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SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE OF REFUGEES IN BURUNDI

RESULTS FROM THE 2019-2020 SOCIOECONOMIC SURVEY

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UNHCR
The UN Refugee Agency

WORLD BANK GROUP
Poverty & Equity

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Abbreviations

BDI	Burundi
CAPI	Computer Assisted Personal Interview
CATI	Computer-Assisted Telephone Interviewing
CBT	Cash Based Transfers
CIV	Ivory Coast / Côte d'Ivoire
DRC	Democratic Republic of the Congo
ETH	Ethiopia
EICVMB	Enquête intégrée sur les conditions de vie des ménages au Burundi
FDP	Forcibly Displaced Person
GCR	Global Compact on Refugees
GoB	Government of Burundi
MECS	Modern Energy Cooking Services
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
ONPRA	National Office for the Protection of Refugees and Stateless Persons
proGres	Profile Global Registration System (UNHCR)
PTSD	Post-traumatic Stress Disorder
RSD	Refugee Status Determination
SES	Socioeconomic Survey
SGBV	Sexual and Gender-based Violence
UN	United Nations
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
VRX	Registration Verification Exercise

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The number of refugees in Burundi has significantly increased since 2017, with over a third of the more than 85,000 refugees and asylum seekers having arrived since then. That year also marked an important milestone for Burundi with the resumption of voluntary repatriation of Burundian refugees from neighboring Tanzania. By 2019, well over 100,000 Burundian returnees had repatriated to Burundi from various neighboring countries. The return of Burundians, some of whom have acquired employable skills abroad, represents human capital but also the risk of further stretching available resources to ensure effective reintegration, most importantly by way of securing access to land and housing. The refugee environment and the returnee contexts are governed by different policy and legal frameworks in Burundi but the socio-economic needs of both populations are often heightened.

Despite facing severe development challenges, Burundi has long been a generous host to refugees from other countries. As of 2019, Burundi was the second-largest host of Congolese refugees in the Great Lakes region. Burundi's positive asylum policy is key to stability in the region. Individuals seeking asylum can choose if they want to settle independently, generally in urban areas, or live in camps, depending on whether they are able to sustain themselves or are in need of assistance. Nearly half of refugees reside in Bujumbura, while others inhabit camps in the north-east of the country. More than 9 in 10 refugees in Burundi come from the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), where they have fled waves of violent political and ethnic conflicts in country's Eastern provinces.

The Global Compact on Refugees (GCR) represents a new approach to managing forced displacement situations based on a framework for more predictable and equitable responsibility-sharing. The Government of Burundi has endorsed the GCR and, with the support of partners, committed to furthering refugee inclusion in national services, promoting the progressive self-reliance and economic integration of refugees, and improving the well-being of host communities through its 2018 Burundi Refugee and Host Community Support Strategy, which was developed in the context of eligibility for the IDA18 Sub-Window for refugees and host communities (RSW), and pledges made through the Global Refugee Forum (GRF).[12] Albeit Burundi being a major refugee hosting country per-capita, there is little to no international visibility.

Data and evidence are central to efforts to link humanitarian and development actions and inform evidence-based responses. Timely and representative data is essential for understanding socioeconomic characteristics of refugees and host communities, as well as for designing evidence-based interventions to improve their living conditions. While governments, national partners and international organizations worldwide have made substantial progress over the last 10 years to produce data and socioeconomic statistics on refugees, significant limitations remain. The lack of information prevents identification of refugees' and host communities' vulnerabilities and capabilities and thus limits evidence-based policy planning and programming.

This report contributes to expanding the understanding of these important population groups, while providing key inputs for evidence-informed humanitarian and development interventions. At the time of the survey in 2019, the 85,000 refugees and asylum-seekers hosted by Burundi resided in five camps and urban areas, primarily in the capital city.[3] However, representative surveys on livings standards among refugees Burundi are not systematically implemented, and they are not included in national data collection efforts. The Burundi Socioeconomic Survey (SES) jointly implemented between 2019 and 2020 by UNHCR and the World Bank, contributes to closing the socioeconomic data gaps to inform development and humanitarian interventions by creating a first cut of representative information on this vulnerable

[1]Refugee Policy Review Framework, 2020. https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/826851636575674627/pdf/IDA19-Mid-Term-Refugee-Policy-Review.pdf
[2]As of January 2022, UNHCR received 820 pledges from governments, civil society, the private sector and international organization under the Global Refugee Forum pledging process, including 8 pledges made by the Government of Burundi. https://www.unhcr.org/afr/news/press/2022/2/62024b094/unhcr-welcomes-pledges-made-by-burundi-under-the-global-compact-on-refugees.html#:~:text=First%20announced%20at%20UNHCR's%20High,the%20impacts%20of%20climate%20change
[3]As of 2022, the number of registered refugees and asylum seekers in Burundi was 85,858 (UNHCR Population Statistics, 2022).

population. The SES captured socioeconomic information of refugees in urban areas (Bujumbura and Rumonge) and in camps (Kinama, Musasa, Bwagiriza Nyankanda and Kavumu). Even though the survey only interviewed refugees, limiting comparisons with national estimates, this report links part of its findings to preliminary results from the *Enquête intégrée sur les conditions de vie des ménages au Burundi* (EICVMB) 2020-2021.[4] This report uses the SES to provide a comprehensive profile of refugees in Burundi. Its findings offer concrete policy recommendations for improving the living conditions of refugees in Burundi, and general insights on integration that could prove to be of interest for other forcibly displaced populations in the country.

Refugees' settlement patterns in urban areas and encampments hold valuable insight for other forcibly displaced populations in the country. In addition to refugees, some 113,000 individuals in 2021 in Burundi are displaced internally, mostly by natural disasters, and 185,000 Burundian refugee returnees have been repatriated by UNHCR from neighboring countries since 2017, with the majority residing in the country's provinces of Makamba, Ruyigi, Kirundo and Muyinga.[5] Despite crucial differences between the three groups, some important challenges and barriers are shared. Many tend to integrate or live close by host communities that are themselves stretched for resources.[6] New settlements are frequently found in precarious or remote areas, with resulting shortfalls of service provision and access to markets.[7] Moreover, all three groups tend to have limited access to land and include large numbers of households headed by women; both characteristics have been associated with high levels of poverty. Given refugees' settlement patterns in both urban and rural areas, some lessons learned can support our understanding of more general barriers to forcibly displaced populations seeking to survive and re-build existences from scratch in their new locations.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Refugee households residing in camps and nationals in surrounding rural areas face worse living conditions in terms of housing, access to electricity, water, and sanitation, compared to those in urban areas. National households have 2.0 rooms for sleeping, compared to 1.9 among refugee households. Camp and urban-based households face similar overcrowding conditions, with women-headed refugee households experiencing over-crowding most often. And 7 in 10 refugee households in urban areas, compared to 0.3 percent of camp-based refugee households have access to improved housing. Urban nationals and urban refugees have similar housing conditions in terms of improved roof, walls, and floor materials. And in camps, refugees report somewhat higher usage of improved roof materials (94 percent) compared to rural nationals (79 percent), explained by the fact that tin roofs are (in part) provided by UNHCR. Yet, the reverse is true for wall materials where rural nationals report better conditions (41 percent), compared to camp-based refugees (23 percent). Refugees rely more often on charcoal as the source of energy for cooking, compared to nationals (60 percent vs. 24 percent). In urban areas, 82 percent of refugee households use charcoal as the source of energy for cooking. In camps, only 34 percent use charcoal, 12 percent firewood and 54 percent 'other' fuels which, according to UNHCR are the monthly distributed high-density biomass briquettes. Access to electricity in urban areas is much higher, both among refugees (69%) and nationals (73%) when compared to basically non-existing provision in camps (0.2 precent) and among host communities of rural households (less than 1 percent) in surrounding provinces. And 16 percent of camp-based households have no access to any source of lighting. In urban areas, 61 percent of households have access to improved water sources, compared to only 0.5 percent of camp-based households. In urban areas, 35 percent of households have access to improved sanitation, compared to 9 percent of camp-based households. Refugees often use, unimproved sanitation structures, including open defecation or pit latrines, with or without a slab. Furthermore, toilet sharing is very common in camps- and urban areas, with 93 and 78 percent of households sharing facilities in each location respectively. Moreover, among refugees, access to water and sanitation is substantially lower among women-headed (22 percent, 19

[4] The survey was implemented between February 2020 and February 2021.

[5] UNHCR (https://www.unhcr.org/burundi.html) & IOM Displacement Tracking Matrix (https://dtm.iom.int/burundi). Returnees have come back from Tanzania, Rwanda, the DRC, Uganda and Kenya. IOM estimated that 85 percent of internal displacement is due to natural disasters, whereas 15 percent are displaced due to conflict. https://www.unhcr.org/burundi.html

[6] Returnees settled predominantly in Makamba in the Southern part of the country and Kirundo and Ruyigi in the northern part, coinciding with the presence of refugee camps.

[7] Burundi Urbanization Review, 2021.

percent respectively) than male-headed households (50 percent and 29 percent respectively). Comparing refugee populations to their host communities, reveals that access to water is almost the same, barely existing for either community (less than 1%), and for sanitation predominantly encompasses unimproved access to sanitation. In addition, from a comparative perspective, access to improved sanitation among urban refugee communities (35%), lags coverage among urban national populations (83 percent).

Recommendation

Expanding access to improved housing materials will be important and can help build resilience to environmental shocks while reducing the spread of infectious diseases, such as malaria. Furthermore, increasing access to lighting through grid, off-grid and renewable energy projects could bring gains in human capital, as well as decrease security threats and risk of sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV). And investments are needed to ensure access to Modern Energy Cooking Services (MECS) and increase the uptake of clean cooking solutions across the Burundian population and refugees. Exploring partnerships between the private sector, governments, humanitarian, and development actors to ensure an integrated service delivery covering both refugees and host communities could be useful in increasing access to improved water and sanitation. When it comes to infrastructure needs and prioritization, both camp-based refugee households and host communities in rural areas fare worse and display the largest needs, with especially women-headed refugee households showing most dire conditions. Simultaneously, one of the biggest gaps observed is in terms of sanitation between urban-based refugees and urban host communities. Given high infrastructure costs, and existing sanitation provisions in Bujumbura, it would be worth exploring what it would take to connect refugee communities.

Overall school attendance rates are higher among refugees in camps compared to those in urban areas, yet educational attainment is lower in camps and among rural host communities. Among refugees, 64 percent of primary school age refugee children attend school in urban areas. And in contrast, 89 percent of refugee children in camps attend school. Even though primary and secondary school attendance rates are higher in camps compared to urban areas, educational attainment is lower in camps (29 and 49 percent of men and women in camps have no education vs. 23 and 29 percent of men and women in urban areas). Particularly among women-headed households, educational attainment of household members is much lower (28 percent have no education) when compared to members from men-headed households (17 percent), possibly pointing to complicated dynamics around care and housework due to higher numbers of dependents in women-headed refugee households. Even though primary and secondary school attendance rates are higher in camps compared to urban areas, educational attainment is lower in camps (29 and 49 percent of men and women in camps have no education vs. 23 and 29 percent of men and women in urban areas). Transition to secondary school is very low, although lower for children in urban areas (secondary school attendance is 37 and 30 percent for boys and girls, respectively) compared to their camp-based counterparts (49 percent for boys and 49 percent for girls), and even lower for urban refugee girls (30 percent).

Recommendation

Prioritization should take into account the particularly low educational attainment among members of camp-based refugee women-headed households as well as those in rural areas of host communities more broadly. Special attention needs to also be paid to secondary transition among rural, urban host and refugee communities. And disparity between secondary school transition among urban refugee communities and counterparts is particularly striking. As such, scholarship programs and other financial incentives could help increase attendance among host communities and refugees in urban areas, particularly for higher levels of education. Possibly one way would be to establish temporary quotas to help ensure that a minimum number of refugees are enrolled in national schools in urban areas while such schools could be rewarded or recognized for integrating the refugee population. In camps, scholarship programs targeted at refugees and rural communities who have completed primary school could support students to continue with their education. The former could support expanding access. Furthermore, it will be key to ensure the market relevance of supported skills development and creating broader linkages to entrepreneurship opportunities. Some of the findings regarding employment demonstrate that (refugee) respondents state lack of relevant skills (including language skills) as one of the main reasons for lack of employment. Hence, matching secondary school curricula more closely to what is in demand on the (proximate) labor market will be key. This could also include relevant campaigns that help with sensitizing

both communities of which jobs are needed where in the country and what associated remuneration levels can be expected on average.

Lack of opportunities in rural areas, lack of adequate skills, care work obligations, as well as abuse are among some of the most frequently cited reasons for lack of work among hosts and refugees. More than 7 out of 10 Burundians aged 15 years or more worked in the week prior to the survey, compared to 23 percent of refugees. This pattern is observed in other contexts, i.e. in Kenya where rates of economic activity among refugees are low, even among those of working age.[8] The difference is largest between rural nationals (84 percent) and camp-based refugees (10 percent). Even though most refugees in Burundi have agricultural backgrounds, only 3 percent of employed refugees currently work in agriculture, predominantly due to limited access to land. Compared to urban nationals, urban refugees are more often engaged in self-employment or are employed in unskilled activities (47 vs. 33 percent and 24 vs. 15 percent respectively). Camp employed refugees described their occupation primarily as intermediate professions (21 percent), direct service personnel to individuals, traders and sellers (21 percent), and skilled trades in industry and crafts (12 percent). The main obstacles to work cited have been around lack of work opportunities. These are more often reported by camp-based refugees (17 and 11 percent among men and women in camps vs. 15 and 10 percent among men and women in urban areas). Overall, living in urban areas is the single-most important correlate for a refugee's working status. Moreover, women-headed households in camps report not being engaged in paid work due to housework (34 percent), or report lack of skills as an important obstacle in securing employment (14 percent). When focusing exclusively on urban refugees, other barriers are cited commonly, such as lack of proper documentation (5 and 3 percent among men and women), language barriers (661 in total; 3 and 3 percent among men and women), and lack of adequate skills (12 among both, men and women). Restrictive policies limit refugees' capacity of movement and access to land. At the workplace, many urban refugees report abuse. Among those reporting mistreatment, late payment of wages (25 and 8 percent among men and women), non-payment altogether (20 and 10 percent among men and women), verbal abuse (6 and 18 percent among men and women) are most commonly cited. Similarly, discrimination and verbal abuse is more common among refugees compared to nationals in both urban areas and camps (refugees in camps 9 and 16 percent, refugees in urban areas 6 and 11 percent, nationals in rural areas 0 and 9 percent, and nationals in urban areas 1 and 6 percent). Another constraining factor to employment and entrepreneurship is that access to finance is limited across Burundi, and particularly low among camp and urban refugees (only 2 and 6 percent of camp and urban refugees have a banking account, while 14 and 17 percent respectively reported using mobile payments). Bank account ownership is low for both communities, but higher among urban national households (30 percent), followed by urban refugees (6 percent), and by rural nationals and refugees in camps (less than 2 percent).

Recommendation

Creating relevant job opportunities for host communities and refugees will be the most important step, i.e. through business grants to support innovation and job creation. In addition, providing relevant on-the-job training to refugees will be important, preferably as part of the (secondary) education cycle already. This will be particularly important for women-headed and more broadly urban-based refugees who most frequently report lack of adequate skills as reasons for lack of employment. Moreover, restrictive policies that limit refugees' capacity of movement and access to land could be revisited and aligned to more integrated solutions. This would also help take advantage of the agricultural training that refugees have. Furthermore, ensuring best practice application of labor laws and standards, as stipulated by the 2020 Labor Code would be relevant, including even application of the law across all groups working on Burundian soil, including refugees. Penultimately, increasing access to financial services and loans coupled with financial literacy and business training could be a way forward and support entrepreneurship and livelihoods, in both urban but particularly rural areas where it is basically non-existent. And finally, considering on how to support Burundian as well as well as refugee women who are

[8] Understanding the Socioeconomic Conditions of Refugees in Kenya: Volume A - Kalobeyei Settlement: Results from the 2018 Kalobeyei Socioeconomic Survey (English). Washington, D.C.: World Bank Group

excluded due to care work obligations, i.e., through creating daycare opportunities would help enormously to facilitate female labor force participation more generally.

Food insecurity in Burundi is pervasive among host communities and refugees, and asset deprivation is most common among rural households and camp-based refugee households. Food insecurity as per stunted children in the under-5 age bracket remains above 50 percent in Burundi, with notably higher levels among refugee hosting provinces. From the SES survey, we learn that self-reported hunger – going without food due to lack of resources during the past year - was widely and equally frequently reported by camp- and urban-based refugees (67 and 74 percent in urban areas for households headed by men and women, compared to 61 and 67 percent in camps for households headed by men and women). Besides, refugees self-report hunger more often than nationals, mainly in urban areas. Among nationals, 35 and 59 percent of households were hungry but did not eat due to the lack of resources in the previous year. Additionally, the slightly lower prevalence of hunger in camps compared to urban refugees (66 vs. 70 percent) may partly be explained by the higher access to food aid that refugees have in camps. Yet also in camps, following from qualitative evidence, food assistance is reported as providing inadequate coverage of refugees' nutritional needs. In urban areas, refugees must provide for themselves and findings from the SES suggest that means are frequently insufficient to ensure food security. Moreover, refugees in urban areas, mainly those headed by men, are less often deprived in multiple non-monetary dimensions than camp-based households. 30 percent of men-headed households living in urban areas are not deprived, compared to 11 percent of women-headed households living in urban areas, whereas every household in a camp is deprived in some dimension. Refugees that have been longer in the country (protracted) are also more likely to be part of the top 40 percent of the asset distribution, having had more time to accumulate assets. Among nationals, particularly male-headed households are more likely to report access to other (productive) assets, such as a bicycle or a fridge. Nearly 6 out of 10 urban refugee households headed by men are in the top 40 percent of the asset distribution, which reflects that they are more likely to own more assets compared to households headed by women. In turn, only 2 out of 10 refugees in camps are part of the top 40 percent of the asset distribution. In camps, the share of households in the top 40 percent of the asset distribution varies according to their year of arrival, unlike in urban areas. Protracted camp-households are more likely to own a larger amount of assets than non-protracted camp-based households. Urban households who arrived in 2015 or later likely brought capital with them to acquire assets or were able to quickly accumulate it. In contrast, camp households may enter Burundi without enough resources to acquire assets nor with a social network that can support them in terms of housing and asset sharing. Observed asset ownership does not vary between nationals and refugees in urban areas. A similar share of national and refugee households owns a refrigerator and a bicycle in urban areas (9 percent and 3-4 percent respectively). However, a larger share (18 percent) owns a bicycle compared to only 1 percent of refugees in camps. In addition, national households headed by men are the most likely to own a bicycle. Similarly, refugee households headed by men are more likely to own assets than households headed by women.

Recommendation

Reviewing (temporary) access to land for refugees could be an important step in ensuring food security and self-reliance. There are several examples of successful integration for land access, i.e. Uganda. Moreover, given the prevalence of small markets, immediately around refugee camps, more cash-based assistance could be considered. In Kenya, the Kalobeyei Integrated Social and Economic Development Plan (KISEDP), has a significant component on self-reliance, by having designated market areas, more extensive use of a cash-assistance program, and a greater promotion of subsistence agriculture.[9] It would help refugees gain independence in the type of foods they consume, but also allow refugees to participate in the local economy. In urban areas, targeted cash-based assistance for refugees could be instrumental in helping to meet food needs. Supporting loan programs to acquire productive assets in particular would be valuable refugees as they frequently leave behind everything when fleeing. Access to financial services is key to promote

[9] Idem.

entrepreneurship and constitute a potential strategy to cope with shocks. Urban refugee households, mainly those headed by men, have access to a wider range of services than camp-based households. Importantly, urban households are more likely to have saving accounts and emergency funds than camp-based households, which are crucial to overcome crises and implement positive coping strategies. A considerable share of camp-based households reported using mobile payments. This suggests that mobile banking represents a route to expand access to financial services among camp refugees. Moreover, bank account ownership is low for nationals and refugees, but higher among urban national households which may be explained by the availability of financial services in urban areas. Yet, urban refugee households report significantly lower ownership of bank accounts compared to nationals which may be partially explained by lack of documentation required to open bank accounts. National households headed by men are the most likely to have a bank account. Similarly, refugee households headed by men are more likely to have a bank account than households headed by women. This is important as access to bank accounts can enhance the possibility to access credit, loans which are crucial to open and strengthen (small) businesses.

Refugees, both in urban areas as well as in camps, arguably present more important opportunities than challenges. Across the world, a paradigm shift is ongoing as more evidence transpires that refugees tend to stay, and as such, new approaches must be sought out to rebuild their lives with dignity as well as use the opportunity to support host communities. New refugee communities tend to bring potential for new markets as they are producers and consumers and engage in exchange, entrepreneurship, but also bring new talent, skills, aspirations. One point in case is evidence gathered from Kakuma that it would be interesting to reproduce in the Burundi context. A conducted marketplace study quantifies Kakuma as a market valued at USD56milion, with opportunities ranging from retail trade, telecommunications, mobile money and access to finance, over to education and health. Yet, bottlenecks persist, and revolve classically around legal and regulatory limitations, resulting level of informality, as well as relatively low levels of education, financial literacy, low savings. All of the above are similar to challenges described in the evidence from SES and EICVMB, creating food for thought on re-thinking approach to Burundi's refugees, and think of them of exile communities and cities of their own that bring a chance of new markets, but also improved access to services for host communities.

COMPARATIVE INSIGHTS: REFUGEES AND HOST COMMUNITIES

Household and dwelling characteristics

Households headed by women

Nationals
Urban – 29%
Rural – 23%

Refugees
Urban – 48%
Camps – 79%

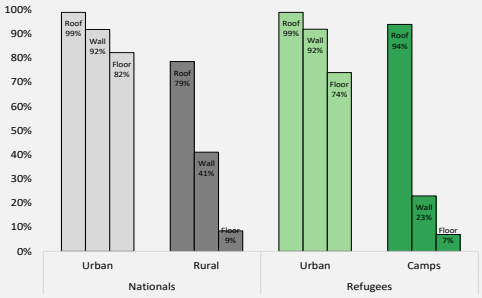
Size of the household

Nationals
4.5 – Urban – 1.9
4.7 – Rural – 2.1

Refugees
5.2 – Urban – 1.9
5.6 – Camps – 2.0

No. of rooms for sleeping

Improved materials of the dwelling



Access to services

Improved water sources

Nationals
63% – Urban – 83%
1% – Rural – 4%
15% – Head: Men– 22%
15% – Head: Women–22%

Refugees
61% – Urban – 35%
1% – Camps – 9%
50% – Head: Men– 29%
22% – Head: Women– 19%

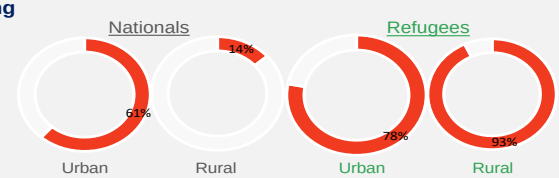
Improved sanitation

Open defecation

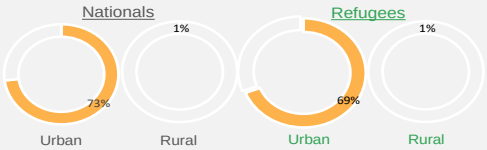
Nationals
Urban – 1%
Rural – 6%

Refugees
Urban – 15%
Camps – 3%

Toilet sharing



Access to electricity



Have a bank account

Nationals		Refugees	
30%	1%	6%	2%
Urban	Rural	Urban	Camps

Head: Men– 8%
Head: Women–6%

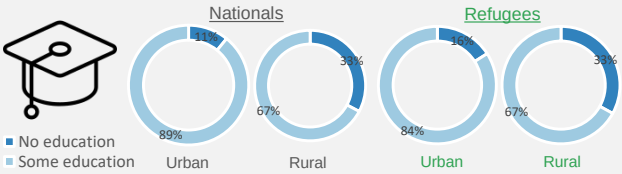
Head: Men– 8%
Head: Women– 2%

Education

Ever attended school

Nationals		Refugees	
89%	67%	87%	77%
Urban	Rural	Urban	Camps

Education



No education
Head: Men– 27%
Head: Women–25%

No education
Head: Men– 17%
Head: Women– 28%

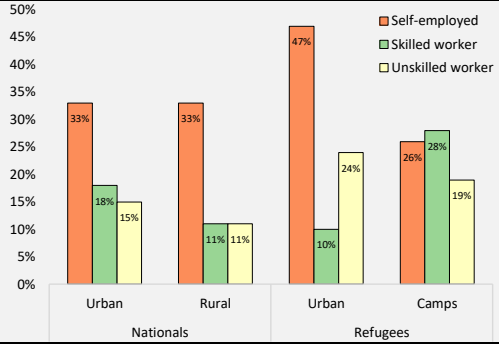
Livelihoods and employment

Worked in previous week

Nationals
Urban – 48%
Rural – 84%

Refugees
Urban – 32%
Camps – 10%

Type of employment



A. BACKGROUND

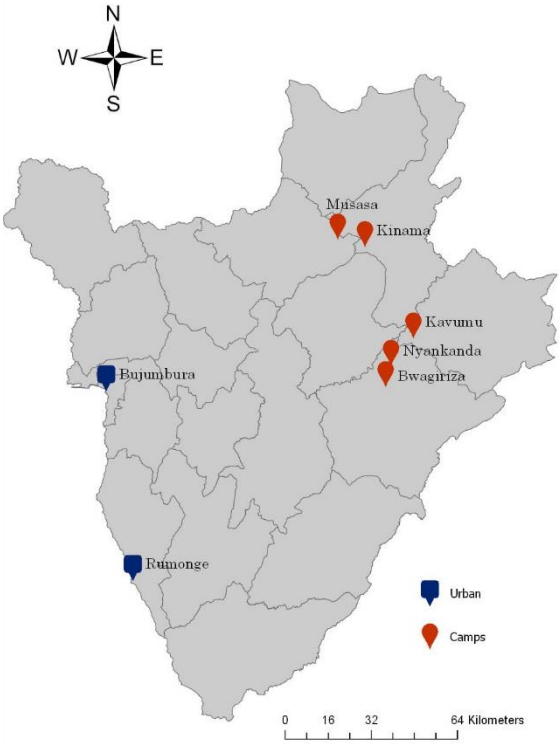
1. **The Republic of Burundi is a small, poor, and fragile country.** The Burundian people have experienced nine coup attempts since 1962, which went hand-in-hand with severe economic contractions. Following the Arusha agreements in 2020, the country witnessed relative stability and moderate growth. According to the previous poverty assessment, based on the 2013/14 household survey, 65.1 percent of the population lived below the international poverty line of $2.15 per day.[10] Poverty is more prevalent in rural areas, where it also tends to be deeper and more severe. Burundi's population, at 12.3 million as of 2020 is growing at 3 percent per year and is set to double as early as 2050, exacerbating existing population pressures on limited land resources. With 463 inhabitants per square kilometer, Burundi is already among the most densely populated countries in SSA.[11] Livelihoods based on agriculture are difficult to sustain as rampant food insecurity illustrates. Burundi has one of the highest rates of chronic undernutrition in SSA and worldwide, with almost one in two households being food insecure and over half of the children under-five experiencing stunting.

