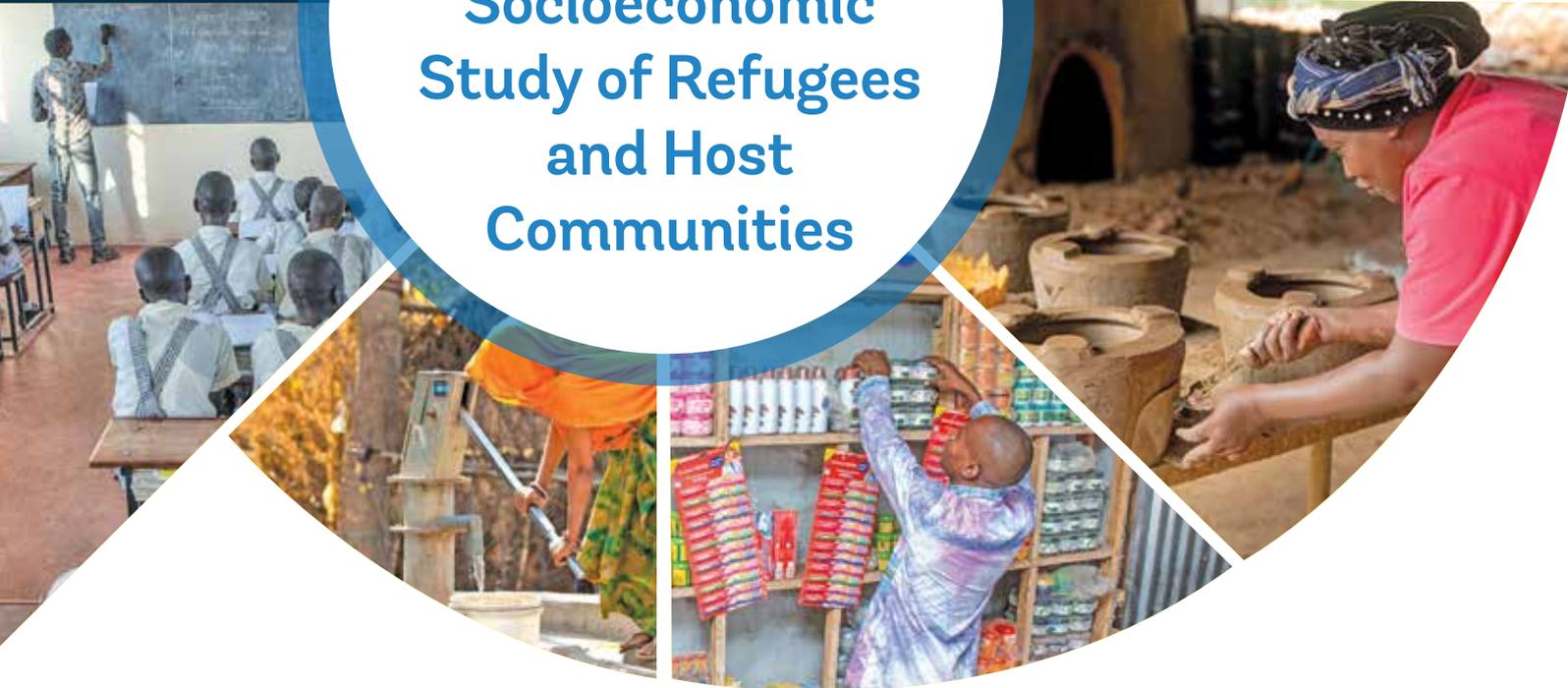


Building Evidence to Enhance the Welfare of Refugees and Host Communities

Insights from the Kenya Longitudinal Socioeconomic Study of Refugees and Host Communities





BUILDING EVIDENCE TO ENHANCE THE WELFARE OF REFUGEES AND HOST COMMUNITIES

Insights from the Kenya Longitudinal Socioeconomic Study
of Refugees and Host Communities



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Acknowledgments

This report is based on the Kenya Longitudinal Socioeconomic Study of Refugees and Host Communities, a component of the Kenya Analytical Program on Forced Displacement (KAP-FD). KAP-FD is a collaboration between the World Bank, United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and Center for Effective Global Action (CEGA) at the University of California, Berkeley (UC Berkeley). It is funded by PROSPECTS (Partnership for Improving Prospects for Host Communities and Forcibly Displaced Persons) of the Government of the Netherlands. The principal investigators are Edward Miguel, Nistha Sinha, Precious Zikhali, Theresa Beltramo and Utz Pape. Antonia Delius was the project manager during the design and data collection period of this study.

The preparation of the report was led by Olive Nsababera with guidance from Nistha Sinha and Precious Zikhali. The core team included Mirko Vintar, Abla Safir, Somara Sabharwal, Sebastian Silva-Leander, Beatrice Daniel, and Gabriel N. Camargo-Toledo. Important inputs were received from Antonia Delius, Theresa Beltramo, Ibrahima Sarr, Masud Rahman, Jackline Makandi, Laura Abril Ríos-Rivera, Patrick Mutinda, Anne Kittony, Nicolas Polasek and Sheah Deilami. Kevin McGee provided key technical assistance on sampling and survey weights.

Administrative and logistical support during the preparation of this report was provided by Anne Khatimba and Martin Buchara and is gratefully acknowledged. The team thanks Charity Nzomo, Keziah Muthembwa, Sambrian Mbaabu, and Vera Rosauer, for their excellent communications support. The report was edited by Neville Otuki and designed by Tracy Bett.

The report was prepared under the guidance of Pierella Paci and Rinku Murgai (Practice Managers, World Bank Poverty and Equity Global Practice), Tom Bundervoet (Lead Economist), Keith Hansen (County Director for Kenya, Rwanda, Somalia, and Uganda), Anne Bakilana (Operations Manager for Kenya, Rwanda, Somalia, and Uganda), and Marek Hanusch (Program Leader for Kenya, Rwanda, Somalia, and Uganda).

The work benefited from many helpful comments and discussions across the World Bank Group, UNHCR and UC Berkeley including with Utz Pape, Edward Miguel, Pieter Ventevogel, Caleb Gitau, Benjamin Reese, Miguel de Corral, Farah Manji, Tom Bundervoet, Esther Owelle, Federica Ricaldi, Sarah Stillman, Mansi Kalra, Madeline Langley, Sonia Gomez, Dania Khan, Andrew Agumba, Filip Pongrac, Edith Ingutia, Philip Kinara, Sateesh Nanduri, Suhail Awan, Jedediah Fix, John Wagacha Burton and Edward Benson. The team gratefully acknowledges comments from José Cuesta, Johannes Hoogeveen and Stephen Wrinkler who served as peer reviewers for the report. The team would also like to thank the Kenya Department of Refugee Services (DRS) for their valuable feedback.

We thank Ipsos Kenya Ltd., for their work on the data collection and Caleb Gitau, Antonia Delius, Layna Lowe, and Sarah Stillman for coordinating the effort. Lastly, we extend our sincere gratitude to the survey respondents, whose experiences have provided valuable insights that will inform policy and interventions to improve the welfare of both refugees and host communities.

Abbreviations and Acronyms

| | |
|---------------|---|
| AMREF | African Medical and Research Foundation |
| CBC | Competency Based Curriculum |
| CCCM | Camp Coordination and Camp Management |
| CEGA | Center for Effective Global Action |
| CRA | Commissioner for Refugee Affairs |
| CRRF | Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework |
| CSI | Coping Strategy Index |
| CT-OVC | Cash Transfer to Orphans and Vulnerable Children |
| CWPM | Correct Words per Minutes |
| DRS | Department of Refugee Services |
| EA | Enumeration Area |
| EGMA | Early Grade Mathematics Assessment |
| EGRA | Early Grade Reading Assessments |
| FE | Fixed effects |
| GAD-7 | Generalized Anxiety Disorder Score |
| GCR | Global Compact on Refugees |
| GISEDP | Garissa Integrated Socio-Economic Development Plan |
| HSNP | Hunger Safety Net Program |
| ICT | Information and Communication Technology |
| ILO | International Labor Organization |
| IGAD | Intergovernmental Authority on Development |
| ISCO | International Standard Classification of Occupations |
| KAP-FD | Kenya Analytical Program on Forced Displacement |
| KDRDIP | Kenya Development Response to Displacement Impacts Project |
| KISEDP | Kalobeyei Integrated Socio-Economic Development Plan |
| KCHS | Kenya Continuous Household Survey |
| KCSE | Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education |
| K-LSRH | Kenya Longitudinal Socioeconomic Study of Refugees and Host Communities |
| Ksh. | Kenya Shillings |

| | |
|------------------|---|
| LCS | Livelihoods Coping Strategies |
| LFP | Labor Force Participation |
| MPI | Multidimensional Poverty Index |
| MSPSS | Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support |
| NGO | Nongovernmental Organization |
| NHIF | National Health Insurance Fund |
| NSSF | National Social Security Fund |
| OAU | Organization of African Unity |
| OPTC | Older Persons Cash Transfer |
| PCA | Principal Component Analysis |
| PEELP | Primary Education Equity in Learning Program |
| PHQ-8 | Patient Health Questionnaire Score |
| PPS | Probability Proportional to Size |
| proGres | Profile Global Registration System, the UNHCR refugee database |
| PROSPECTS | Partnership for Improving Prospects for Host Communities and Forcibly Displaced Persons |
| PTSD | Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder |
| PWSD-CT | Persons with Severe Disability Cash Transfer |
| RRPS | Rapid Response Phone Survey |
| RSD | Refugee Status Determination |
| SES | Socioeconomic Surveys |
| TVET | Technical and Vocational Education and Training |
| UNHCR | United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees |
| USAID | United States Agency for International Development |
| WASH | Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene |
| WFP | World Food Program |

Executive Summary

The Kenya Longitudinal Socioeconomic Study of Refugees and Host Communities (K-LSRH) is the first nationally comparable survey of registered refugees and hosts in Kenya, offering a unique opportunity to inform the socioeconomic integration of refugees, including the Government of Kenya's proposed shift from camps to integrated settlements. Unlike previous surveys that lacked comparable host-refugee data, K-LSRH includes both refugee and host communities, providing comprehensive insights into their living conditions and challenges. The first wave of K-LSRH was conducted between June 2022 and 2023, covering refugees in Kakuma Refugee Camp, Dadaab Refugee Complex, Kalobeyei Integrated Settlement, as well as urban refugees in Nairobi, Mombasa, and Nakuru. The survey instrument addresses various household-level, individual-level, and children's outcomes. It delves into less understood themes such as psychosocial wellbeing and trust, aiming to advance knowledge and programming in these areas.

The survey is particularly insightful considering the evolution of Kenya's policies towards a development approach, aiming for refugee self-reliance. The Kalobeyei Integrated Socio-Economic Development Plan (KISED), initiated in 2016 in Turkana County, exemplifies the shift aiming to transition from short-term aid to longer-term development initiatives. Kenya also has made significant strides in aligning its legal framework with international standards, evident in the adoption of the Refugee Act 2021 and its Regulations, replacing previous legislation from 2006. The Act permits refugees to open bank accounts, own SIM cards and apply for work permits.

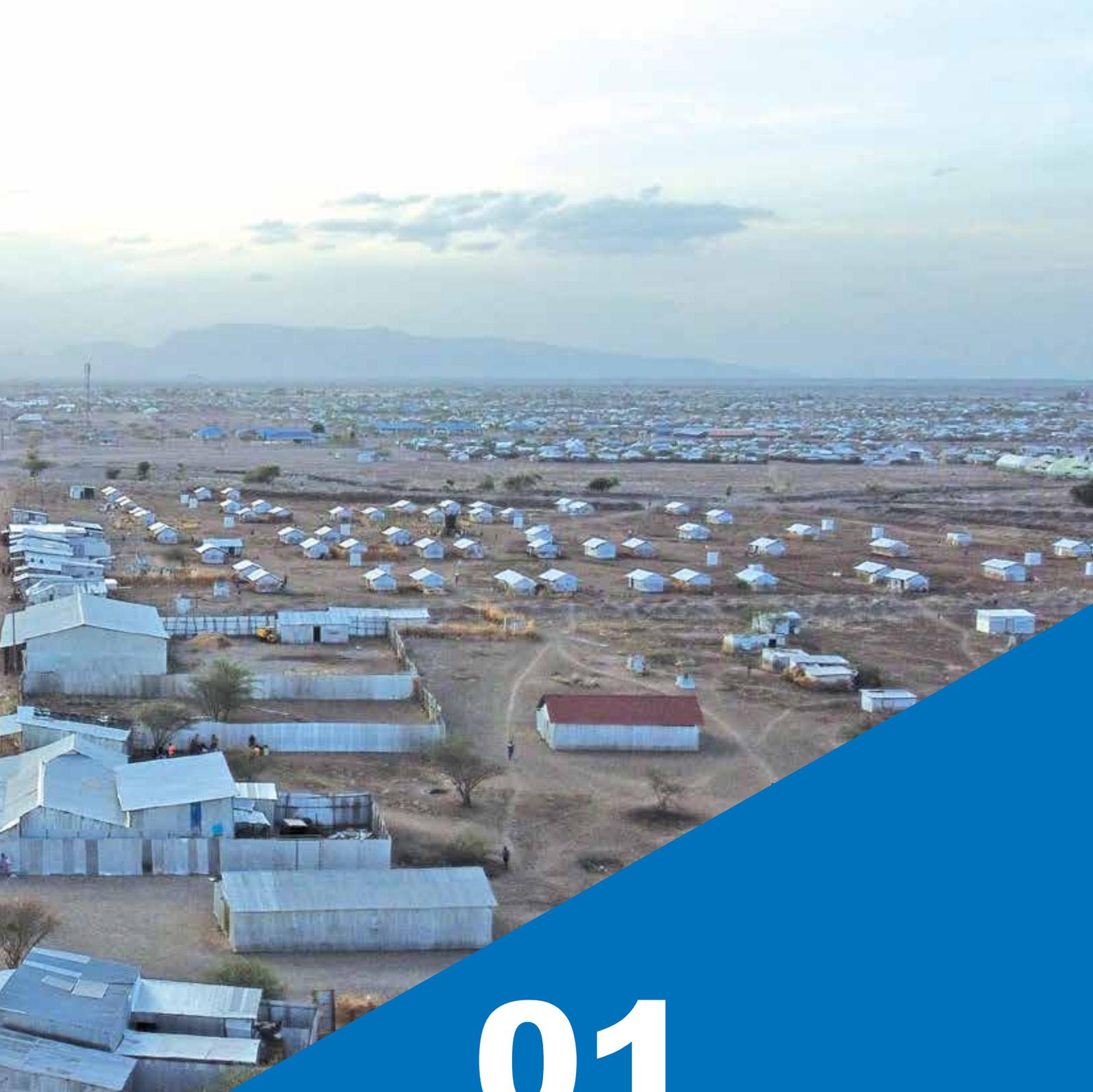
Despite these advancements, the results show that refugees still encounter challenges accessing services and improving their welfare. Restrictions on movement and employment opportunities outside of refugee camps, coupled with the difficulty of obtaining work permits and business licenses, continue to contribute to their reliance on humanitarian aid. As a result, many

refugees in Kenya continue to face poverty and limited prospects for economic opportunities.

Findings from K-LSRH underscore the need for targeted policy interventions to enhance the integration of refugees and improve the wellbeing and resilience of both refugees and host communities. Three key findings emerge: First, basic needs are unmet for both refugees and hosts, with Turkana hosts facing significant challenges in various aspects of wellbeing. Despite high educational aspirations and support for gender equality in education, secondary school enrollment is hindered primarily by limited financial resources. Second, both hosts and refugees encounter barriers in accessing employment, with women being disproportionately affected. Third, camp residents, both refugees and hosts, experience more frequent shocks compared to their urban counterparts, with lower socioeconomic resilience levels. Overall, these results underscore the importance of enhancing refugee service provision and resilience as part of a broader strategy to address and reduce spatial inequalities in Kenya.

To support the socioeconomic integration of refugees in Kenya, a phased approach can be considered. In the short run, easing restrictions on the right to work and movement is essential. Streamlining procedures for work permits, movement passes, and banking access can help refugees transition toward self-reliance, reducing hosting costs over time. Upskilling, job search support, and self-employment opportunities, especially for women and youth, are also critical in empowering refugees to integrate into the labor market. In the medium term, addressing spatial inequalities through place-based development in refugee-hosting areas can enhance welfare for both refugees and host communities and strengthen household resilience to shocks. Incorporating psychosocial support is also essential to building resilience in the long run. Lastly, sustained self-reliance and resilience in the long run require continued implementation of a progressive policy framework and robust data.





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Background and Context

Background and Context

The rise in forced displacement and the recognition of its protracted nature, necessitates a shift from viewing forced displacement solely as a humanitarian concern to better bridging the humanitarian-development nexus. The number of displaced people globally has nearly doubled from 59.2 million in 2014 to 117.3 million in 2023 (UNHCR 2024a). Addressing the immediate, mid-term and long-term needs of forcibly displaced populations remains critical. Recent attention has been directed to the need to expand support from the provision of assistance to ensuring forcibly displaced people and host communities can develop sustained resilience (World Bank 2023a). At the same time, there is an acknowledgement that countries provide a valuable global public good by hosting refugees, and therefore it is crucial that support be targeted at both displaced populations and host communities (World Bank 2023a).

Kenya is a major refugee-hosting nation and is home to some of the world's largest refugee camps. Kenya hosts refugees from protracted displacement situations from neighboring countries, some of which have lasted more than three decades.¹ As of June 2024, Kenya hosts

774,354 registered refugees and asylum seekers who live in designated camp areas and urban areas (UNHCR 2024b). The designated camp areas include Kakuma Refugee Camp and Kalobeyei Integrated Settlement in Turkana County and Dadaab Refugee Complex in Garissa County while the main urban areas include Nairobi, Mombasa, and Nakuru, among others (UNHCR n.d.). United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) data suggest that the Kakuma camp and Kalobeyei Settlement host 288,206 refugees and asylum seekers while the Dadaab complex hosts 382,658, constituting 37 percent and 49 percent of all registered refugees and asylum seekers in Kenya respectively (UNHCR 2024b). All the urban areas host 103,506, representing 13 percent of all registered refugees and asylum seekers. Dadaab and Kakuma refugee camp have been operational for decades since 1991 and 1992 respectively and they are among the five biggest refugee camps globally (UNHCR 2023a). An estimated 49 percent of registered refugees are female while women and children together make up 80 percent of registered refugees (UNHCR 2024b).

774,370

As of May 2024, Kenya hosts 774,370 registered refugees and asylum seekers who live in designated camp areas and urban areas .



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¹Estimates from global refugee figures in 2022 suggest that Kenya hosts 8 percent of the total Sub-Saharan refugee population (Sarzin and Nsababera, forthcoming).

1.1 Refugee hosting context

The refugee policies, laws and the regulatory environment in Kenya have evolved over time. During the 1950s to 1970s, refugee inflows into Kenya resulted from the struggle for independence across the continent (Nyanduga 2004), due to tumult in Uganda and civil strife in Ethiopia, Somalia, and Sudan (Abuya 2007). During this period, the Government of Kenya applied prima facie refugee status determination, an approach used to declare refugeehood in situations of mass inflows, especially when the need for protection is apparent, and individual determination would take time. This approach was easy to apply in the context of African hospitality and the rise of Pan-Africanism. However, in the 1980s, refugee flows increased further due to widespread ethnic conflicts and political instability across the region, which strained the existing lean asylum system at the Thika Reception Center. Many other factors, such as reduced donor support for long-term refugee assistance, exacerbated the situation. In 1992, Kenya provided camp spaces and directly partnered with the UNHCR to support the functions of refugee reception, registration, and assistance. The UNHCR was expected to provide humanitarian support to refugees and support Camp Coordination and Camp Management (CCCM) in the country.

Kenya has made considerable progress in the international legal arena in terms of domesticating refugee-related policies and protocols. In 1966 and 1981, respectively, Kenya ratified the Convention relating to the Status of Refugees and its Protocol. Articles 17 and 18 of the Refugee Convention address the right to work for refugees in host countries, while Article 26 requires states to accord refugees the freedom of movement and choice of residence. Other international laws and protocols that Kenya has ratified, which directly or indirectly offer refugees right to work and free movement include the Universal Declaration on Human Rights, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, and the African Charter on Human and People's Rights (Malombe et al. 2016).

In recent years, Kenya has demonstrated its commitment to implement international soft law instruments on refugee protection. The 2016 New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants and the 2018 Global Compact on Refugees (GCR), helped pave the way for the Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework (CRRF) on how to provide more predictable and comprehensive support during mass inflows of refugees and migrants, including how

to enhance self-reliance by adopting a 'whole of society' approach. Kenya was selected as one of the pilot countries for the CRRF implementation, which it signed in December 2017, and committed to review its policies and practices on refugees (O'Callaghan et al. 2019). By this time, Kenya had already begun to implement local area multi-sectoral plans which sought socioeconomic integration of refugees in Turkana County (Dick and Rudolf 2019).

Kenya has also engaged in regional initiatives and ratified conventions to enhance protection and livelihoods of refugees. Kenya's ratification of the 'Organization of African Unity (OAU) Convention Relating to Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa' in 1974 showed its commitment to granting refugees those rights spelt out in the 1951 Refugee Convention. More recently, Kenya has committed to improve the livelihoods of refugees by agreeing to several declarations led by the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD), some of which were partly supported by the CRRF process. The first was the 2017 Nairobi Declaration on Durable Solutions for Somali Refugees and Reintegration of Returnees in Somalia which sought to enhance refugee education, training and skills development, the free movement of refugees and granting residence permits or citizenship for refugees (Intergovernmental Authority on Development 2017). The second was the 2017 Djibouti Declaration on Regional Refugee Education in which Kenya committed to expand its integration of refugees in the national systems of education to include refugees and host communities in education sector plans, and to expand distance learning for refugees. Kenya has fulfilled part of these pledges through the adoption of the Recognition of Prior Learning Policy which recognizes skills and competencies acquired in non-formal or informal learning but where certification is lacking (Kenya National Qualifications Authority n.d.). Additionally, in the 2019 Kampala Declaration on Jobs, Livelihoods and Self-reliance, Kenya pledged to enhance the economic inclusion and promote the livelihood opportunities to achieve the self-reliance of refugees and host communities (Intergovernmental Authority on Development 2019).

