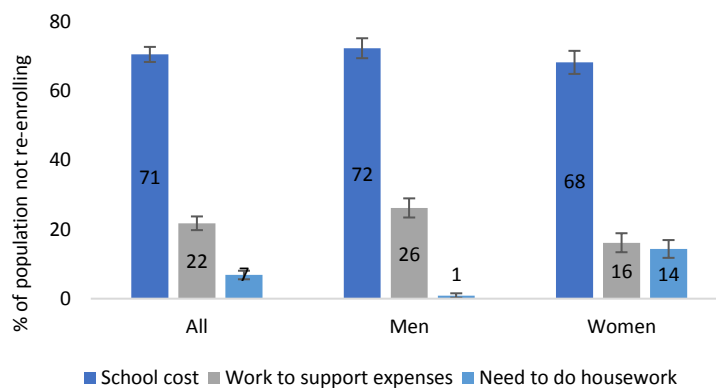
Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Figure D-17: School attendance before COVID-19 among those currently not attending



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Figure D-18: Main reasons for no re-enrollment



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

d. LIVELIHOODS

Figure D-19: Working age population

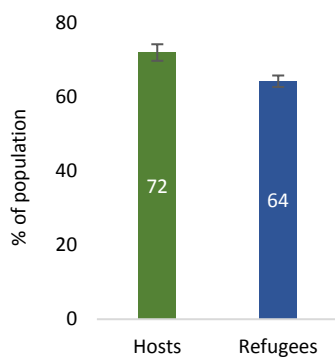
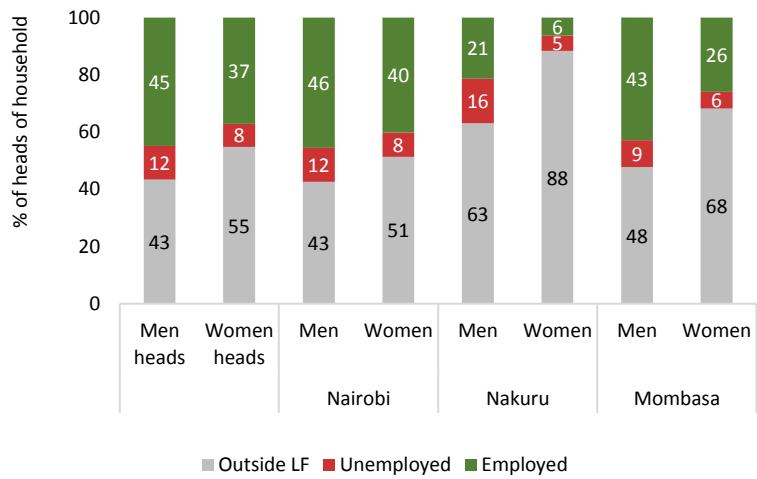
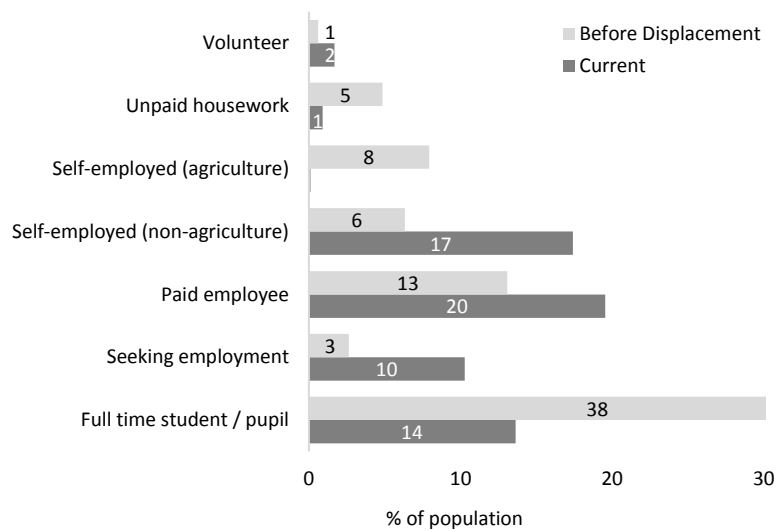