2. **The conclusion of the Arusha accords marked an important milestone following which UNHCR engaged in a scaled-up first phase of facilitated returns promoting voluntary repatriation of Burundian refugees from host countries of the Great Lakes region.** Commencing in 2002 and lasting until April 2015, when the constitutional crisis broke out, in excess of 500,000 Burundians returned to the country. The political and human rights dimension of the Burundi's situation triggered economic sanctions which had an adverse impact on economic growth and available budgetary resources of the State to support public services and social safety nets, including refugee hosting areas.

3. **Despite facing severe development challenges, Burundi has long been a generous host to refugees from other countries, hosting more than 85,000 refugees and asylum seekers as of 2022.** Burundi is party to the 1951 Refugee Convention, albeit with reservations with respect to the right to employment (accepting Article 17 only as a recommendation), public education (specifying that Article 22 is applicable to elementary education only and that the treatment of refugees shall be only as favorable as that of other foreigners), and freedom of movement (stipulating that refugees should not settle in regions bordering their country of origin). Individuals arriving in Burundi who seek asylum are first taken care of in the Cishemere Transit Centre (TC), nearby the border with the DRC, before being further transferred to camps or cities, depending on whether or not they can sustain themselves or are in need of related assistance. Provisional documents are issued to urban asylum seekers, who receive temporary residence permits pending the determination of their status.[12] The refugee status determination for asylum seekers coming from North and South Kivu is an accelerated process, based on the 1969 OUA Convention. Nearly half of refugees reside in Bujumbura, while others inhabit Kinama and Musasa camps in Muyinga and Ngozi provinces respectively; Bwagiriza and Nyankanda camps in Ruyigi province; and Kavumu camp in Cankuzo province (see Figure 1 and Annex Maps of refugee camps).[13] More than 60 percent of refugees in Burundi arrived before 2015, attesting to the need for more long-term policies regarding refugees' integration in Burundi's economy.

[10] Per capita purchasing power parity terms (2017(
[11] Food and Agriculture Organization and World Bank population estimates. https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/EN.POP.DNST?locations=BI
[12] UNHCR, "Burundi. Operations Plan Document."
[13] UNHCR, "UNHCR Burundi, Statistiques Mensuelles."

Figure 1: Location of camps and urban areas in Burundi



Note: The boundaries on the map show approximate borders and do not necessarily reflect official borders, nor imply the expression of any opinion concerning the status of any territory or the delimitation of its boundaries.
Source: Author's elaboration with information from UNHCR.

4. **The Global Compact on Refugees (GCR) represents a new approach to managing forced displacement situations based on a framework for more predictable and equitable responsibility-sharing.** The Government of Burundi has endorsed the GCR and, with the support of partners, committed to furthering refugee inclusion in national services, promoting the progressive self-reliance and economic integration of refugees, and improving the well-being of host communities through its 2018 Burundi Refugee and Host Community Support Strategy, which was developed in the context of eligibility for the IDA18 Sub-Window for refugees and host communities (RSW), and pledges made through the Global Refugee Forum. While Burundi has made extensive GRF pledges to empower refugees, matching pledges and international responsibility sharing for Burundi's asylum space has not been forthcoming. The fact that Burundi is a major refugee hosting country per-capita receives little or no international visibility.

5. **The presence of refugees adds another dimension to Burundi's development challenges, but also bears opportunities for host communities.** Refugee camps are placed in Burundi's lagging northern and eastern provinces, which are among the poorest of the country. Risks of refugee presence include further population pressures, causing environmental damage and putting further strain on scarce resources. Yet simultaneously, the presence of camps and its refugees bear opportunities for host communities, most notably through employment in camps and trade opportunities as a result of higher population numbers and the refugee economy.

6. **Refugees' places of origin remain volatile, and as such, more refugee inflows can be expected.** More than 9 in 10 refugees in Burundi come from the DRC and have fled waves of violent political and ethnic conflicts in the East, mainly North and South Kivu, where conflicts continue, and more refugee flows can be expected from. Recently increased influx confirms these trends, as refugee arrivals have steadily increased since 2015 (Figure 4). Other countries of origin include Rwanda, Angola, Central African Republic, South Sudan and Uganda.[14]

Box 1: Methodology

The SES – implemented by World Bank and UNHCR - was conducted in parallel with UNHCR's verification (VRX) exercise, selecting a representative sample of households. Together with the Government of Burundi, UNHCR maintains a database of all registered refugees and asylum seekers in the country. While registration takes place on a continuous basis, verification exercises are conducted periodically, typically every two to three years. The SES was designed to take place in in tandem with the 2019/20 Burundi VRX, during which refugees' registries were updated via in-person interviews in registration centres and UNHCR's offices in Bujumbura and camps. As the data collection had to be paused due to the COVID-19 pandemic outbreak, in-person interviews were complemented by phone interviews. While most refugee households were administered the VRX, a representative random sample of them were selected from the VRX for the SES (see Annex Survey methodology).

The SES questionnaire was designed to capture information on the living conditions of refugees in Burundi. [15] The SES captured socioeconomic information of refugees in urban areas (Bujumbura and Rumonge) and in camps (Kinama, Musasa, Bwagiriza Nyankanda, and Kavumu). The survey instrument included questions on demographic characteristics, disabilities, education, employment status, household characteristics, ownership of assets, access to financial services, vulnerability to shocks, perceptions and social cohesion.

Number of interviewed households for VRX and SES

Location	VRX	SES
Bujumbura	6,021	844
Kinama	1,277	198
Musasa	1,096	160
Kavumu	2,166	300
Bwagiriza	810	115
Nyankanda	729	116
Total	**12,099**	**1,733**

Source: Author's elaboration.

7. **At current levels of poverty in host provinces and with increasing flow of refugees, sustainable policies along the humanitarian-development nexus are key.** With continued influx, and relevant potential of refugees remaining in Burundi, it is important to understand the challenges faced by host

[14] UNHCR, "Operation: Burundi. 2019 Year-End Report"; UNHCR, "Fact Sheet. Burundi."

[15] Graphs and charts were created based on the Burundi SES 2019-2020 data. All differences presented are representative at least at the 5% level.

communities and refugee populations alike. The latter can help to delineate policies that may support the creation of sustainable livelihood opportunities for refugees and host communities and create economic opportunities for both parties.

8. **The Burundi SES provides a first source of information on the socioeconomic profile of refugees, while linking part of its findings to the living conditions of host communities using preliminary results from the *Enquête intégrée sur les conditions de vie des ménages au Burundi* (EICVMB) 2020-2021.** Sound policies start with strong data. Household surveys in Burundi are yet to systematically include refugees in a representative manner. The SES is the first representative survey of refugees in Burundi and adds to the policy dialogue regarding the production of comparable host-refugee data (Box 1). The joint UNHCR – World Bank socioeconomic survey aims to understand the living conditions of refugees in Burundi and provide evidence for policy planning and programming, seeking to create an environment in which host communities and refugees can thrive together.

B. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

9. **Most refugees in Burundi come from the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), nearly half of them live in camps and a third of them arrived in the two years prior to the SES.** Most respondents (96 percent) are refugees who have fled conflict from DRC (see DRC conflict overview in Annex Conflict in the Democratic Republic of the Congo), while 3 percent are Burundians who could be nationals that have joined a refugee household (Figure 2).[16] In Burundi, refugees can choose to settle in camps or outside of them, yet non-camp refugees do not obtain the same assistance provided by UNHCR and partners. 52 percent of refugees live in camps while the rest live in Bujumbura mairie and Rumonge (Figure 3; see Annex Maps of refugee camps). Refugee arrivals have steadily increased since 2015 (Figure 4). Refugees who arrived before 2015 are considered protracted and they comprise 65 percent of the refugee population (Figure 5).[17] Urban refugee households are more likely to be protracted than camp-based refugees, which may reflect a trend to move out of camps over time (Figure 6).[18]

Figure 2: Countries of origin

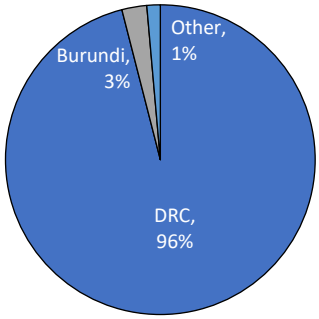


Figure 3: Area of residence

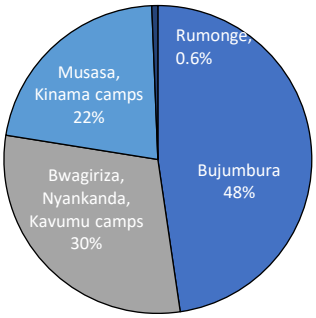
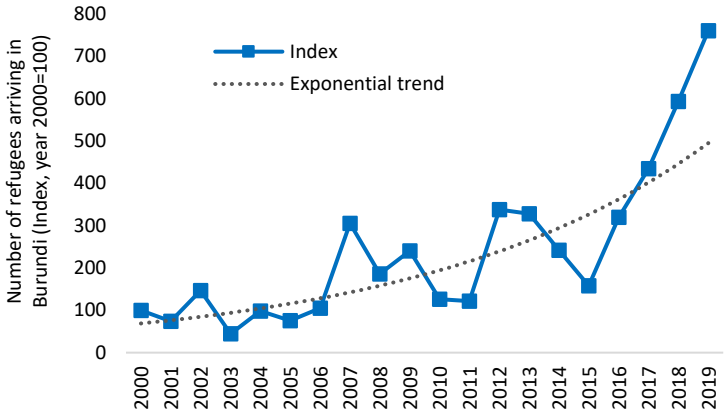


Figure 4: Year of arrival



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

[16] IOM, "Voluntary Repatriation and Reintegration of Burundian Refugees Plan 2020." Since 2017, the governments of Burundi and the United Republic of Tanzania, and UNHCR have engaged in tripartite agreements on the Voluntary Repatriation of Burundian Refugees from Tanzania. The latest iteration is the Joint Communiqué of the 21st Meeting of the Tripartite Commission for the Voluntary Repatriation of Burundian Refugees, where members of the three parties agreed on a planning figure for the voluntary repatriation of 2,000 Burundians per week.

[17] UNHCR, "Protracted Refugee Situations." Protracted refugee situations are those in which 25,000 persons or more have been in exile for five or more years.

[18] 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 errors.

10. **While age groups are balanced in terms of sex, camp-based refugees and non-protracted populations are younger than urban-based and protracted refugees.** Overall, women and men are evenly distributed across age groups. However, refugee women aged 30 to 39 slightly outnumber men in camps (Figure 7). This may be explained by the fact that most camp-based households are headed by women who usually have young dependents (Figure 8). Hence, the camp-based refugee population is younger than that of camps. While the average age of refugees is 19.6 years old, in camps the average age is 17.6 years old compared to 21.4 in urban areas. Heads of households who arrived before 2015 tend to be older (aged 40 and 37 years in urban areas and camps respectively) than those who arrived in 2015 or after (aged 37 and 32 years in urban areas and camps respectively).

Figure 5: Protracted situation

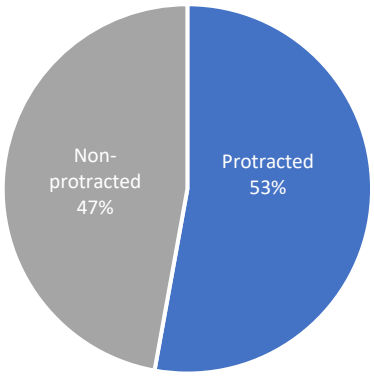


Figure 6: Year of arrival by location

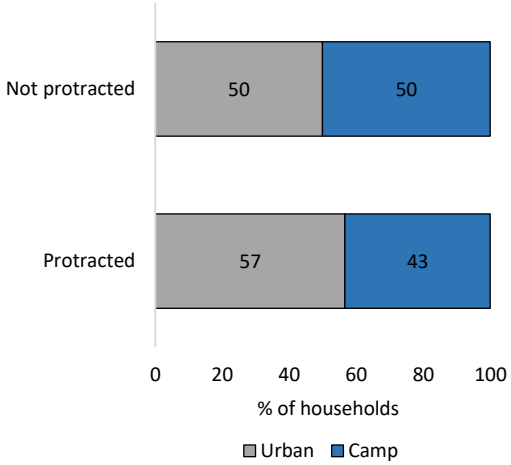
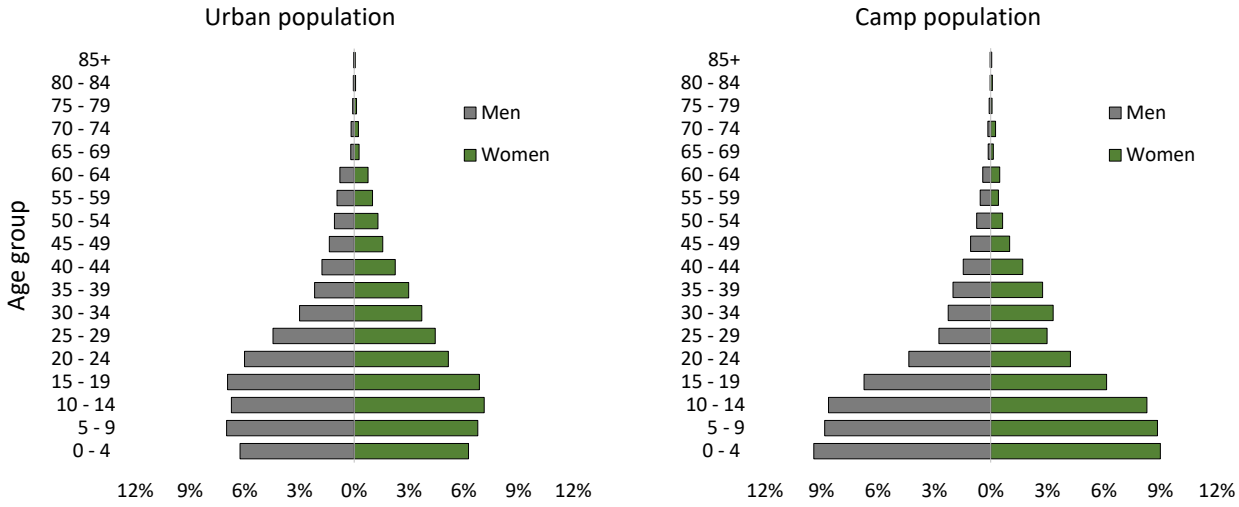


Figure 7: Population pyramids for urban and camp-based refugees



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

11. **Households headed by women are concentrated in camps and their displacement is more likely to be protracted.** The sex of the household head is highly correlated with the location of households

(Figure 8). Field observations from UNHCR reveal that women often choose to live in camps as many of them are not able to sustain themselves and their dependents in urban areas. Similarly, protracted households , especially in urban areas, are more likely to be headed by women than those who arrived in 2015 or later (Figure 9). The latter may be driven by different factors, including gender differential mortality rates.

Figure 8: Proportion of households headed by women by area of residence

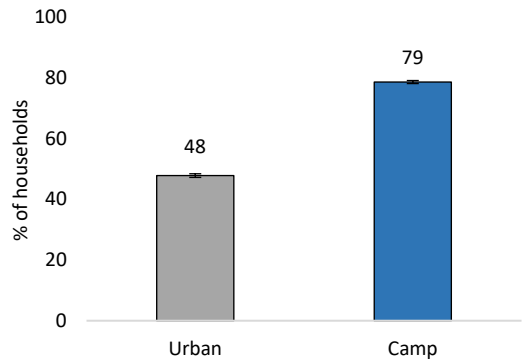


Figure 9: Proportion of households headed by women by protracted situation

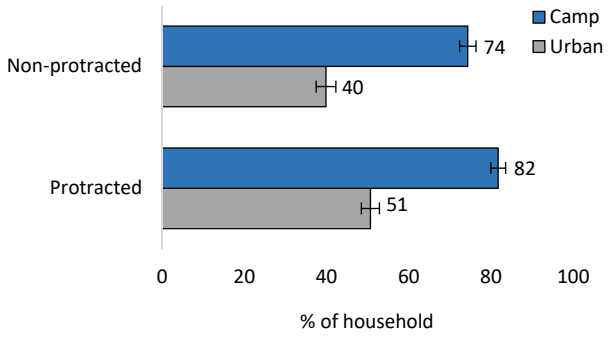


Figure 10: Household size by sex of household head

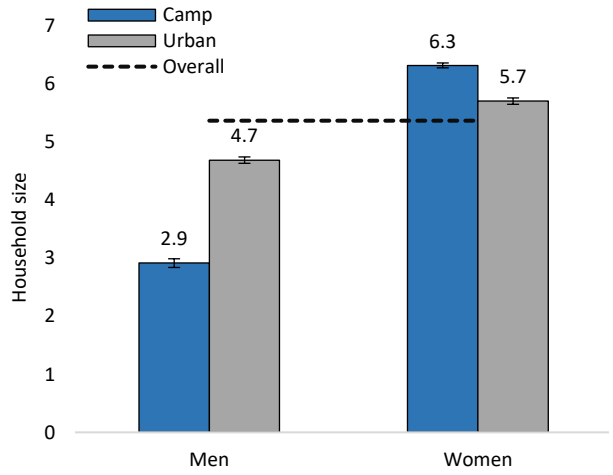
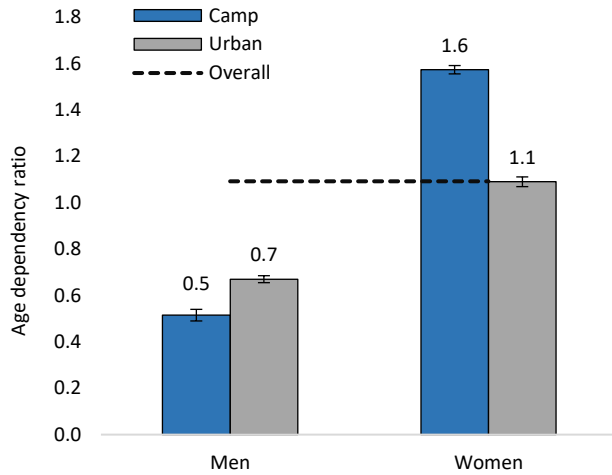


Figure 11: Dependency ratio by sex of household head



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

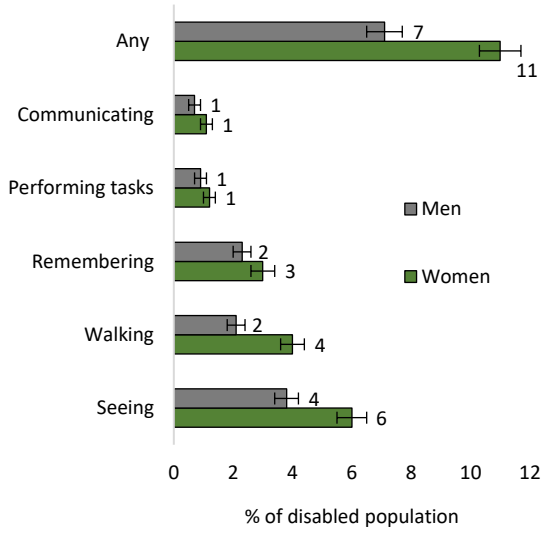
Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

12. **Households headed by women, especially in camps, have larger household sizes and more dependents than households headed by men.** In camps, households headed by women have more than 6 members compared to nearly 3 members among camp-based households headed by men. The large size of households headed by women results in a high dependency ratio of 1.6 compared to 0.5 among households headed by men (Figure 10 and Figure 11). In contrast, urban households headed by women have an average of about 6 members and a dependency ratio of 1.1 compared to an average household size of 5 members and a dependency ratio of 0.7 among male-headed households. Additionally, protracted urban households have fewer household members than those who arrived in 2015 or after (5.1 compared to 5.7 respectively). The opposite is true among camp-based households, protracted

households have more members than those who arrived who arrived in 2015 or after (5.9 compared to 4.6). The higher dependency ratio among households headed by women reflects the disproportionate responsibility and heightened vulnerability that women heads and their dependents face, when compared to men heads and their dependents.

13. **Disabilities are more commonly reported among the urban population, households headed by women and households whose heads are 50 years or older.**[19] The share of refugees reporting disabilities is largest in Bujumbura followed by camps in Ruyigi and Cankuzo provinces. In urban areas women, compared to men, report more difficulty seeing and walking (Figure 12). In camps, women are more likely to have trouble seeing, remembering and concentrating than men (Figure 13). The latter could be linked with post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). These associations hold after controlling for other factors (Table 11 in in Annex *Additional figures and regression analyses).* Importantly, disability is positively correlated with illiteracy, compounding vulnerabilities for this group of refugees. Household heads aged 50 and above are almost 3 times more likely to be disabled than those aged 30-49.

Figure 12: Types of disabilities among urban refugees



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Figure 13: Types of disabilities among camp refugees

Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

[19] Based on the six Washington Group Questions on Disability.

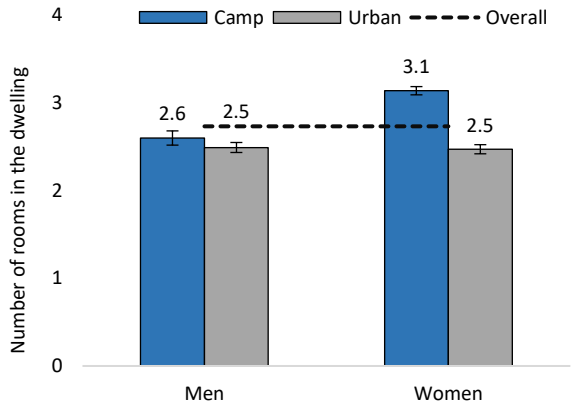
C. SERVICES

1. Housing, energy, water and sanitation

14. **Camp-based refugees build their own shelters with materials provided upon arrival while urban refugees are expected to cover their own accommodation costs.** In camps, ONPRA allocates refugees a plot of land while UNHCR, via the *Conseil pour l'Éducation et le Développement* (COPED), distributes shelter construction materials (see Annex Housing materials distributed in camps).[20] In contrast, refugees settling in urban centers seek their own accommodation.