More recently, Kenya has made further progress in the transformation of its national legal and policy environment by enacting the Refugees Act 2021 and publishing its accompanying Regulations, as well as developing the 'Shirika Plan' – a broad agenda which aims to support the transition from camps to integrated settlements and foster socioeconomic integration. The 2021 Refugees Act and the 2024 Refugee Regulations replace the 2006 Act and its associated regulations. Under the new Refugees Act (the Act), the Commissioner for



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Refugee Affairs (CRA) heads the Department of Refugee Services (DRS) which receives and processes applications on refugee status determination (RSD; The Refugee Act 2021). Successful asylum seekers are issued with refugee identity cards, one of the six types of refugee identification documents gazetted by the government earlier in 2024 for purposes of accessing public services. Refugee identity cards expire after five years which might roll back the gains a refugee has made in that time (Vuni and Iragi 2023). Although the Act specifies that refugees have the right to work in Kenya, refugees are required to have Class M permits - as per the Kenya Citizenship and Immigration Act 2011, but these are challenging to access in practice. Through the Shirika Plan, the government intends to transform refugee camps into integrated settlements that benefit both refugees and host communities. The plan seeks to enhance the welfare for both refugees and hosts through improved infrastructure, services, and economic opportunities. Additionally, the establishment of the two municipalities of Dadaab and Kakuma, which include the refugee camps, aims to integrate services and governance, enhancing the management and support of both refugees and host communities.

As part of integration and financial inclusion efforts, the Refugees Act provides that refugees can open bank

accounts and own SIM cards. The Act also grants refugees rights to self-employment. However, there are apparent bottlenecks for refugees to apply for business licenses due to the existing challenge of documentation. The Refugees Act requires that refugees are subject to Kenyan laws, but the 2012 Micro and Small Enterprises Act and the 2010 Constitution of Kenya do not define refugee rights as they relate to access to cooperatives, employment services, as well as registration and ownership of businesses (ILO 2022). Nevertheless, refugees have rights and access to the National Health Insurance Fund (NHIF) as well as basic education, and those who have SIM cards access mobile banking services, as well as some services at the National Social Security Fund (NSSF).

Kenya is increasingly adopting the sustainable approach to refugee-related interventions by progressively transitioning from a humanitarian-focused to a development approach. In 2016, the Turkana County government, in conjunction with the stakeholders, developed the Kalobeyei Integrated Socio-Economic Development Plan (KISEDIP), which reflected the initial transition from humanitarian assistance to longer-term development interventions (UNHCR 2018). Although the first phase of KISEDIP (2018 – 2022) faced various challenges, the lessons learnt can be used to make the second phase,

which concludes in 2030, more successful. Garissa County also plans to replicate Turkana County's model to roll out the Garissa Integrated Socio-Economic Development Plan (GISEDIP; O'Callaghan et al. 2019).

Despite Kenya's progress to improve the legal and policy environments, refugees still face many challenges that curtail their livelihoods. Freedom of movement for refugees is limited as under the Refugees Act 2021 refugees are required to stay in 'designated areas' unless they apply for an exemption. To leave the designated area, they are required to apply for movement passes, which are valid for a specified period and have

extensive verification processes before issuance. Refugees and asylum seekers found outside the designated areas face arrest and prosecution. In addition, due to the challenge of documentation, refugees are quite limited in terms of labor force participation and the businesses they can operate. They are often employed as 'incentive workers' for humanitarian organizations and receive lower wages than Kenyans for equivalent work (Vuni and Iragi 2023; Omata 2021). Refugees also face significant financial inclusion barriers including lack of documentation, geographical barriers, limited knowledge on financial literacy, and access to existing financial services (Vuni and Iragi 2023).

Box 1: Spatial disparities in welfare

Refugee camps and settlements, where most refugees live, are in underdeveloped arid and semi-arid regions with limited infrastructure and services.² The recent World Bank's Kenya Poverty and Equity Assessment (World Bank 2023b), highlights that geography is a significant factor in poverty, with arid regions in the North and North-East,³ where most refugee camps are situated, experiencing much higher poverty rates than the rest of the country. In 2021, Turkana, Kenya's northernmost county, had the highest poverty rate at 78%, followed by Mandera, Tana River, and Garissa, where over two-thirds of residents are poor. The poverty gap between these arid regions and the rest of the country has remained consistent from 2005/06 to 2021. Despite comprising only 10 percent of the population, these areas account for about 18% of the nation's poor.

Figure 1: Absolute poverty rate, 2005/06 – 2021

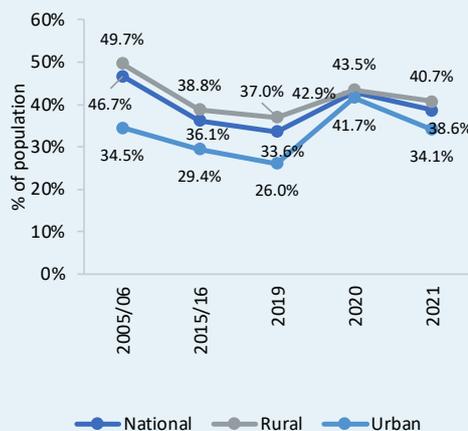
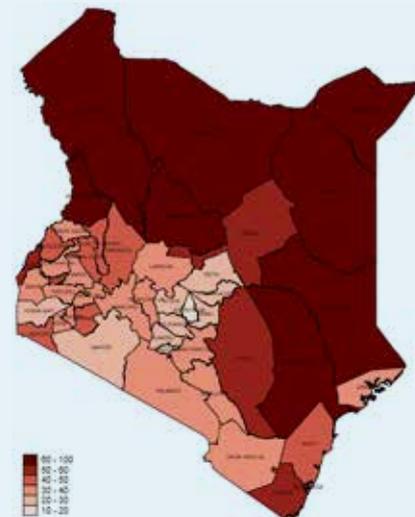


Figure 2: Absolute poverty rate by county, 2021



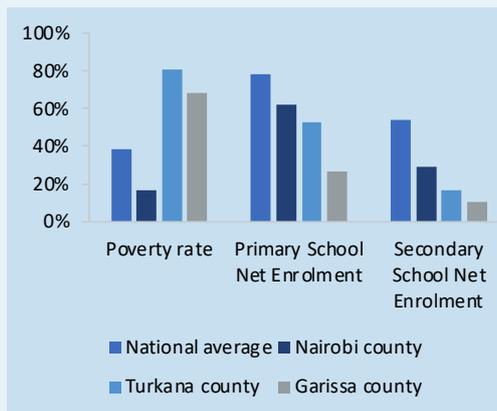
Source: 2021 Kenya Poverty Report, based on the 2021 Kenya Continuous Household Budget Survey.

Notes: According to the official national poverty lines produced by the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS), an individual is considered poor if they live in a household with a monthly per adult equivalent consumption expenditure of Ksh 3,947 and Ksh 7,193 for rural and urban areas, respectively, in 2021 prices.

²While camp areas have historically been poor arid and semi-arid areas even prior to the establishment of camps, the report does not suggest a causal relationship between refugee hosting and poverty rates. Refugee presence may increase pressure on scarce resources but there is also evidence it attracts inflow of resources and creates new economic opportunities which improves conditions for hosting communities. Thus, the direction and magnitude of refugee presence on poverty is not straightforward. See for example Alix-Garcia et al. (2018) and Zhou et al. (2023).

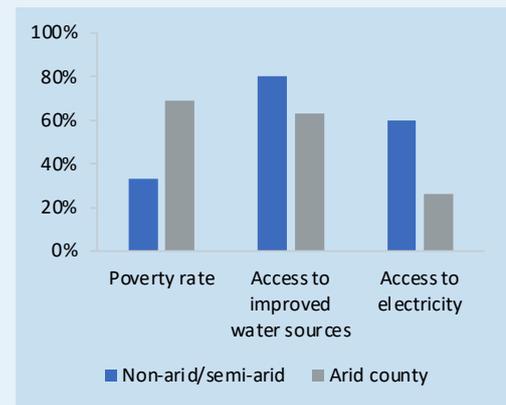
Kenya has made notable progress in improving non-monetary welfare dimensions, but spatial disparities persist. Education, water, and electricity access remain significantly lower in arid counties compared to non-arid regions. The Kenya Poverty and Equity Assessment 2023 reveals that arid counties continue to have the lowest rates of live births delivered by skilled providers: Turkana (53%), Mandera (55%), Wajir (57%), Samburu (57%), and Tana River (59%). These counties are also about 30 percentage points behind the national average in primary school enrollment and face lower transition rates from primary to secondary school. While the national transition rate is high at 87%, driven by the Government of Kenya's policy to achieve 100% transition, most arid counties fall below this average.

Figure 3: Poverty rate and education



Source: Ministry of Education Basic Education Statistical Booklet (2020).

Figure 4: Poverty rate, access to water and electricity



Source: Based on the Kenya Continuous Household Survey (KCHS, 2021).

Limited progress in poverty reduction in arid areas is partly due to agroclimatic constraints, which lead to high vulnerability to climate shocks and generally low agricultural productivity. This is exacerbated by relatively low access to basic services, which hinders human capital development.

Thus, improving welfare of refugees and hosts should be part of a broader strategy to close Kenya's spatial disparities. Host communities also experience high levels of poverty and require both humanitarian and development assistance.

1.2 The need for better data on both refugees and hosts

Better data is needed to understand both the situation of refugees and hosts and inform appropriate and evidence-based interventions and policies. Previous surveys provided some understanding of the socioeconomic conditions of refugees.⁴ However, such surveys did not include host communities and only allowed for a limited comparison and understanding of living conditions and challenges of refugees and host communities.^{5 6} Better data is critical to inform the socioeconomic inclusion of refugees such as the Government of Kenya's intended transition from camps to integrated settlements. It is also critical to inform humanitarian and development operations aimed at improving the wellbeing of both refugees and host communities.

The Kenya Longitudinal Socioeconomic Study of Refugees and Host Communities (K-LSRH) aims to produce comparable socioeconomic panel data on refugees and host communities to inform evidence-based policy, planning and programming. The survey, conducted between June 2022 and 2023, covers (i) refugees in Kakuma camp, Dadaab camp and Kalobeyei settlement; (ii) refugees in urban areas of Nairobi, (iii) refugees in 'Other Urban areas' namely, Mombasa and Nakuru, and (iv) host communities drawn from households within 15 kilometers of the refugee camps and from urban neighborhoods where a large share of the urban refugees reside.⁷ The sampling frame for refugee camps is based on UNHCR's population database (proGres).⁸ Up to four respondents in 5,841 refugee households and 3,464 host households were interviewed.^{9 10} The survey instrument includes questions on household-level outcomes (demographic characteristics, consumption, dwelling characteristics, food insecurity, assistance, income sources, shocks); adult individual

level outcomes (labor supply and earnings, access to financial services, social cohesion, movement to and within Kenya, health and psychosocial wellbeing, marriage and fertility, gender norms); and children's outcomes (learning assessments; aspirations; social cohesion). The K-LSRH is the first representative survey of registered refugees in Kenya with comparable host-refugee data.¹¹ Its coverage of less understood themes such as psychosocial wellbeing, weather perceptions and social cohesion aims to provide data to advance knowledge and inform programming in these areas.

Using the lens of self-reliance and resilience, this report gives an overview of survey findings to inform evidence-based interventions and policies. With the relative increase in and protractedness of displacement, attention is increasingly shifting towards enhancing self-reliance, defined as the 'social and economic ability of an individual, a household or a community to meet its essential needs in a sustainable manner and with dignity' (UNHCR 2005). Figure 5 presents the conceptual framework for self-reliance, highlighting fundamental human needs at its core. While humanitarian efforts typically focus on meeting these basic needs, achieving self-reliance entails progressing beyond basic needs by assessing a household's resources to meet them. Furthermore, it involves identifying factors that enable or constrain households in sustaining these needs over time (outer ring). It should be noted that self-reliance goes beyond merely not receiving aid (Leeson et al. 2022). In other words, the aim is not to consider individuals as self-reliant solely because they receive no aid, while neglecting their living standards or protection needs. Indeed, promoting and viewing refugee self-reliance merely as a cost-effective strategy could be detrimental to

⁴ See Sanghi et al. (2016); UNHCR and World Bank (2019; 2020; 2021; 2022); World Bank (2022; 2023c).

⁵ Of the existing surveys, only the Kenya Continuous Household Survey (KCHS) and the Kenya Rapid Response Phone Surveys (RRPS) included hosts. However, the KCHS only covered Nairobi and is therefore not representative of the camps or other urban areas. The RRPS on the other hand is only representative of individuals with registered phone numbers and only included a reduced number of indicators compared due to its mode of collection. Furthermore, all of these studies rely purely on quantitative approaches.

⁶ Additionally, besides the RRPS which is limited in representativeness and scope of indicators as noted above, there was a limited understanding of the socio-economic conditions in Dadaab camp which has been under researched as security limits access.

⁷ The survey does not cover the small percentage (6%) of refugees living outside target strata (See Annex 8.1A).

⁸ The sampling frame included all registered refugees and asylum seekers in Kenya. Thus, this report focuses on individuals who fall within the legal definition of refugees and asylum seekers even if they may have other reasons for leaving the country of origin (see section 2 on reasons for leaving).

⁹ For interviews with child respondents, appropriate procedures were followed to ensure adherence to ethical protocols. These included asking for parental or guardian consent to allow the child to participate in the interview, asking the child for assent and explaining that they could decline any part or all of the interview if they want to. An ethical review of the interview plans was also done at the University of California Berkeley and with African Medical and Research Foundation (AMREF).

¹⁰ A household respondent, an adult random respondent, a child respondent, and a woman respondent.

¹¹ See Annex A on sampling design.

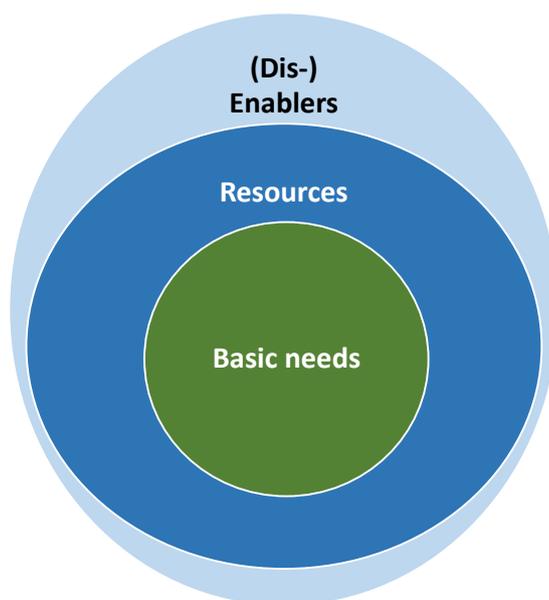
¹² For a detailed critical examination see Easton-Calabria and Omata (2021).

refugees' wellbeing and protection.¹² It is thus crucial to assess both the meeting and methods of meeting basic needs. In this regard, resilience – the ability, capacity, and flexibility to prepare for, cope with, recover from, and adapt to economic shocks – is also important (Barron et al. 2023). Marginalized groups, such as refugees and poor host communities, are often more exposed to shocks and their resilience can determine their recovery from subsequent shocks (Barron et al. 2023).

The analysis therefore aims to foster evidence-based discussions on policies and interventions to enhance the self-reliance of both refugees and host communities, thereby strengthening their resilience.

To this end, the report provides an overview of the status of key indicators by location and other key disaggregation levels such as gender for selected issues in each of the three dimensions (basic needs, resources, (dis-)enablers). Secondly, it explores correlates to shed light on factors that may shape observed outcomes with a view to providing policy-relevant insights. Besides the conceptual framework, the selection of themes for each dimension was motivated by the need to address less-understood issues such as psychosocial wellbeing and trust (both in-group and out-group) and for which the survey could be leveraged. While the report does not claim to be exhaustive, it selectively balances breadth and depth to provide insights that can motivate further analysis using the microdata.

Figure 5: Conceptual framework



Source: Adapted from the Self-Reliance Initiative.¹³

The report is structured as follows: The next chapter provides an overview of the demographic characteristics of refugee and host communities. The third chapter assesses the extent to which households are meeting basic needs. It provides a discussion of non-monetary poverty indicators and uses a multidimensional poverty measure to assess welfare. An extensive examination of educational outcomes for adults and children as well as their aspirations and

expectations is also provided in this chapter. The fourth chapter examines the sources of household income. It focuses on understanding labor-market outcomes in recognition of the role that employment can play in achieving sustained self-reliance. In the fifth chapter, a discussion of the shocks faced by households, psychosocial wellbeing and trust is provided. The sixth chapter concludes with suggestions for the policy direction.

¹³ See for reference Leeson, Slaughter, Buscher (2022).



02

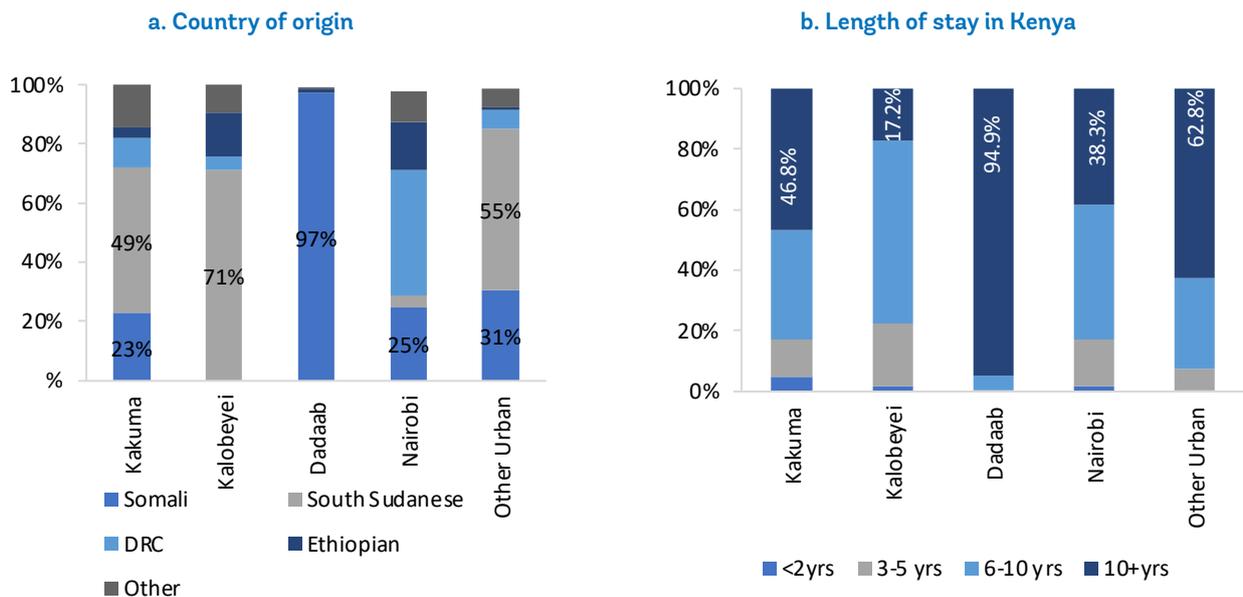
Demographic
Profile

Demographic Profile

The composition of refugee populations varies significantly across different locations. Most refugees in the sample live in camps (81 percent), while the remaining 19 percent are in urban areas. In terms of nationality, the Dadaab camp in Kenya is nearly

homogenously resided by Somali refugees primarily due to the proximity of Dadaab to Somalia. On the other hand, refugees from South Sudan make up the highest number of refugees residing in Kakuma and Kalobeyei.