Figure D-20: Labor force status by gender of head and location



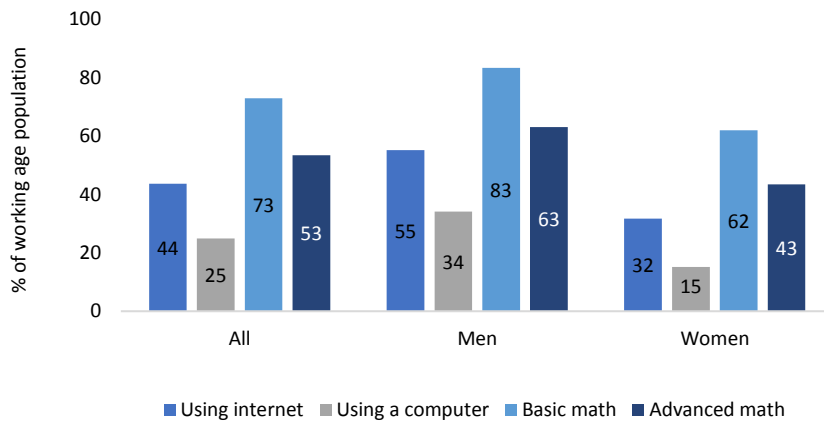
Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Figure D-21: Primary activity before and after displacement



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

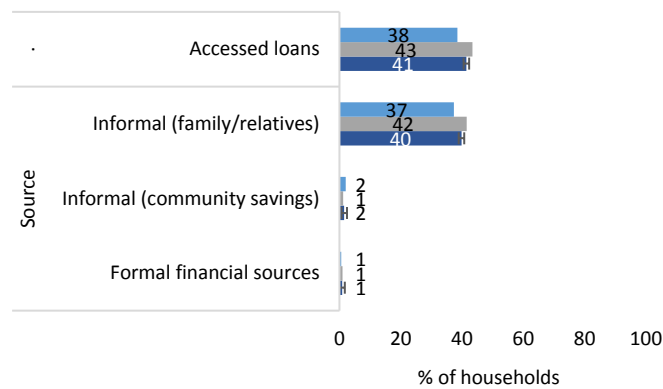
Figure D-22: Excellent or good proficiency in job-related skills