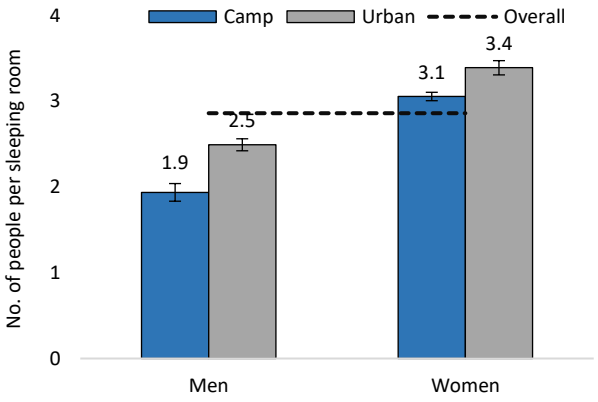
15. **Camp and urban-based households face similar overcrowding conditions, yet women-headed households experience more often over-crowding than those headed by men.** Camp-based households have more rooms (3 compared to 2.5 in urban areas) but a similar density of use than urban households (2.8 members per habitable room vs 2.9 in urban areas). As a result, a similar share of camp and urban-based households live in overcrowded conditions (50 and 46 percent respectively).[21] Households headed by women are more likely to live in overcrowded conditions (58 percent) compared to those headed by men (32 percent), which is in part a reflection of the higher dependency ratio discussed in the preceding section. Households headed by women in camps host more members per habitable room than their male counterparts. Differences by area of residence are also noticeable. Urban households headed by women follow a similar pattern (Figure 14 and Figure 15). Evidence from other contexts shows that overcrowding is linked with stress, domestic violence, spread of infectious diseases, and thus, requires adequate attention.[22]

Figure 14: Number of rooms by sex of head



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Figure 15: Members per room by sex of head



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

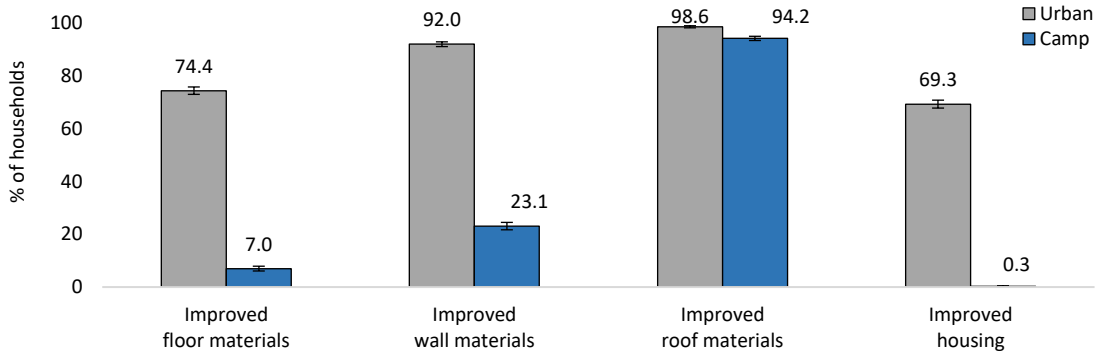
[20]According to qualitative UNHCR evidence, refugees do not receive tools, training or assistance on how to construct their homes. As a result, the elderly, households headed by women and persons with special needs would need to hire labor to construct their shelters. Similar sources of evidence suggest that the lack of money and assets may result in refugees selling their core relief items or food assistance to cover construction costs. And overcrowding is not uncommon. UNHCR, ONPRA, and WFP, "The Joint Assessment Mission Report Burundi."

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

[22] WHO, "What Are the Health Risks Related to Overcrowding?".

16. **Camp-based households have almost no access to improved housing, compared to 7 in 10 urban households**. While 74 percent of urban households use improved floor materials such as cement, tiles, or wood, only 7 percent of camp-based households do so. As for wall materials, 92 percent or urban households use concrete, blocks, or bricks while only 23 percent of camp-based households do so. The most frequently used wall material for camp-based households is mud (72 percent). Both camp and urban-based households tend to use improved roof materials, which can be explained by the delivery of iron sheets by UNHCR in camps. The use of improved housing materials is not significantly associated with the sex of the head, but rather with the location of the household. However, given that dwelling conditions are worse in camps and that households headed by women are concentrated in camps, this group is more likely to face unimproved housing. As unimproved housing materials are linked with the prevalence of diseases such as malaria as well as weather impacts such as floods and wind speed increase, these households are especially at risk.[23]

Figure 16: Distribution of households by type of housing materials



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

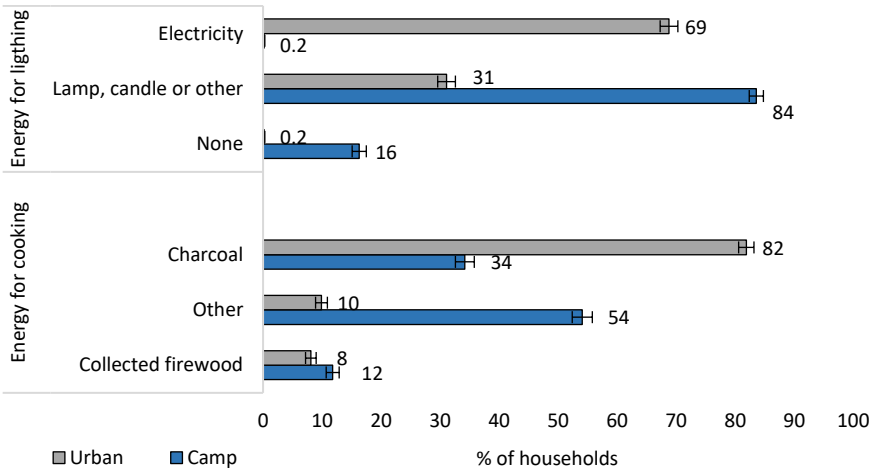
17. **Access to energy for lighting and cooking is a persistent challenge faced by most refugees in Burundi, and particularly in camps.** Most urban households rely on charcoal for cooking, versus around a third of camp-based households (Figure 17). Other sources, including high-density biomass briquettes provided by UNHCR, are also commonly used in camps, however, the evidence suggests that the quantity of such briquettes is insufficient, leading to the use of firewood as well (12 percent of households).[24] As firewood collection in host communities is prohibited for refugees, some refugees, usually women, collect firewood at night, risking physical assault, gender-based violence (GBV) and arrest if discovered.[25] Added to these risks, firewood collection contributes to deforestation, exacerbating the existing environmental impacts faced in Burundi.[26] Refugees in urban areas often have better access to diverse energy sources, although at a cost.

18. **Energy for lighting varies by location, with camp refugees having almost no access to electricity**. In urban areas, 72 percent of households headed by men and 65 percent of those headed by women use electricity as their main source of lighting (69 percent overall). In contrast, only 0.2 percent of camp-based households use electricity for lighting (Figure 17). In camps, the most widely used source of lighting are

[23] 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."
[24] World Bank, "Burundi Integrated Community Development Project. Rapid Environmental Impact Assessment."
[25] UNHCR, ONPRA, and WFP, "The Joint Assessment Mission Report Burundi," 41.
[26] World Bank, "Burundi Integrated Community Development Project. Rapid Environmental Impact Assessment."

candles and lamps (84 percent) compared to 31 percent of urban households. Importantly, 16 percent of camp-based households have no access to any source of lighting (27 percent headed by men vs 13 percent of headed by women), while almost all urban households have access to any source of lighting. Notably, limited access to lighting can have negative implications on education outcomes, perceptions of insecurity, risk of GBV, crime and community violence and lead to negative health outcomes and respiratory diseases linked to the use of biomass and incandescent materials for lighting.[27]

Figure 17: Main sources of energy for lighting and cooking



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

19. **The main source of energy for cooking is biomass fuels rather than electricity, however, it varies by location.** Charcoal is the most used source of energy for cooking in urban areas (Figure 17). In camps, refugees do not use charcoal and firewood as much as 'other' fuels which, according to UNHCR are the monthly distributed high-density biomass briquettes which release less particulate matter and other pollutants than charcoal and firewood. The use of regular biomass for cooking, such as wood, crop residues, dung, charcoal and coal fuels could have negative health consequences for refugees.[28] The combustion of such fuels emits large amounts of airborne pollutants which can generate acute respiratory diseases and other ailments especially for women and girls who are often the main household cooks, as well as for children under the age of 5, who normally remain in the proximity of the cooking area when food is being prepared.[29]

20. **While most urban- and camp-based refugees share toilets, access to improved water and sanitation is particularly scarce in camps, although urban households also face limitations.** 6 in 10 urban households have access to improved water sources, compared to only less than 1 in 10 households of camp-based households (Figure 18). Moreover, UNHCR operations confirm that refugees in camps are often not always able to access the recommended 20 liters per person per day (see Annex Water

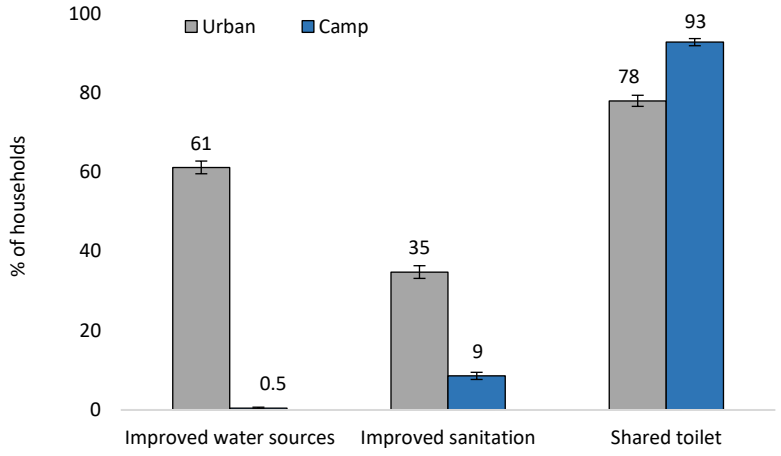
[27] Solar energy programs have been rolled out to address lighting needs. A UNHCR program distributed 2500 individual solar lamps to camp-based households with secondary school students. While an RCT was not conducted, school performance improvements were observed (increased end year exam completion rates, from 63% in 2019 to 82% in 2020).

[28] Bonjour et al., "Solid Fuel Use for Household Cooking: Country and Regional Estimates for 1980-2010."; Kurmi et al., "COPD and Chronic Bronchitis Risk of Indoor Air Pollution from Solid Fuel: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis."

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

distribution in camps).[30] In urban areas, 68 percent of households headed by men reported access to improved water sources compared to 54 percent of households headed by women. Access to improved sanitation is generally low, although lower in camps, while differences by the sex of the household head are not significant. Furthermore, toilet sharing is very common in camps- and urban areas with not significant differences according to the sex of the household head.[31] The low access to improved water and sanitation, and a high prevalence of toilet sharing could result in increased risk of GBV, and other negative physical and mental health outcomes.

Figure 18: Access to improved water and sanitation



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

2. Education

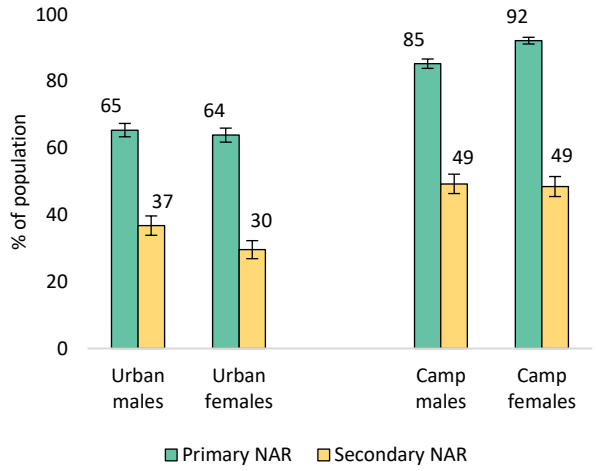
21. **Refugees are legally entitled to receiving equal access to primary education compared with nationals, yet for other (higher) levels of education they are treated as any other foreigner.** De jure**,** Burundi's 2008 law on asylum protects the right of refugees to benefit from the same health and primary education services as Burundians.[32] Hence, refugees are entitled to access health and education services as Burundians. However, with regards to access to secondary and other levels of education, refugees receive no special provision. Access to post-primary education may involve higher school fees and strict documentation requirements which not all refugees can meet. Importantly, this constitutes a relevant bottleneck, as access to quality education is crucial to support refugees' capacity to improve their income-generating prospects and overall welfare. While in principle refugee students can opt for inclusion into the national public education system, in practice the geographic isolation of the camps makes it

[30] UNHCR, ONPRA, and WFP, "The Joint Assessment Mission Report Burundi," 32.
[31] As highlighted in UNHCR's end-year report, in 2019, minimum standards in water and sanitation were unmet, mainly due to underfunding (UNHCR 2019)
[32] Republique du Burundi, Burundi: Loi No. 1/32 de 2008 sur l'asile et la protection des réfugiés au Burundi, 19.
Chapter III, Section 3. Art. 67: Les réfugiés bénéficient du même traitement que les burundais en ce qui concerne l'enseignement primaire et les soins de santé.
Chapter III, Section 3. Art. 68: Il est accordé aux réfugiés un traitement aussi favorable que possible, et en tout cas non moins favorable que celui qui est accordé aux étrangers en général dans le mêmes circonstances quant aux catégories d'enseignement autre que l'enseignement primaire et notamment en ce qui concerne l'accès aux études, la reconnaissance de certificats d'études, de diplômes et de titres universitaires délivrés à l'étranger, la remise des droits et taxes.

impossible. These barriers are recognized and commitments have been made to further the de facto inclusion of refugees into the national education system.

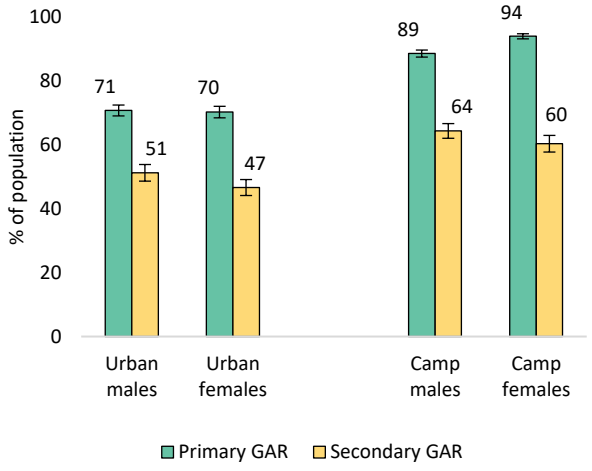
22. **Primary school attendance is highest in camps.** In urban areas, 64 percent of primary school age refugee children attend school (65 percent of boys and 64 percent of girls). In contrast, 89 percent of camp-based children attend school (85 percent of boys and 92 percent of girls; Figure 19).[33] High attendance rates (gross and net) in camps may partly be explained by the work of organizations dedicated to cover the educational needs of camp-based refugees. Furthermore, the education curriculum in camps, unlike in urban areas, follows the Congolese curriculum, which likely constitutes a factor in enhancing attendance and retention as many refugees might prefer such a curriculum. The language of education in urban schools is Kirundi and French. Yet even though attendance rates are relatively high in camps, evidence from UNHCR operations indicates that access to a quality education remains a challenge. Attendance is reportedly worse towards the end of the ration cycle when food reserves at the household level have been depleted.[34]

Figure 19: Primary and secondary school net attendance rates, by sex



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Figure 20: Primary and secondary school gross attendance rates, by sex



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

23. **Secondary school attendance is generally low, although lower for urban-based children compared to their camp-based counterparts and even lower for urban refugee girls**. When considering gross attendance, primary and secondary school attendance rates increase in both locations although they remain lower in urban centers and even lower among women (Figure 20). School attendance persistently declines for the secondary school cycle, for age groups 12 through 19 (not taking into account

[33] The Net Attendance Rate (NAR) measures the attendance status of the official age-group for a given level of education expressed as a percentage of the corresponding population. The Gross Attendance Rate (GAR) is the number of students attending a given level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the official school-age population corresponding to the same level of education. The GAR is greater than NAR, and it can exceed 100 percent. The NAR helps determine whether school age children are attending school at the correct age, whereas the GAR is important to determine the participation of over-age participants.

[34] UNHCR, ONPRA, and WFP, "The Joint Assessment Mission Report Burundi."

frequent repetitions). While attendance rates decline generally, women's attendance rates for these age brackets are persistently lower than those for men.

Figure 21: Overall school attendance by age group and sex

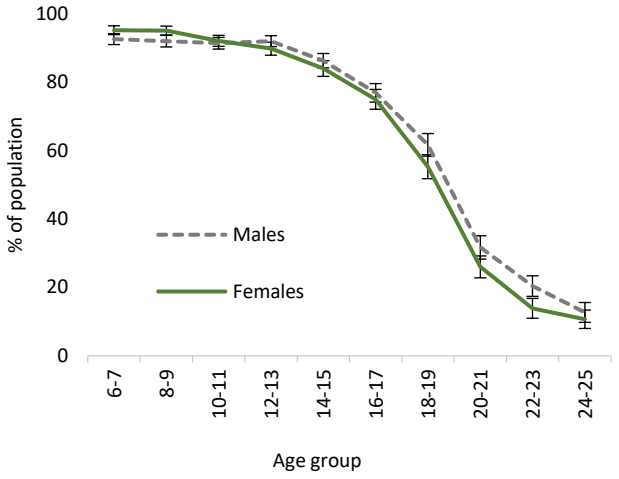
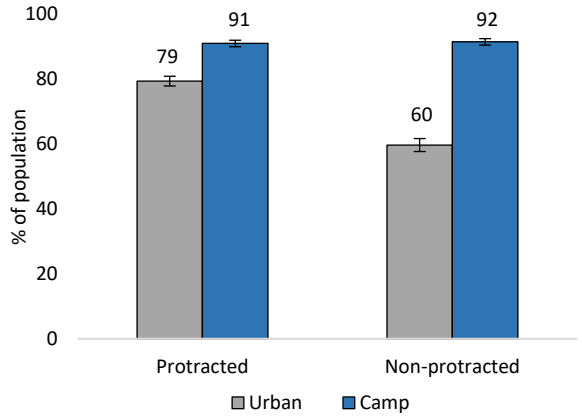
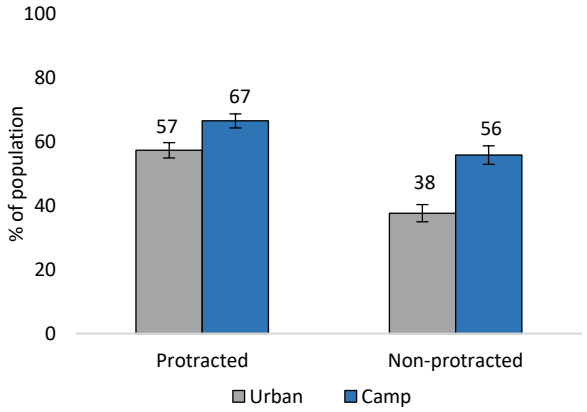


Figure 22: Primary school gross attendance rates, by year of arrival



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Figure 23: Secondary school gross attendance rates, by protracted situation



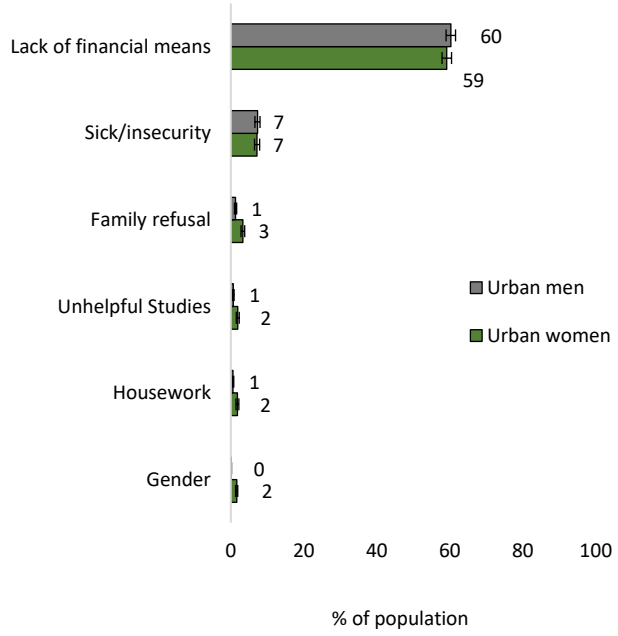
Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

24. **Gross primary and secondary school attendance are higher among protracted refugees than among those who arrived after 2015.** In urban areas gross attendance is higher for refugees who arrived before 2015 as opposed to those who arrived in 2015 or later (Figure 22), whereas there are no similar differences in camps. Secondary school gross attendance is also higher among more protracted refugees compared to recent arrivals in both camps and urban settings (Figure 23). Particularly in urban settings, this may reflect that protracted refugees' parents who have been living in the country for longer have stronger social networks and enhanced income-generating activities that may help address their children's educational needs and cover the associated costs to education.

25. **Lack of financial resources is the most common reason why refugees stopped or never attended school.** More prominently in urban areas, refugees report lack of financial resources as the main reason

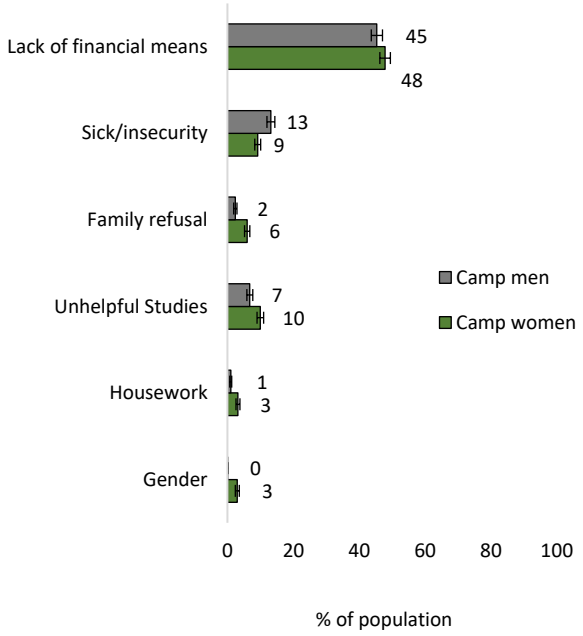
for not attending or having stopped attending school. Sickness and insecurity is the second main reason for not attending school (Figure 24 and Figure 25). Camp-based refugees, especially in the old camps (Kinama and Musasa), are more likely to state that studies are not helpful as a reason for having stopped or never having attended school. Women and girls are more likely to report family refusal and gender roles-related reasons (being a girl) as the reason for never having attended or having stopped attending school.

Figure 24: Main reasons for stopping or never having attended school, by sex for urban refugees



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Figure 25: Main reasons for stopping or never having attended school, by sex for camp refugees



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

26. **Refugee women, especially in camps, are less often literate and less likely to have ever attended school compared to men.** Literacy and ever having attended school are higher in urban areas compared to camps.[35] Yet, since literacy rates are lower than the share of refugees reporting to have ever attended school, attendance does not seem to translate into outcomes (Figure 26). Urban-based refugee men have the highest literacy rates and are the most likely to have ever attended school compared to camp-based men and women overall. The opposite is the case among camp-based women. In contrast, urban-based women and camp-based men's literacy rates are similar and they are also equally like to have ever attended school.

27. **Literacy is higher among younger generations, particularly in camps, suggesting there have been improvements in educational outcomes across age cohorts.** Younger populations are more likely to be literate, reflecting a generational gap in literacy (Figure 27). Additional schools for children in camps could be driving this improvement across generations. Nevertheless, lower literacy rates among working age refugees, especially in camps, can result in limited livelihoods opportunities, low-skilled work and thus, low-paid jobs.

[35] Literacy is defined as the self-reported ability to read and write in any language.