Figure 6: Composition by camp

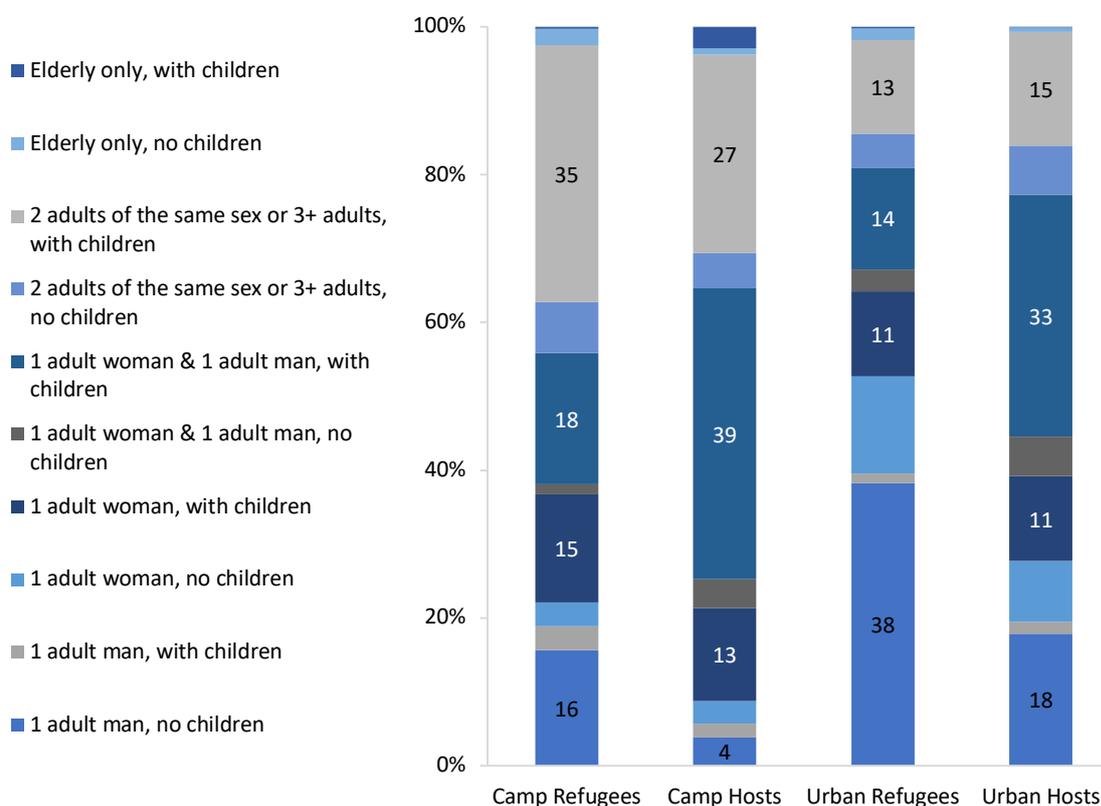


Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

There are also significant differences between camp and urban locations both among hosts and refugees in terms of age, household composition, and child dependency ratios. Camp refugees are younger than urban ones. The median age among camp refugees and hosts is 28 and 33 years respectively, compared to 31 and 30 years for urban refugees and hosts, respectively. Camp settings also have a larger share of women (55 and 51 percent among camp refugees and hosts, respectively) compared to 41 percent and 43 percent for urban refugees and hosts, respectively. Furthermore, heads of households are more likely to be female among camp refugees (54.7 percent). By contrast, urban refugee

household heads are more likely to be male (59 percent) and never married (45 percent) than other groups. More than half of urban refugee households are single-person households while on the contrary more than half of camp refugee households have more than five individuals. Nuclear families (a woman, a man, and children) are more common among hosts than refugees overall. Camp refugees tend to have several adults with children as their more common household composition. Finally, camp settings have a significantly higher child dependency ratio (1.5 and 1.6 among camp refugees and hosts, respectively) than urban settings where dependency ratios are less than 1.

Figure 7: Household composition



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

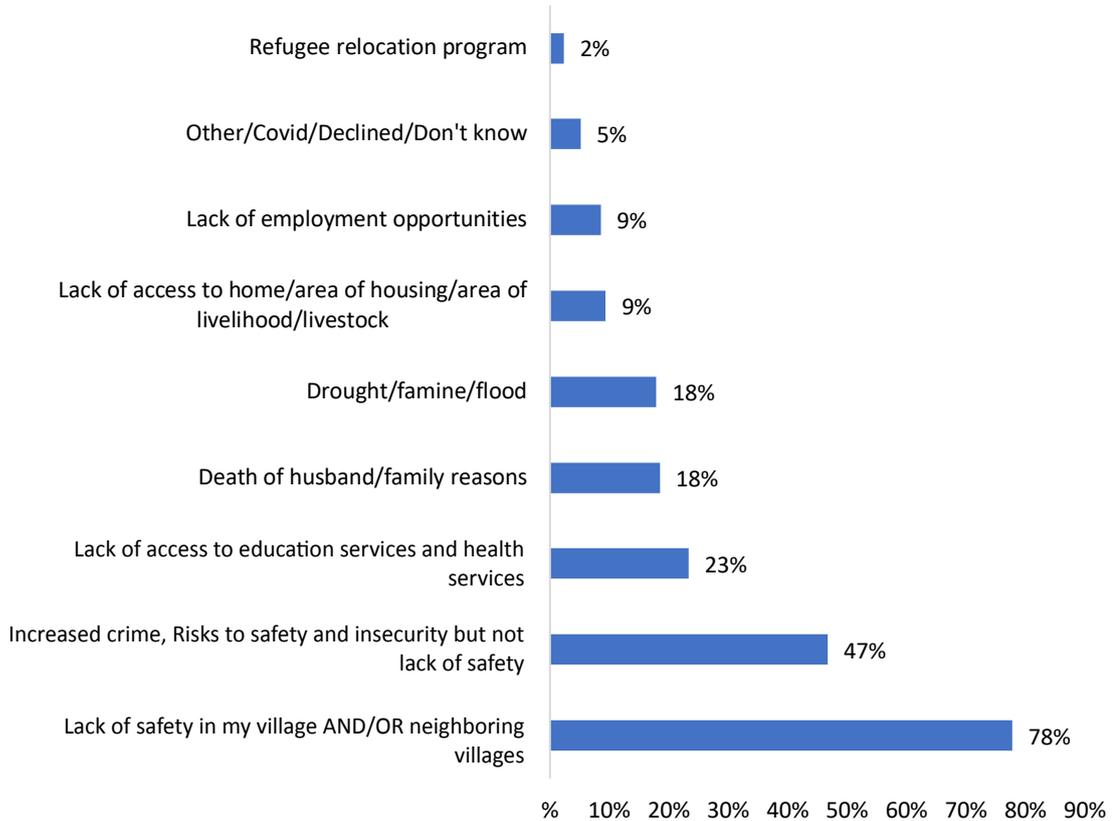
Majority of adults experienced displacement during their formative childhood years and displacement has been protracted, with few attempting to return. About half of the adults who are currently refugees were less than 18 years of age when they were displaced.¹⁴ An estimated 95 percent of refugees have lived in Dadaab for over a decade, making it the location where protracted displacement is highest. Across all groups interviewed, attempts to return to their countries of origin are rare, with only around 3 percent of respondents reporting attempting to return to their countries of origin.

Although refugees attribute their displacement to several factors, insecurity is the most common reason for fleeing their countries of origin. Very few refugees (9 percent) attributed their flight to a single reason; rather the causes of displacement are multifaceted ranging from safety concerns to climate related reasons.¹⁵ Most refugees (73 percent) attributed their flight to at least three reasons. Nevertheless, lack of safety is the common reason cited. About half of the refugees knew at least one person in their current location, while the other half knew no one.

¹⁴ Age at displacement and length of stay is based on the year of earliest arrival of a proGres family member.

¹⁵ Three was the maximum number of reasons allowed by the question. The true number of reasons is likely to exceed the maximum allowed by the questionnaire.

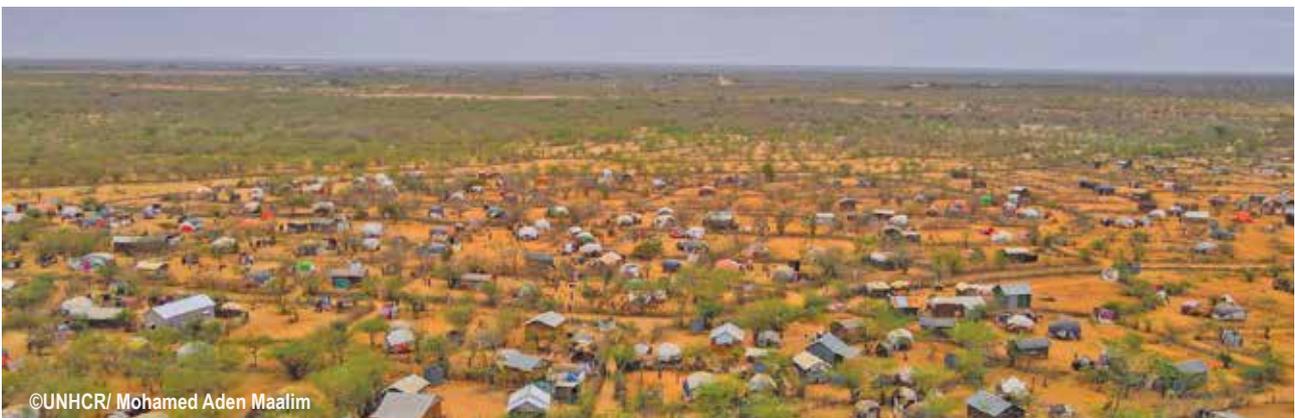
Figure 8: Reasons for leaving country of origin



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Among camp refugees, those in Dadaab have different experiences regarding the frequency they leave camps. In Kakuma and Kalobeyei, over 80 percent of the inhabitants never leave the confines of the camp.¹⁶ This contrasts with the Dadaab camp, where refugees are

more likely to leave the camp (74 percent do so at least once per year). Among those who do leave the camps, the most common reason is to visit family (cited by 63 percent of Dadaab refugees and 35 percent in Kalobeyei), although this is less common among Kakuma refugees (7 percent).



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¹⁶ Respondents were asked how often they leave the camp. The question did not specify whether to go elsewhere in Kenya or across the border.

Figure 9: Reasons for leaving camps

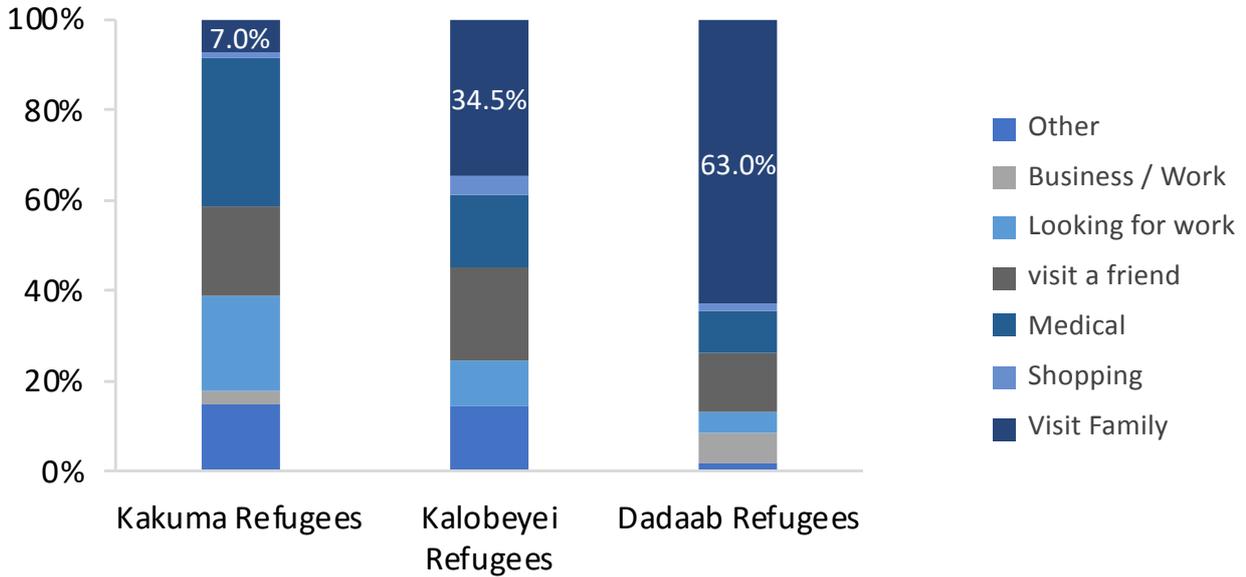
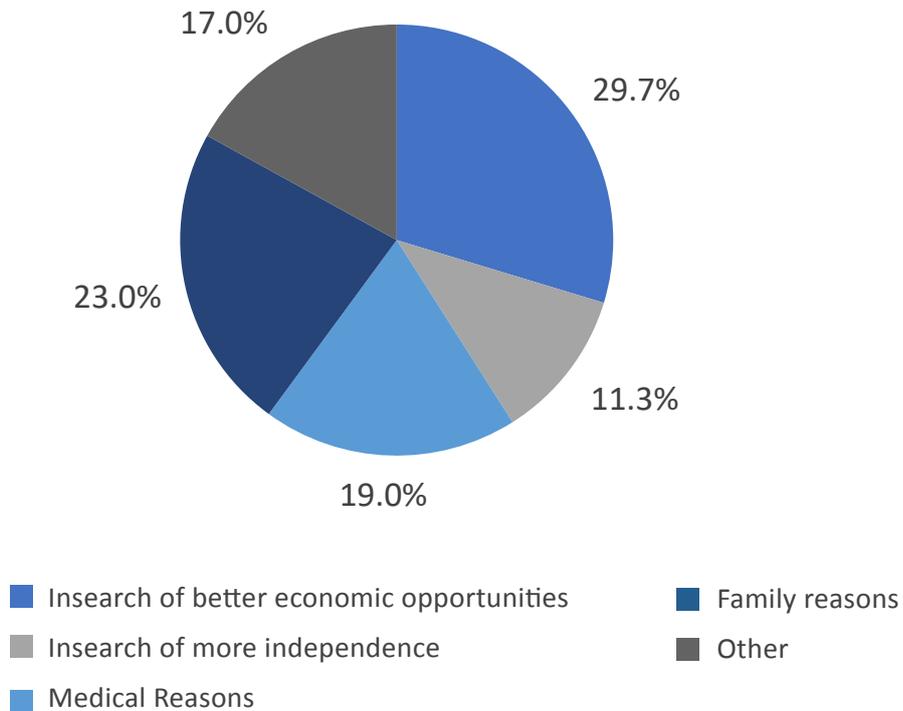


Figure 10: Reasons urban refugees left the camps

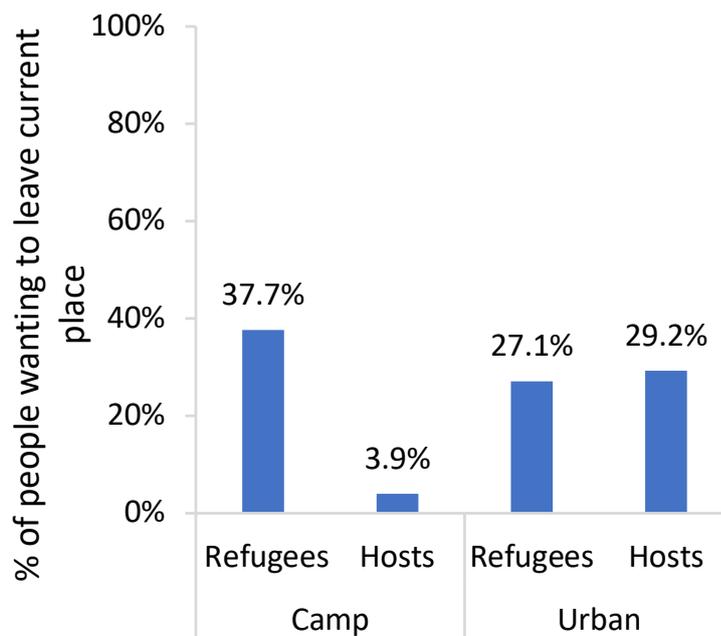


Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Refugees, particularly those in camps, would like to move elsewhere to search for better economic opportunities. Among urban refugees, about 1 in 10 of those in Nairobi and 1 in 3 of those living in other urban areas previously lived in a camp. By moving to urban areas, camp refugees forego assistance, yet a substantial number have done so, indicating the difficult conditions in camps. Urban refugees that used to live in camps left primarily to search for better economic opportunities (30 percent) and for family reasons (23 percent). The desire to leave camps is also evident even among those who are still in camps, with nearly 40 percent of current camp refugees wishing to leave their current locations.

Nevertheless, while conditions may be better in urban areas, even there a large proportion of refugees (27 percent) as well as hosts (29 percent) want to move from there. By contrast, fewer camp hosts (4 percent) express a desire to move. Lack of employment opportunities is the most frequently cited reason among both refugees and hosts who express a desire to relocate (between 40 to 60 percent across groups). Additionally, camp refugees commonly cite fear of discrimination or prosecution¹⁷ (33 percent) as reasons for wanting to leave. While hosts generally do not wish to leave Kenya, refugees often do with over 90 percent of those wanting to move wishing to move to a new country.

Figure 11: Proportion of those who want to move from current place of residence



¹⁷ Questionnaire did not specify the source of discrimination or prosecution.

Figure 12: Share of individuals that have ever moved since 2016

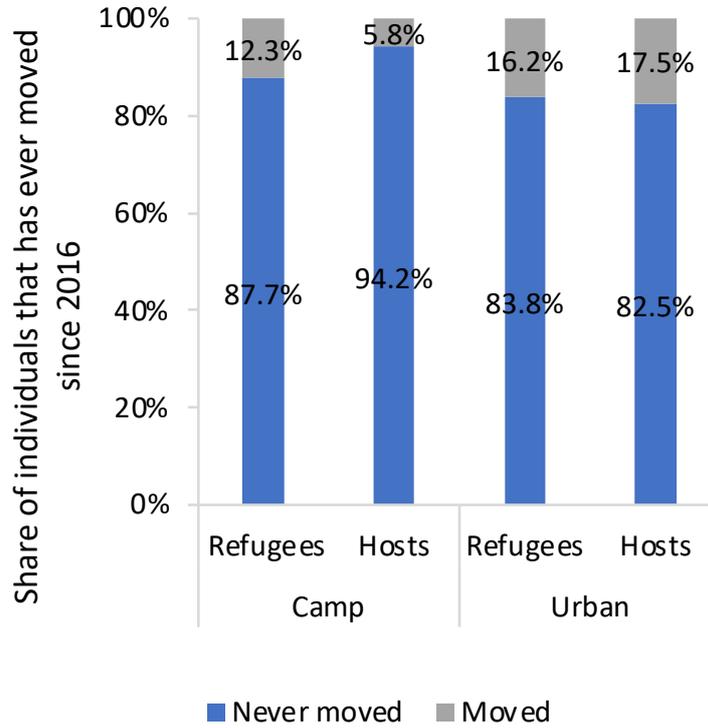
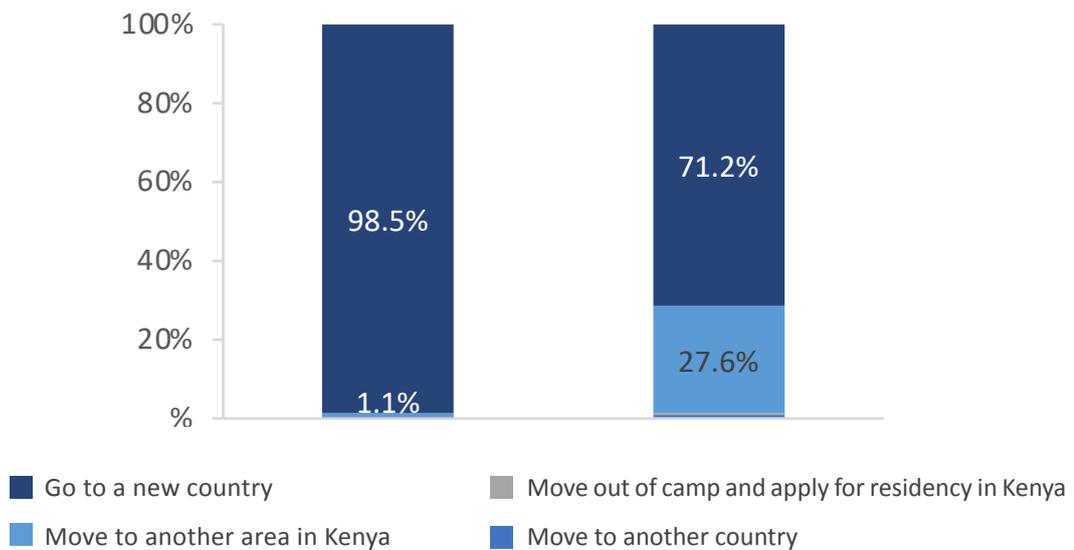
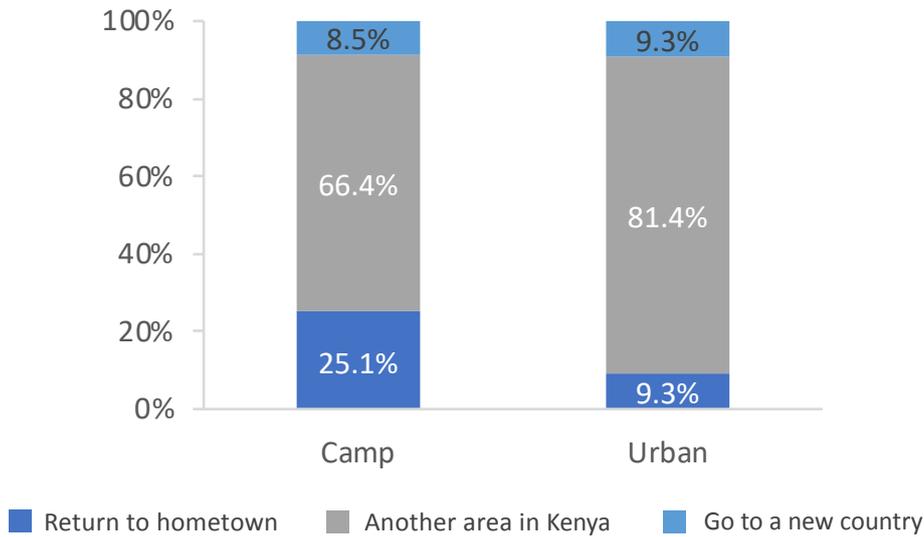


Figure 13: Where refugees want to move to



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Figure 14: Where hosts want to move to



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Most individuals, whether refugees or hosts, have been living in the same place since 2016, consistent with restricted movement under the encampment policy.¹⁸ However, there are notable differences between camp and urban refugees. Urban refugees are more likely to have

lived elsewhere (16.2 percent) than those living in camps (12.3 percent). Among those that have lived elsewhere since 2016, camp refugees are more likely to have been in another country (24.6 percent), while most others have only moved within Kenya.