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

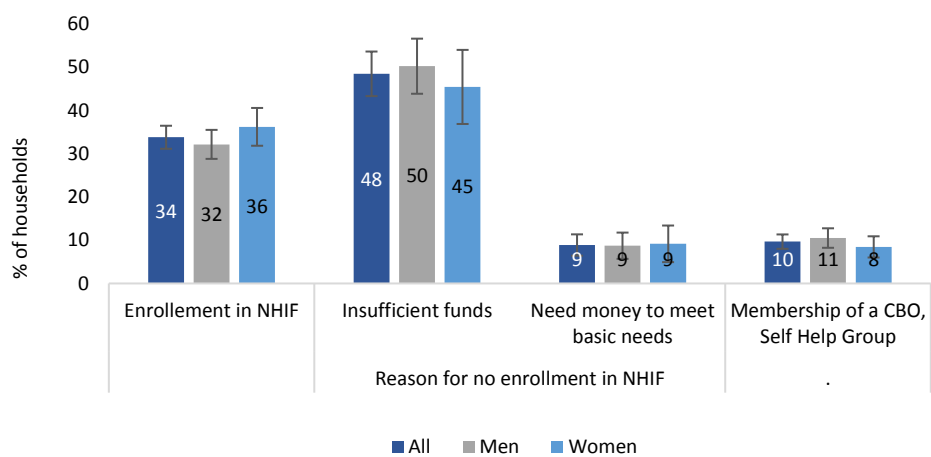
e. ACCESS

Figure D-23: Access to loans in last 12 months and main sources



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

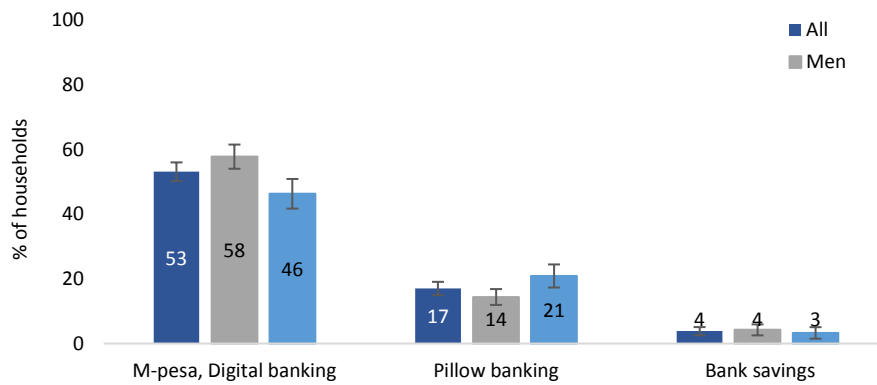
Figure D-24: Enrollment in NHIF, and membership of CBO or self-help group



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

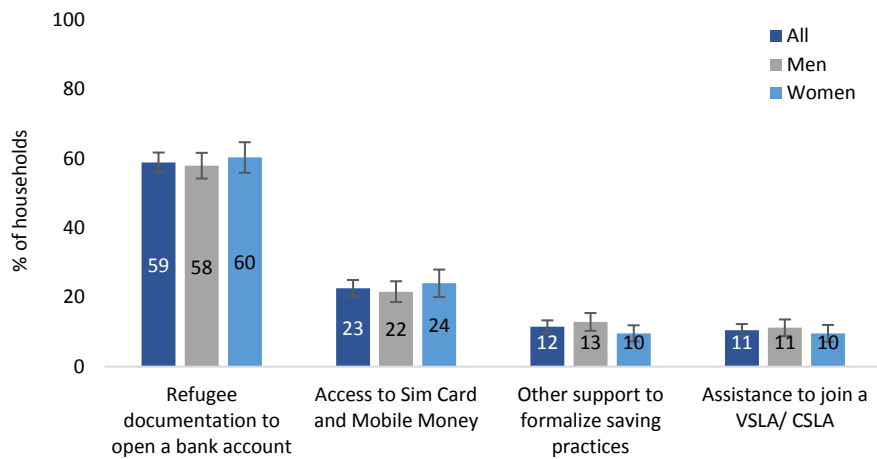
National Hospital Insurance Fund (NHIF)
Community Based Organization (CBO)

Figure D-25: Saving practices



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

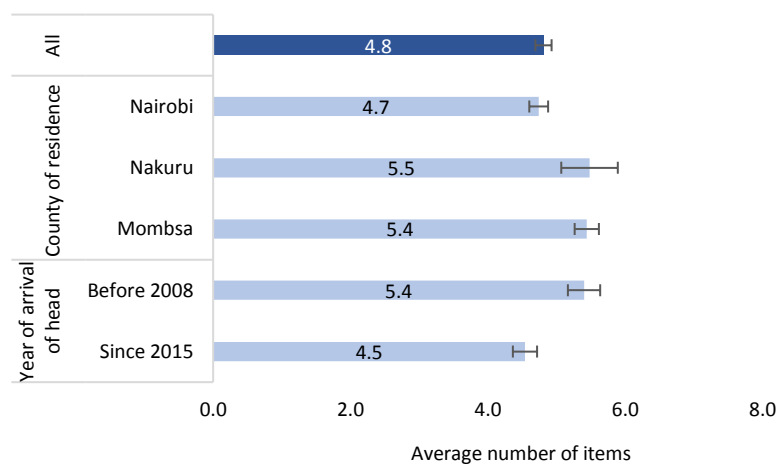
Figure D-26: Support needed to formalize saving practices