Figure 26: Literacy and ever attendance to school by location and sex

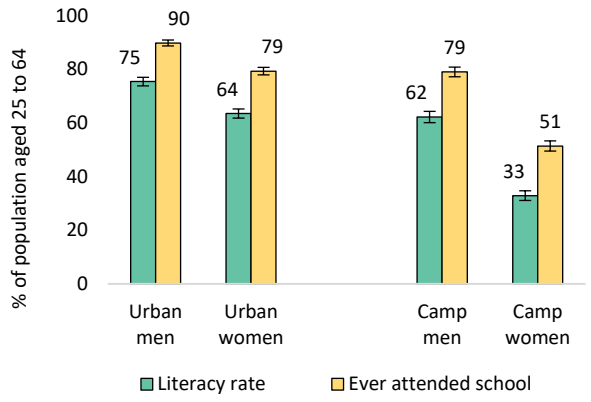


Figure 27: Literacy rate by age group

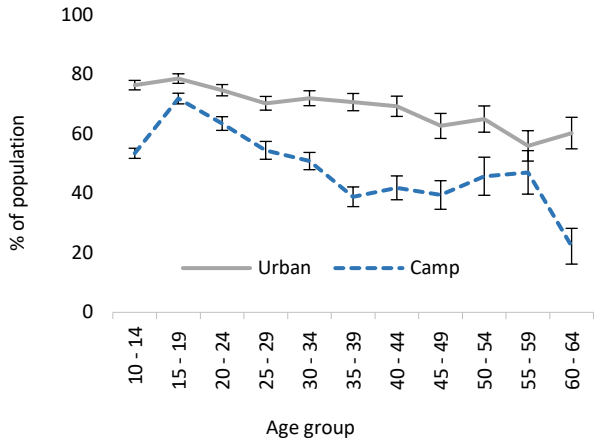
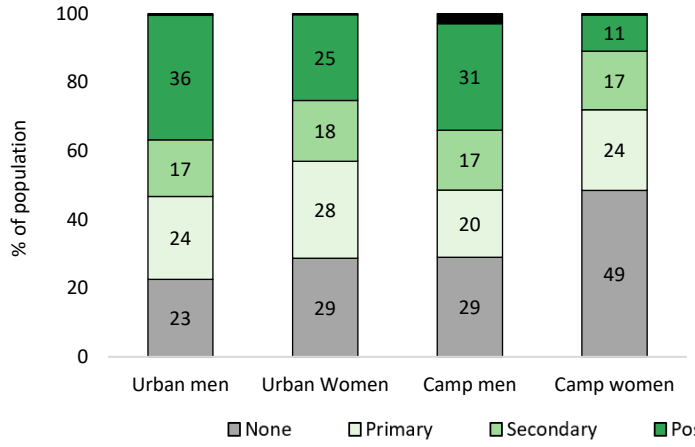
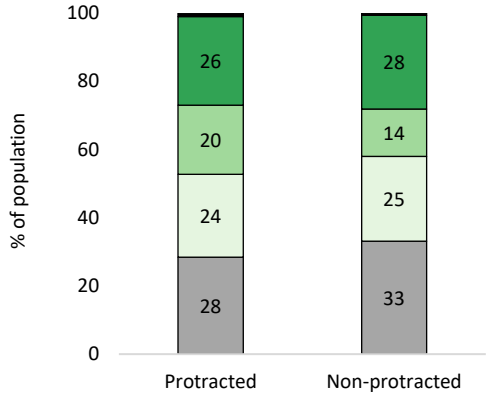


Figure 28: Educational attainment by location and sex



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Figure 29: Educational attainment by protracted situation



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Note: None refers to no studies or less than primary, while other categories represent at least some studies.

28. **Educational attainment is higher in urban areas and among more protracted refugees, and systematically lower for women across urban areas and camps.** Camp-based refugee women are the least likely to have attained higher education while the opposite is true for urban-based men (Figure 28). Nearly half of camp-based women have no education, compared to 23 percent of urban-based men. Interestingly, urban women and camp-based men are equally likely to have no education although the level of education among camp-based men is higher than that of urban women. Notably, refugee women lag behind refugee men. Protracted refugees are less likely to not have studies compared to those who arrived in 2015 or later, suggesting that over time refugees may be able to enhance their educational opportunities (Figure 29).

D. LIVELIHOODS AND EMPLOYMENT

29. **Even though the Burundian law allows refugees to move freely and work, in practice refugees continue to face restrictions undermining their ability to become self-reliant.** The 2008 asylum law protects the right of refugees to move freely under the same rules as other foreign nationals (Art. 74), as well as to engage in income-generating activities within the framework provided by the laws of Burundi while being exempt from specific labor restrictions posed to other foreigners (Art. 65).[36] Nevertheless, there are some restrictions in practice. Camp-based refugees are not allowed to go beyond 3 kilometers outside camps unless an exit permit is granted by the camp administration and assured by ONPRA (Office National pour les Réfugiés et les Apatrides).[37] Given that camps are located in remote areas (see Figure 1), there is a large distance between camps and towns. As a result, movement restrictions for refugees living in camps fundamentally curtail their ability to work and generate income. In addition, refugees have very limited access to land and restricted opportunities to engage in agricultural activities which further hinders their possibilities for generating income and achieving self-reliance.[38] Some agricultural projects have granted access to land for agriculture to "only" 125 refugees through cooperatives that are comprised by hosts and refugees (see Annex Cooperatives, crops, land distributed and trainings).

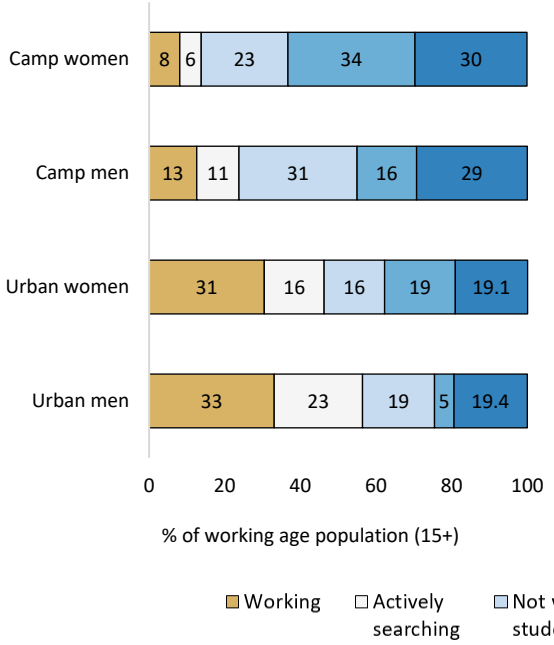
30. **Refugees' ability to move outside camps were further restricted as a result of the COVID-19 mitigation measures in Burundi**. Beginning November 6th, 2020, based on instructions by the Ministry of Interior, ONPRA suspended the granting of exit permits for all camp-based refugees (regardless of their ethnicity). Camp-based refugees were only allowed to move within a 3 km perimeter around the camps and exit permits are only issued for medical reasons at the discretion of the camp administration. Refugees attempting to leave the camp without a valid exit permit risked arrest and detention. Since police have instructions to be diligent in controlling the documentation of all refugees, over the first weeks of November 2020 a number of refugees were arrested and detained by the authorities.[39] While movement conditions have improved, limitations remain and are likely to have a severe impact on the livelihoods of camp-based refugees.

31. **Only 2 out of 10 refugees aged 15 years or more were working at the time of the survey**.[40] 1 out of 10 camp-based refugees aged 15 years or more reported to be working (8 percent of women vs. 13 percent of men), compared to 3 out of 10 in urban areas (31 percent of women vs. 33 percent of men; Figure 30). In urban areas, Bujumbura in particular, both protracted refugees as well as those who arrived since 2015 are equally likely to be working, speaking to the significantly better work opportunities in those areas when compared to rural areas and camps where camp-based refugees reside (Figure 31 and Table 1). Living in urban areas, as compare to camps in rural areas, is the single-most important correlate for a refugee's working status. In both locations, women are less likely to be working than men. Refugees who

[36] Republique du Burundi, Burundi: Loi No. 1/32 de 2008 sur l'asile et la protection des réfugiés au Burundi, 19.
Chapter III, Section 2. Art. 65: les mesures restrictives imposées aux étrangers ou à l'emploi d'étrangers pour la protection du marché national du travail ne sont pas applicables aux réfugiés.
Chapter III, Section 5. Art. 74: Les réfugiés se trouvant régulièrement sur le territoire burundais ont le droit de choisir leur lieu de résidence et de circuler librement sous les réserves instituées par la réglementation applicable aux étrangers en général dans les mêmes circonstances.
[37] UNHCR, "Burundi. Operations Plan Document," 8. There is a risk for refugees living in camps to be arrested and detained if found outside the camps or at border areas without written permission.
[38] UNHCR, ONPRA, and WFP, "The Joint Assessment Mission Report Burundi."
[39] UNHCR, "Burundi. Operations Plan Document," 8. There is a risk for refugees living in camps to be arrested and detained if found outside the camps or at border areas without written permission.
[40] Outside the labor force population is comprised by those who report not to be working nor actively searching.

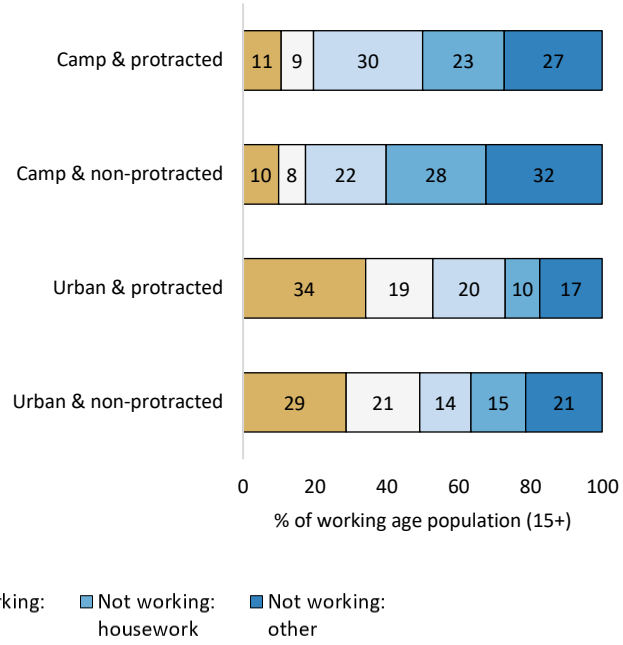
are literate and those with a higher level of education are more likely to work than those who are illiterate and have lower levels of education. Disability and camps are negatively correlated with working status. Male refugees are also more likely to not be working due to studies than women, who report not being engaged in paid work mainly due to housework.[41] This difference is more prominent in camps, where even though most households are headed by women, latter are the least likely to work for pay and most likely to not do so due to (unpaid) housework.

Figure 30: Employment status by location and sex



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Figure 31: Employment status by protracted situation



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

32. **Most employed refugees are self-employed or work as unskilled employees, with services, wholesale and retail trade being the main employment sectors**. In urban areas, self-employment is the most common occupation among refugees and one of the most common in camps (Figure 32). More than half of camp-based refugees work on the services sector, while wholesale and retail trade is the main sector in urban areas (Figure 33). Both sectors are understood to be the most severely affected by the COVID-19 pandemic.[42] In urban areas, these sectors are in line with observations from UNHCR, suggesting most employed refugees participate in the informal activities, and are often involved in small trade including the trade of goods imported from DRC.[43] Even though most refugees in Burundi have agricultural backgrounds, only 3 percent of employed refugees currently work in agriculture, mainly due to limited access to land.[44] Thus, refugees often have little choice but to develop and/or strengthen non-agricultural skills to successfully adapt and carry out jobs in other sectors. Agricultural work among refugees is normally carried out in the form of casual work on lands rented by members of the host community.

[41] Households integrated by 1 or 2 adults are mainly headed by men (74 percent) and slightly more likely to be in urban areas (56 percent).
[42] ILO, "ILO Monitor: COVID-19 and the World of Work."
[43] UNHCR, "Note on the Protection Situation of Refugees in Burundi during the Covid-19 Pandemic."
[44] UNHCR, ONPRA, and WFP, "The Joint Assessment Mission Report Burundi."

According to UNHCR operations, rental agreements are a common source of conflict and misunderstanding between refugees hosts communities.

Table 1: Correlates of working status

Independent variables	Dependent variable: Worked over the last week (population aged 15-64)		
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Arrived recently: In the last 5 years (Yes/No)	-0.056	-0.056	-0.055
Education received in Burundi (Yes/No)	-0.005	-0.005	0.003
Female (Yes/No)	-0.060*	-0.064*	-0.060*
Age (Years)	0.005**	0.005**	0.005**
Country of origin: DRC (Yes/Other)	-0.194*	-0.194*	-0.201**
Head of household (Yes/No)	0.126*	0.130*	0.126*
Household size (Number)	-0.002	-0.003	-0.002
Highest level of education: None (Yes/No)		Base group	
Highest level of education: Primary (Yes/No)	0.068***	0.068***	0.065***
Highest level of education: Secondary (Yes/No)	0.087***	0.087***	0.084***
Highest level of education: Higher (Yes/No)	0.122	0.124	0.126
Literate (Yes/No)	0.038*	0.036*	0.037*
Has any disability (Yes/No)	-0.073*	-0.073*	-0.070*
Single adult household (Yes/No)	No	-0.036	No
Location: camp (Yes/No)	No	No	-0.238***
Location fixed effects	Yes	Yes	No
Observations	3,903	3,903	3,903
Adj. R-squared	0.147	0.147	0.143

The coefficients were estimated from an OLS regression model. Standard errors were clustered at the province level. Significance level: 1% (***), 5% (**) and 10% (*).

Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

33. **The main obstacles in securing employment are lack or limited opportunities predominantly, but in part also lack of adequate skills and lack of experience.** Limited employment opportunities are more widely reported by refugee men than by women in urban areas (Figure 34). In contrast, refugee women especially in camps report lack of skills as an important obstacle in securing employment (Figure 35). Lack of experience is also reported mainly by camp-based refugees as an important limitation (5.4 percent vs 1.7 percent in urban areas). Unlike camp-based refugees, those in urban areas also report lack of proper documentation as an obstacle in securing employment (4.2 percent vs 1.6 percent in camp settings).

34. **Problems at the workplace are more common among urban refugees, with men facing issues related with wages or payments while women face abuse.** 4 out of 10 urban refugee men faced problems at the workplace compared to 3 out of 10 urban women and 2 out of 10 refugees in camps (Figure 36). Women in urban areas more frequently report physical and verbal abuse as well as non-payment of compensation. In turn, men in urban areas more often report late or non-payment of wages and discrimination than women (Figure 37). Other problems may go underreported due to shame, avoidance

of mentioning or reporting problems due to fear of losing employment or lack of awareness regarding employment rights.

Figure 32: Type of employment

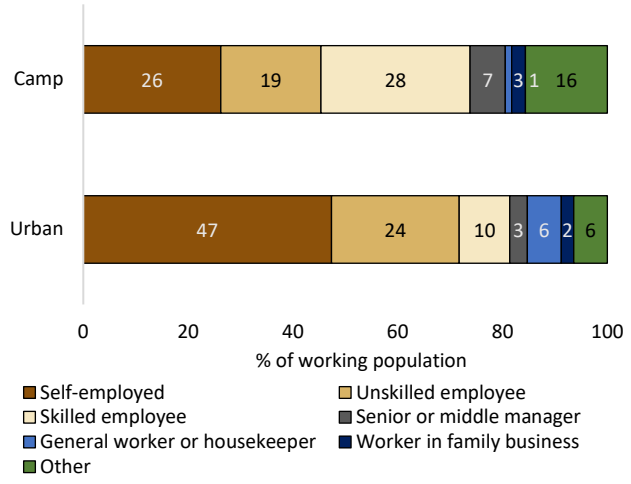


Figure 33: Employment sector

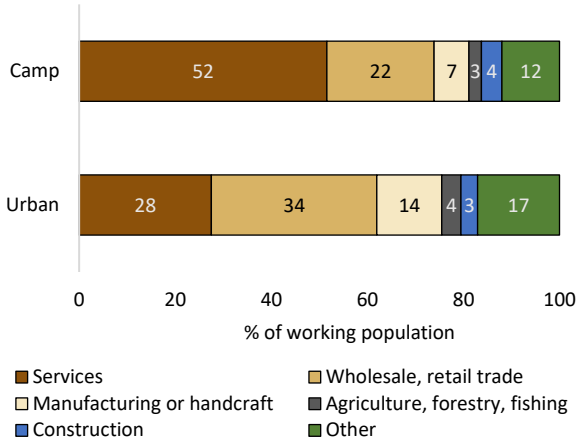
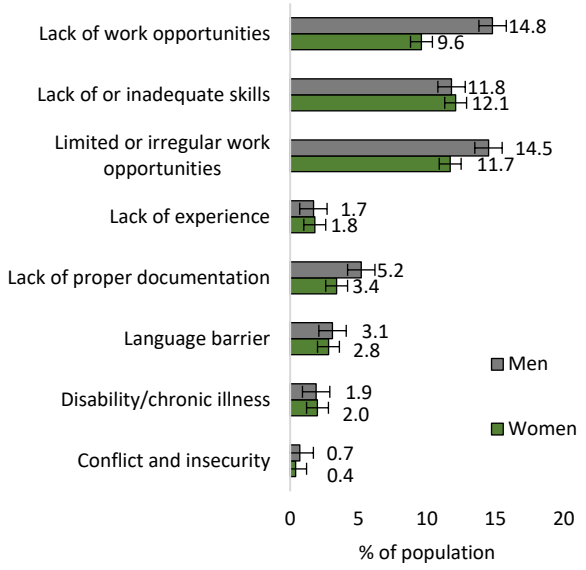
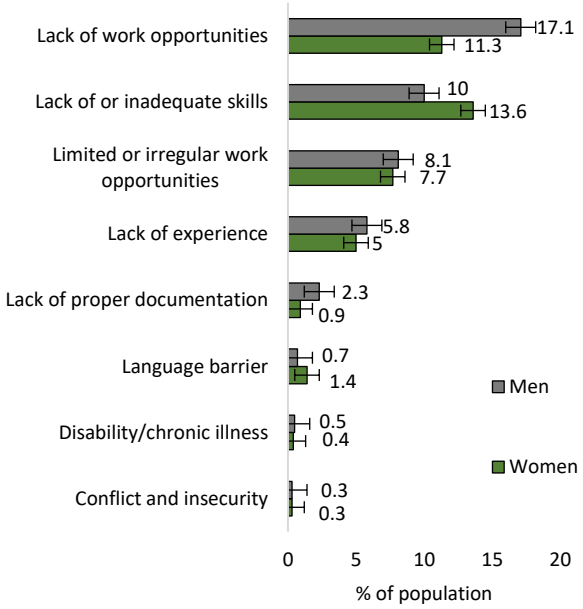


Figure 34: Main obstacles in securing a job in urban areas by sex



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Figure 35: Main obstacles in securing a job in camps by sex



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

35. **Access to financial services is low, mainly among camp-based households.** Access to financial services is key to promote entrepreneurship and constitute a potential strategy to cope with shocks. Urban households, mainly those headed by men, have access to a wider range of services than camp-based households (Figure 38; Figure 39). Importantly, urban households are more likely to have saving accounts and emergency funds than camp-based households, which are crucial to overcome crises and implement positive coping strategies. A considerable share of camp-based households reported using mobile payment. This suggests that mobile banking represents a route to expand access to financial

services among camp refugees. Increasing access to financial services could improve household's capacity to overcome crises and support refugees' entrepreneurial activities.

Figure 36: Share of employed that faced problems at their workplace by location and sex

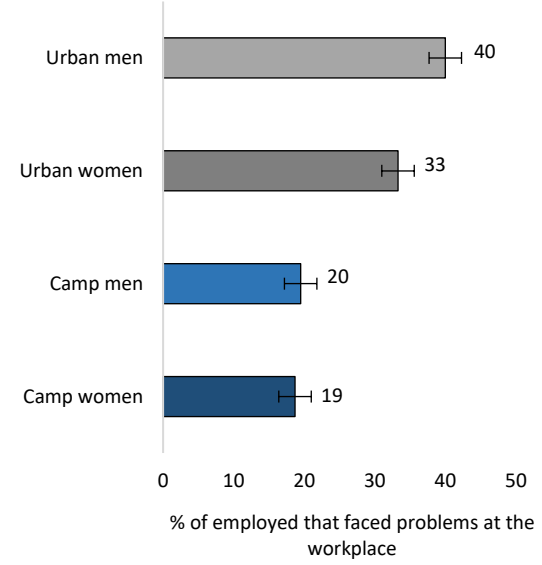


Figure 37: Main problems faced at the workplace, urban

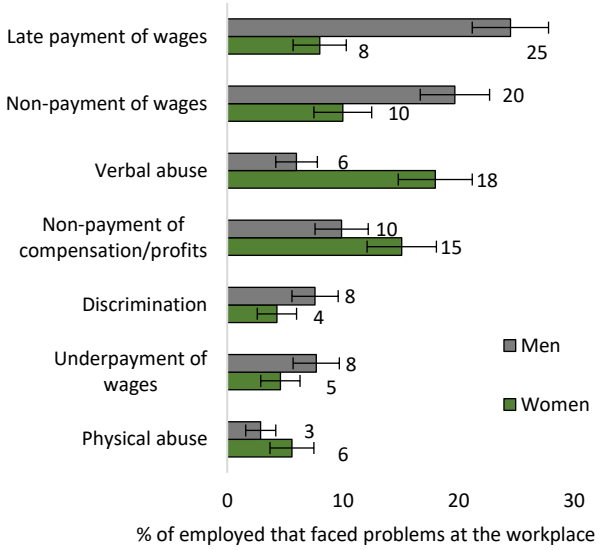
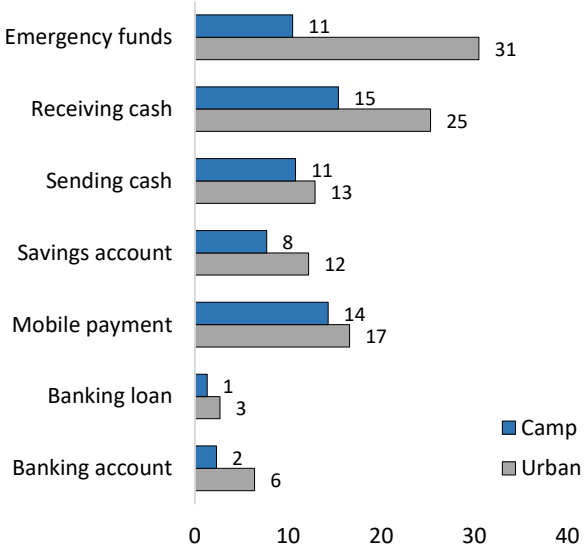
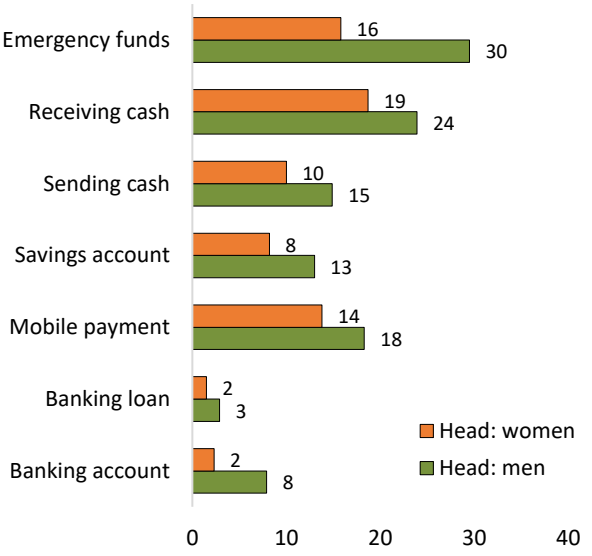


Figure 38: Most widely used financial services, for camp and urban refugees



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Figure 39: Most widely used financial services by sex of head



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

36. **Camp-based household heads, who are mostly women, are more likely to be uneducated and do housework when compared to their male and urban counterparts.** The head of the household is usually the primary member engaged in income-generating activities. Overall, heads of households residing in urban areas are slightly older, with higher education and are more often working than those in camps. School attendance, literacy and level of education is higher among men heads of households in

urban areas compared to urban women heads and camp-based heads of households. While women heads in urban areas have on average a lower educational attainment than men heads in camps, they are more likely to be working than camp-based men heads of households (Table 2). Such a difference may be partly explained by movement restrictions faced by refugees in camps, which limits their capacity to engage in the labor market.