Figure 15: Share of individuals that have moved for more than 6 months

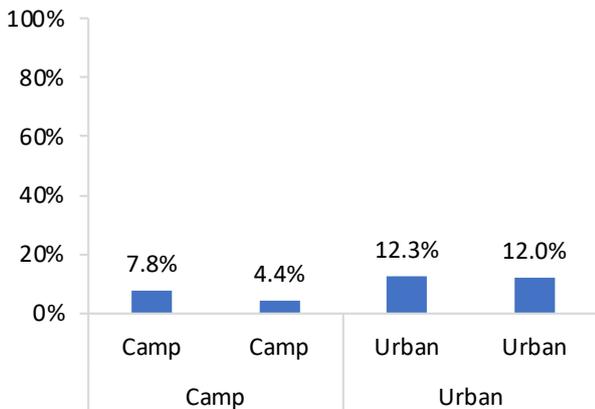
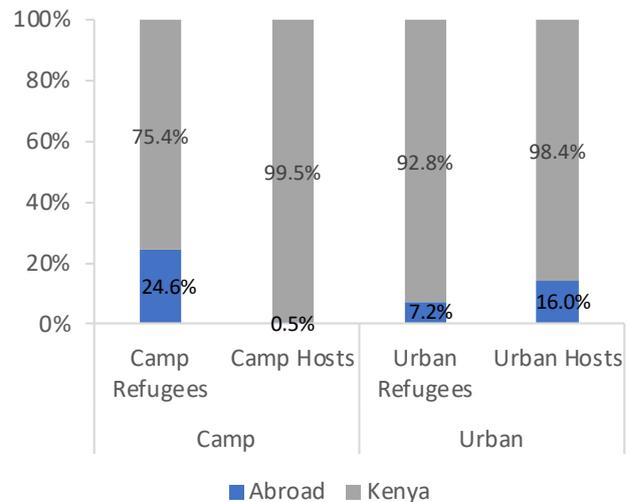


Figure 16: Where those who moved and stayed longer than 6 months went



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

¹⁸ Restrictions of movement generally apply only to refugees. They need to contact the Department Refugee Services (DRS) and apply for a movement pass to move outside of the designated areas.



PHOTO/Alamy

03

Basic Needs

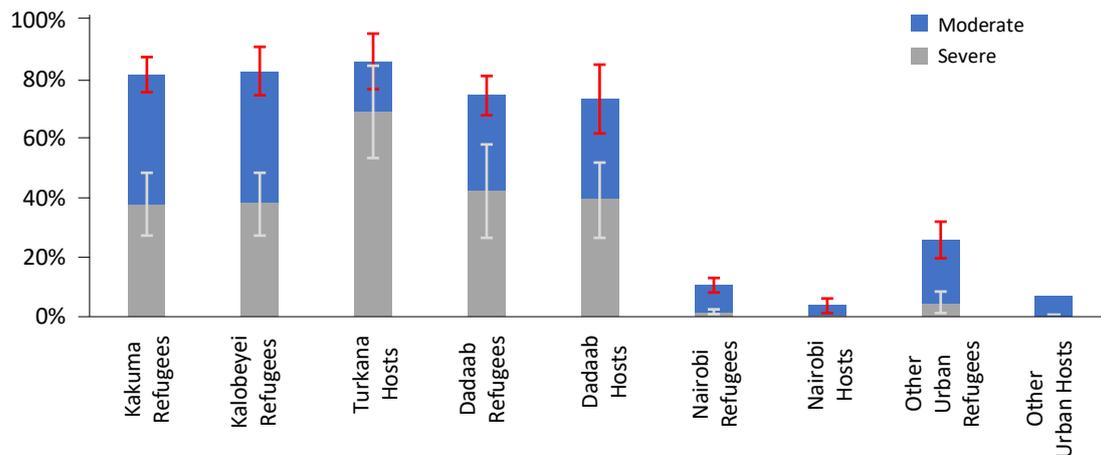
Basic Needs

3.1 Non-monetary poverty indicators

This sub-section provides an overview of the fulfillment of basic needs across the survey population, as well as the provision of social assistance across population groups.¹⁹ Basic needs will be considered through the lens of a multidimensional poverty index (MPI)²⁰, the construction of which is described in more detail in the annex. The MPI encompasses 14 indicators across six dimensions of wellbeing, namely, education, employment, energy, housing, water and sanitation and nutrition. Following the convention in the literature, households are considered multidimensionally poor if they are deprived in at least one third of weighted indicators and severely poor if deprived in at least half of the weighted indicators.

Both hosts and refugee communities in camp areas have high levels of multidimensional poverty. Figure 17 below shows that there is a large urban-rural poverty gap. Multidimensional poverty is up to 80 percentage points higher in camp areas compared to urban areas. Refugees living in other urban areas outside of Nairobi (i.e., Mombasa and Nakuru) have the highest urban poverty rate (25.9 percent). This is still significantly lower than the lowest poverty rate in camp areas, which is found among Dadaab hosts (73.2 percent). In urban areas, the difference between refugees and hosts is statistically significant, although it is limited in absolute terms by the fact that urban poverty rates are generally lower. The largest refugee-host poverty gap is found in urban areas other than Nairobi, where hosts have a multidimensional poverty rate of 7.3 percent, compared to 25.9 percent for refugees.

Figure 17: Proportion of households in moderate and severe multidimensional poverty



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: Moderate > 1/3rd weighted deprivations; severe > 1/2 weighted deprivations.

¹⁹ Since we lack a pre-assistance baseline and a non-assistance control group, it is not possible to assess what impact social assistance is having on the fulfillment of needs, nor whether social assistance is adequately targeted to those most in need. This is because it is not possible to distinguish whether low observed poverty is due to aid being effective in reducing poverty, or whether it is poorly targeted and reaching the wrong (non-poor) beneficiaries.

²⁰ The MPI approach used here adapts existing work on the global MPI by the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) to consider the context, including the methodological challenges of estimating and comparing monetary poverty in forced displacement contexts.

There are some significant differences in multidimensional poverty rates by sex of household head among refugees.

In urban areas, female headed refugee households have higher multidimensional poverty rates (16.1 percent for female-headed compared to 9.7 percent for male-headed households). Female-headed households are disproportionately likely to have no employed household members. The gender difference is statistically significant among both urban and camp refugees. Urban female-headed refugee households are also significantly more likely to use solid cooking fuel (27.5 percent) than male headed ones (12 percent). Solid cooking fuel is detrimental to health.

Education outcomes, housing conditions, and access to water sources for host communities in camp areas are lagging behind.

Fewer Turkana refugees (Kakuma and Kalobeyei), for instance, are deprived in education (27 percent), compared to most other groups, bar Nairobi hosts (21.8 percent). Additionally, fewer Turkana refugees live in precarious constructions (<2 percent, compared to 55.5 percent for Turkana hosts). Refugees in the Dadaab camp, on the other hand, are less likely than other rural

groups, including hosts, to live in crowded housing (21.5 percent). Refugees living in camps appear almost assured to have access to adequate water sources, with deprivation rates around or below 1 percent in all camps.

Turkana hosts are particularly lagging behind, and they have the highest multidimensional poverty rate of the groups considered here (86 percent).

Turkana hosts also stand out in having a significantly larger proportion of the population living in severe multidimensional poverty (68.9 percent), compared to other groups. The high level of severe multidimensional poverty among Turkana hosts is because they have higher deprivation rates than other groups for almost all indicators included in the multidimensional poverty index (Table 1). One of the few exceptions is housing, where Turkana hosts have the second highest deprivation rate (37.9 percent) after Kalobeyei refugees (53.6 percent). The other exception is employment, where Turkana hosts have lower deprivation rates (45.1 percent), i.e., are more likely to have employed household members, compared to most refugee groups, except Nairobi refugees (31.5 percent).

Table 1: Deprivation prevalence (% of households), by location/status

| Dimension | Deprivation | Kakuma (r) | Kalobeyei (r) | Turkana (h) | Dadaab (r) | Dadaab (h) | Nairobi (r) | Nairobi (h) | Other urban (r) | Other urban (h) |
|------------|----------------------------|------------|---------------|-------------|------------|------------|-------------|-------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Education | School attendance | 27.7% | 27.0% | 68.5% | 79.2% | 74.9% | 32.9% | 21.8% | 34.7% | 21.3% |
| Employment | Paid employment | 79.7% | 83.2% | 45.1% | 62.5% | 53.8% | 31.5% | 14.4% | 68.2% | 11.8% |
| Energy | Cooking fuel | 99.3% | 98.2% | 99.3% | 97.3% | 96.1% | 11.7% | 2.1% | 68.2% | 37.6% |
| | Electricity | 74.5% | 64.2% | 85.3% | 42.7% | 44.1% | 0.4% | 1.0% | 0.9% | 0.6% |
| Housing | Crowding | 30.8% | 53.6% | 37.9% | 21.5% | 27.3% | 15.8% | 8.9% | 5.8% | 4.0% |
| | Construction | 1.9% | 1.2% | 55.5% | 13.9% | 15.7% | 0.2% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% |
| WASH | Water | 0.2% | 1.4% | 41.1% | 0.7% | 4.2% | 6.8% | 7.6% | 17.3% | 26.5% |
| | Toilet | 61.2% | 40.4% | 83.5% | 61.9% | 56.5% | 7.9% | 3.4% | 5.1% | 18.4% |
| Nutrition | Not enough | 9.6% | 17.6% | 27.2% | 6.0% | 0.9% | 14.5% | 7.8% | 5.7% | 1.1% |
| | Less preferred | 10.9% | 17.4% | 36.4% | 5.2% | 2.3% | 29.8% | 21.6% | 11.9% | 3.4% |
| | Borrowed | 2.9% | 2.2% | 11.4% | 2.0% | 0.7% | 5.6% | 3.0% | 3.6% | 0.7% |
| | Smaller portions | 9.6% | 17.7% | 25.1% | 3.9% | 2.1% | 12.7% | 10.3% | 6.5% | 1.5% |
| | Adult meals | 3.2% | 3.6% | 14.4% | 3.3% | 0.8% | 4.8% | 3.4% | 3.4% | 0.7% |
| | Fewer meals | 11.5% | 22.2% | 39.1% | 5.6% | 1.5% | 14.4% | 12.5% | 6.9% | 1.3% |
| Poverty | >1/3 rd depriv. | 81.5% | 82.7% | 86.0% | 74.6% | 73.2% | 10.7% | 3.8% | 25.9% | 7.3% |
| | >1/2 depriv. | 37.9% | 38.0% | 68.9% | 42.2% | 39.5% | 1.6% | 0.1% | 4.5% | 0.3% |

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: r = refugees and h=hosts. Construction of indicators is provided in the Annex 2.



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3.2 Food insecurity

Turkana hosts also have the highest level of food insecurity and lower future coping capacity. Figure 18 below shows food insecurity levels across locations and refugee status, using the Coping Strategy Index (CSI) and the Livelihoods Coping Strategies (LCS) index.²¹ Turkana

hosts have the highest level of food insecurity, as measured by the CSI (87.6 percent) and the lowest future coping capacity as measured by the LCS (63.5 percent). Turkana refugees, who had similarly high levels of multidimensional poverty, also have high levels of food insecurity, with 64.3 percent and 72.3 percent of the population having a CSI score of 4 or more in Kakuma and Kalobeyei, respectively.²²

Box 2: Indices to assess food security

This report uses two different indices to assess food insecurity:

1. The Coping Strategy Index (CSI) gives an indication of current food security at the time of the survey, by looking at the frequency of 6 common coping strategies related to food consumption. An index score of 4 to 9 is meant to indicate the presence of moderate food insecurity, whereas a score of 10 or higher indicates severe food insecurity. The CSI is composed of the 2nd to the 6th nutrition indicators used in the MPI (See Annex 2). However, these indicators are assembled in a slightly different way to form a composite index:

$$CSI_i = \sum_{j=2}^6 w^j \cdot D_i^j$$

Where w^j is the weight for the j^{th} nutrition indicator and D_i^j is the number of days in which household i experienced the deprivation in the past week. Nutrition indicators 2, 4, and 6 in Table 13 receive a

²¹ The CSI aggregates 6 coping strategies related to food consumption, including whether the household had to limit portion sizes, eat less preferred foods, or borrow money for food. The LCI aggregates 10 negative coping strategies affecting the household's longer term coping capacity, including whether in the past 30 days the household had to borrow money, sell productive assets, or spend any savings. In both cases, a higher index indicates a higher risk of food insecurity (see the Annex for more details).

²² CSI score of 4 or greater indicates moderate to severe food insecurity. See Annex for details.

2. The Livelihoods Coping Strategies (LCS) index aims to give a longer-term indication of households' future coping capacity, by looking at the prevalence of 10 common negative coping strategies affecting the household's longer term productive capacity. The LCS is composed of 4 questions indicating stress; 3 questions indicating crisis, and 3 questions indicating emergency. All questions are binary yes/no questions. The stress questions receive a weight of 2, crisis a weight of 3 and emergency a weight of 4. The index value is equal to the value of the highest-weighted indicator to which the household responded positively.

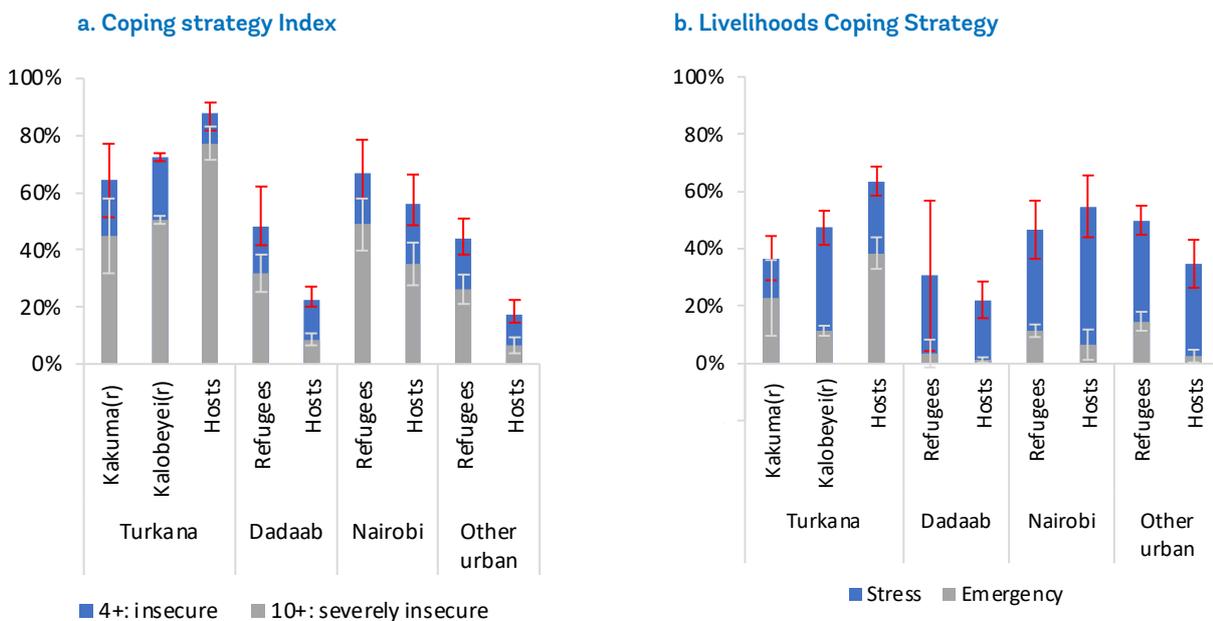
- a. **Stress (2):** In the past 30 days, did the household (i) sell consumption goods; (ii) spend savings; (iii) borrow money; (iv) sell animals?
- b. **Crisis (3):** In the past 30 days, did the household (i) reduce spending on health and education; (ii) sell productive assets; (iii) take children out of school?
- c. **Emergency (4):** In the past 30 days, did the household (i) sell land or a house, (ii) sell the last female animal; (iii) engage in begging?

Although urban areas have lower multidimensional poverty rates, food insecurity is also rampant there. Indeed, after Turkana, the second highest prevalence of food insecurity is found in Nairobi, where 67 percent of refugees and 55.9 percent of hosts have CSI score of 4 or higher. These two groups also deploy harmful coping strategies indicating stress, as measured by the LCS (46.6 percent and 54.6 percent, respectively).

Dadaab residents, on the other hand, have comparatively low levels of food insecurity (48.1

percent and 22.2 percent for refugees and hosts, respectively) and are less likely to use harmful coping strategies (30.6 percent and 21.9 percent). This is despite more than 7 out of 10 persons in Dadaab being classified as multidimensionally poor. It should be noted that receipt of food aid is not sufficient to explain the lower levels of food insecurity among Dadaab hosts, since as will be shown below, they have relatively low food aid coverage (14.2 percent). There are no statistically significant differences between male- and female-headed households in terms of food insecurity (see Table 15).

Figure 18: Food insecurity and negative coping strategies (% of the population), by location/ refugee status



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.
Notes: r = refugees and h=hosts.



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3.3 Education ²³

Educational attainment among adult refugees is very low overall, particularly among women, but in camp areas refugees and hosts report similarly low levels of education. Across locations, 66 percent of female refugees (aged 25-64) report having no schooling compared to 33 percent of male refugees. While hosts overall have higher educational attainment than refugees, disaggregating by location shows that this is driven by urban areas. Educational attainment in camp areas lags far behind urban areas and is similarly poor or worse among hosts as among refugees. In Garissa County, more than 87 percent of hosts and 84 percent of refugees have never gone to school and in Turkana, hosts have less schooling than the neighboring refugees in Kakuma and Kalobeyi. The low educational attainment in these areas reflects broader spatial disparities within Kenya, rather than being entirely attributable to refugee-related issues (see Box 1).



66%

of female refugees
(aged 25-64)
report having no
schooling



33%

of male refugees
(aged 25-64)
report having no
schooling

²³ The data referenced in this section is based on self-reported school participation in the survey.

Figure 19: Highest education level among 25–64-year-olds by gender

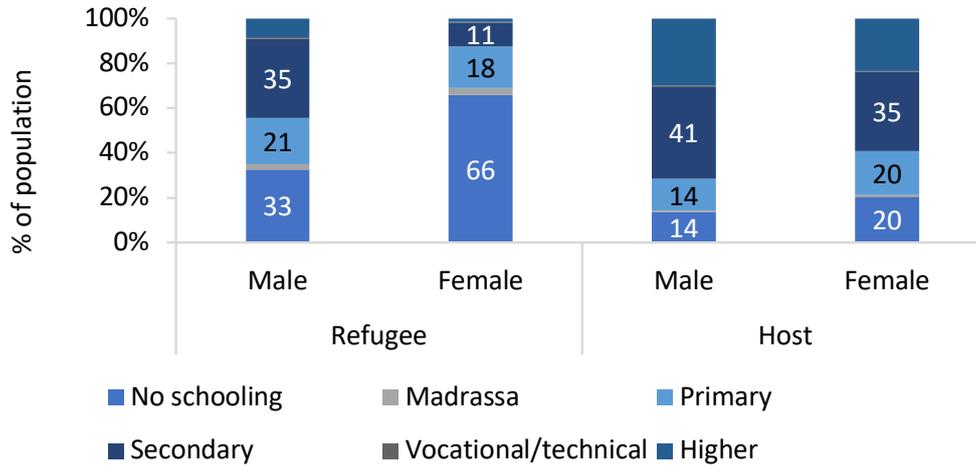
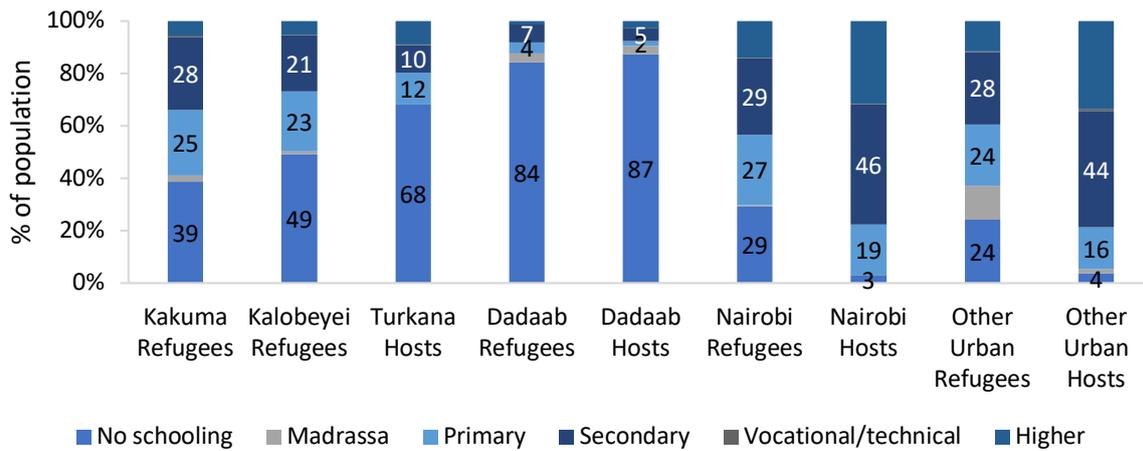


Figure 20: Highest education level among 25–64-year-olds by location²⁴



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

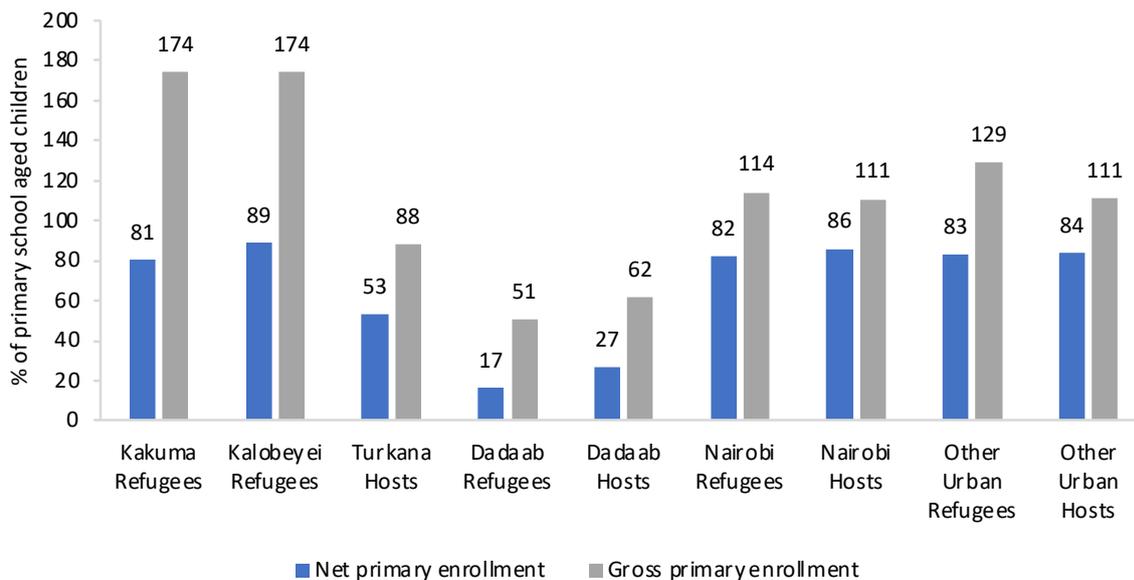
Notes: Pre-primary is classified as no schooling. Primary, secondary, vocational, and higher represent adults who have completed at least one year of schooling within that level. Madrassa is a faith-based education that integrates secular academic education and Islamic religious education (Mwaura and Marfo 2011).