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

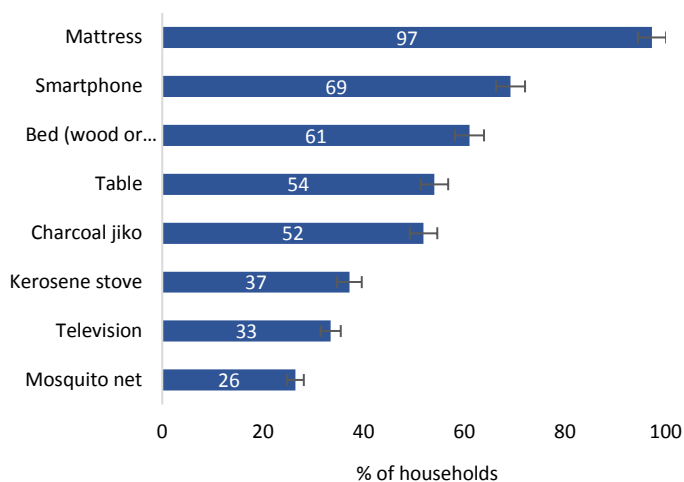
f. ASSETS

Figure D-27: Number of owned assets by gender of head and year of arrival



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

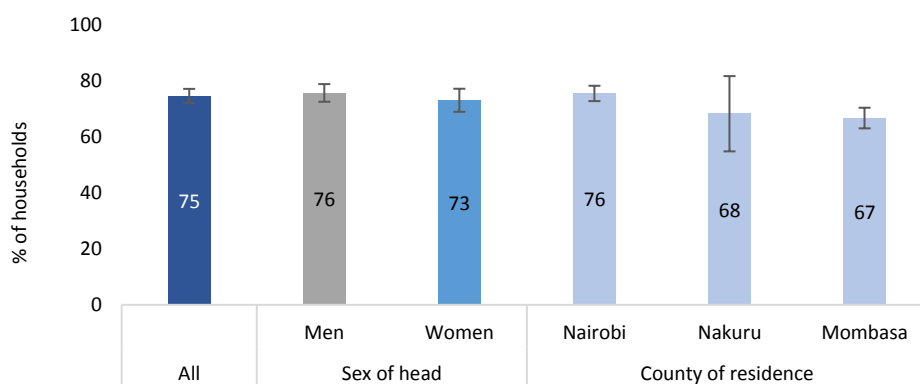
Figure D-28: Owned assets



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

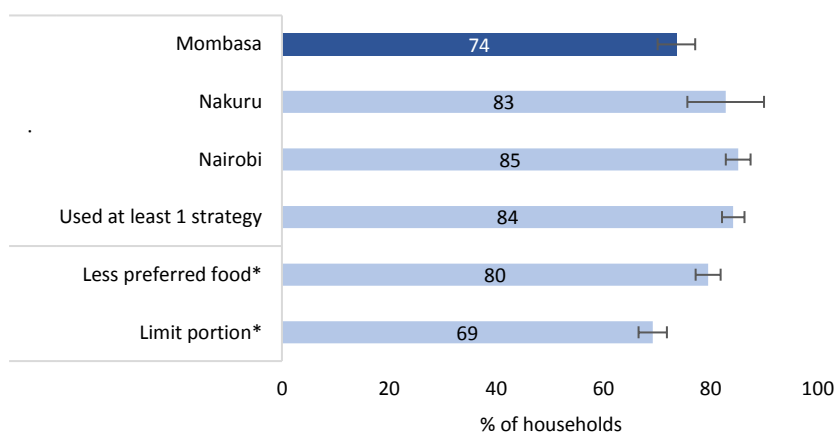
g. FOOD INSECURITY

Figure D-29: Lack of food or money to buy sufficient food in the last 7 days



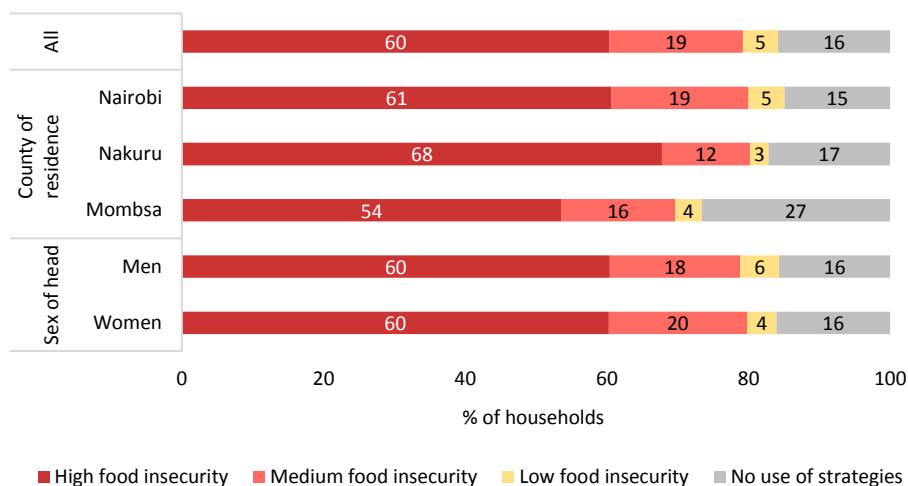
Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Figure D-30: Use of consumption-based coping strategies in last 7 days