Table 2: Profile of household heads

	Urban		Camp	
	Head: Men	Head: Women	Head: Men	Head: Women
Average age	38.4	38.5	32.4	35.3
Ever attended school	90.7%	78.7%	78.5%	52.8%
Literate	75.4%	60.6%	62.9%	33.4%
Highest level of education: None	9.4%	21.6%	24.1%	47.6%
Highest level of education: Primary	22.5%	31.8%	21.2%	26.1%
Highest level of education: Secondary	15.5%	19.7%	18.8%	16.3%
Highest level of education: Post-basic and higher	52.3%	26.9%	34.7%	9.7%
Highest level of education: Other	0.3%	0.0%	1.2%	0.3%
Employment status: working	50.8%	52.7%	17.5%	11.1%
Employment status: looking for work	26.6%	13.8%	13.7%	5.6%
Employment status: not working, student	1.3%	1.0%	9.1%	1.2%
Employment status: not working, housework	5.0%	15.5%	13.7%	48.5%
Employment status: not working, other	16.3%	17.1%	45.9%	33.6%

Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

1. Distance to capitals and access to markets

37. **Camps are located between 13 and 25 km away from their respective province capital potentially limiting access to socioeconomic opportunities and better-quality services than in camps.** Musasa camp is further away from the capital of Muyinga compared to Kinama camp (Table 3).[45] Kavumu and Nyankanda camps are located at similar distance to their corresponding province capital while Bwagariza is located 13 km away from Ruyigi capital. Karuzi is the second closest capital to all camps. Musasa, Kinama and Nyankanda camps have access to markets at a very short distance. Compared to camps, capitals are important development hubs offering large access to education, employment opportunities and other services. However, inequities in access to services are prevalent, especially in developing countries. While urban areas may benefit from larger resources, higher technical capacity, and receive more political attention than rural areas, these advantages do not always result in more equitable or better-quality service delivery. In urban areas, key constraints may include differences in political salience, the cost of services to users, capacity to manage demand and providers. [46]

38. **Camp-based refugees have access to nearby markets where some sell their food and in-kind aid.** Smaller markets are generally accessible for camp-refugees with no requirement for an exit permit ("*Billet de sortie*"). Although camp-based refugees have access to nearby markets, these markets may not

[45] UNHCR, "The Potential to Monetize in Burundi. Moving Towards a Market-Based Approach to NFI for Refugees."
[46] Jones, Cummings, and Nixon, "Services in the City. Governance and Political Economy in Urban Service Delivery," 29.

offer enough livelihoods opportunities. As a result, refugees often use these markets to sell their food rations in exchange for fresh foods, hygiene items, clothing and shoes, and to pay for transport, according to UNHCR's markets assessments (see annex for food distribution).[47] Ongoing UNHCR market assessments will be helpful to understand more granular market dynamics and needs.

Table 3: Distance from camps to capitals

Camp	Closest capital	2nd closest capital	Linear distance (Km)			Travel distance (minutes) to the nearest urban area	Travel distance (minutes) to the nearest market
			To Bujumbura	To closest capital	To 2nd closest capital		
Musasa	Muyinga	Karuzi	101	25	28	8	1
Kinama	Muyinga	Karuzi	108	14	25	17	0
Kavumu	Canguzo	Karuzi	114	21	25	79	10
Nyankanda	Ruyigi	Karuzi	106	21	27	37	2
Bwagiriza	Ruyigi	Karuzi	102	13	31	21	20

Source: Authors' calculation with information from UNHCR Burundi 2019.

Table 4: Distance to markets

Camp	Market	Distance	Time by foot
Musasa	Entrance of camp (Mixed)	1 km	1 min
	Masanganzira	6 km	1 hr
Kinama	Congolese	0 km	0 min
	Gard du Nord (Mixed)	.3 km	1 min
	Gasorwe	3 km	30 min
Kavumu	Mixed	.8 km	10 min
	Busoro	8 km	2 hrs
Nyankanda	Mixed	.1 km	2 min
	Kayangozi	4 km	35 min
	Kw'lsumo (Mixed)	8 km	1 hr 15 min
Bwagiriza	Kw'lsumo (Mixed)	1.5 km	20 min
	Kayangozi	12 km	2hrs 30 min
	Ruyigi	17 km	3 hrs

Note: Mixed markets group together refugee and host community-owned shops.
Source: UNHCR Burundi 2019.

[47] UNHCR.

E. WELFARE CONDITIONS: HUNGER, ASSETS AND MULTIPLE DEPRIVATIONS

39. **Food and nutrition are critical issues affecting hosts and refugee populations in Burundi.** As of 2018, Burundi had the highest hunger score and experienced one of the worst food security crises in the world.[48] The prevalence of chronic malnutrition in Burundi is also the highest worldwide, with 56 percent of children considered stunted.[49] Refugees in Burundi face the same constraints as most nationals. In camps, refugees receive food aid from the World Food Programme (WFP), while in urban areas generally no assistance is provided except for individuals with specific needs or if assistance is required to save a human life.[50] The difficult socioeconomic conditions in Burundi together with new threats, such as animal diseases, a major spread of fall armyworm, climatic hazards, along with global crises such as the COVID-19 pandemic, will likely further exacerbate the overall fragile food security situation for refugees and host communities.

Box 2: Estimation of welfare

Welfare is explored by analyzing experience of hunger, asset ownership and multiple deprivations. Refugee households were asked how often they had to go without food for a whole day during the 12 months preceding the interview, as well as the list their assets from a list of thirteen items.[51] An index was calculated using principal component analysis with information on the different assets owned by households (see Annex Multiple deprivations and asset index calculation). Three different dimensions of deprivation were explored:

(i) Living standards deprivations are faced by households that meet at least one of the following criteria: they face overcrowding (more than three people sleeping in the same room), the household's dwelling uses unimproved materials for floors (earth, sand or other), and the household's dwelling uses unimproved materials for walls (mud).

(ii) Water and sanitation deprivations are experienced by households that do not have access to both improved sanitation (flush toilet or improved latrine) and improved sources for drinking water (piped into dwelling, plot or yard).

(iii) Deprivations in education are faced by households that have at least one child (aged 6–14 years) who does not attend school, or if all the adults (18-64) in the household are illiterate (reading and writing).

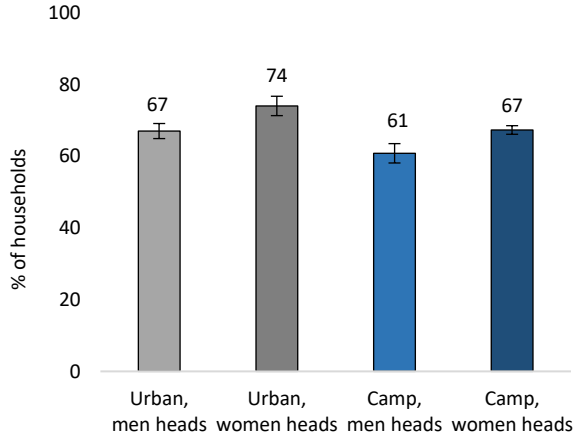
40. **Unlike in urban areas, refugees in camps receive monthly food assistance.** Assistance in camps is provided in-kind (equivalent to 1,932 calories) through food fairs (equivalent to BIF 20,000, approx. $11 USD) or to a lesser extent in cash (BIF 4,000, approx. $2.2 USD) in combination with food vouchers (see Annex Food aid distributed in camps). Although all registered refugees have access to the same cash value through cash-based transfers (CBTs), they do not necessarily have the same food purchasing power and food assistance is not enough to cover refugees' caloric needs. In 2018, the food basket was reduced from

[48] FAO, "The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World. Safeguarding against Economic Slowdowns and Downturns."
[49] World Food Programme, "United Nations World Food Programme. Burundi."
[50] UNHCR, "Burundi. Operations Plan Document."
[51] Assets included in the survey: landline phone, mobile phone, desktop or laptop, radio, television, DVD reader, refrigerator, electric iron, bicycle, motorcycle, car, wardrobe and dining room.

2,120 calories per person per day to 1,932 calories (below the recommended daily intake of 2,100 calories).[52] CBTs were introduced after being recommended by the Joint Assessment Mission 2014, yet due to budgetary restrictions they have not reached all refugees. This has forced many households to sell or exchange part of their food rations to diversify their diets, at the expense of calorie intake, with severe implications for the health, education and productivity of refugees.[53]

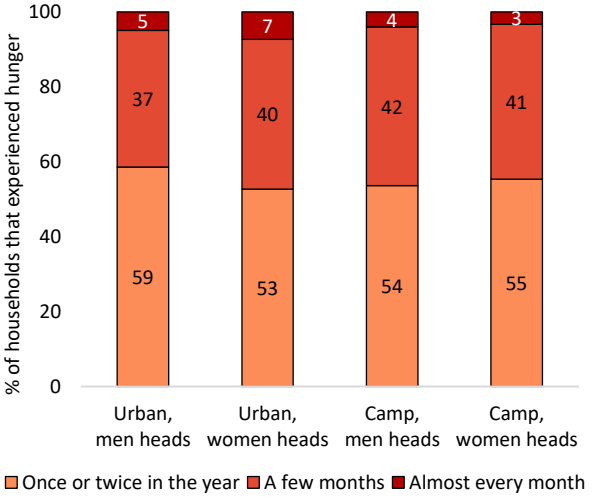
41. **Nearly 2 out of 3 households went an entire day without eating due to lack of food at least once in the year preceding the SES interview.** Hunger occurs slightly more often in urban areas compared to camps (Box 2). Households headed by women in urban areas more frequently experienced hunger than other households (Figure 40). While most households that faced hunger did so only once or twice in the year, just under half went without food for multiple days in at least a 3-month period and a small share did so almost every month (Figure 41). The slightly lower prevalence of hunger in camps may partly be explained by the higher access to food aid that refugees have in camps, compared to urban refugees. Importantly, no differences according to year of arrival were noted; protracted and recently arrived refugees equally faced hunger in the previous year. This suggests that food insecurity is a pressing challenge for most refugees. In addition, households headed by someone with a disability are slightly more likely to have experienced hunger compared to those headed by refugees without disabilities. Targeted efforts aimed at tackling food insecurity among this particularly vulnerable group are necessary.

Figure 40: Experience of hunger in the previous year



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Figure 41: Frequency of experience of hunger



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

42. **Households in urban areas are more likely than those in camps to be in the top 40 percent of the asset distribution, with differences by sex of the head and year of arrival.** Nearly 6 out of 10 urban households headed by men are in the top 40 percent of the asset distribution, which reflects that they are more likely to own more assets compared to households headed by women. In turn, only 2 out of 10 refugees in camps are part of the top 40 percent of the asset distribution with no differences according to sex (Figure 42 A). The share of camp households in the top 40 percent of the asset distribution varies according to their year of arrival, unlike in urban areas (Figure 42 B). Protracted camp-households are

[52] UNHCR, ONPRA, and WFP, "The Joint Assessment Mission Report Burundi," 13.
[53] UNHCR, ONPRA, and WFP, "The Joint Assessment Mission Report Burundi."

more likely to own a larger amount of assets than non-protracted camp-based households. Urban households who arrived in 2015 or later likely brought capital with them to acquire assets, or were able to quickly accumulate it. In contrast, camp households may enter Burundi without enough resources to acquire assets nor with a social network that can support them in terms of housing and asset sharing.

Figure 42: Households in the top 40% of the asset index distribution

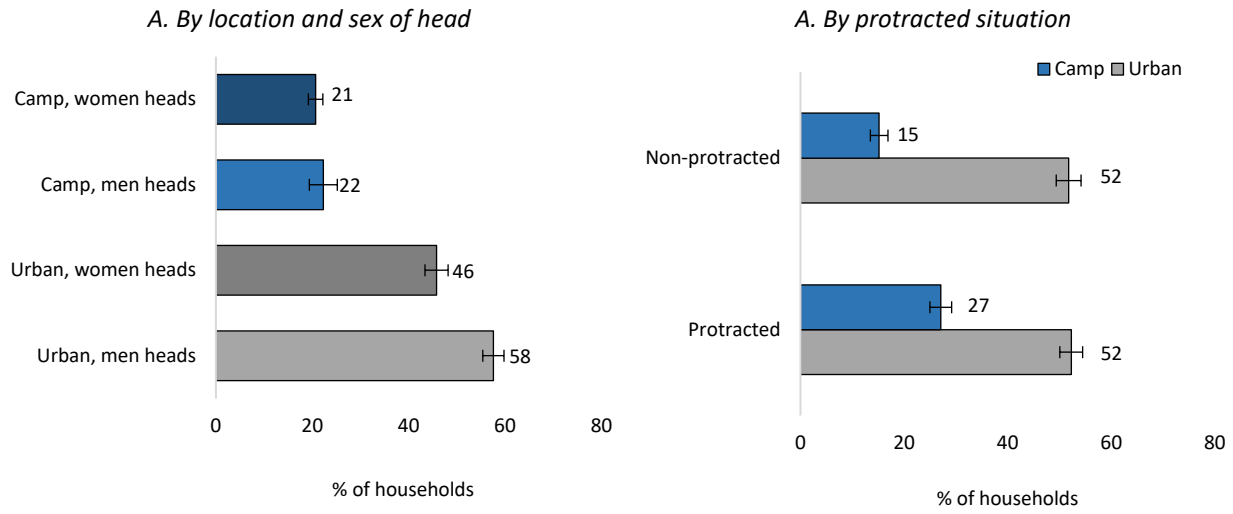
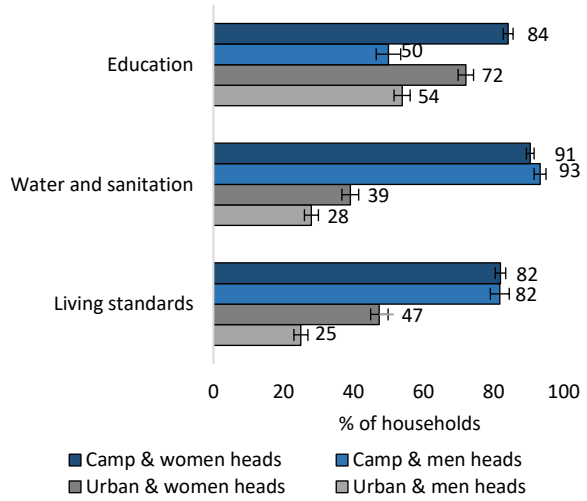
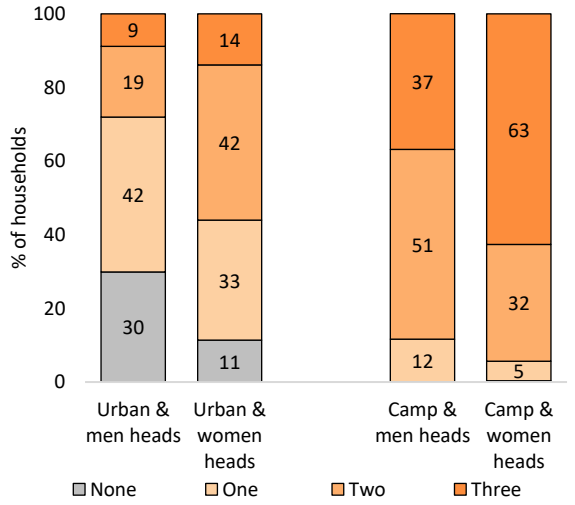


Figure 43: Multiple deprivations



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Figure 44: Number of multiple deprivations by location



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

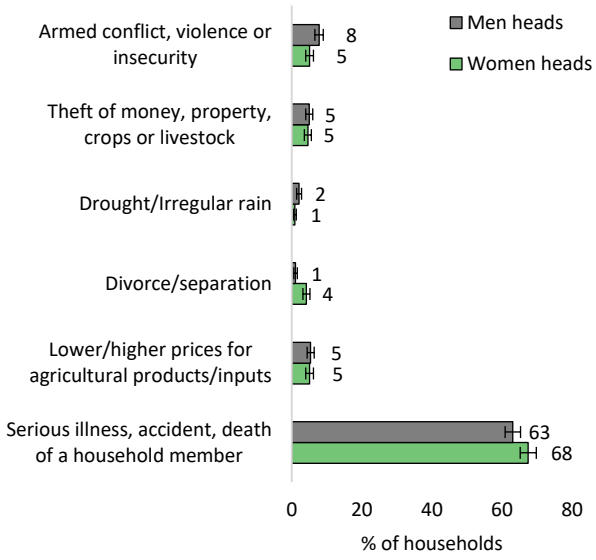
43. **Urban households, mainly those headed by men, are less often deprived in multiple non-monetary dimensions than camp-based households**. Overall, some 6 out of 10 households are deprived in education, although households headed by women are considerably more likely to be deprived in this dimension (Figure 43). Moreover, the most frequent deprivation among urban households is in education. Camp-based households are much more likely to experience deprivation in water and sanitation compared to urban households, which may be due to the generally better infrastructure available in urban centers compared to camps. Deprivations in living standards are also more often faced by camp-based

households than by urban households (82 percent compared to 36 percent respectively). Across the multiple dimensions considered, camps-based households headed by women are the most likely to be deprived in the all the three dimensions, suggesting a high degree of vulnerability. In contrast, urban households headed by men are the most likely to not face any deprivation (Figure 44). Differences according to the sex of the household head are larger in urban areas than in camps (Figure 45 and Figure 46).

Figure 45: Number of multiple deprivations, urban

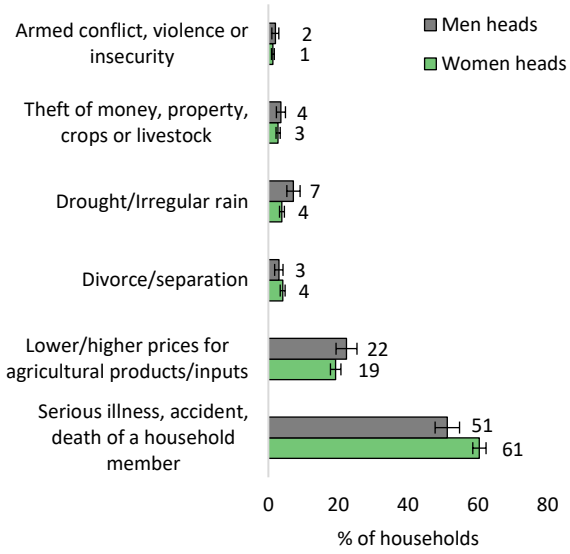
Figure 46: Number of multiple deprivations, camps

Figure 47: Common shocks experienced, urban



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Figure 48: Common shocks experienced, camps



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

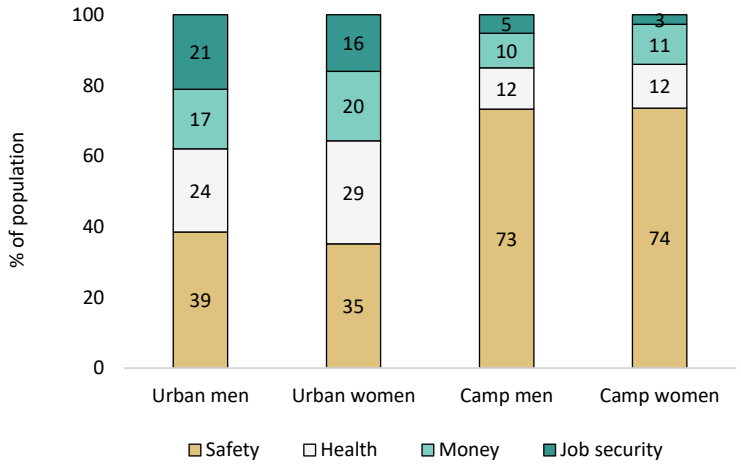
44. **The most common shock faced by urban and camp-based households is the illness, accident or death of a household member, while other shocks vary by location.** Households headed by women in camps are more likely to have faced the illness, accident or death of a household member compared to those headed by men in camps (Figure 47 and Figure 48).[54] Across locations, camp-based households more frequently faced fluctuations in agricultural prices as well as droughts or irregular rain than urban

[54] Information on whether the loss occurred in the country of origin or in Burundi is not available.

households. On the other hand, urban households more often experienced armed conflict, violence or insecurity and theft compared to camp households. This may be related to the election violence in 2015 which severely affected Bujumbura, thus generating a higher perception of insecurity among urban residents. It is crucial to understand the type of shocks faced by refugee households, as those insights can inform programmatic response that can help strengthen their capacity to cope with shocks and protect their livelihoods.

45. **Refugees, mainly those in camps, are widely concerned about safety while urban refugees also worry about health.** Refugees identify safety as a major concern although this is more often reported by camp-based refugees than by urban refugees, and slightly less often by urban women (Figure 49). Health and money also comprise a major concern especially for urban refugees and mainly among women.[55] Finally, job security is also a concern mainly among urban refugees, and especially men who are more often heads of household. In camps, refugees rarely reported job security as a concern which is likely related to their low employment prospects.

Figure 49: Main concerns by sex



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

[55] As the Burundi SES was carried out before the COVID-19 outbreak, health concerns are not linked to the pandemic.

F. COMPARATIVE INSIGHTS: URBAN, CAMP-BASED REFUGEES AND HOST COMMUNITIES

1. Urban and camp-based refugees

46. **Camp-based refugees are more likely to have arrived recently, are younger, less likely to be disabled and more likely to have women household heads than urban refugees.** Protracted refugees tend to live in urban areas (Figure 6). As urban refugees arrived earlier than those in camps, they tend to be older than their camp-based counterparts. In addition, most camp-based households are headed by women, whereas in urban areas more protracted households tend to be equally headed by men and women compared to recent urban arrivals which are mostly headed by men (Figure 9). Disabilities are more common among the urban population, households headed by women as well as households whose heads are 50 years or older (Figure 12 and Figure 13).

47. **Housing conditions, access to energy for lighting, water and sanitation are worse for camp-based households compared to those in urban areas.** Camp-based refugee households have almost no access to improved housing, as opposed to 7 out of 10 urban households (Figure 16). Similarly, access to electricity in camps is almost nonexistent, with 16 percent of camp-households reporting to have no access to any source of lighting. In contrast, 68 percent of urban households use electricity as a source of lighting (Figure 17). Cooking energy sources range from charcoal in urban areas, to high-density biomass briquettes in camps. Most urban households have access to improved water compared to only 0.5 percent of camp-based households (Figure 18). In terms of access to sanitation, it is rare among camp-based households (9 percent) although urban households also face some limitations (35 percent). Refugees share toilets with other households in both locations although more often in camps (78 percent in urban areas vs. 93 percent in camps).

48. **Even though access to education is more limited for urban refugees than for those in camps, educational attainment is lower in camps.** Around 64 percent of primary school-age refugee children in urban areas attend school, compared to 89 percent of camp-based children (Figure 19). However, school attendance is lower for secondary school. Almost 49 percent of secondary school-age children attend secondary school in camps, compared to 34 percent in urban areas (Figure 20). Even if attendance is higher in camps, such pattern does not translate into higher outcomes. In urban areas, refugees tend to have higher educational attainment rates (Figure 26). In both camps and urban areas, gross attendance rates are higher among protracted refugees who arrived before 2015, suggesting that refugees may re-engage in education after some years of having lived in the hosting country.

49. **Livelihood opportunities are limited especially among camp refugees who face restrictions to move freely and widely depend on aid to subsist.** Only 1 out of 10 camp-based refugees work compared to 3 out of 10 in urban areas (Figure 30). Camp-based refugees cannot move beyond 3 kilometers outside camps, unless they have been granted with an exit permit.[56] Movement restrictions fundamentally curtail camp-based refugees' ability to work and generate income, thus reinforcing their dependency on assistance. Most employed refugees are self-employed or work as unskilled employees (Figure 32), with services, wholesale and retail trade being the main employment sectors (Figure 33). It is important to note that these are the sectors that have been most severely impacted by the COVID-19 pandemic, suggesting a disproportionate impact of the pandemic on refugees relative to nationals. Overall, limited employment

[56] UNHCR, "Burundi. Operations Plan Document," 8. There is a risk for refugees living in camps to be arrested and detained if found outside the camps or at border areas without written permission.

opportunities and lack of skills are common obstacles for securing a job among both camp and urban refugees.