²⁴ Data from KCHS at the national level shows that half of the population aged 25-64 has completed at most primary schooling.

Although net primary school enrollment is above 80 percent in Kakuma/Kalobeyei and urban areas, very few children of primary age in Dadaab and among Turkana hosts are in school.²⁵ Garissa and Turkana counties have consistently had low enrollment rates compared to the national average (see Box 1). In urban areas, Kenyans and refugees have similarly high enrollment rates, likely due to the government's integration of urban refugees into the national education system.²⁶ Additionally, primary enrollment in Kakuma and Kalobeyei is comparable to urban areas which is reflective of large investments in camp schools by UNHCR and development organizations. As of March 2020, there were 27 primary schools in Kakuma and Kalobeyei (Hure and Taylor 2023). Although these camp schools follow the national curriculum and receive some financial support from the Government

of Kenya through the Kenya Primary Education Equity in Learning Program (PEELP), they are financed and managed outside of the state system by non-governmental actors (Hure and Taylor 2023). In contrast to Kakuma and Kalobeyei refugees, only half of primary-school-age children in the Turkana host community are enrolled in school. This gap between Kakuma/Kalobeyei refugees and Turkana hosts is consistent with previous reports, despite policies that permit hosts' access to schools in the camps.²⁷ Most of the children that are not enrolled in school have never attended school suggesting the need for tailored interventions, particularly in camp areas for both hosts and refugee children who have never attended school before. In Garissa County, where enrollment rates are the lowest, nearly all children who are not enrolled have never been in school before.

Figure 21: Primary school enrollment²⁸



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: Under the new Competency Based Curriculum (CBC) phased in 2017, primary school age children are between 6 and 11 years old. However, at the time of survey, some older students (ages 12-13) were still enrolled in primary school under the prior 8-4-4 curriculum. Primary school age children are thus defined in this calculation and in all other calculations pertaining to primary school, as 6-11 years old (for most children who are enrolled in the CBC curriculum or not enrolled at all), and 6-13 years old (for the few children who are part of the last cohorts enrolled in the 8-4-4 curriculum).

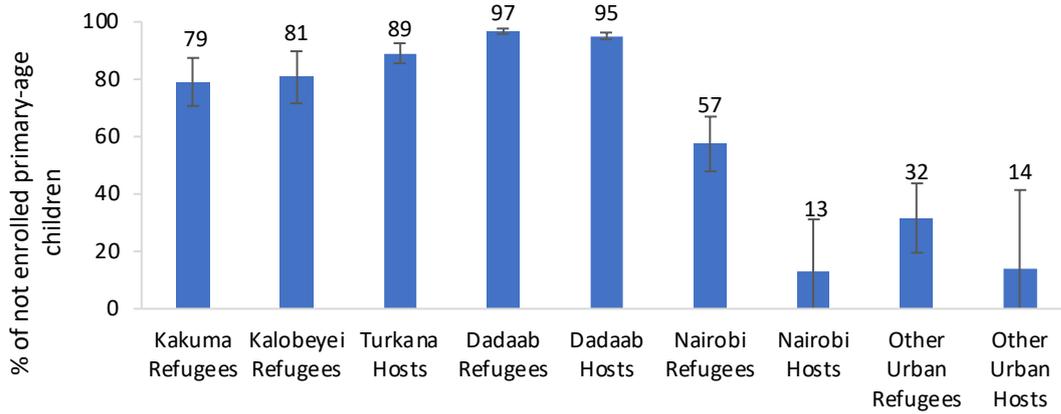
²⁵ Enrollment rates are self-reported. Self-reported attendance rates are also provided in the annex and are largely similar to enrollment rates.

²⁶ World Bank program appraisal document for a Kenya secondary education equity and quality improvement program (2024).

²⁷ For example, at the end of 2019, only 499 host children were enrolled in any school in Kakuma (primary or secondary), compared to 11,805 refugees enrolled in secondary school alone SES Kakuma (2019).

²⁸ Data from the KCHS estimates national primary school net enrolment at 78.1%. See Box 1.

Figure 22: Share of primary-age children who have never attended school among those not enrolled

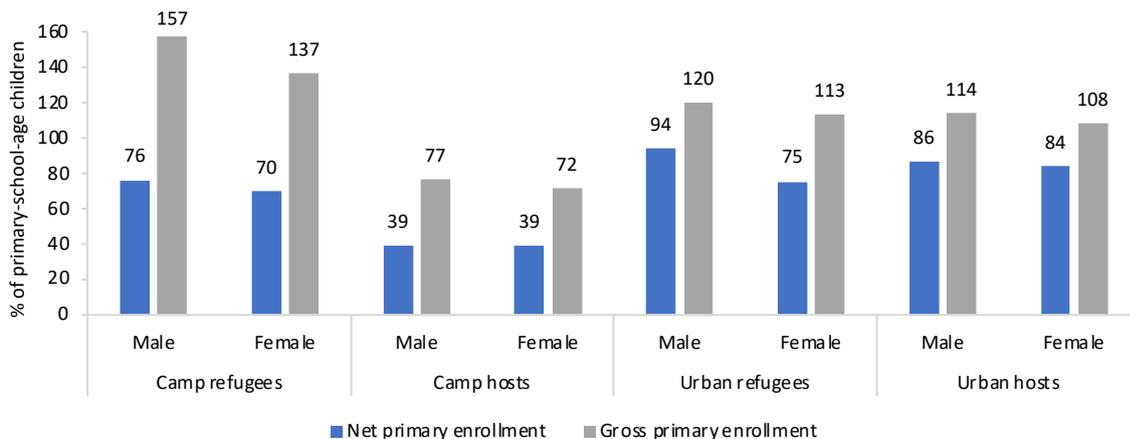


Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

While refugee boys are more likely to be enrolled in primary school than refugee girls, enrollment among host children is similar across gender. In the camp areas, the net primary school enrollment rate among refugee boys is 76 percent while refugee girls lag behind by about 6 percentage points.²⁹ The gender gap in net

primary enrollment among refugees is higher in urban areas where only 75 percent of refugee girls are enrolled, compared to 94 percent of boys. Among hosts in the camps and urban areas, net primary enrollment is similar across gender, but there is higher over-age enrollment among boys.

Figure 23: Primary enrollment by gender



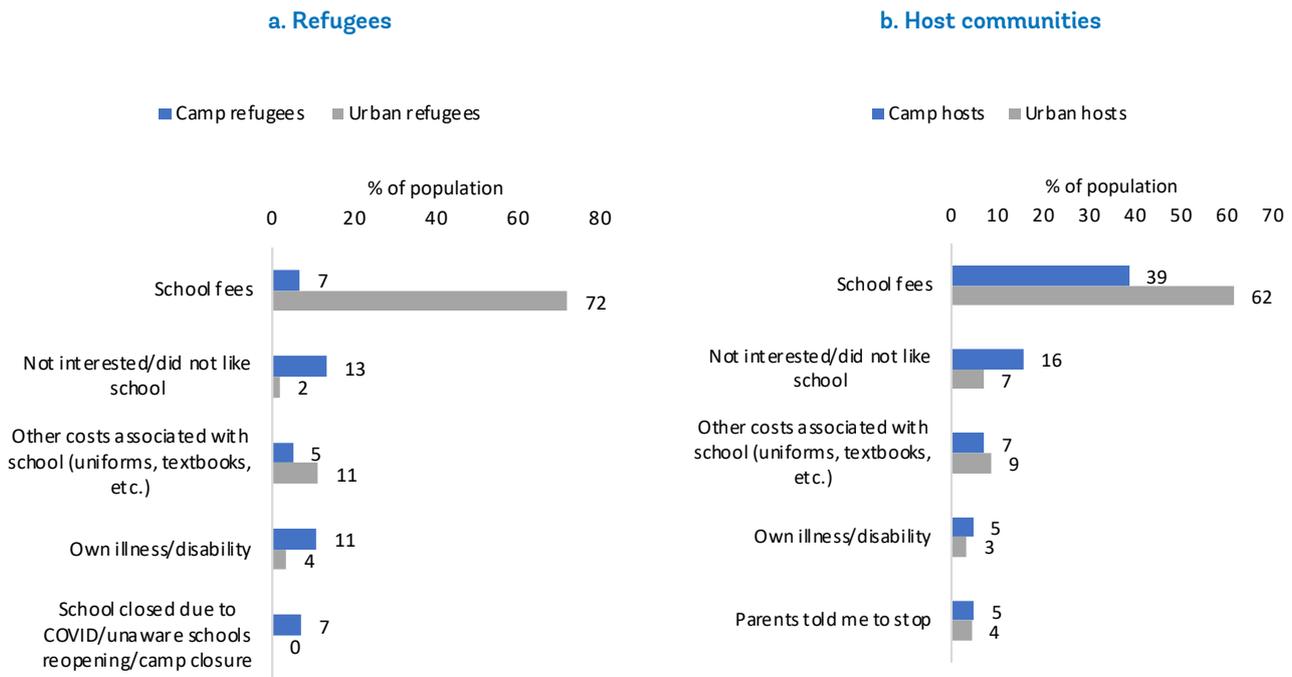
Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

²⁹ This gender gap in refugee enrollment is consistent with Hure and Taylor (2023) who note that in Kakuma/Kalobeyei “girls continue to be disproportionately disadvantaged, with fewer girls than boys attending school at the upper primary and secondary levels.”

The main barrier to primary school enrollment reported by hosts and urban refugees is school fees, while reasons among camp refugees are more varied. In urban areas among primary-school-age children who are no longer enrolled or attending school, 87 percent of refugees and 73 percent of hosts cite school fees or other costs as the main reason for not attending school. Although primary school is free in Kenya, the high number of children reporting cost as a barrier suggests that the implementation of it has not been fully realized.³⁰ Low enrollment among hosts in camp areas is also due to

cost with 66 percent reporting school fees and 7 percent reporting other costs associated with school. Barriers to enrollment among camp refugees are more diverse. In Dadaab, where enrollment is lowest, lack of interest (17 percent) and preference for faith-based education such as Madrassa (17 percent) are cited as the main reasons for no longer attending. However, it is important to note that this data comes from a small non-representative sample of out-of-school children and does not provide insight into low enrollment among children who have never attended school.³¹

Figure 24: Top 5 reported reasons for children not attending school



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: This question is asked about primary school-age children who have attended school in the past but are no longer enrolled or attending. The graph shows both primary and secondary age children due to sample size limitations. Nevertheless, patterns are consistent even when examined separately.

³¹ Respondents were given distinct options of school fees and other costs associated with schools. Still, it is possible that some respondents may have cited school fees while referring to other costs.

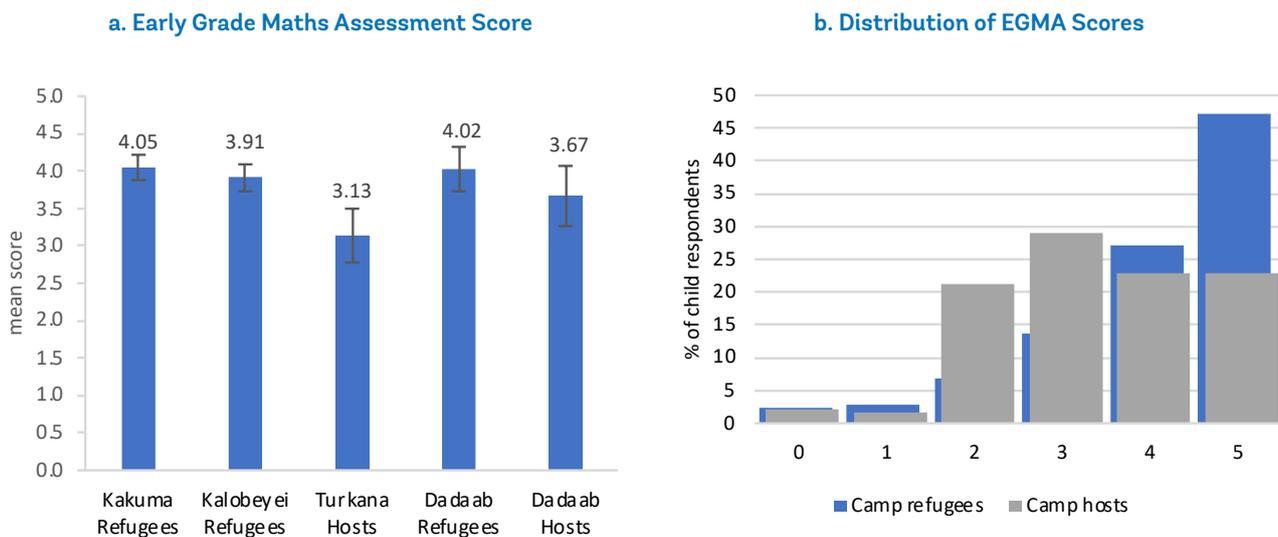
³² Survey data on reasons for not attending is limited to children who have attended school previously and are no longer attending or enrolled. Children who have never had contact with the formal schooling system (who make up most out-of-school children) were not asked this question.

Elsewhere in Kakuma/Kalobeyei and in urban areas, where enrollment is high, the challenge is overage learners. There is substantial over-age enrollment, particularly in Kakuma and Kalobeyei where the gross primary enrollment rate is 174 percent. High over-age enrollment and low primary graduation rates also suggest that there may be insufficient learning. To examine this, early grade reading and mathematics assessments were administered to camp refugees and hosts enrolled in their last year of primary school (grade 6).³²

Test scores suggest that some learners have a poor grasp of the material, particularly Turkana host

children. In the early grade mathematics assessment (EGMA), refugees outperform hosts with 47 percent scoring full marks compared to 23 percent of hosts. However, these assessments are designed for early grade students (grades 1-3) and competency in subject matter is defined as scoring at least 50 percent.³³ With this in mind, Figure 25c suggests that 31 percent of Turkana host children and 19 percent of Dadaab host children in grade 6 are not competent in grade 1-3 level mathematics. Although refugees score higher, some still lag behind with 12 percent of Kakuma/Kalobeyei refugees and 5 percent of Dadaab refugees failing to pass a grade 1-3 level test.

Figure 25: Early Grade Math Assessment

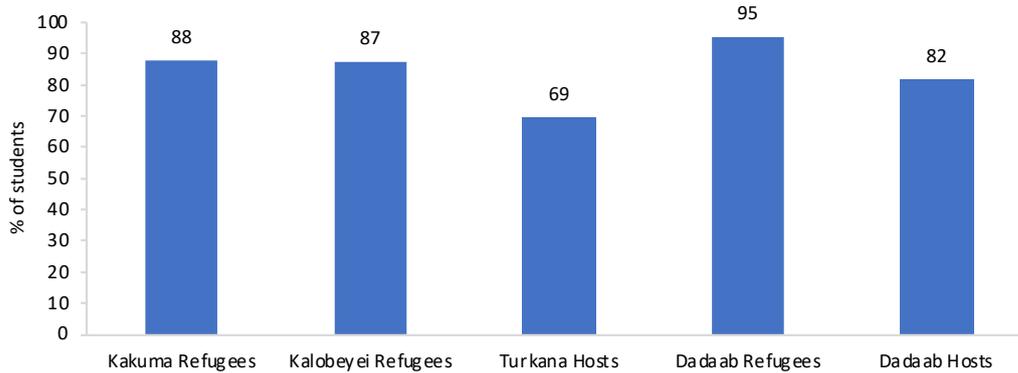


Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

³² The Early Grade Mathematics Assessment (EGMA) and Early Grade Reading Assessments (EGRA) for English and Kiswahili were developed by USAID and RTI and have been validated in several developing contexts, including Kenya. Although these tests are designed for children in grade 1, 2, or 3 (early grades), experts recommended that these assessments would still be appropriate in this study given the low learning in the camps. Due to time constraints, only selected sections are administered from EGMA and EGRA. Mathematic competency is measured using Task 6 of EGMA which consists of word problems. From the English EGRA, sections 5a and b are selected (an oral reading passage and a set of comprehension questions); and for the Kiswahili EGRA, parts 6a and 6b (a listening comprehension) are administered.

³³ See for reference Kenya National Examinations Council (2020).

c. Proportion of students who pass the 50% competency benchmark



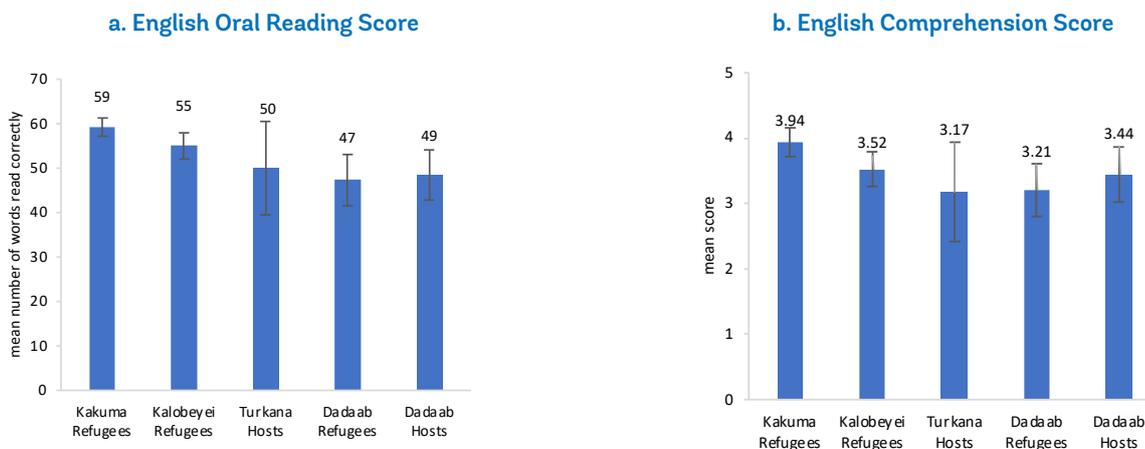
Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: Early grade maths assessment scores are based on a series of word problems. Each correct answer is equal to one point, with scores ranging from 0-5. Error bars in Figure 25a represent the 95% confidence interval.

Refugees in Kakuma and Kalobeyei also have the highest scores in the English EGRA, while refugees and hosts in Dadaab perform the worst. However, due to small sample sizes, this analysis is underpowered to detect statistically significant differences.³⁴ Using the same benchmarks defined by the US Agency for International Development (USAID), only 28 percent and 23 percent of Dadaab refugees and hosts are fluent readers in English, compared to 41 percent and 54 percent of Kakuma and Kalobeyei refugees.³⁵ Since Dadaab refugees are predominantly Somali and the host population is also

Somali, the shared language may mean less need to learn English or Swahili to get by, which is not the case in Turkana County where refugees are more heterogeneous and hosts and refugees are less likely to speak similar languages. Additionally, the current education policy stipulates that children are taught in the language of the catchment area up until Grade 4. Children in Dadaab are therefore first taught in Somali whereas in Nairobi, Kakuma and Kalobeyei they are taught in Swahili. Children of Turkana hosts are first taught in Turkana, and this may explain their lower English language scores.

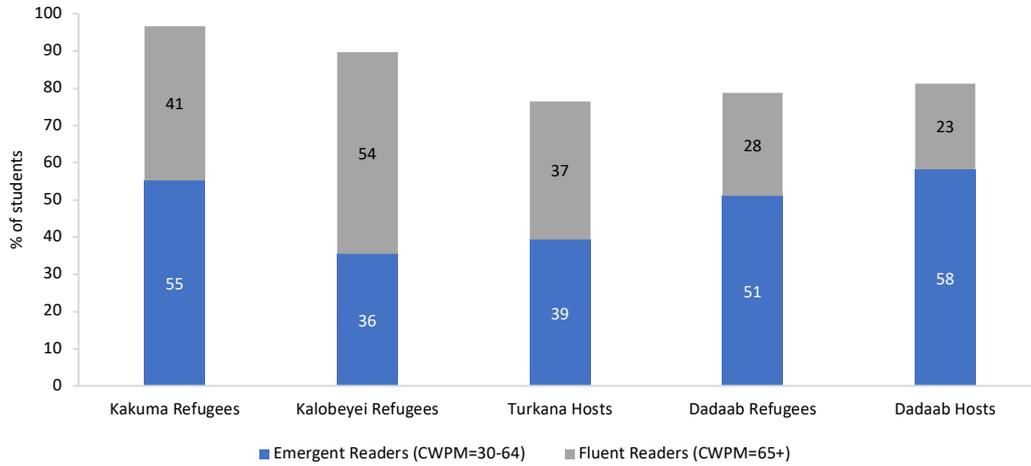
Figure 26: English assessment scores



³⁴ Compared to Kakuma/Kalobeyei, only a small number of households in Turkana and Dadaab had a child enrolled in grade 6 at the time of survey. Thus, early grade assessment data for these locations is limited by sample sizes: only 34 Turkana hosts, 41 Dadaab refugees, and 42 Dadaab hosts completed the assessments.