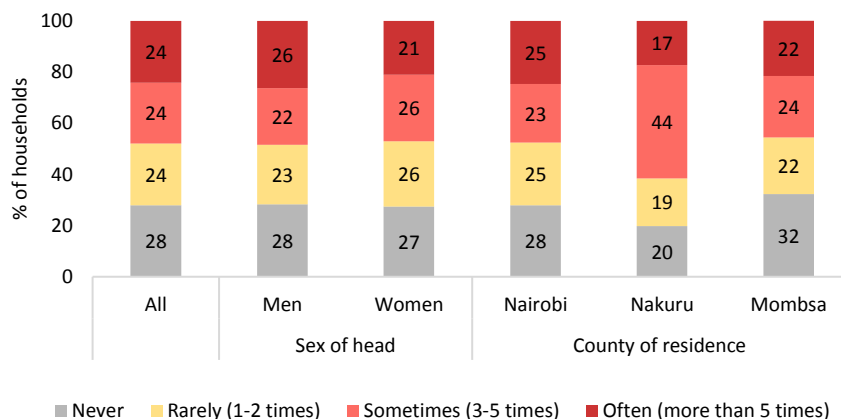
Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Figure D-31: Food insecurity level, consumption-based strategies



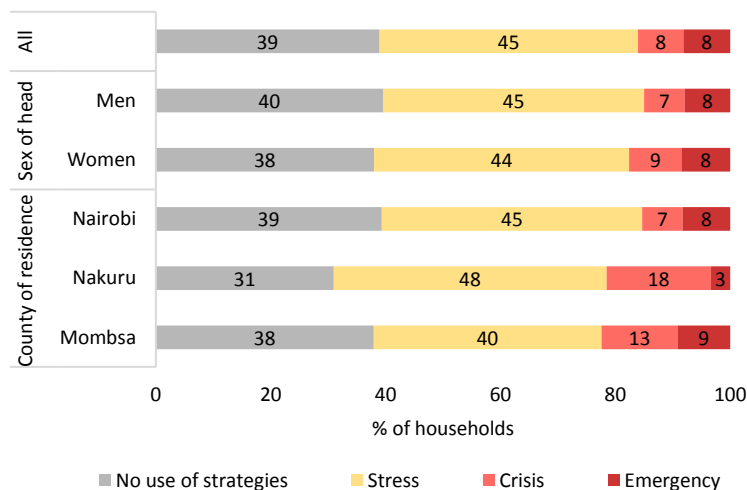
Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Figure D-32: Number of times there was no food to eat due to lack of resources to buy food in the last 30 days



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Figure D-33: Livelihoods-based coping strategies



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Table D-5: Determinants of food insecurity