50. **While camp and urban refugees are equally likely to have experienced hunger, camp refugees are more often deprived along multiple non-monetary dimensions and are less likely to be in the top 40 percent of the asset index distribution.** 2 out of 3 refugee households went an entire day without eating due to lack of food at least once in the year prior to the SES. Urban households are more likely than those in camps to be in the top 40 percent of the asset distribution (Figure 42). In camps, protracted refugees who arrived before 2015, are more likely to own a greater number of assets than those who arrived in 2015 or after. This pattern is not observed however in urban areas. Moreover, camp refugees are more often deprived in education, water and sanitation, and living standards compared to urban refugees (Figure 43).

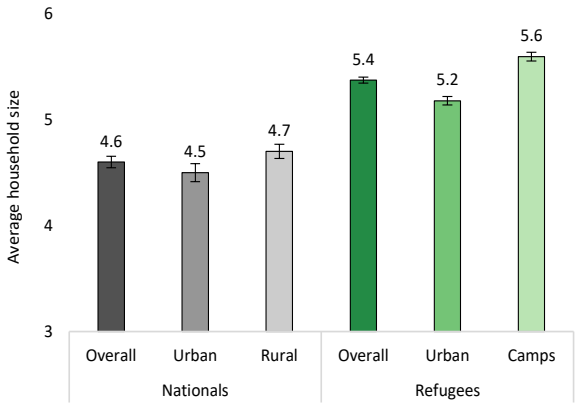
51. **Camp-based women refugees fare worse than other sub-groups, followed by urban women and camp men.** Households headed by women are larger and have more dependents than households headed by men, although those in camps are even larger and have more dependents. Similarly, households headed by women are more likely to live in overcrowded conditions (58 percent) compared to those headed by men (32 percent; Figure 14 and Figure 15). In terms of services, women headed households in urban areas are less likely than those headed by men to have access to electricity while in camps no women headed household has access to electricity. The use of biomass for cooking, which is prevalent across locations, is more likely to affect women and girls as they are often the ones that cook and collect firewood. Access to water in urban areas is also lower for women than for men, while in camps virtually no household headed by women has access to improved water. Regarding education, urban girls are less likely to attend secondary school while attainment and literacy rates are lower especially for camp-based women (Figure 26). Women and girls are more likely to report family refusal and gender roles-related motives as reasons for never having attended or having stopped attending school. In both locations, men are more likely to be working than women. Households headed by women in urban areas are less likely to be in the top 40 percent of the asset index distribution, compared to those headed by men. Besides, camp-based households are less likely than urban ones to own assets, although there are no differences by the sex of the head in camps. A similar pattern is observed in deprivations. Camp-based households headed by men and women more often face deprivations than urban households, yet there are no differences between them. In turn, urban households headed by women are more often deprived in education, water and sanitation and living standards, than those headed by men in urban areas.

2. Host communities and refugees

52. **Similarities and differences between refugees and host communities at the national, rural and urban level are explored by comparing the SES findings with results from the EICVMB 2020-2021.** The EICVMB 2020-2021 is a nationally representative household survey, focusing on a wide range of socio-economic conditions of the population. In addition to socio-demographic data, the survey instrument also captures information on consumption, among other topics.

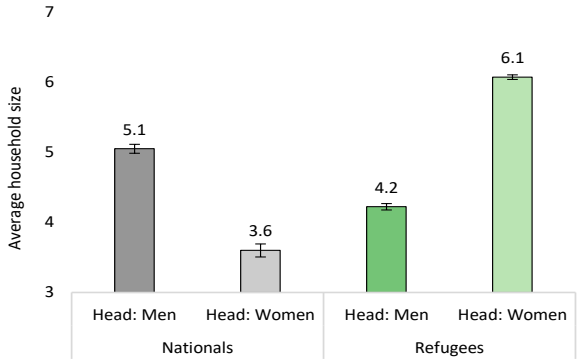
53. **Refugee households, mainly those headed by women, are slightly larger than Burundian households.** Refugees in camps have the largest household sizes compared to nationals and urban refugees (Figure 50). Camp-based households, especially those headed by women are the largest overall (Figure 51). An opposite pattern is noticed between Burundian and refugee households. For Burundians, the largest households tend to be headed by men while the contrary is true for refugee households, where the largest households are headed by women. Refugee women, mainly in camps, are more likely to be heads of household than Burundian women.

Figure 50: Household size for nationals and refugees



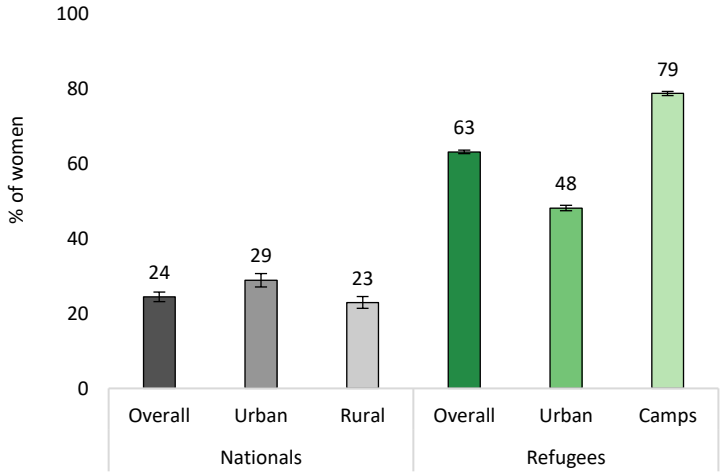
Source: EICVMB (2020-2021) & Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Figure 51: Household size by sex of head



Source: EICVMB (2020-2021) & Burundi SES (2019-2020).

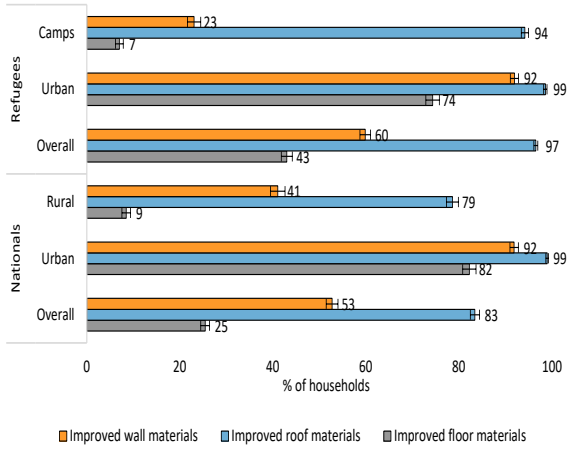
Figure 52: Women as heads of household (15-49 years)



Source: EICVMB (2020-2021) & Burundi SES (2019-2020).

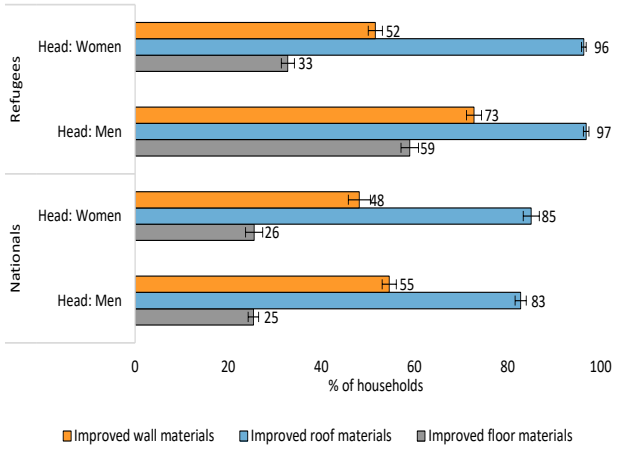
54. **Refugee households have comparable housing conditions as national households but are more likely to be overcrowded.** In urban areas, refugees and Burundians are equally likely to have improved housing materials (Figure 53). Overall, and unsurprisingly, housing conditions among rural and camp-based households are worse. Within those, refugees in camps report higher usage of improved roof materials which can be explained by the delivery of iron sheets for roofing. The reverse is true for wall materials where rural nationals report better conditions, compared to camp-based refugees. Households headed by women in both communities are less likely than those headed by men to use improved wall materials (Figure 54). These differences also mean that households headed by women are at a higher risk of diseases such as malaria as well as more vulnerable to socioenvironmental shocks than those headed by men (see Annex Housing, energy, water and sanitation). Compared to nationals, refugees are more likely to live in overcrowded conditions. On average, national households have 2.0 rooms for sleeping, compared to 1.9 among refugee households. Given the large household numbers, both, national and refugees, display over-crowded living situations.

Figure 53: Housing materials for nationals and refugees



Source: EICVMB (2020-2021) & Burundi SES (2019-2020).

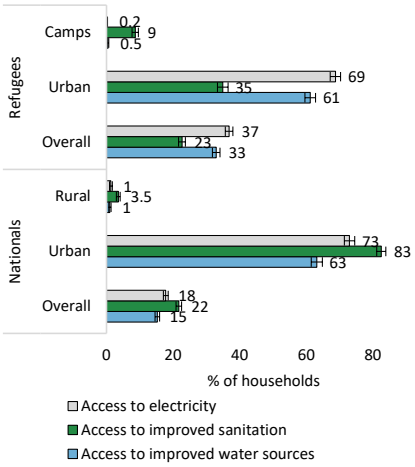
Figure 54: Housing materials by sex of head



Source: EICVMB (2020-2021) & Burundi SES (2019-2020).

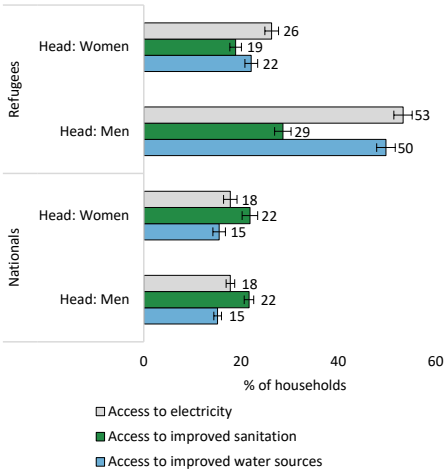
55. **Access to water, sanitation and electricity in urban areas is substantially better than in rural areas and camps, with variation by sex of the household head.** Nationals, mainly in rural areas, have lower access to improved sanitation and nearly no access to electricity compared to urban nationals. Many households in camps and surrounding rural areas engage in open defecation (3 percent in camps and 6 percent in rural areas) and have access to latrines without slabs. A small share of refugees in camps have slightly higher access to improved sanitation than nationals in rural areas, the latter community have a similar access to improved water sources relative to refugees in camps (Figure 55). In contrast, urban nationals and refugees have similar access to electricity and improved water sources. In camps, access to improved water and sanitation, and electricity is better for households headed by men than by women, while variation by the sex of the head are not significant among national households (Figure 56).

Figure 55: Access to improved water and sanitation for nationals and refugees



Source: EICVMB (2020-2021) & Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Figure 56: Access to improved water and sanitation by sex of head



Source: EICVMB (2020-2021) & Burundi SES (2019-2020).

56. **Individuals from women-headed refugee households are the most likely to not have any education, while Burundians in rural areas are less likely than refugees to have ever attended school.**

The difference between refugees and nationals who have ever attended is small although statistically significant. Burundians and refugees in urban areas are equally likely to have ever attended school, while Burundians in rural areas are less likely compared to camp-based refugees (Figure 57). Among nationals, members of households headed by women and men are equally likely to have attended school and to have formal education. Contrary to this, refugee members of households headed by women are less likely to have attended school and more likely to not have education, compared to refugee members of households headed by men (Figure 58). Similarly, individuals from women-headed refugee households are the most likely to have no education at all, compared to any other group, nationals (women and men-headed households) or men-headed refugee households.

Figure 57: Education for nationals and refugees (15-49 years)

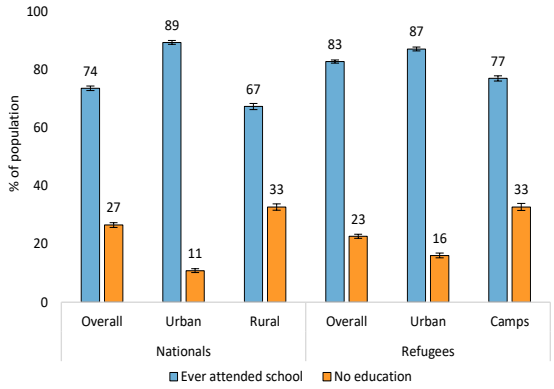


Figure 58: Education by sex of head (15-49 years)

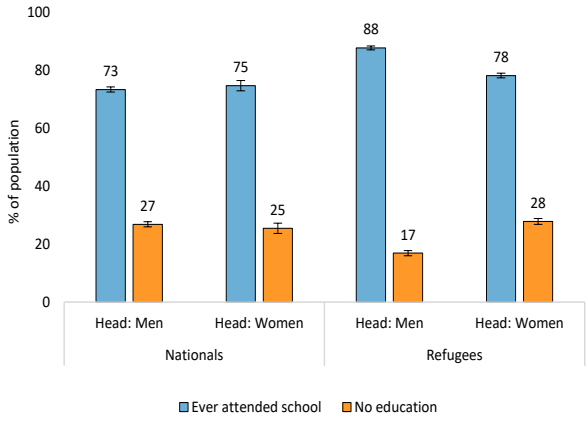
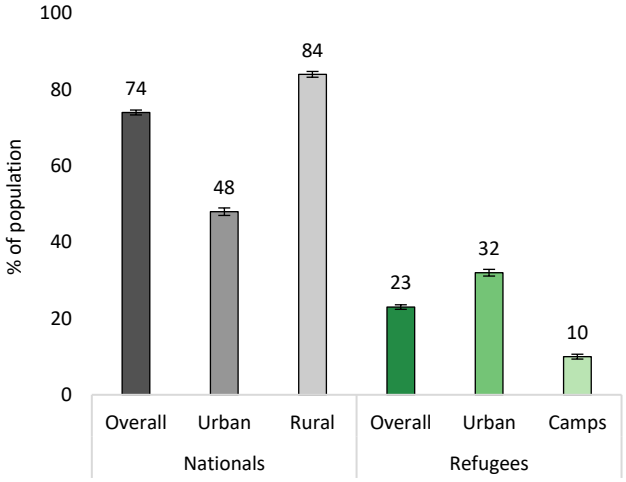
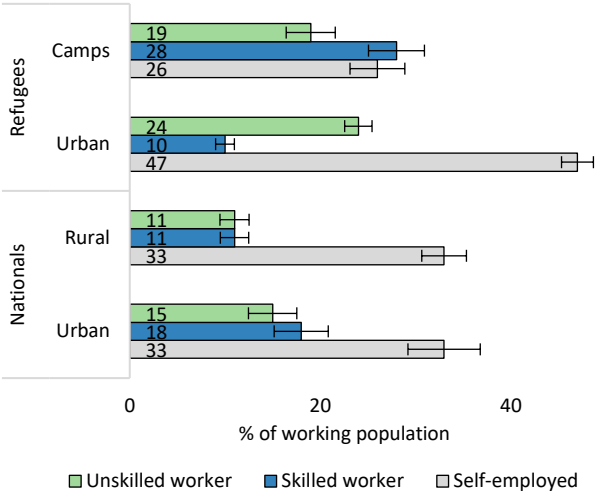


Figure 59: Employment (15+ years)



Source: EICVMB (2020-2021) & Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Figure 60: Type of employment



Source: EICVMB (2020-2021) & Burundi SES (2019-2020).

57. **Compared to Burundians, refugees are less often working, and report discriminatory practices at the workplace more frequently.** More than 7 out of 10 Burundians aged 15 years or more worked in the week prior to the survey, compared to 23 percent of refugees (Table 5). The difference is larger between rural nationals (84 percent) and camp-based refugees (10 percent; Figure 59). Compared to

nationals, refugees are more often engaged in self-employment, and employed in unskilled activities (Figure 60). Among those working and reporting issues at the workplace, refugees more often cite issues with non-payment and late payment of wages, mainly in urban areas, compared to Burundians (Figure 61). Similarly, discrimination and verbal abuse is more common among refugees compared to nationals in both urban areas and camps.

Figure 61: Main problems faced at the workplace

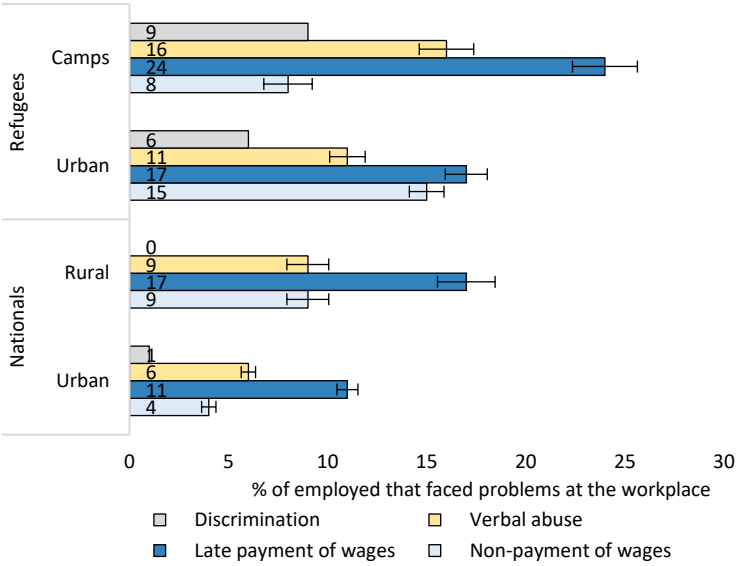
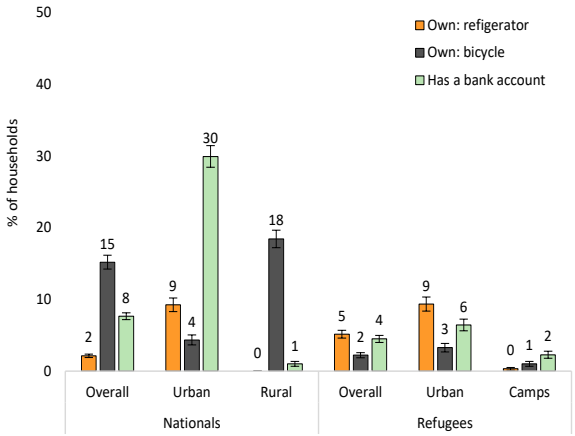
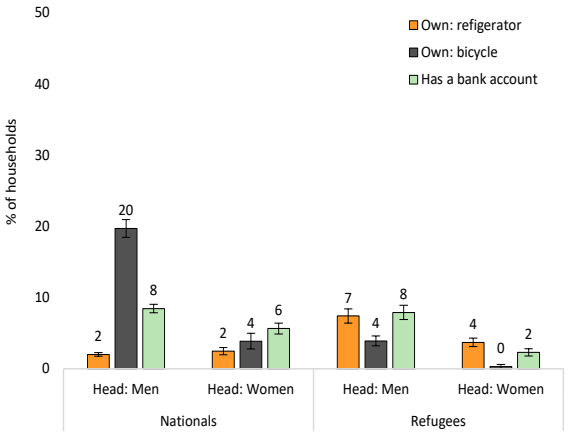


Figure 62: Asset ownership for nationals and refugees



Source: EICVMB (2020-2021) & Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Figure 63: Asset ownership by sex of head



Source: EICVMB (2020-2021) & Burundi SES (2019-2020).

58. **Compared to national households, refugees are more likely to report hunger and less likely to own a bicycle and to have a bank account.** Refugees self-report hunger more often than nationals, mainly in urban areas (Table 5). Overall, nearly 2 out of 3 refugee households went an entire day without eating due to lack of food at least once in the year preceding the SES interview, compared to 54 percent of nationals were hungry but did not eat due to the lack of resources in the previous year. Urban households are the most likely to own a refrigerator while rural national households are the most likely to own a bicycle (Figure 62). Bank account ownership is low for both communities, but higher among urban national

households which may be explained by the availability of financial services in urban areas. Yet, urban refugee households report significantly lower ownership of bank accounts compared to nationals which may be partially explained by lack of documentation required to open bank accounts. National households headed by men are the most likely to own a bicycle and to have a bank account. Similarly, refugee households headed by men are more likely to own assets and to have a bank account than households headed by women (Figure 63). This is important as access to bank accounts can enhance the possibility to access credit, loans which are crucial to open and strengthen (small) businesses.

Table 5: Comparison of estimates between the 2021-2022 EICVMB and the 2019-2020 SES

Variable (number of share)	Nationals (EICVMB)			Refugees (SES)			Significant difference		
	Overall	Urban	Rural	Overall	Urban	Camps	Overall	Urban	Camps
Household members/size	4.6	4.5	4.7	5.4	5.2	5.6	***	***	***
Female head of household (aged 15-49)	0.24	0.29	0.23	0.63	0.48	0.79	***	***	***
Age of head of household (aged 15-49)	34.0	34.2	33.9	32.8	33.8	31.8	**	No	***
Ever attended (aged 15-49)	0.74	0.89	0.67	0.83	0.87	0.77	***	*	***
No education (aged 15-49)	0.27	0.11	0.33	0.23	0.16	0.33	No	***	No
Improved water sources	0.15	0.63	0.01	0.33	0.61	0.01	***	No	No
Improved sanitation	0.22	0.83	0.04	0.23	0.35	0.09	No	***	***
Toilet sharing	0.25	0.61	0.14	0.85	0.78	0.93	***	***	***
Fuel for cooking: charcoal	0.24	0.90	0.04	0.60	0.82	0.34	***	***	***
Electricity	0.18	0.73	0.01	0.37	0.69	0.01	***	No	*
Rooms for sleeping	2.0	1.9	2.1	1.9	1.9	2.0	*	No	No
Improved floor materials	0.25	0.82	0.09	0.43	0.74	0.07	***	***	No
Improved roof materials	0.83	0.99	0.79	0.97	0.99	0.94	***	No	***
Improved wall materials	0.53	0.92	0.41	0.60	0.92	0.23	***	No	***
Own: refrigerator	0.02	0.09	0.00	0.05	0.09	0.01	No	No	***
Own: bicycle	0.15	0.04	0.18	0.02	0.03	0.01	***	No	***
Experienced hunger in previous year	0.54	0.35	0.59	0.68	0.70	0.66	***	***	*
Bank account	0.08	0.30	0.01	0.04	0.06	0.02	***	***	No
Worked in previous week (aged 15+)	0.74	0.48	0.84	0.23	0.32	0.10	***	***	***
Type of employment: self-employed	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.43	0.47	0.26	***	***	***
Type of employment: skilled worker	0.11	0.18	0.11	0.13	0.10	0.28	No	***	***
Type of employment: unskilled worker	0.11	0.15	0.11	0.23	0.24	0.19	***	***	***
Main problems faced at the workplace									
Physical abuse	0.02	0.01	0.03	0.05	0.04	0.08	No	No	*
Sexual harassment	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	No	No	No
Work or commuting accident	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.10	0.11	0.02	***	***	No
Non-payment of wages	0.06	0.04	0.09	0.14	0.15	0.08	***	***	No
Non-payment of compensation/profits	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.11	0.12	0.05	***	***	No
Late payment of wages	0.13	0.11	0.17	0.18	0.17	0.24	*	**	***
Underpayment of wages	0.07	0.05	0.10	0.07	0.06	0.09	No	No	No
Discrimination	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.06	0.06	0.09	***	***	***
Verbal abuse	0.07	0.06	0.09	0.12	0.11	0.16	**	*	***

Note: To derive comparable figures between surveys, the 2021-2022 EICVMB estimates were obtained by restricting the sample to households only from the provinces of Muyinga, Ruyigi, Ngozi, Cankuzo, Rumonge and Bujumbura, in line with the coverage of the SES. *** difference significant at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level and * at the 10% level.

Source: EICVMB (2021-2022) & Burundi SES (2019-2020).