³⁵ The Class 2 benchmarks for reading performance in English are 30-64 correct words per minutes (CWPM) for emergent readers and 65 or more CWPM for fluent readers. At the midline study of class 1 pupils in Kenya, 30% were emergent readers and 18% fluent; while 29% of class 2 pupils were emergent readers and 47% were fluent readers in English. USAID (2017).

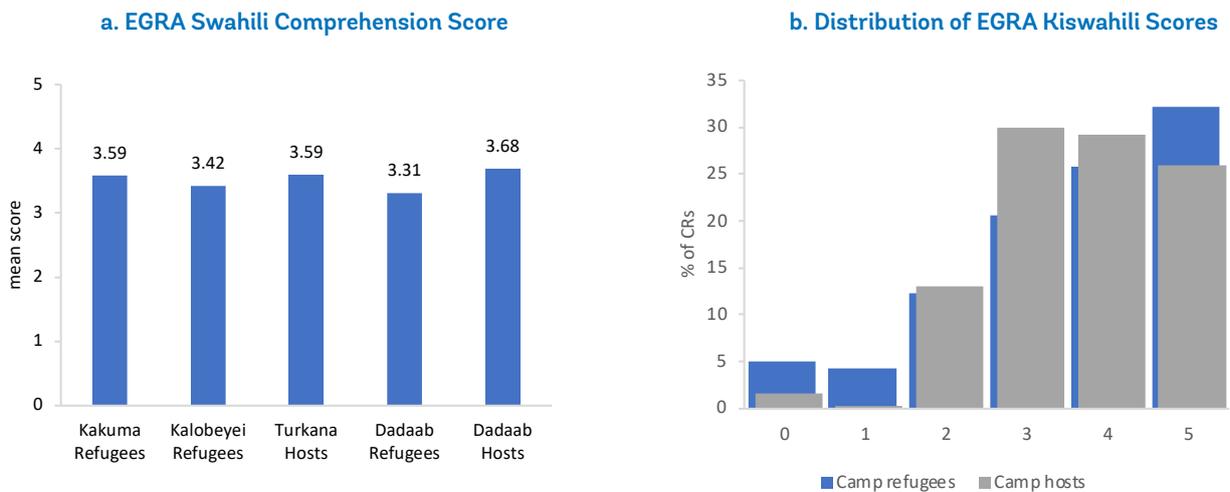
c. English Reading Fluency



Notes: Two sections are administered from the Early Grade Reading Assessment in English to those who say they can have a conversation in English (see Annex: A timed oral passage reading (scored from 0-66 with 1 point awarded for each word read correctly) and comprehension questions based on the passage (scored from 0-5 with 1 point awarded for each correct answer). Error bars indicate the 95% confidence interval.

In the Kiswahili assessment, hosts seem to score slightly higher than refugees. However, sample size limitations again prevent the analysis from rejecting that scores are the same across locations. Overall, the EGMA and EGRA scores suggest limited grasp of educational material which merits attention given that gaps in foundational learning in primary school also adversely affect later learning.³⁶

Figure 27: Swahili assessment scores



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: The section administered from the Early Grade Reading Assessment in Kiswahili is a set of 5 comprehension questions asked to those who say they can have a conversation in Kiswahili (see annex): Scores range from 0-5 with 1 point awarded for each question answered correctly.

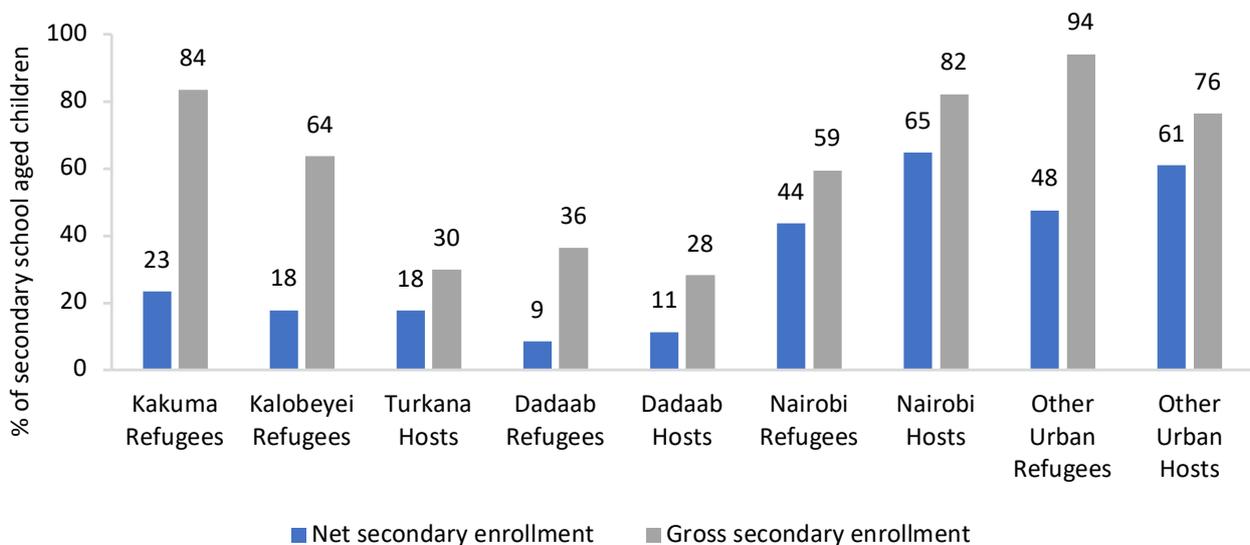
³⁶ Some existing evidence suggests that learning outcomes for refugee learners in secondary school are very low, with only 3 percent of KCSE candidates achieving a mean grade of C+ or higher and this performance is associated with low foundation learning outcomes in primary school.

A child's self-reported self-efficacy is a significant predictor of academic achievement. Regression analysis of factors that may be associated with performance on test scores reveals self-efficacy as a significant correlate, across all assessments.³⁷ The self-efficacy index used is a measure of the child's ability to solve problems, accomplish their goals, and self-regulate.³⁸ This result is consistent with a large evidence base that connects socioemotional skills to foundational learning acquisition. Evidence reviews of over 700 studies show that, on average, socioemotional skills have a positive impact on academic attainment, equivalent to 4 additional months' progress.³⁹ Although higher self-efficacy could lead to improved test scores, higher academic achievement could also increase a child's confidence and self-efficacy, making it difficult to identify the direction of the relationship. Factors negatively correlated with a child's Kiswahili score include the number of days the child was absent from school in the past week and the number of students in the child's class, but these are not statistically significant predictors of scores on the English and mathematics assessments.

Compared to primary enrollment, secondary school enrollment is markedly lower, particularly in camp areas. Enrollment rates in urban areas are higher, but refugees lag behind hosts by about 18 percentage points. In the camps, very few children appear to be transitioning from primary to secondary school. In Kakuma and Kalobeyei, net secondary enrollment rates are only 23 percent and 18 percent, respectively, compared to primary enrollment rates of 81 percent and 89 percent. Children in Dadaab are even less likely to be in secondary school, with only 9 percent of refugees and 11 percent of hosts enrolled. Information provided by UNHCR operations highlights that these low transition rates are due to failure to pass national exams and the lack of capacity in camp secondary schools which significantly restricts the number of students who can transition to secondary school. Across gender, secondary net enrollment rates are largely similar in the camp areas. However, male refugees and hosts have higher over-aged enrollment, especially in the camp areas.

Figure 28: Secondary school enrollment rates

a. Secondary school enrollment rates

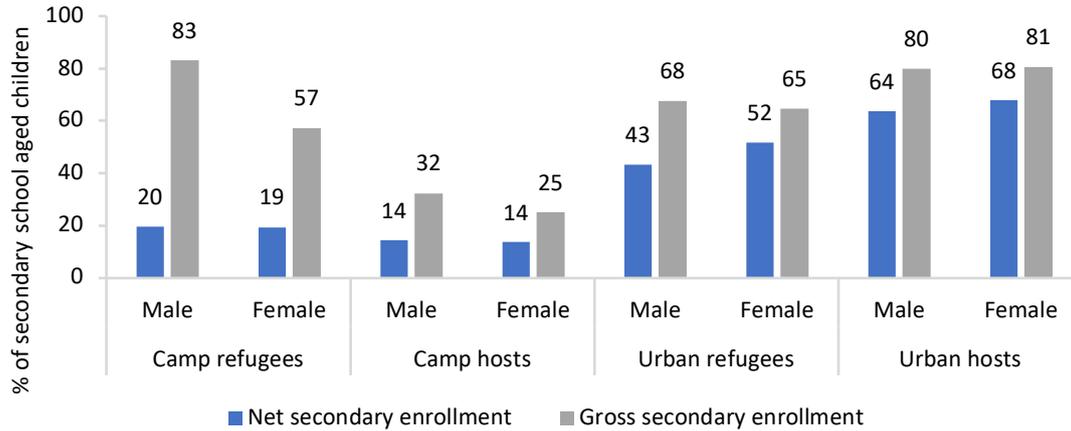


³⁷ Regression results are reported in the Annex.

³⁸ The index is constructed as the normalized sum of ten questions in the self-efficacy scale (For details on the development of an efficacy scale see Schwarzer and Jerusalem 1995). Full scale in the Annex.

⁴⁰ See for reference Education Endowment Foundation (2019).

b. Secondary school enrollment rates by gender



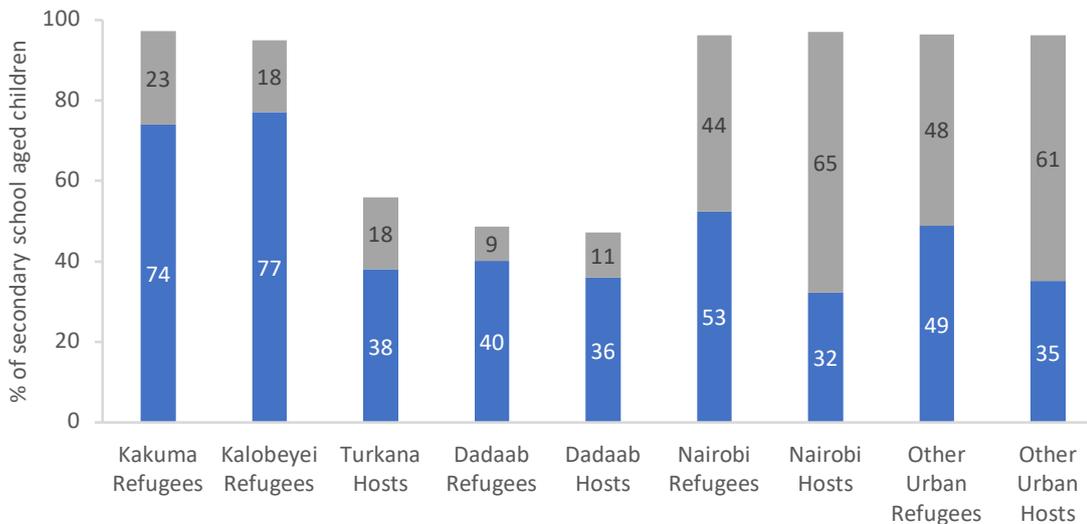
Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: The section administered from the Early Grade Reading Assessment in Kiswahili is a set of 5 comprehension questions asked to those who say they can have a conversation in Kiswahili (see annex): Scores range from 0-5 with 1 point awarded for each question answered correctly.

Low (net) secondary school enrollment is largely due to overage learners in primary school. Across locations, many secondary-school-age children not enrolled in secondary school are still in primary school. This highlights that insufficient learning in primary schools is a significant barrier to secondary enrollment and that children may be starting schooling at older ages, particularly in Kakuma/

Kalobeyei and urban areas. In these locations, accounting for secondary-school-aged children in primary school shows that almost all children in this age group are in school. However, in the Turkana host community and Dadaab, only about half of secondary-school-age children are in school (secondary or primary).

Figure 29: School enrollment among secondary-school-aged children



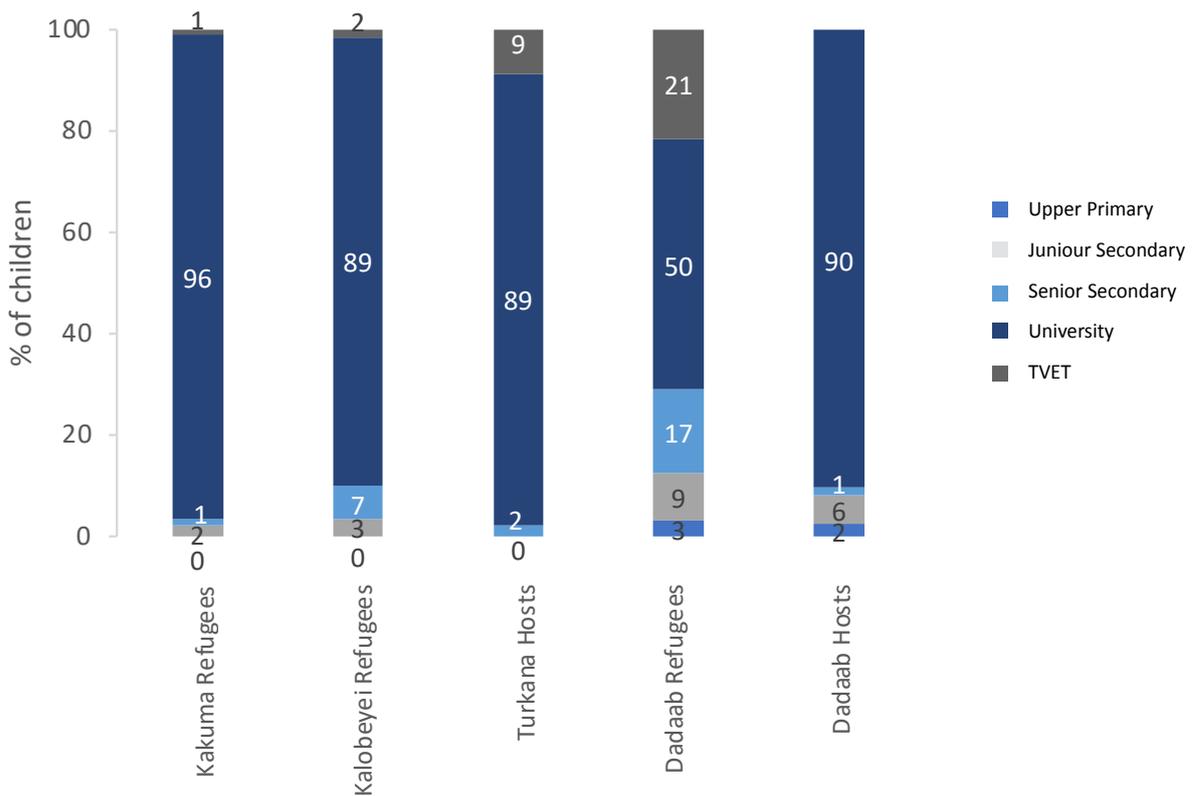
Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Low enrollment rates are not consistent with educational aspirations, which are exceptionally high. Most children report that the highest level of education they would like to complete is university. Caregivers have similarly high aspirations, with most wanting their child to complete university. Moreover, almost all children and their caregivers report that they realistically expect to achieve these high aspirations, which sharply contrasts the low educational attainment in the camps.⁴⁰ On average, children report slightly higher aspirations than expectations,

except in Dadaab where some child respondents would like to complete a lower level of education than they realistically expect to achieve. The discrepancy between the caregiver’s aspiration and expectation for the child respondent follows a similar pattern, where aspirations on average are slightly higher except in Dadaab. Although children and caregivers’ aspirations are mostly aligned, there are a few children in Kalobeyei and Dadaab who aspire to complete more education than their caregivers would like for them to achieve.

Figure 30: Child respondent’s educational aspirations and expectations

a. Child’s aspirational highest level



Source: Authors’ calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: TVET comprises Technical and Vocational Education and Training; Aspirations are measured by asking children for the highest level of education they wish/would like to complete if they had no constraints and could study for as long as they liked. Caregivers are similarly asked about their aspirations for the child respondent.

⁴⁰ Expectations could be skewed higher for a few reasons. Firstly, among refugees, education can lead to significant opportunities through scholarship programs that allow children to leave the camps, and in some cases, even study in the US or Canada. Although last year (2023) saw the highest number of applicants and scholarships awarded, these opportunities are still limited to a very select few. Despite the low odds, caregivers may choose to hold on to the belief that their child could achieve high levels of education, given the life-altering advantages this could provide. Secondly, responses may be biased if households believe there is an incentive in reporting to UNHCR that their child is academically inclined and expected to go on to university. Finally, the wording of the questions may also have been ambiguous after translation and the differences between aspirations and expectations may have been unclear. It should also be noted that there is a recently established university in Kakuma, making tertiary education more accessible in these locations.

b. Child's expected highest level

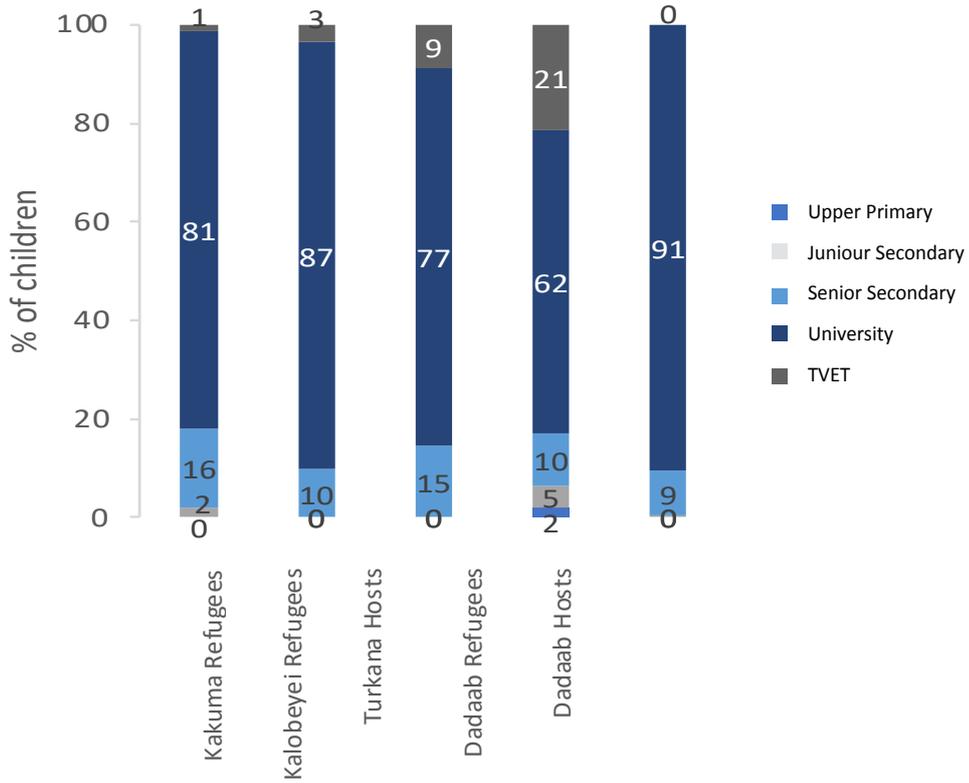
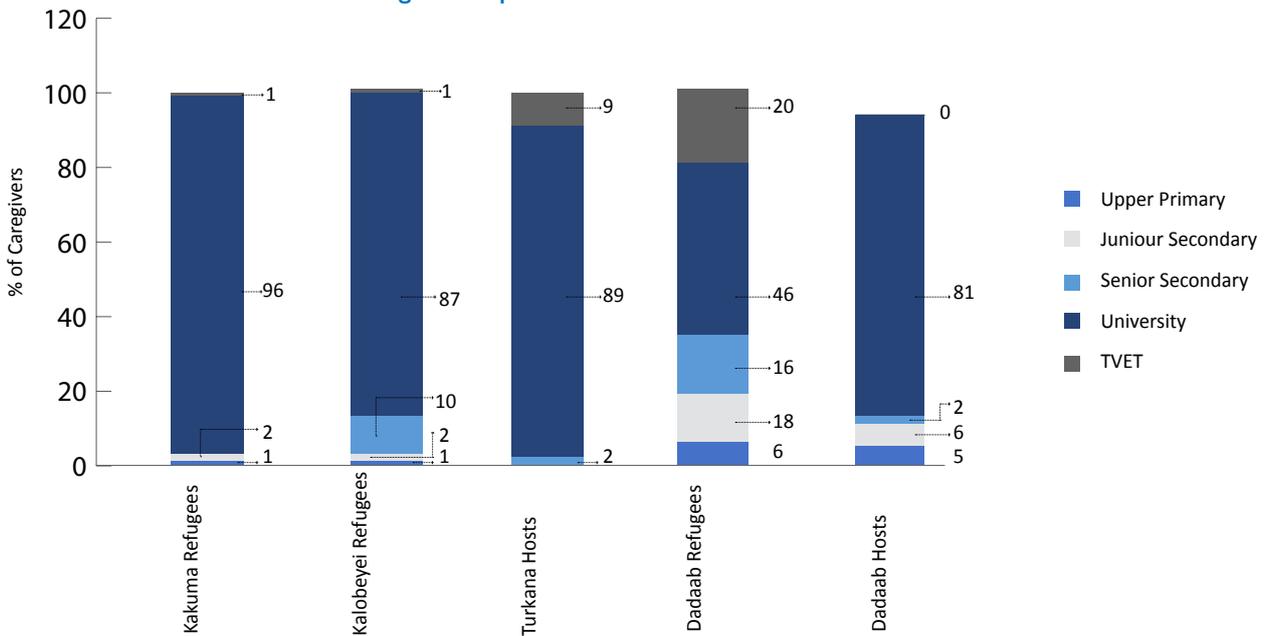
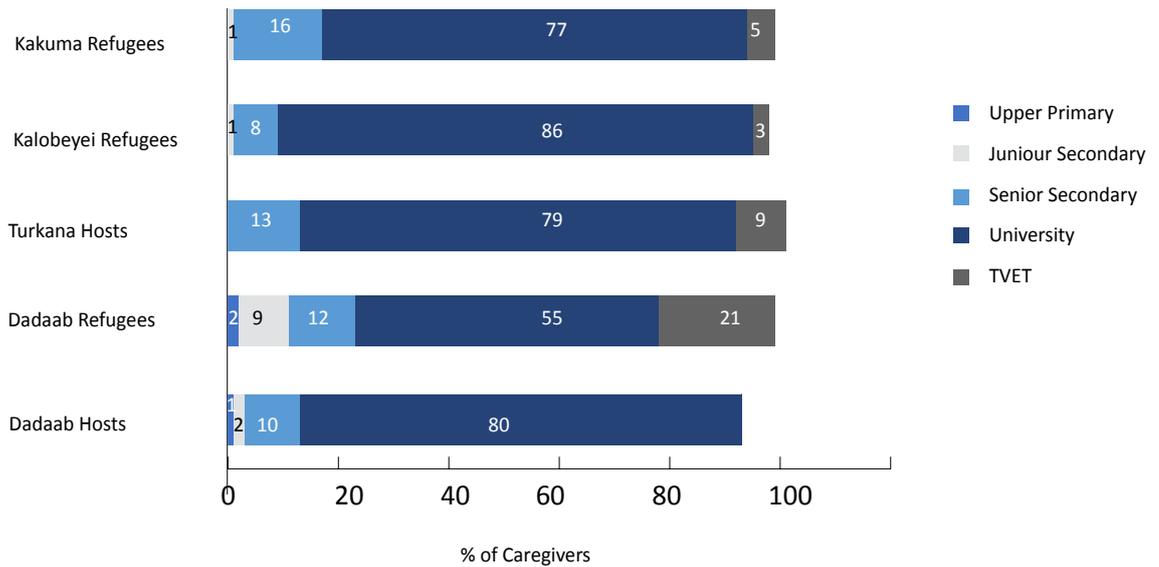