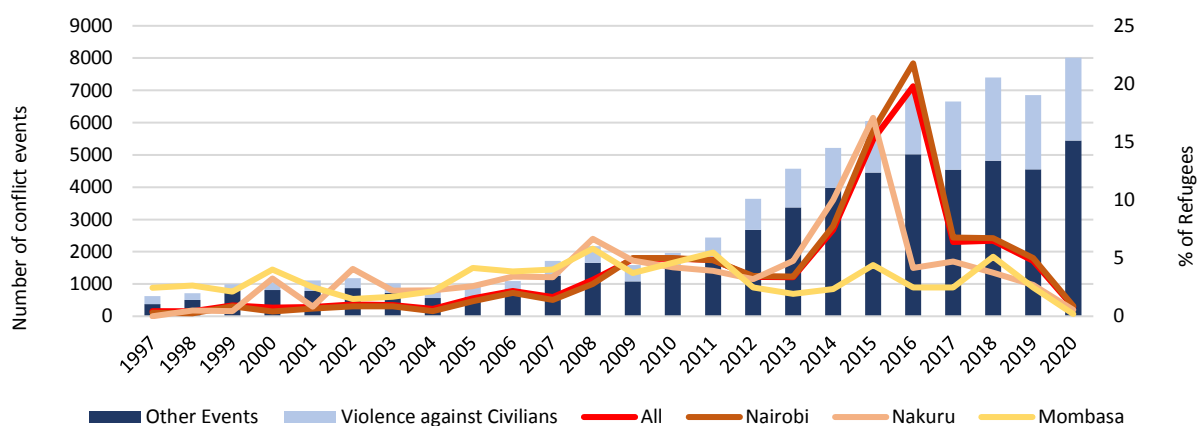
	High Food Insecurity
Number of employed members	-0.045** (0.008)
Asset Index (base: Q1)	
Q2	0.033** (0.007)
Q3	-0.050** (0.008)
Q4	-0.066** (0.011)
Q5	-0.157*** (0.015)
Received Remittance	-0.099** (0.010)
Woman Head	0.024* (0.008)
Head has secondary or higher education	-0.007 (0.012)
Head is literate in Swahili	0.021 (0.019)
Disabled head	0.045** (0.010)
R²(%)	10.7
N	2041

Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Note: Significance level: 1%(***), 5%(**), 10%(*). Regression includes other control variables such as age of head, country of origin of head, marital status of head, household size, access to private improved sanitation, access to electricity, sufficient drinking water and access to modern house.

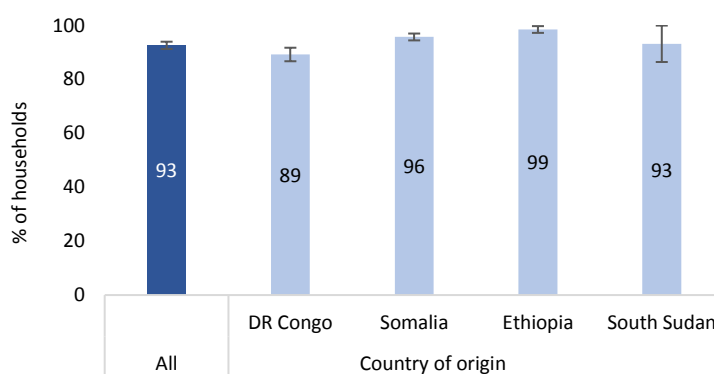
h. TRAJECTORIES OF DISPLACEMENT AND INTENTIONS TO MOVE

Figure D-34: Conflict events and arrival year



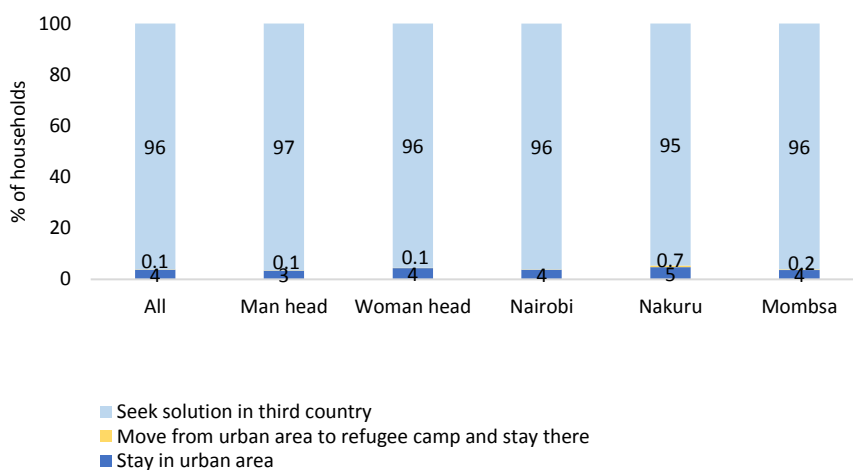
Source: ACLED (conflict events 1997–2019), Urban SES (2020-21).