59. **Refugees in urban areas as well as in camps represent additional consumers and producers, and thus importantly opportunities also for host communities.** One in two refugees have been in the country

longer than 5 years and are likely to stay at least for several more, if not for good. This is comparable to what is observed elsewhere in the world where refugees seek to fully rebuild their lives in new locations where they tend to stay. With that come new opportunities revolving around the so-called refugee economy. In Kenya, the Kakuma settlement's market for example, has been estimated at USD 56million, predominantly due to its demand for consumer goods. This comes on the back of consumption calculations which are conservative according to the authors, as opportunities range from retail trade, telecommunications and mobile money and access to finance, over to education and health. Of course, bottlenecks persist and revolve classically around legal and regulatory limitations, resulting level of informality, as well as relatively low levels of education, financial literacy, low savings. Refugees come with needs and will themselves create demand, particularly if they either have access to some level of jobs that creates an income-sources or at minimum if they have cash-based assistance that allows them to participate in the local economy and gives them autonomy to make their own purchasing decisions. In Burundi's camps, refugees' ability to participate in the local economy is limited since only 1 in 2 report work and as such some form of disposable income. Yet, most aid is allocated in-kind and through food vouchers. In a rain-dependent agricultural market and rapidly changing food prices, it is well-understood why food vouchers and in-kind transfers are chosen. Yet, to support refugees' autonomous choice, possibly a re-proportioning to more cash-based assistance may be worth a discussion. From the analysis around markets, we've learned that while larger markets are removed from camps, smaller ones operate right around the perimeter of the camps or in proximate vicinity. Moreover, access to services built around refugee camps might be an opportunity to piggy-back on provision in remote areas. The camps in Burundi are remote, and infrastructures built there also stands the chance to benefit host communities, from schools (primary and secondary level), health centers, but also access to water and sanitation, or electricity. Analysis of both hosts and refugees reveals that this is direly needed as both communities are heavily underserved.

G. CONCLUSIONS

60. **The Burundi socioeconomic survey (SES) contributes to narrowing data gaps while providing key inputs for evidence-informed humanitarian and development interventions.** Data gaps on socioeconomic conditions of forcibly displaced, and in this case refugees, and host communities undermine efforts to inform evidence-based responses. Despite a large and growing population of refugees and asylum-seekers, representative surveys on livings standards among this group in Burundi are not systematically implemented. The Burundi SES, jointly implemented between 2019 and 2020 by UNHCR and the World Bank, provides a first source of information on the socioeconomic profile of refugees while linking part of its findings to the living conditions of host communities, using preliminary results from the 2020-2021 *Enquête intégrée sur les conditions de vie des ménages au Burundi* (EICVMB). In turn, this information is critical to inform efforts to improve self-reliance and welfare of refugees, their inclusion in national systems and the well-being of host communities, as committed to under the Global Compact on Refugees and related pledges.

61. **Camp-based and urban refugee households, and those headed by men and woman differ in terms of household composition and year of arrival.** Compared to urban refugee households, camp-based households have younger members, are mostly headed by women and are more likely to be recent arrivals. Households headed by women, which are concentrated in camps, more often have a protracted displacement. In addition, households headed by women have larger household sizes and more dependents than households headed by men. Besides, people with disabilities are more common among the urban population, households headed by women as well as households whose heads are 50 years or older.

62. **Refugee households residing in camps face worse living conditions in terms of housing, access to energy for lighting, water, and sanitation, compared to those in urban areas.** Camp-based refugees build their own shelters with materials provided upon arrival while urban refugees cover their accommodation costs. Compared to 7 in 10 urban households, camp-based households have almost no access to improved housing. In addition, camp and urban-based households face similar overcrowding conditions, yet women-headed households, concentrated in camps, experience more often over-crowding than those headed by men. On access to services, refugees have nearly zero access to electricity for lighting, while more than 16 percent of camp-based households have no access to any source of lighting. Moreover, while most urban- and camp-based refugees share toilets, access to improved water and sanitation is particularly scarce in camps, although urban households also face limitations. Unimproved sanitation sources widely used include open defecation or pit latrines, with or without a slab. The main differences with refugee camps are that some have access to a small number of improved pit latrines.

63. **Even though primary and secondary school attendance rates are higher among refugees residing in camps compared to those in urban areas, educational attainment is overall lower in camps.** Refugees are legally entitled to receiving primary education as nationals, yet for other (higher) levels of education they are treated as any other foreigner. Camp children are more likely to attend school than urban children. Transition to secondary schooling is very low, although lower for urban-based children compared to their camp-based counterparts and even lower for urban refugee girls. Lack of financial resources is the most common reason why refugees stopped or never attended school. Literacy is higher

among younger generations, particularly in camps, suggesting there have been improvements in educational outcomes across age cohorts. Educational attainment is higher in urban areas and among more protracted refugees, and systematically lower for women across urban areas and camps.

64. **Livelihood opportunities are scarce especially among camp refugees who are far from their respective province capital, with low access to financial services also limiting entrepreneurship.** Only 2 out of 10 refugees aged 15 years or more are currently working. Most employed refugees are self-employed or work as unskilled employees, with services, wholesale and retail trade being the main employment sectors. The main obstacles cited among refugees for securing work are around lack of work opportunities, which is more often reported by camp-based refugees, who are located between 13 and 25 km away from their respective province capital. Opportunities pale anywhere when compared with Bujumbura, which is the single-strongest correlate for self-reported working status. In addition, access to financial services is overall low among all refugees, but particularly so among camp-based households. These limitations curtail the capacity to actively participate in the labor market and stifle entrepreneurship. When focusing exclusively on urban refugees, other frictions are cited commonly, such limited opportunities but also lack of proper documentation, language barriers, and lack of adequate skills. Latter are also much cited among women refugees in camps. At the workplace, many refugees reported problems with late payment of wages, non-payment altogether, verbal abuse (particularly among women refugees).

65. **Self-reported food insecurity is equally pervasive among urban and camp refugee households, yet those residing in camps are more often deprived on multiple non-monetary dimensions and are less likely to own assets.** Food and nutrition are critical issues affecting hosts and refugee populations in Burundi. Nearly 2 out of 3 households went an entire day without eating due to the lack of food at least once in the year preceding the SES interview. Self-reported hunger was widely and equally frequently reported by camp- and urban-based refugees. In camps, following from qualitative evidence, food assistance is reported as providing inadequate coverage of refugees' nutritional needs. In urban areas, refugees must provide for themselves, and they are frequently hunger. Moreover, urban households, mainly those headed by men, are less often deprived in multiple non-monetary dimensions than camp-based households. In line with this, households in urban areas are more likely than those in camps to be in the top 40 percent of the asset distribution, with differences by sex of the head and year of arrival.

66. **While refugee men and women face difficult living conditions, women, especially in camps, fare worse with similar challenges faced by host community women in particular.** Similarities and differences between refugees and host communities at the national, rural and urban level are explored by comparing the SES findings with preliminary results from the 2020-2021 EICVMB. Overall, refugee households have comparably poor housing conditions as host community households but are more likely to witness overcrowding conditions. Access to water, sanitation and electricity in urban areas is better than in rural areas and camps, with some variation by sex of the household head. Within rural areas, access to services conditions remain very limited across host community and camp refugee households regarding water and electricity, with some differences in provision of improved pit latrines in refugee camps but generally low access to improved sanitation across both groups creating health hazards and contributing risk factors for SGBV violence. Refugee women have larger household sizes, more dependents, lower education, and employment rates, and face worse living conditions than men. Burundians in rural areas are less likely than refugees to have ever attended school. Yet, refugees are less often working, and more likely to be

engaged in self-employed and unskilled activities, besides that they also face more often issues with payment, abuse and discrimination at the workplace. Compared to refugee households, host community households, mainly those headed by men, are more likely to own a bicycle and to have a bank account.

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I. ANNEX

1. Definitions

ProGres (Profile Global Registration System): The proGres tool provides a common source of information about individuals that is used by different work units to facilitate protection of persons of concern to the organization. proGres is the main administrative repository in UNHCR for storing individuals' data.[57]

Registration: is the process of recording, verifying and updating information on persons of concern to UNHCR. It aims to assist UNHCR in the provision of protection, documentation and durable solutions. [58]

VRX (Verification Registration Exercise): Together with the Government of Burundi, UNHCR maintains a database of all registered refugees and asylum seekers in the country, which is stored in the proGres repository. While registration takes place on a continuous basis, verification exercises are conducted periodically, typically every two to three years.

ProGres family: families are defined upon first registration of individuals. ProGres classifies individuals into 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".[59]

Household: set of related or unrelated people (either sharing the same dwelling or not) who pool resources to regularly cook and eat together.

Household head: is 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.

[57] "From ProGres to PRIMES."
[58] "From ProGres to PRIMES."
[59] UNHCR, "Implementing Registration within an Identity Management Framework."

2. Conflict in the Democratic Republic of the Congo

The Democratic Republic of the Congo experiences multiple conflicts affecting several parts of its vast territory. War and conflict between rebels groups — allegedly supported by different African countries — and the government, was ongoing from 1997 to 2002 when a peace agreement was signed in South Africa between the groups and the Kinshasa government. Despite the peace agreement, the DRC has continued to experience 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, forcing thousands to flee. More than 800,000 DR Congolese live as refugees and asylum-seekers in neighboring countries, while more than 5 million have been displaced internally.[60] In January 2018, a new influx of refugees (roughly 5,700 individuals) arrived in Burundi from the DRC as a result of increased violence in the Kivus. In response, the Government of Burundi now grants refugees from DRC prima facie status. While the number of refugee arrivals has decreased since 2018, there is still a constant stream of new arrivals into Burundi, requiring continuous humanitarian assistance from agencies and partners working in the camps.[61]

[60] UNHCR, "DR Congo Emergency."
[61] UNHCR, ONPRA, and WFP, "The Joint Assessment Mission Report Burundi."

3. Maps of refugee camps

Figure 64: Kinama camp

Figure 65: Musasa camp

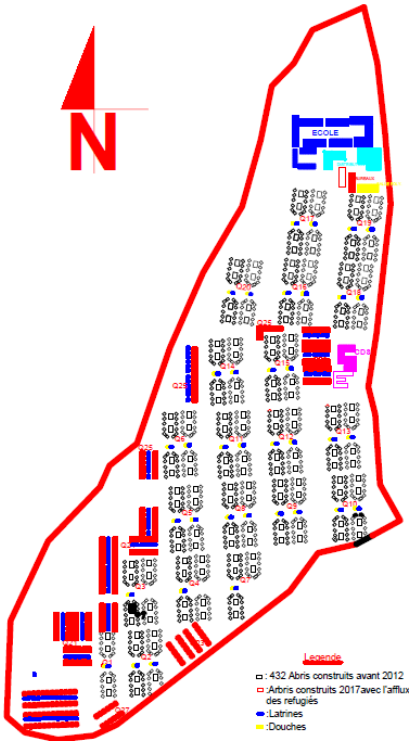


Figure 66: Bwagiriza camp

Source: UNHCR-Burundi.

Figure 67: Nyankanda camp

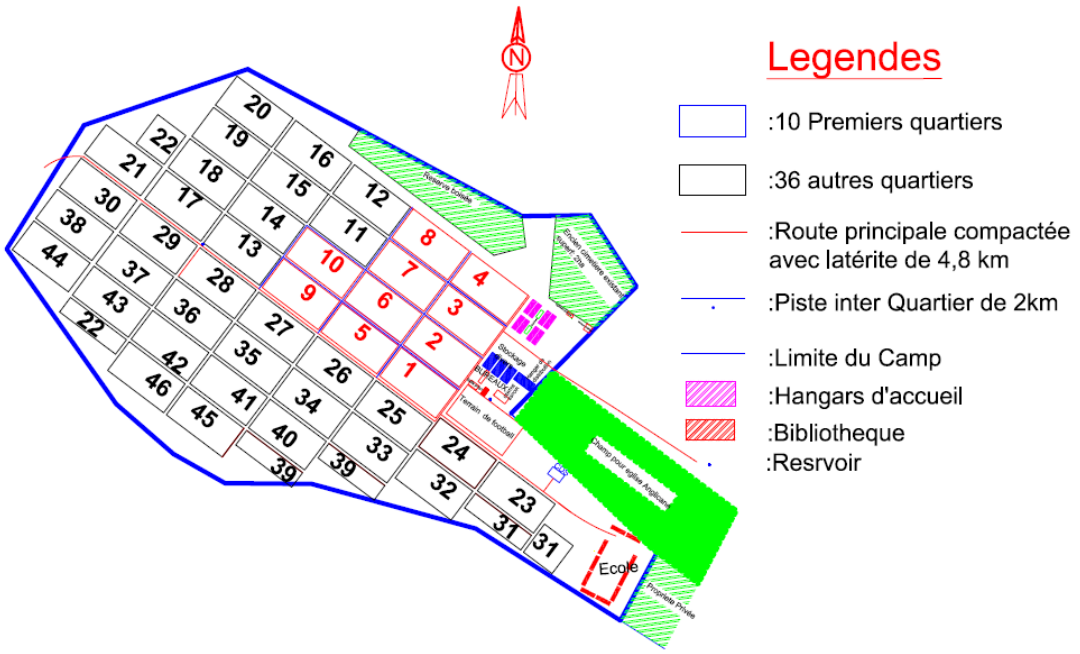
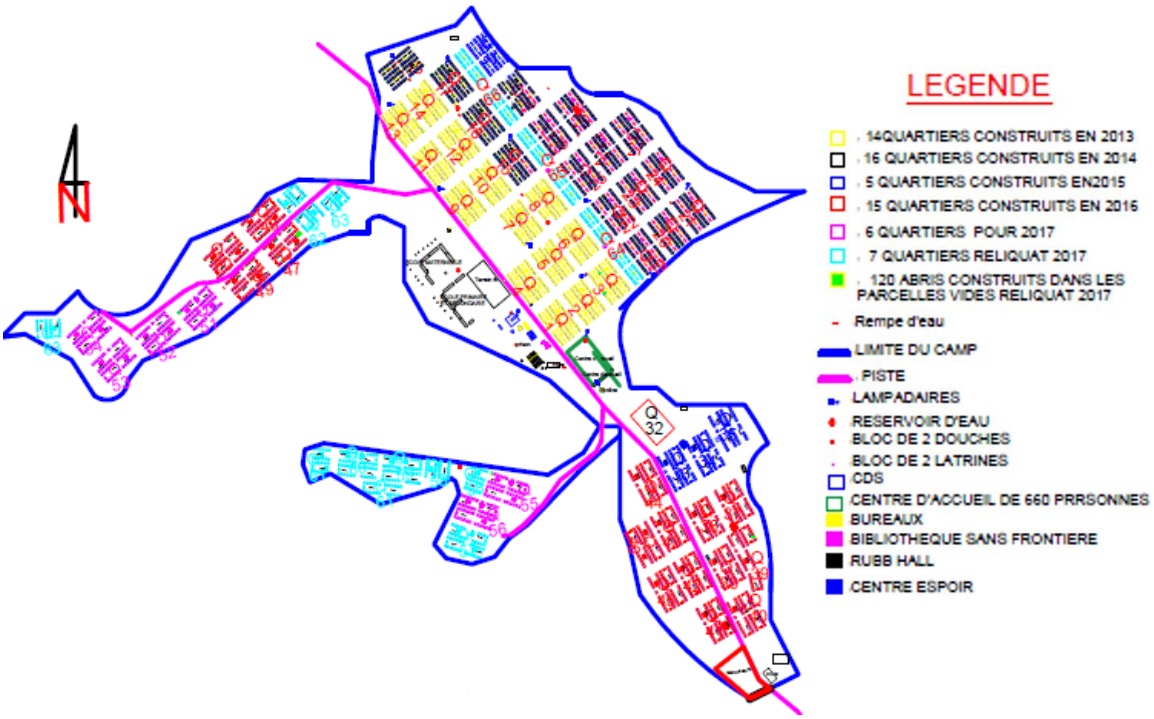


Figure 68: Kavumu camp



Source: UNHCR-Burundi.

4. Cooperatives, crops, land distributed and trainings

Camp	Cooperative	Members			Crops	Area	Rental Modality	Kits granted	Training received
NYANKANDA	TUISHI PAMOJA	Refugees: 38	Burundians: 18	Total : 56	Peanut, corn, peas, beans, sorghum, potato	1ha	Donated by ONPRA/a renewable year	Food seeds: beans, potatoes, but, peanuts, peas, sorghum	Organizational and financial management
						3 ha	40000Fb/season, or 100,000Fbu/year		
						2 ha	35,000Fb/season, or 80,000Fbu/year		
		Men:22	Women: 34	Total : 56	Manioc, soy	1.5ha	280000Fbu/year		Good agricultural practices and techniques
					Pepper, garlic, pepper, celery	20 acres	Donated by ONPRA/a renewable year	market garden seeds: onion, cabbage, tomato, carrot, eggplant, amaranth, seeer.	Use of mineral manure
					Goyavier, orange trees, maye, papaya, banana, plum trees	-	In their respective households	Aratory materials: hoes, machetes, rakes, tri-tooths, spades, wheelbarrows, boots, sprayers, watering cans,	Phytotechnics of main crops: bean, peanut, corn, potato and vegetable crops: cabbage, carrot, onion, seeer, tomato
								Fertilizers: Urea, K2O, DAP, NPK and dolomitic chau	
	SALAMA AFRICA	Refugees: 50	Burundians: 25	Total : 75	Peanut, pea, bean,	9 acres	Donated by ONPRA/a renewable year	Food seeds: beans, potatoes, but, peanuts, peas, sorghum	Organizational and financial management
		Men: 20	Women: 55	Total : 75	Peanut, pea, bean,	16 acres	40000Fb/season, or 120000Fbu/an cfr Church		
					Sorghum and soy	9 acres	25,000 Fb/season, or 75,000 Fbu/year		

Camp	Cooperative	Members			Crops	Area	Rental Modality	Kits granted	Training received
					onion, cabbage, tomato, carrot, eggplant, amaranth, seeer.	20 acres	Donated by ONPRA/a renewable year	ditto	ditto
BWAGIRIZA	TUNAWEZA	Refugees: 24	Burundians: 26	Total : 50	maize	0.5 ha	Rental for 200,000 Fbu/year	ditto	ditto
		Men: 24	Women: 26	Total : 50	Potato	18 ha	150,000 Fbu/year		
					cassava	16 acres	120,000 Fbu/year		
					peanut	30 acres	240,000 Fbu/year		
					onion, cabbage, tomato, carrot, eggplant, amaranth, seeer.	18 acres	Donated by ONPRA/a renewable year		
					Prunes, papaya, orange tree, avocado, lemon tree, grapefruit, maracoudja	0.25 ha	Donated by ONPRA		
	Cea	Refugees: 30	Burundians: 13	Total : 43	bean	0.25 ha	100,000Fbu/year	ditto	ditto
		Men: 15	Women: 28	Total : 43	cassava	1ha	300,000 Fbu/year		
					soybean	12 acres	100,000 Fbu/year		
					Potato	16 acres	120,000 Fbu/year		
					pea	10 acres	70,000 Fbu/year		

Camp	Cooperative	Members			Crops	Area	Rental Modality	Kits granted	Training received
					maize	0.5 ha	200,000Fbu/year		
					onion, cabbage, tomato, carrot, eggplant, amaranth, seeer.	16 acres	Donated by ONPRA/a renewable year		
KAVUMU	JENGA JAMII	Refugees: 55	Burundians: 35	Total : 50	peanut	7.5 acres	30000Fbu/year	ditto	ditto
		Men: 60	Women: 30	Total : 90	cassava	1 ha	200000Fbu/year		
					Bean, but	0.75 ha	120000Fbu/year		
					Potato	0.25	100000Fbu/year		
					cabbage, onion, tomato, carote	18 acres	Donated by ONPRA		
	SRPKA	Refugees : 60	Burundians : 65	Total : 50	maize	1 ha	200000Fbu/year	ditto	ditto
		Men: 60	Women: 65	Total : 125	peanuts	6 acres	30000Fbu/year		
					Potato	0.25	100000Fbu/year		
					Cabbage, carrot, eggplant, plum, tomato	0.5 ha	Donated by ONPRA/ in the courtyard of their office or shed		

BENEFICIAIRES SUPPORTED

Camp	Cooperative	Men	Women	Total
NYANKANDA	TUISHI PAMOJA	22	34	56
	SALAMA AFRICA	20	55	75

BWAGIRIZA	TUNAWEZA	24	26	50
	CEA/FARMING AND BREEDING CO-OP	15	28	43
KAVUMU	JENGA JAMII	60	30	90
	SRPKA	60	65	125

5. Food aid distributed in camps

At the time of the survey, refugees in camps received monthly food assistance provided in-kind (equivalent to 1932 calories) through food fairs (equivalent to BIF 20,000/11USD) or to a lesser extent in cash (BIF 4, 000/2.2USD) in combination with food vouchers. Due to market price variations, although all registered refugees have access to the same cash value through the CBT, they do not necessarily have access to the same food purchasing potential. Food assistance is not enough to cover refugees' caloric needs as in 2018 the food basket was reduced from 2,120 calories per person per day to 1,932 calories (below the recommended daily intake of 2,100 calories).[62]

Commodity	In-kind (g/p/d) pre-April 2018	Kcal	In-kind (g/p/d) post-April 2018	Kcal	In-kind (g/p/d) when cash is given	Kcal
Maize meal	360	1303	360	1303	290	1050
Beans	120	408	120	408	90	306
CSB+	50	188	-	-	-	-
Oil	25	221	25	221	25	221
Salt	5	0	5	0	5	0
Total	560g	2120kcal	510g	1932kcal	410g	1577kcal
% of protein requirement supplied	121%		106%		83%	
% of fat requirement supplied	108%		98%		91%	

[62] UNHCR, ONPRA, and WFP.

6. Nonfood items distributed in camps

	Items	Unit
Kit Standard	Blankets	Piece
	Mats	Piece
	Soap	Piece/125g
	Loin-Cloths	Piece
	Jerrycans	Piece of 10 L
	Buckets	Piece
	Mosquito Nets	Piece
	Kitchen Sets	Complete Kit
	Travel bags	Piece
	Plastic Sheeting	Piece
Additional Kit (female hygiene supllies)	Flannels	m2
	Buckets	Piece
	Underwear	Piece
	Soap	Piece/125g
Birth Kit	Items	Unit
	Blankets	1 piece
	Soap	2 pieces of 125g
	Mosquito Nets	1 piece
	Buckets	1 piece
	Travel bags	1 piece
	Underwear	4 pieces
	Flannels	2 m2

CASH Grant
150 USD per Adult
75 USD Per child

7. Housing materials distributed in camps

Asylum seekers receive basic assistance from UNHCR during their time at the reception center or in the camps. WFP initiates assistance once they have officially become refugees. Sometimes transfers are done before the end of the refugee status determination, to avoid overpopulating reception centers. Asylum seekers are usually housed in temporary housing common shelters until their refugee status is granted and they are assigned a plot of land and receive the kit detailed below.

Construction kit:

- 60 perches
- 17 tôles
- 6 kg de clous ordinaire
- 2kg de clous à tôles
- 1 planche
- 500 roseaux
- 50 cordes
- 10 m3 de terre
- 1,16 m2 de bâche
- 2 charnières
- 1 foyer améliorés

Size of standard plot per camp

- Kinama: 6x6m
- Musasa: 13,5x8, 5m
- Bwagiriza: 15,5x8m
- Kavumu: 15,5x8m
- Nyankanda: 15x10m

8. Water distribution in camps

The partner in charge of water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) in the camps is the *Conseil pour l'Education et le Développement* (COPED). The differences in amounts of water are explained by the available water sources and the fact that both Kinama and Musasa camps' water distribution systems were rebuilt using solar equipment in 2020, which disrupted the regular water supply.

- Kinama: 137 321 liters per day (18,5 liters/person/day)
- Musasa: 174 954 liters per day (21,14 liters/person/day)
- Kavumu: 364 400 liters per day (24,39 liters/person/day)
- Bwagiriza: 328 220 liters per day (35,7 liters/person/day)
- Nyankanda: 341 000 liters per day (40,9 liters/person/day)

9. Biomass briquettes distribution in camps

Average distribution of briquettes in 2020 and in December 2020

Camp	2020 average	Dec-20
Bwagiriza	4.52 Kg	6.52 kg
Kavumu	5.07 kg	7.13 kg
Nyankanda	4.32 kg	7.33 kg
Kinama	6.59 kg	7.25 kg
Musasa	6.59 kg	7.25 kg

Due to logistical difficulties, the totality of the requested briquettes was not delivered in 2020, particularly between March and May.

To resolve this situation, a second supplier was selected in September 2020, and since then, UNHCR has been able to ensure a reliable delivery of the requested briquette amounts.