Figure 31: Caregiver's educational aspiration and expectation for the child respondent

a. Caregiver's aspiration for the child



b. Caregiver's Expectation for the child



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: Aspirations are measured by asking caregivers for the highest level of education they wish/would like the child respondent to complete if they had no constraints and could study for as long as they liked. Expectations are measured by asking caregivers for the highest level of education they realistically think the child respondent will complete. Missing observations among Dadaab host caregivers reflect "Don't Know" responses.

Figure 32: Discrepancy between child respondent's (CR) educational aspiration and expectation

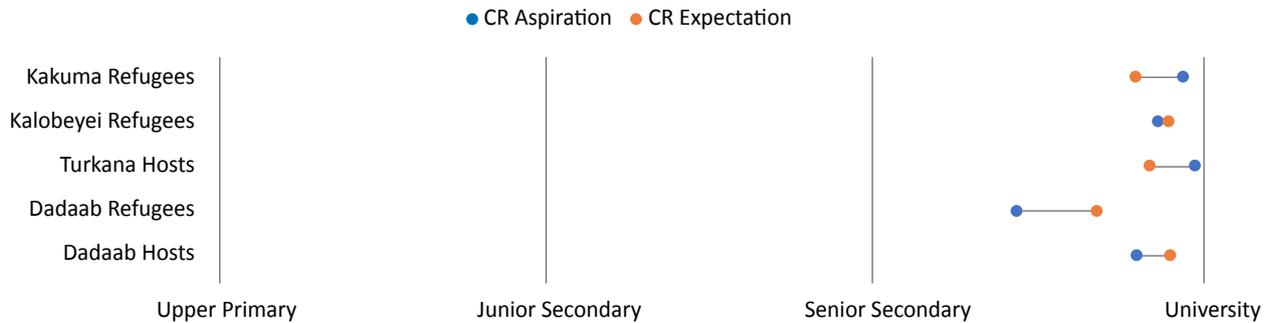


Figure 33: Discrepancy between caregiver's (CG) educational aspiration and expectation for the child respondent

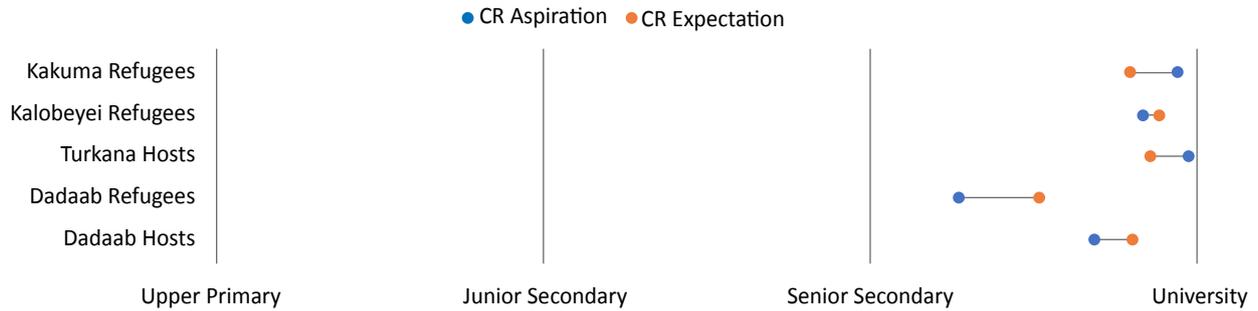
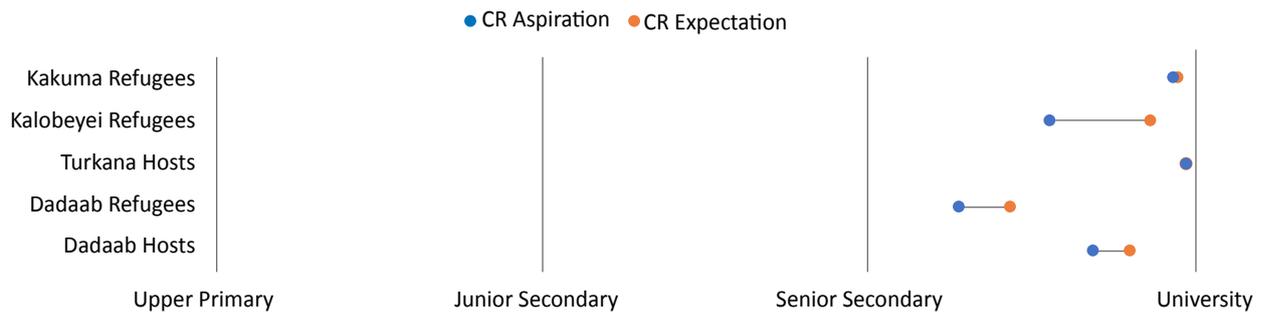


Figure 34: Discrepancy between child respondent (CR) and caregiver (CG) educational aspirations



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

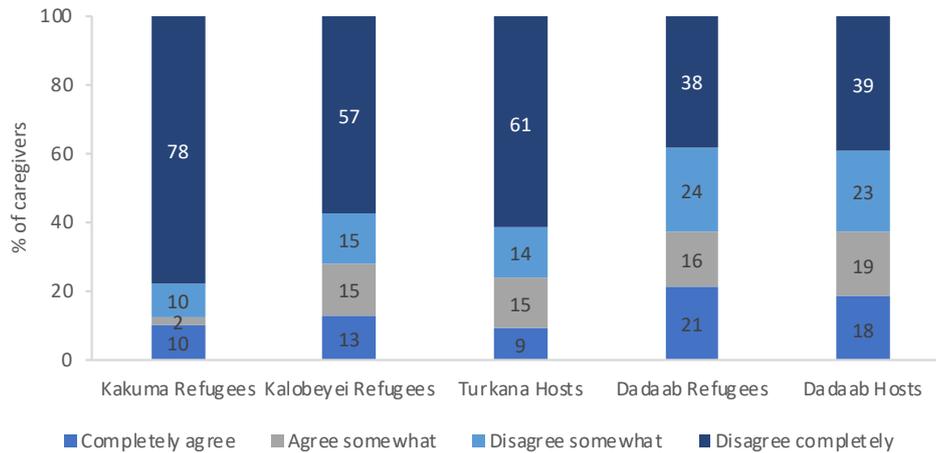
Notes: Aspirations are measured by asking children for the highest level of education they wish/would like to complete if they had no constraints and could study for as long as they liked. Caregiver aspirations are similarly measured by asking the caregiver for the highest level of education they wish/would like the child respondent to complete if they had no constraints and could study for as long as they liked. Expectations are measured by asking children for the highest level of education they realistically think they will complete. In this figure, TVET (technical and vocational educational training) is excluded as the survey response does not distinguish TVET colleges from vocational training that could be completed in lieu of junior or senior secondary, for example.

Low enrollment also does not seem to be driven by preferences for working. If their child was offered a job before completing secondary school, most caregivers report that they would not want them to take it. An estimated 78 percent and 57 percent of refugee caregivers in Kakuma and Kalobeyei and 61 percent of Turkana host caregivers completely disagree with allowing their child to drop out of school to take a job. Slightly more refugees and hosts in Dadaab would want their child to take the job, but still more than 60 percent disagree (completely or somewhat). This suggests that refugees and hosts in Dadaab may prioritize children working slightly more than in other locations. This is also indicated by Figure 31a, which shows that 21 percent of refugees in Dadaab report vocational education as the highest

level they hope to achieve. Moreover, when examining employment among children between 5 and 14 years old, this does seem slightly higher among Dadaab households, but is still low relative to the proportion of children out of school. About 4.6 percent of refugee children in Dadaab worked outside the household in the previous week, compared to less than 1 percent of children in Kakuma and 1.3 percent of children in Kalobeyei. Working appears to be more of a factor for hosts – about 5 percent of Turkana host children and 14 percent of host children in Dadaab worked the previous week. However, the proportion of children and caregivers in Dadaab who express a preference for working is too small to explain why half of the secondary-school-aged children in Dadaab are not in school.



Figure 35: Proportion of caregivers who would want their child to take a job before completing secondary school



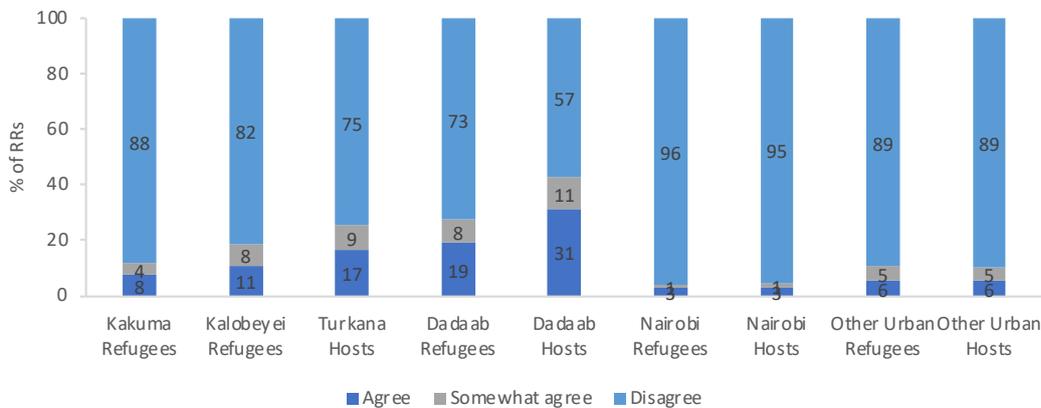
Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: Caregivers are read the statement ("If [child] were offered a good job before completing secondary school, you would let [child] take the job?") and asked whether they completely agree, somewhat agree, somewhat disagree, or completely disagree.

Traditional gender beliefs also do not seem to be a driving factor in low school enrollment.⁴¹ Reported beliefs in gender-equal education are high across locations, particularly in urban areas. Almost all respondents in urban areas and Kakuma/Kalobeyei disagree that that boys' education is more important than girls'. Most respondents

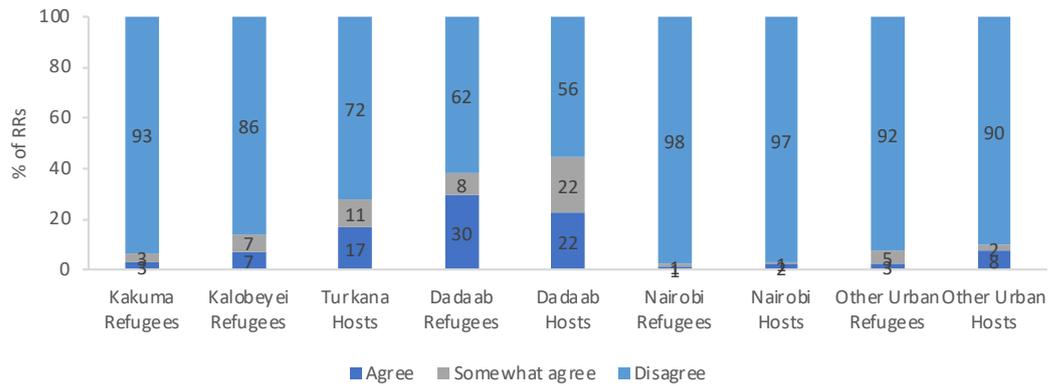
also disagree with keeping daughters out of school to help with chores and care at home. While some respondents in Dadaab report slightly less gender-progressive beliefs, the majority still support girls' education with 73 percent of refugees and 57 percent of hosts disagreeing that sons' education should be prioritized over girls'.

Figure 36: Important for sons to have more education than daughters



⁴¹ Since responses are self-reported, respondents may be giving responses to what is expected rather than what they believe or what is done. Other studies suggest gender norms play a significant role in enrollment. Giacomo et al. (2024).

Figure 37: Daughters should be sent to school only if they are not needed to help at home

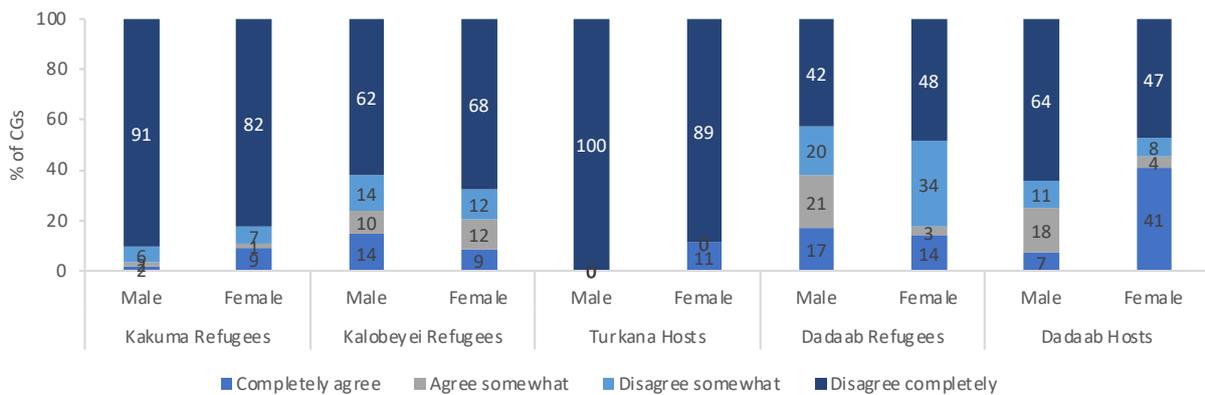


Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Although marriage may cause girls to drop out of secondary school, data collected from caregivers does not suggest that this is an important factor across locations. When asked if they would want their child to marry before completing secondary school, most caregivers completely disagree. However, fewer caregivers in Dadaab report being opposed to this. An estimated 45 percent of hosts and 17 percent of refugees in Dadaab caring for girls agree (completely or somewhat) that they would want them to marry before completing school. The

slightly higher prevalence of traditional gender beliefs in Dadaab could therefore be a factor in low enrollment in this location. This seems to be reflected in the gender gaps in secondary enrollment: 6 percent of refugee girls in Dadaab are enrolled compared to 11 percent of boys, and 10 percent of host girls in Dadaab are enrolled compared to 12 percent of boys. However, the very low rates of boys enrolled also suggest that there may be other more significant factors driving low enrollment.

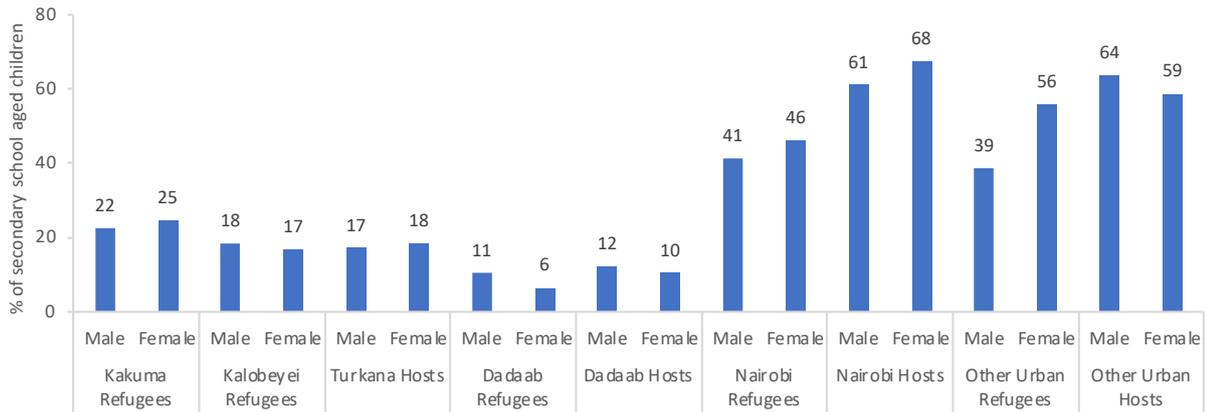
Figure 38: Proportion of caregivers who would want child to marry before completing secondary school



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Note: This figure is disaggregated by the gender of the child respondent

Figure 39: Net Secondary School Enrollment by Gender



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.



Cost is the main obstacle to school enrollment for hosts and urban refugees, while camp refugees struggle to transition to secondary school due to insufficient learning and lack of capacity among other reasons.

In urban areas among children who are no longer enrolled or attending school, 87 percent of refugees and 73 percent of hosts cite school fees or other costs as the main reason for not attending school. Camp hosts face similar cost barriers with 39 percent reporting school fees and 7 percent reporting other costs as the reason for no longer attending. School fees are also a reported barrier for camp refugees but to a smaller extent. While primary schools in Kakuma, Kalobeyei, and Dadaab are free to attend, secondary schools charge a fee of 3,000 Kenyan shillings or about US\$24 per year (UNHCR and World Bank (2019)). However, this fee can be waived upon application to the School Board of Management. Among camp refugees, the more significant obstacles to secondary enrollment include low learning, as evidenced by poor test scores and large over-age enrollment in primary school. To ensure

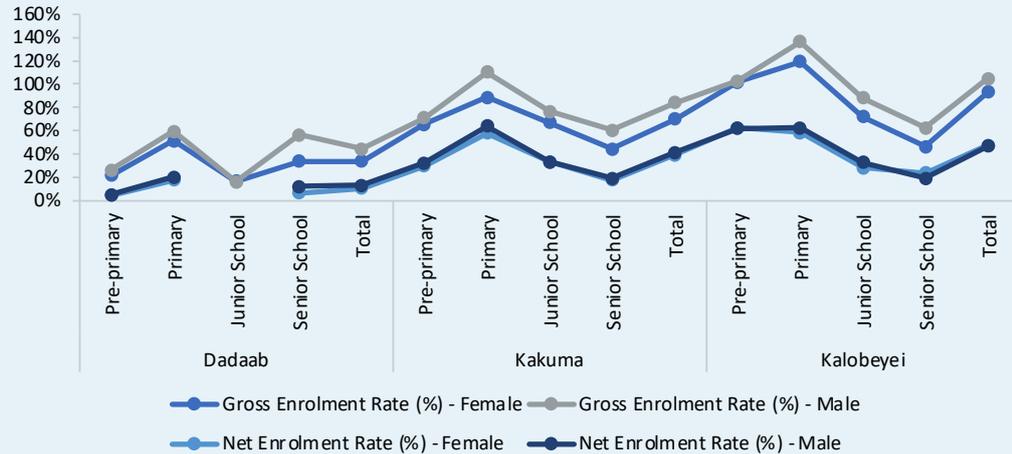
children can acquire foundational skills and pass national exams at the end of Primary school, investing more into accelerated learning programs could improve graduation rates and alleviate the strain of over-age enrollment on primary school resources. However, this must be met with increased capacity in secondary schools. In Kakuma and Kalobeyei, there are 27 primary schools but only nine secondary schools, severely constraining the number of students who can transition to secondary (UNHCR n.d.a). Similarly, in Dadaab, there are 22 primary schools in the camp, but only six secondary schools (UNHCR n.d.b). While the integration of camps as part of the Shirika plan should help refugees access a larger pool of secondary schools, keeping costs low will be important in ensuring higher enrollment among refugees and hosts. As most out-of-school children have never attended school before, it is also important to create tailored interventions that can address cost, distance, and any socioeconomic and cultural reasons preventing these children from enrolling in school.