Figure D-35: Plans to leave



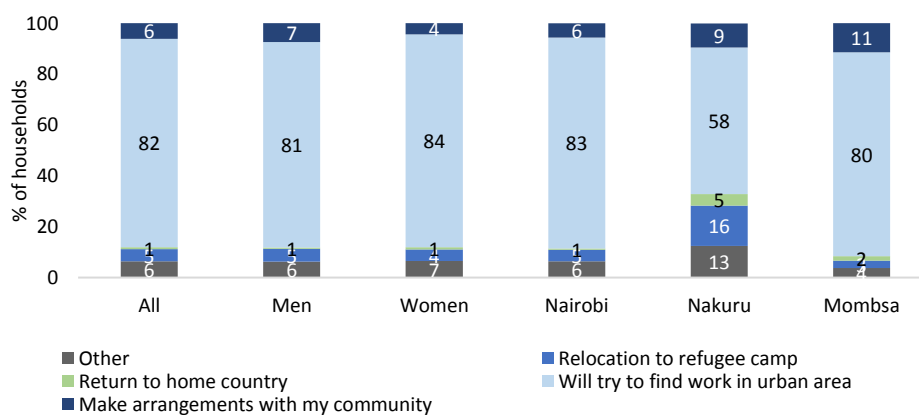
Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Figure D-36: Plans for the foreseeable future among those not wanting to return



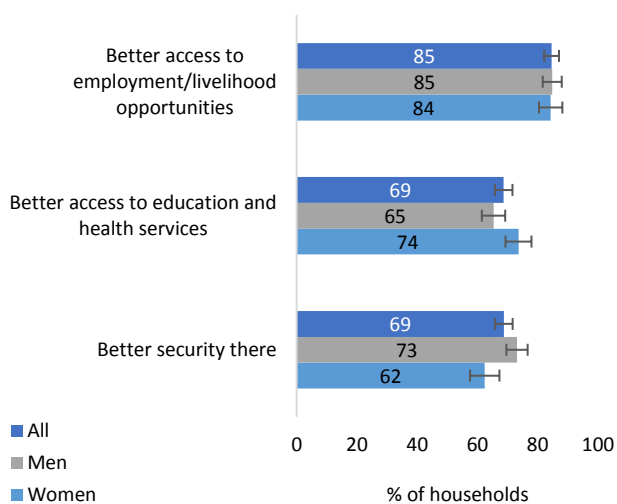
Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Figure D-37: Plans if faced with an economic crisis and no support from UNHCR nor partners



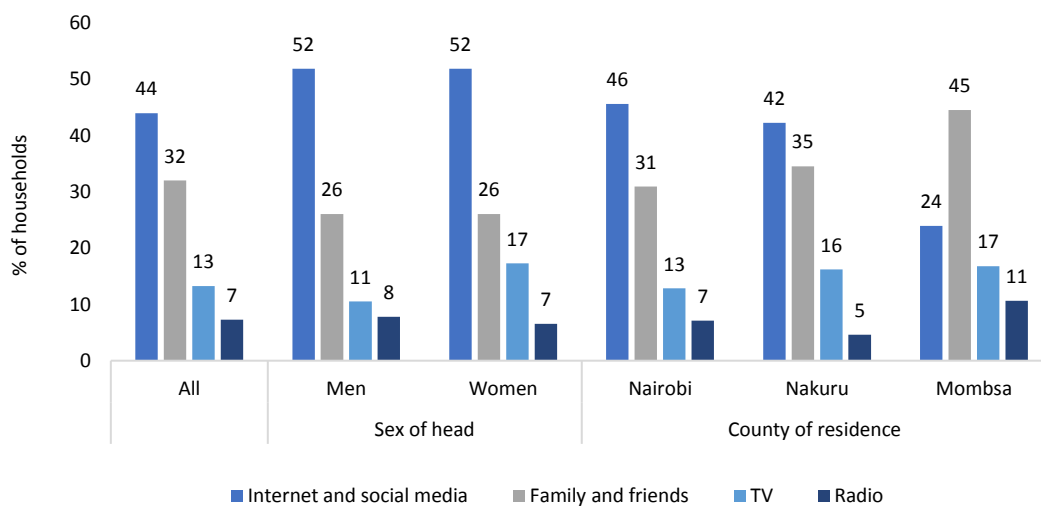
Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Figure D-38: Main reasons for wanting to leave based on destination



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).

Figure D-39: Most common sources of information



Source: Urban SES (2020-21).