10. Services provided by UNHCR and partners for camp and urban refugees

Camp Coordination and Camp Management: ONPRA, UNHCR

Health:

- In urban areas, refugees receive partial medical assistance. People with specific needs receive support to cover 50% of their medical needs, while for life-threatening cases refugees receive support to cover 100% of their medical needs. Urban refugees cover their routine medical services. Starting in 2020, 1,800 households were targeted to take part in a mutual insurance scheme through an EU-funded project.
- In camps, medication is provided without charge for basic medical needs. For secondary and tertiary health care, UNHCR and partners provide referrals to local hospitals. As there is a limited budget, referral costs are often covered by refugees. HIV positive patients receive nutritional support. UNHCR and UNICEF provide support to treat malnutrition.

Education*:*

- In camps, refugees can access primary and secondary education following the DRC curriculum without any charge.
- Scholarships are available for 40 students to study in Bujumbura every year and cover housing, transport, tuition and schoolbooks. Most scholarship holders are camp-based refugees, although some urban refugees have also benefitted.
- In urban areas, 10 to 20 percent of children are assisted in paying school fees and materials.

Protection

- The International Rescue Committee (IRC) is the main partner in charge of refugees' protection, which includes SGBV, child protection and persons with special needs (elderly, disabled).
- In camps, refugees attend a hub center where they share protection incidents and receive psychosocial support. Survivors of SGBV receive kits, including pads and shoes.
- In urban areas, refugees may access a protection center where support in livelihoods, education and psychosocial support is provided by organizations and government agencies. The center is open five days a week.
    - SGBV protection is provided through two programs: Engaging Men in Accountable Practice (EMAP) is an IRC methodology geared towards adults men and women who receive sensitization and training on SGBV with specific behavioral interventions; Girl Shine is a program targeting girls aged 12 to 20 in which different activities are implemented to identify risky areas and promote protective behaviors.
    - Emergency housing is accessible for women at risk, for up to 5 days.
    - The *Centre Urbain de Conseils et d'Orientation des Refugies* (CUCOR), supports refugees and asylum seekers to access information, services, advice and social and cultural activities.

Livelihoods and business training

- Training in agricultural activities is provided for camp-based refugees, while urban refugees have access to trainings in tourism and vocational skills linked to internship opportunities.
- Microfinance training.
- Income-generating activities (tailoring, sewing, hair dressing, mechanics, wood working) are administered by a network of partnerships.
- Artisan products produced for Made51, a UNHCR collective.

11. Sexual and Gender-Based Violence response

In 2020, 4,943 SGBV survivors (4,715 female and 228 males) received psychosocial counseling. Of those, 664 were new cases, while 4,279 were older cases for which the incident often took place in the country of origin.

Additionally, 2,047 survivors received material support in the form of dignity kits. Of those, 350 were new cases detected within 72 hours of the incident and could therefore benefit from timely medical assistance in the health centers.

Finally, 81 discussions groups gathering a total of 583 survivors were active during 2020. Those groups met weekly around small income generating activities, such as sewing and leather-working, and used these women-only spaces to talk about their experience and challenges.

12. Classification of housing materials

Classification	Wall	Floor	Roof
Improved materials	Cement Stone with lime, cement or mortar (Turkana stone) Bricks Cement blocks Covered abode Wood planks/shingles Burnt bricks with cement	Wood planks Palm / Bamboo Finished floor parquet or polished wood Vinyl or asphalt strips Ceramic tiles Cement Carpet	Asbestos sheet Concrete Tiles Corrugated iron sheets
Unimproved materials	Cane/palm/trunks Mud and sticks Tin/cardboard/paper/bags (corrugated iron sheets) Thatched/straw (Grass/Reeds) Bamboo with mud Stone with mud Uncovered adobe Plywood Cardboard Reused wood Trunks with mud Unburnt bricks Unburnt bricks with plaster Unburnt bricks with mud Plastic or tent material	Earth / Sand Dung	No roof Grass / Thatch / Makuti Dung / Mud Plastic or tent material Tin Cans

NB: materials were categorized based on the DHS Analytical Studies classification.[63]

[63] 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."

13. Multiple deprivations and asset index calculation

Multiple deprivations were calculated by exploring living standards, access to water and sanitation and education.[64] Households are considered to be deprived in living standards if the household meets at least one of the following criteria: (i) more than 3 people sleeping in the same room (overcrowding); or (ii) the dwelling is not classified as having improved floor (cement or tiles) and improved walls (concrete block, bricks or stone). Deprivations in water and sanitation are faced by households that do not have access to both improved sanitation (flush toilet or improved latrine) and improved sources for drinking water (piped into dwelling, plot or yard). Deprivations in education are experienced by households that have at least one child (aged 6–14 years) who does not attend school, or if ii) all the adults (18-64) in the household are illiterate (Table 6).

Table 6: Indicators used to calculate multiple deprivations

Aspect	Indicator of deprivation	Data availability from the SES	Indicator considered in the analysis
Education			
Years of schooling	No eligible household member has completed six years of schooling	Available, schooling often corresponds to pre-displacement	Literacy in any language
School attendance	Any school-aged child is not attending school up to the age at which they would complete class 8.	Available	Attendance of children aged 6-14
Living standards			
Cooking fuel	A household cooks using biomass (dung, agricultural crop, shrubs, wood, charcoal, or coal)	Available, without variation in the data	Source of energy for cooking as a separate indicator
Sanitation	The household has unimproved or no sanitation facility or it is improved but shared	Available	Deprivation in water and sanitation
Drinking water	The household's source of drinking water is not safe or safe drinking water is a 30-minute or longer walk from home, roundtrip	Available, 92% of households are within the 30 min threshold	Deprivation in water and sanitation which includes safe drinking water sources
Electricity	The household has no electricity	Available, 99.8% of camp households do not have electricity	Source of energy for lighting as a separate indicator
Housing	Use of unimproved housing materials in any of the three components: floor, roof, or walls	Available	Deprivation in living standards. Improved housing as a separate indicator

Principal component analysis used data on asset ownership to create an asset index which served to identify households in the top and bottom of the distribution. To calculate the index, information on the following assets was considered: mobile phone, fix phone, laptop, radio, television, DVD, refrigerator, iron, vehicle, moto, bicycle, dresser & dining table. For all dummy variables on asset ownership, missing values were recoded to zero. Principal component analysis was used in Stata to estimate the principal component of the data on asset ownership considering all the dummy variables and sampling weights. The resultant index, from the principal component, was then standardized. To identify households in the

[64] Health indicators were not included due to lack of data.

bottom 40 percent quintiles were obtained from the distribution of the standardized asset index considering sampling weights of households. A separate dummy variable was created, identifying households in the 1st and 2nd deciles.

14. Survey methodology

a. Sampling design and survey instrument

The Burundi SES was conducted concurrently with the 2019/20 UNHCR's verification (VRX) exercise from which a sample of household was selected for the survey. Together with the Government of Burundi, UNHCR maintains a database of all registered refugees and asylum seekers in the country. While registration takes place on a continuous basis, verification exercises are conducted periodically, typically every two to three years. The Burundi SES – implemented by World Bank and UNHCR - was designed to be carried out in parallel to the 2019/20 Burundi VRX, during which refugees' registries were updated via in-person interviews in UNHCR's offices in Bujumbura and camps. As the data collection had to be paused due to the COVID-19 pandemic outbreak, in-person interviews were complemented by phone interviews. While most refugee households were administered the VRX, a systematic random sample was selected from the VRX for the SES.

The SES questionnaire was designed to produce relevant data on the socioeconomic conditions of refugees in Burundi and administered via CAPI. The survey instrument included individual-level modules with characteristics of each household member, education, employment, as well as vulnerabilities and concerns (Table 7). In addition, the instrument captured characteristics of the dwelling, ownership of assets, access to services and perceptions on social cohesion. The survey was implemented via Computer Assisted Personal Interviewing (CAPI) which has the potential to improve data quality, eliminates the need for data entry, supports near real-time monitoring of data collection and facilitates a timely release of results.[65] The questionnaire was designed using the KoBo Toolbox and included skip patterns that prevented enumerators from asking a question that should be skipped, or conversely skipping a question that should be asked. This decreased the length of the interview, avoided confusing the respondent and saved time when processing the data. The questionnaires were designed in English. The questionnaire was not translated into different languages but in most cases, enumerators were able to interpret the interview, or interpreters were used to translate the questions during the interview.

Table 7: Survey instrument

Module	Version of the questionnaire	Respondent level
Household composition	VRX and SES	Individual
Education	SES	Individual
Employment	SES	Individual
Vulnerabilities and concerns	SES	Individual
Dwelling characteristics	SES	Household
Assets and access to services	SES	Household
General perceptions (trust/safety/etc.)	SES	Household
Perceptions on the verification exercise	VRX and SES	Household

Source: Authors' elaboration

The 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 datasets. Moreover, proGres-SES comparisons can

[65] Caeyers, Chalmers, and Weerdt, "Improving Consumption Measurement and Other Survey Data through CAPI: Evidence from a Randomized Experiment."

be useful to better understand the implications of the currently available proGres data, which are collected for many refugee populations worldwide.

The sample comprised households contacted through two different mechanisms and hence the sample was divided into two subsamples. The first subsample—interviewed alongside the in-person verification took place from November 2019 to January 2020, interviewing 1,734 households. As there were refugees that did not show up during the in-person verification, a 'rolling verification' was implemented from January 2020 to capture missing refugees; the SES was administered in conjunction with the rolling verification (see Annex Field work for details). This second subsample was contacted from April 20 to May 19, 2020 and, as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic 145 households were interviewed via Computer-Assisted Telephone Interviewing (CATI). Table 9 and Table 10 show that the profile of the population interviewed in person and over the phone is not statistically significantly different from each other based on observables.

b. Sampling weights

The identification of households and members was done after the VRX was completed to ensure comparability of the SES with other socio-economic surveys. Refugees are organized into nuclear families in UNHCR's proGres database. These are defined, upon first registration, as a group which lives together and identifies as a family and for whom a relationship of either social, emotional or economic dependency is assumed. This definition of a household is different from the functional definition of a household, commonly used in socio-economic surveys. Thus, to align the definition to that in other socio-economic surveys, identification of households and members was done once the VRX was completed. In the SES, a household is defined as the group of people who are living together, have a common household head and share a common source of food and/or income and housekeeping arrangements.

Most refugee households were administered the VRX, while a representative random sample was selected for the SES. The VRX produced a list of all refugees in camps and urban areas in Burundi (75,011). This served as the sample frame for the SES. It consisted of the total number of refugees from three different sources: those contacted face-to-face and over the phone for the VRX, as well as refugees with a phone number but that were not reached for the VRX.

The single-stage sample design implies uniform sample weights, which are estimated as the inverse probability of selection for each household. For the VRX, all households are selected and the probability of selection is initially equal to 1, which corresponds to a sampling weight of 1. However, since some households were not reached over the phone for the VRX, the sampling weights were scaled uniformly to match the total number of households in each location according to the sample frame.

For the SES, the sampling weights were obtained separately for households interviewed face-to-face and those over the phone. The probability of selection for the former group was obtained as the total number of households interviewed in person for the SES relative to the total number of households in the sample frame for the face-to-face VRX. Similarly, the probability of selection for households interviewed over the phone for the SES was obtained by dividing this number over the total number of households in the sample frame for the phone VRX. Next, the sampling weights were obtained as the inverse of the respective probability of selection for each household. Yet, some households considered for the SES were not successfully interviewed; some did not respond or consent to the interview, while some interviews were incomplete. Thus, in the final step, the sampling weights were scaled uniformly for all households to match the total number of households in each location according to the sample frame.

c. Sensitivity checks

To further validate the final sample, three sensitivity checks were considered using the duration of face-to-face interviews. In each of the three sensitivity checks outliers were identified in a different way. These correspond to outliers using the median duration, location and date, and by identifying those in the top and bottom 5 percent of the duration (per family member) distribution. Then, household and individual characteristics were obtained for the full sample and the outlier treated sample assess the robustness of the final sample. Outliers were identified separately for the VRX and the SES, while results are presented for urban and camp population separately and only for the SES. Face-to-face interviews deemed as outliers are those that deviate from the general pattern. Table 8 contains the number of households excluded in each sensitivity check. Almost 90 percent of submissions are only excluded in one of these checks (i.e., never in more than one of these checks). That is, each sensitivity check is mutually exclusive when identifying potential outliers. On the first check, outliers are more likely to be in camps, headed by females and with larger household sizes. They have a similar age profile and number of children under 5. The second sensitivity check identifies outliers that are more likely to be in camps, headed by females and with larger households. They have a similar age profile and number of children under 5. The last sensitivity check flags as outliers those that are more likely to be in camps, headed by males and with smaller household sizes. They have a similar age profile and number of children under 5. For urban and camp households, the average characteristics of households and population are relatively constant after excluding outliers in each of the three scenarios.

Table 8: Households excluded in each sensitivity check for face-to-face interviews

Sensitivity check	Number of households	Cumulative percentage
Only 1	147	8.8
Only 2	561	42.1
Only 3	791	89.2
1 & 2	51	92.3
1 & 3	54	95.5
2 & 3	59	98.9
All	17	100
Total	1,680	

Source: Author's calculation using Burundi SES

Overall, the results from the three sensitivity checks indicate that excluding outliers identified does not modify the main results, thus confirming the robustness of the final sample. Dwelling characteristics, the share of households with access to services and ownership of assets are similar between full sample and the sample excluding outliers using each sensitivity check. In line with these findings, incidence of hunger and shocks, perceptions, and advantages from the verification exercise are also similar with and without outliers. The educational profile and employment status of individuals is also robust to excluding the outliers identified in the three sensitivity checks. Similarly, average vulnerabilities and concerns of urban and camp households are similar before and after excluding outliers.

The profile of the population interviewed in person and over the phone is relatively similar based on observables. Households interviewed in person and over the phone are relatively similar in terms of hunger and asset ownership. The difference between the share of households owning assets is only significantly different between phone and to face-to-face for 2 assets (fix phone and dining table) out of 13 considered. The level of education, employment status and vulnerability of the household head is also

similar between face-to-face and phone respondents. Phone households have fewer members but the profile of their members is similar to that of face-to-face households.

Table 9: Characteristics of the household head by type of interview

Characteristic	Face-to-face interviews		Phone interviews		Significantly Diff.
	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	
Ever attended school	72.4%	[70.2% - 74.6%]	85.4%	[78.3% - 92.5%]	Yes
Highest level of education: Primary	36.3%	[33.6% - 39%]	29.4%	[18.4% - 40.4%]	No
Highest level of education: Secondary	24.0%	[21.6% - 26.4%]	18.4%	[9.4% - 27.4%]	No
Highest level of education: Post-basic and higher	39.4%	[36.7% - 42.1%]	49.5%	[37.2% - 61.8%]	No
Highest level of education: Other	0.3%	[-0.1% - 0.7%]	2.7%	[-1.8% - 7.2%]	No
Literate	54.2%	[51.8% - 56.6%]	86.1%	[79.6% - 92.6%]	Yes
Employment status: working	33.7%	[31.3% - 36.1%]	33.1%	[22.9% - 43.3%]	No
Employment status: looking for work	14.2%	[12.4% - 16%]	24.2%	[14.4% - 34%]	No
Employment status: not working, housework	24.1%	[22.1% - 26.1%]	26.4%	[16.8% - 36%]	No
Employment status: not working, student	2.0%	[1.4% - 2.6%]	1.6%	[-0.4% - 3.6%]	No
Employment status: not working, other	26.1%	[23.9% - 28.3%]	14.7%	[6.7% - 22.7%]	Yes
Vulnerable: seeing	8.1%	[6.7% - 9.5%]	5.6%	[0.3% - 10.9%]	No
Vulnerable: walking	4.5%	[3.5% - 5.5%]	5.3%	[0% - 10.6%]	No
Vulnerable: remembering	3.5%	[2.5% - 4.5%]	4.9%	[-0.4% - 10.2%]	No
Vulnerable: performing tasks	1.8%	[1.2% - 2.4%]	0.4%	[-0.4% - 1.2%]	No
Vulnerable: communicating	1.1%	[0.5% - 1.7%]	0.4%	[-0.4% - 1.2%]	No

Source: Author's calculation.

Table 10: Characteristics of the population by type of interview

Characteristic	Face-to-face interviews		Phone interviews		Significantly Diff.
	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	
Average number of family members	7.2	[7.2 - 7.2]	6.8	[6.6 - 7.1]	Yes
Female	50.7%	[50.3% - 51.1%]	54.0%	[50.3% - 57.7%]	No
Under 6 years	18.5%	[18.1% - 18.9%]	17.6%	[14.7% - 20.5%]	No
6-14 years	27.9%	[27.5% - 28.3%]	28.8%	[25.5% - 32.1%]	No
15-64 years	52.3%	[51.9% - 52.7%]	52.8%	[49.1% - 56.5%]	No
Above 64 years	1.3%	[1.3% - 1.3%]	0.8%	[0.2% - 1.4%]	No
Country of origin: Burundi	2.6%	[2.4% - 2.8%]	2.5%	[1.3% - 3.7%]	No
Country of origin: Burundi	96.1%	[95.9% - 96.3%]	97.0%	[95.8% - 98.2%]	No
Country of origin: Other	1.4%	[1.4% - 1.4%]	0.5%	[-0.1% - 1.1%]	Yes

Source: Author's calculation

d. FIELD WORK

Fieldwork was organized around three teams collecting information between mid-November 2019 to May 2020. Data collection was preceded by a master and enumerators training. The master training was designed based on refugee socioeconomic survey exercises carried out in Kalobeyei refugee settlement and Kakuma refugee camp, Kenya. The master training focused on the enumerators training, coordination and data quality control. Based on the master training, enumerators and supervisors were trained in

Bujumbura. A team of 23 Enumerators and 3 supervisors were selected based on their performance. Supervisors were later trained (via videoconference) to train 15 enumerators in Muyinga who were sent to both Ruyigi and Muyinga. Due to restrictions enforced by the government to curb the spread of the COVID-19 virus, in-person interviews were substituted by phone interviews. In early April 2020, enumerators were trained to conduct the phone interviews.

A strong supervision system was put in place, including real-time oversight and feedback during collection. In order to account for the double-selection probability where a household contains the focal points of multiple cases, the introductory sections of the questionnaire included a brief module that documents the number of proGres case focal points present in the household under observation. The supervision system ensured that a household containing two or more case focal points, and where both focal points were sampled for the survey, were not interviewed multiple times. Moreover, sampled were handed out simple and recognizable cards that they were requested to pass on to their other household members after the interview. The other household members were advised to carry these cards with them at all times when visiting the central location where they could potentially be sampled for interview as well. At the beginning of each interview, the sample respondent would be asked whether they carry a blue card with a star, and if so the interview was cancelled.

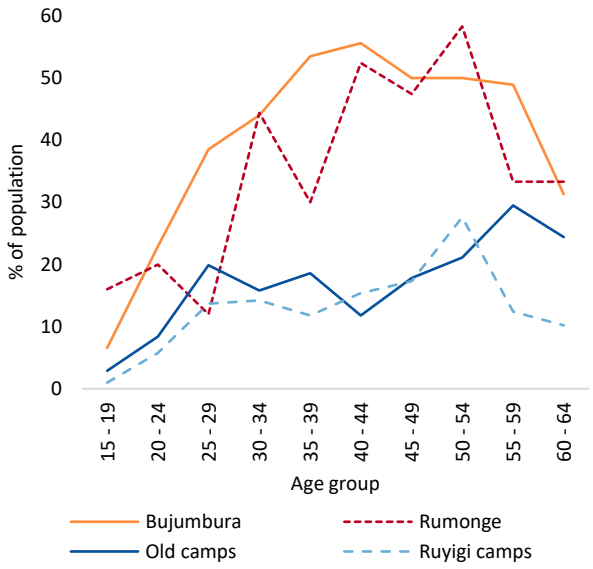
15. Additional figures and regression analyses

Table 11: Correlates of disability

Independent variables	Dependent variable: disability					
	Any	Seeing	Walking	Remembering	Doing tasks	Communicating
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Location: urban area	0.207***	0.279***	0.241***	0.333***	-0.197**	0.106
Women	0.161***	0.195***	0.155**	0.095	-0.003	0.041
Age	0.021***	0.022***	0.023***	0.015***	0.011***	0.009***
Literate	-0.174***	0.001	-0.260***	-0.296***	-0.409***	-0.402***
Household size	-0.009	-0.011	-0.018	-0.018	0.008	-0.030**
Control: type of interview	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	8,445	8,424	8,427	8,423	8,421	8,427

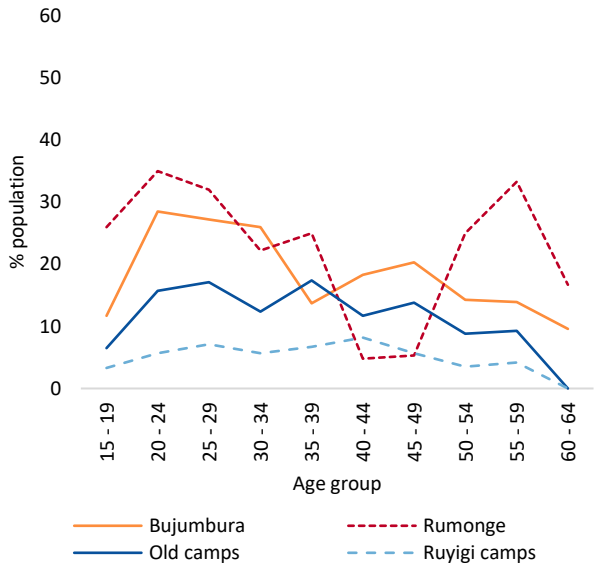
Note: Coefficients estimated from a probit regression model. Significance level: 1% (***), 5% (**), and 10% (*).
Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Figure 69: Working population by age group



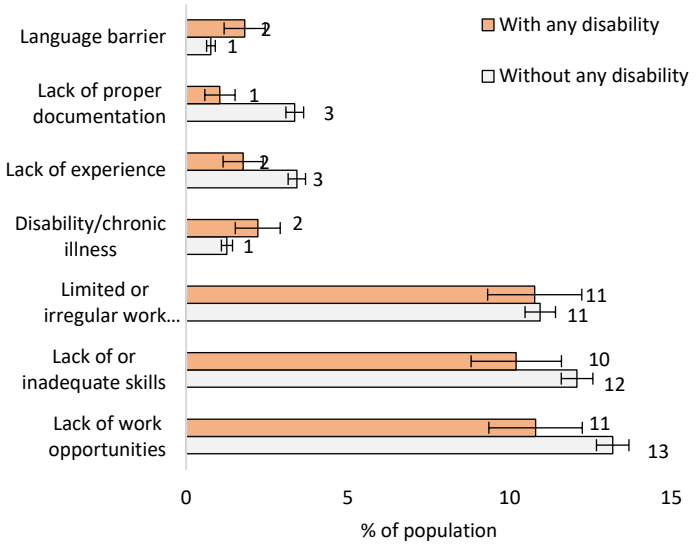
Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Figure 70: Actively searching population by age group



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Figure 71: Main obstacles in securing a job by disabled status



Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Table 12: Correlates of hunger and top 40% of the asset index

Independent variables	Dependent variable: Experienced hunger in the previous year	Dependent variable: Household in top 40% of asset index distribution
	(1)	(2)
Location: urban area	0.320***	0.558***
Household head: women	0.109	-0.245***
Household head: age	-0.004	0.005
Household head: any disability	0.136	-0.083
Household head: ever attended school	-0.132*	0.516***
Household head: working	-0.052	0.324***
Household size	0.009	0.054***
Household in top 40% of asset index distribution	-0.308***	N/A
Control: type of interview	Yes	Yes
Observations	1,850	1,856

N/A: Not applicable. Note: The coefficients were estimated from a probit regression model. Significance level: 1% (***), 5% (**), and 10% (*).

Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).

Table 13: Association between hunger and shocks

Independent variables: main shock experienced	Dependent variable: Experienced hunger in the previous year				Dependent variable: Experienced hunger more frequently in the previous year			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Serious illness/accident/death of a household member	0.120*				-0.030			
Drought/irregular rain		0.382**				-0.464**		
Lower(higher) prices for agricultural products(inputs)			-0.382***				0.208*	
Armed conflict, violence or insecurity				0.097				0.567***
Control: household characteristics	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Control: characteristics of the household head	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	1,850	1,850	1,850	1,850	1,270	1,270	1,270	1,270

N/A: Not applicable. Coefficients estimated from a probit and ordered probit regression model. Household characteristics include location, household size and type of interview. Characteristics of the household head include gender, age, disabled, ever attended school and working status. Significance level: 1% (***), 5% (**), and 10% (*).
Source: Burundi SES (2019-2020).