Box 3: Administrative data in action: education in refugee camps

In collaboration with government bodies and implementing partners on the ground, an Education Management Information System (EMIS) has been established within the refugee camps of Turkana and Garissa counties. This system facilitates the real-time monitoring of administrative data on enrolment, facilities, and educational performance within the camps. The following section presents key metrics derived from the EMIS data for Term 1 of 2024.

The gross and net enrolment rates across the Dadaab, Kakuma, and Kalobeyei camps highlight differing levels of success in educational access across the camps, with Kalobeyei showing the strongest performance, followed by Kakuma, and then Dadaab. Kalobeyei leads with the highest overall gross enrolment rates, with females at 93% and males at 105%, driven by exceptionally high rates in primary and pre-primary levels, where both genders exceed 100%. Net enrolment rates in Kalobeyei are also robust, with both genders achieving 47%. In Kakuma, gross enrolment rates are strong, particularly in primary education, where males reach 110% and females 88%. Net enrolment rates in Kakuma are also significant, with an overall rate of 41% for males and 39% for females, reflecting relatively good access to age-appropriate education. Dadaab, however, shows lower overall gross enrolment rates, with 34% for females and 44% for males, and net enrolment rates of 10% and 13% respectively, indicating greater challenges in enrolling children, especially in age-appropriate grades. These variations highlight differing levels of success in educational access across the camps, with Kalobeyei showing the strongest performance, followed by Kakuma, and then Dadaab.

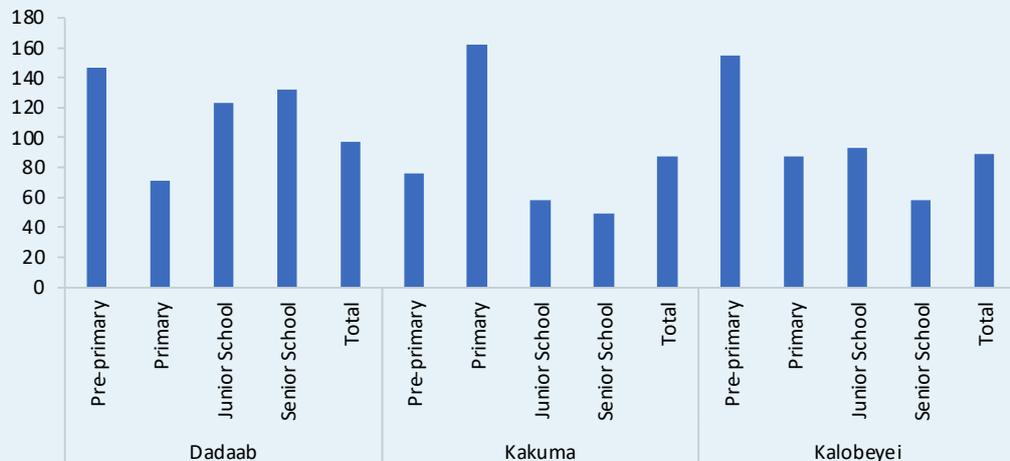
Figure 40: Gross enrolment and net enrolment rates by gender and level of education



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

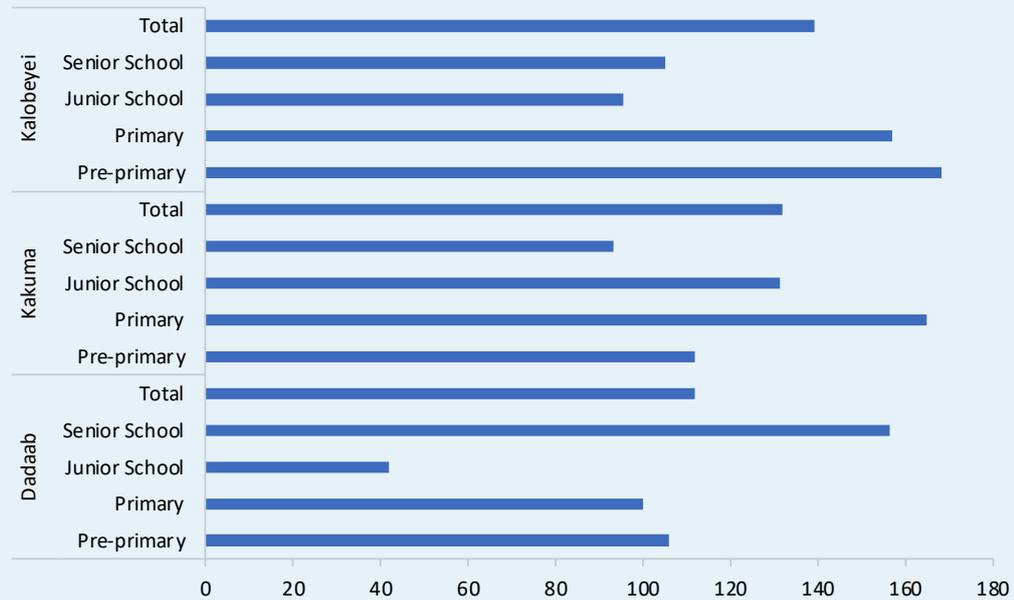
The pupil-teacher ratios across the camps suggest that while some educational levels in these camps are adequately staffed, others, particularly pre-primary education, face challenges in maintaining optimal teacher-student ratios. In Dadaab, the overall pupil-teacher ratio is approximately 97, with particularly high ratios in pre-primary (146) and senior school (132), indicating potential strain in these areas. Kakuma shows the most variability, with a high ratio in primary schools (162) and a much lower ratio in senior schools (49), leading to an overall ratio of about 88. In Kalobeyei, the overall ratio is close to Kakuma at 89, with pre-primary schools showing the highest ratio (155) and senior schools the lowest (58). These figures suggest that while some educational levels in these camps are adequately staffed, others, particularly pre-primary education, face challenges in maintaining optimal teacher-student ratios.

Figure 41: Pupil-teacher ratio by camp and level of education



Source: Education Management Information System, Term 1, 2024.

Figure 42: Classroom utilization by camp and level of education



Source: Education Management Information System, Term 1, 2024.

Classroom utilization varies significantly across the Dadaab, Kakuma, and Kalobeyei camps, with Kalobeyei showing the highest overall classroom-pupil ratio at 139, indicating more crowded classrooms compared to the other camps. Within Kalobeyei, pre-primary education has the highest ratio at 168, followed by primary education at 157, reflecting substantial pressure on classroom space. In Kakuma, the overall classroom-pupil ratio is 132, with primary education experiencing the highest ratio at 165, suggesting high classroom utilization. Dadaab has the lowest overall classroom-pupil ratio at 112, with junior schools particularly underutilized with a ratio of 42, in contrast to the senior schools, which have the highest ratio at 156. These figures highlight the varying levels of classroom overcrowding, with Kalobeyei facing the most significant challenges, particularly at the pre-primary level, while Dadaab's junior schools are relatively less crowded.



Cost is the main obstacle to school enrollment for hosts and urban refugees, while camp refugees struggle to transition to secondary school due to insufficient learning and lack of capacity among other reasons.





PHOTO/Alamy

04

Socioeconomic Resources to Meet Basic Needs

Socioeconomic Resources to Meet Basic Needs

4.1 Humanitarian assistance and remittances

The high incidence of multidimensional poverty exists despite almost all refugees receiving assistance suggesting that, in the immediate term, withdrawal of assistance may leave households even more deprived.

Table 2 below shows the coverage of aid and food aid across locations and refugee status. Almost all refugee households in camps receive aid, and food aid coverage is also nearly 100 percent among camp refugees. Social assistance to hosts appears to be targeted to the poorest and/or most food insecure households, who are significantly more likely to receive both food and non-food aid. One exception are hosts in urban areas other than Nairobi, where there is no significant difference between households with different levels of poverty or food insecurity.

Large gaps remain in social assistance coverage among hosts: More than half of all poor / food insecure households in Turkana do not receive any aid. In other areas, the situation is even worse, with, for instance, more than 9 out of 10 food-insecure hosts in other urban areas not receiving any assistance. At the same time, many non-poor households in camps do receive aid. Such a discrepancy is problematic, and could contribute to creating resentment against refugees, particularly in areas, such as Turkana, where hosts are worse off than refugees. It may be possible to improve targeting fairness and effectiveness by moving from what is essentially a categorical eligibility criterion, based on refugee status, to one that is based on need.

Table 2: Percent of households receiving assistance in past 12 months, by location / refugee status/

| | FOOD AID ⁴² | | | | ANY AID ⁴³ | | | |
|-----------------|------------------------|----------|-------------|---------------|-----------------------|----------|-------------|---------------|
| | Non-poor | MPI poor | Food secure | Food insecure | Non-poor | MPI poor | Food secure | Food insecure |
| Kakuma (r) | 100 | 99.8 | 99.8 | 99.9 | 100 | 99.8 | 99.8 | 99.9 |
| Kalobeyei (r) | 100 | 99.3 | 99.5 | 99.4 | 100 | 99.3 | 99.6 | 99.2 |
| Turkana (h) | 12.7 | 30.2* | 16.1 | 31.5* | 32.1 | 45.8* | 32.1 | 48.0* |
| Dadaab camp (r) | 98.7 | 98 | 98 | 98.9 | 99.7 | 98 | 98.3 | 99.3 |
| Dadaab host | 13.8 | 14.4 | 12.7 | 30.2* | 31.8 | 22.5 | 24.8 | 32.2 |
| Nairobi refugee | 8.4 | 7.7 | 6.9 | 10.4 | 14.6 | 20.7 | 11.3 | 20.4* |
| Nairobi host | 2.2 | 9.6 | 0.9 | 6.2* | 12.7 | 24.2 | 9.9 | 20.5 |
| Urban refugee | 9.8 | 12.3 | 9.3 | 14.5 | 19.9 | 23.9 | 19.2 | 26.8 |
| Urban host | 1.3 | 4.4 | 1.4 | 3.4 | 7.4 | 4.4 | 7.1 | 8.7 |

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: r = refugees and h=hosts. *=difference is statistically significant at 5% level.

⁴² Food related aid includes Bamba Chakula food voucher, Equity Transfer for food (Bamba Chapaa), WFP in-kind food aid, UNHCR firewood, kitchen garden support, Hunger Safety Net Program (HSNP), any other in-kind food aid.

⁴³ Note that households that reported receiving aid more than 12 months ago have been excluded from the statistics on "Any aid". The food aid question, on the other hand, is a binary yes/no question about the past year that does not specify the time of receipt. Consequently, it is possible that some households answered "yes" to the food aid question but were later excluded from the "Any aid" statistics if they reported receiving aid more than 12 months ago. This explains, for instance, why there are more food aid recipients in Kalobeyei than any aid recipients.

The provision of humanitarian assistance may have helped to mitigate the impact of food insecurity among camp refugees in 2023. Table 3 shows the breakdown of food insecurity by year of interview. The year of interview is relevant given food rations increased from 50 percent to 80 percent of the approximate cost of ideal caloric intake on January 1, 2023, during the survey.

While the table does not show any significant differences between 2022 and 2023 among refugees, camp hosts were significantly more likely to resort to negative coping strategies in 2023. Camp hosts also had higher levels of food insecurity in 2023 (60.3 percent vs 47.7 percent), although the difference is not statistically significant.

Table 3: Food insecurity and negative coping strategies (% of population), by refugee status/ year of interview

| Index | Level | Camp refugees | | Camp Hosts | | Urban refugees | | Urban Hosts | |
|-------|--------------------------|---------------|------|------------|-------|----------------|------|-------------|------|
| | | 2022 | 2023 | 2022 | 2023 | 2022 | 2023 | 2022 | 2023 |
| CSI | 4-9: moderately insecure | 18.7 | 19.7 | 11.8 | 12.9 | 17.6 | 18.6 | 18.7 | 17.3 |
| | 10+: severely insecure | 42.6 | 42.8 | 35.9 | 47.4 | 48.5 | 42.9 | 27.7 | 27.1 |
| | 4+: All food insecure | 61.3 | 62.5 | 47.7 | 60.3 | 66.1 | 61.5 | 46.4 | 44.4 |
| LSC | Stress | 21.5 | 19.1 | 22.5 | 23.3 | 31.5 | 39.1 | 43.6 | 43.9 |
| | Emergency | 16.0 | 17 | 10.4 | 31.2* | 14.1 | 9.3 | 5.3 | 5.8 |
| | Stress + emergency | 37.5 | 36.1 | 32.9 | 54.5 | 45.6 | 48.4 | 48.9 | 49.7 |

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

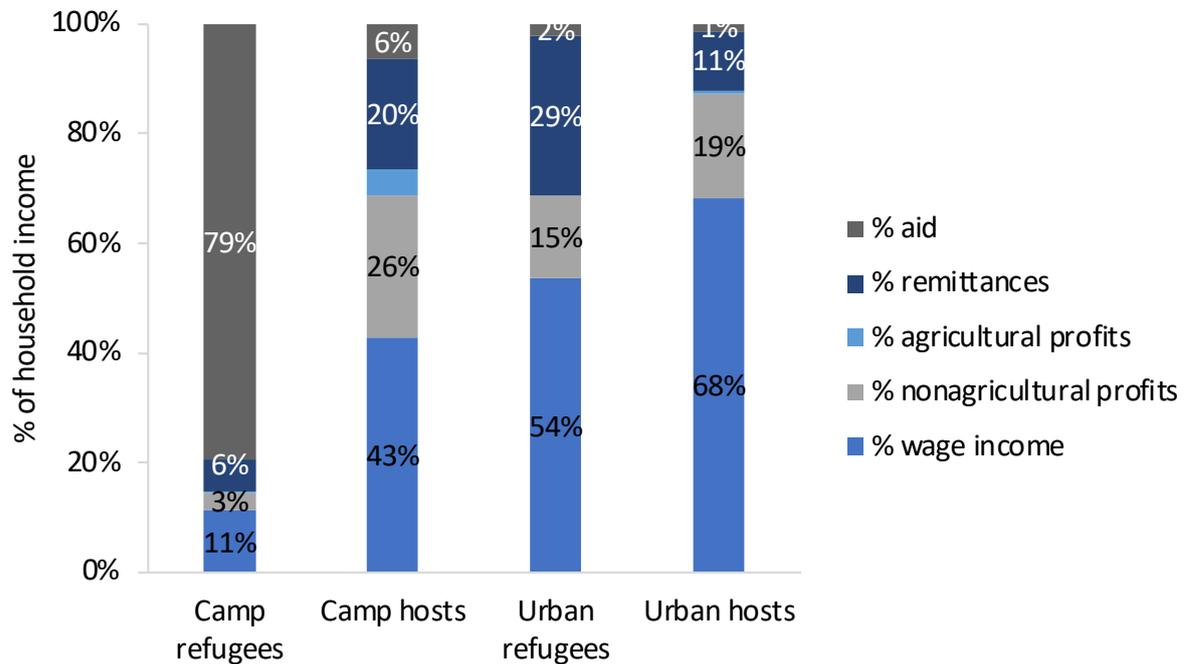
Notes: *=difference is statistically significant at 5% level.

There is a large reliance on aid among camp refugees and a significant reliance on remittances among urban refugees. Aid transfers constitute 79 percent of camp refugees' total income. In comparison, wage earnings and profits from self-employed activities constitute only 11 and 3 percent, respectively, of total income, indicating that any withdrawal of assistance without expansion of income-generating opportunities will leave refugees even more deprived (Figure 44). The substantial dependence

on aid places refugees in a vulnerable position, especially during periods of fluctuating aid delivery.⁴⁴ In urban areas, refugees exhibit a better income diversification, with 54 percent of income issuing from wage work and 15 percent from self-employment, mirroring hosts. Aid reliance is notably smaller, as fewer NGOs extend their programs to urban areas and refugees migrating out of camps generally forfeit international assistance. Remittances comprise a substantial income share instead (29 percent).

⁴⁴ Since the conclusion of the survey, funding shortfalls forced food rations to be cut to 60 percent of the caloric measure in July 2023 and again to 50 percent in February 2024. The impact of these cuts will be investigated with future survey waves but are expected to worsen food insecurity in camps.

Figure 43: Sources of household income



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

4.2 Employment

4.2.1 Few camp-based refugees are working

The encampment model limits refugees' employment opportunities. Refugees do not have the official right to work outside the camps, unless a work permit is obtained in advance, for which a recommendation from a prospective employer must be accompanied by a letter from the DRS confirming refugee status. This process is complex and in practice, permits are rarely issued (UNHCR and World Bank 2020). Moreover, fleeing their countries under duress often means refugees lack essential documents such as birth certificates, IDs, or educational certificates, which are essential for accessing Kenyan services or demonstrating their qualifications to potential employers. While refugee entrepreneurs have the opportunity to establish businesses within the camps by acquiring a business license from the local county government, the annual renewal requirement, coupled with charges contingent on business size, effectively functions as a tax on economic activity (Betts, Sterck and Omata 2018). Refugees lack the freedom to settle freely or own land. Upon registration with UNCHR in camps, they receive shelter and in the

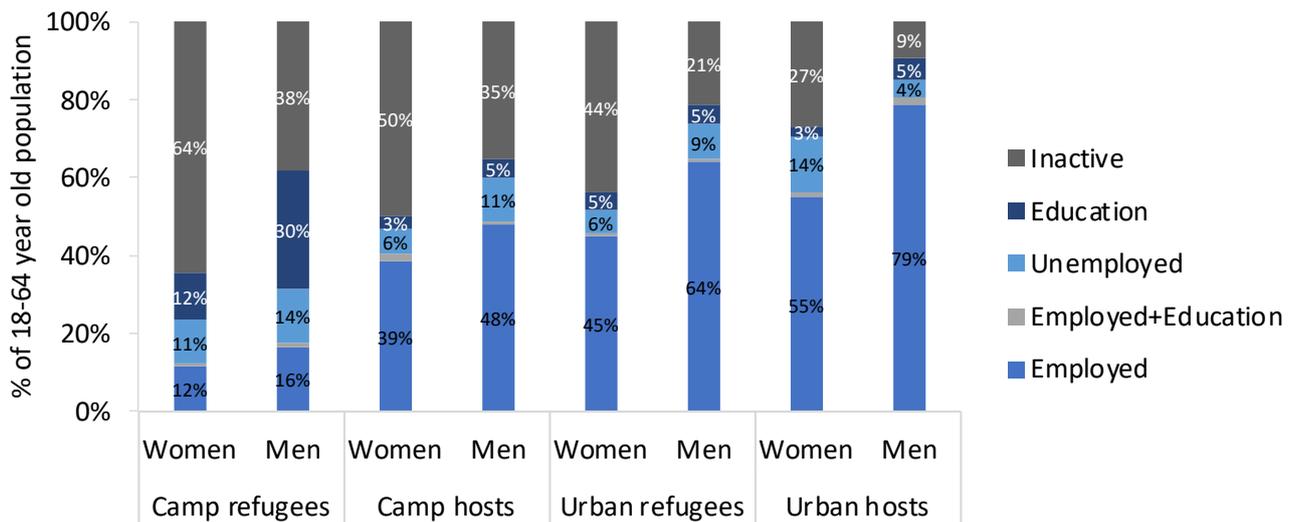
case of Kalobeyei, a small plot of allocated land, which cannot be sold or officially purchased, complicating efforts to relocate elsewhere (Betts, Omata, Rodgers, Sterck and Stierna 2018). Mobility is further constrained by the requirement for advance travel permits, which are only issued for a limited set of reasons and involve lengthy application procedures. Moreover, refugees forfeit their entitlement to food and cash assistance upon relocating to urban areas, where NGO support is very limited.

Consequently, few refugees are engaged in an economic activity, with the majority outside the labor force (Figure 44). Only 14 percent of camp refugees are employed, which is significantly below the 43 percent level for camp hosts. Most refugees instead remain outside the labor force. Women especially face greater challenges, with only 7 percent employed in Kakuma compared to 14 percent of men. A total of 64 percent of refugee women remain outside the labor force. Unlike men, significantly fewer are inactive due to being in education (12 percent compared to 30 percent for men).

Although refugees in urban areas are almost four times more likely to participate in economic activities compared to those in camps, they still lag behind Kenyan nationals in terms of employment rates. 54 percent of urban refugees are employed, which is encouragingly higher than in camp areas and a reflection of the better availability of jobs in Nairobi.⁴⁵ Employment of refugees, however, still trails behind that of nationals, 63 percent of which are working. Employment rates among

women are particularly higher than in camp settings, with on average 45 percent engaged in an economic activity. However, similar to the situation in the camps, fewer women are employed than men and more remain outside the labor force as compared to men. This is true both for refugees and hosts, which may reflect gender-based and cultural norms that refrain women from engaging in economic activities while prioritizing non-paid care and domestic work (UNHCR and World Bank 2021).

Figure 44: Labor force participation



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Camp refugees who do manage to work do so as “incentive” workers for international organizations in the service sector. Wage work is the predominant form of employment for refugees in camps, encompassing nearly 63 percent of the employed. Those with higher education and language proficiency can seek special employment opportunities with international organizations, including roles such as translators, enumerators, community mobilizers, community health workers, and food assistance distributors, predominantly in the education (30 percent), human health and social work (24 percent),

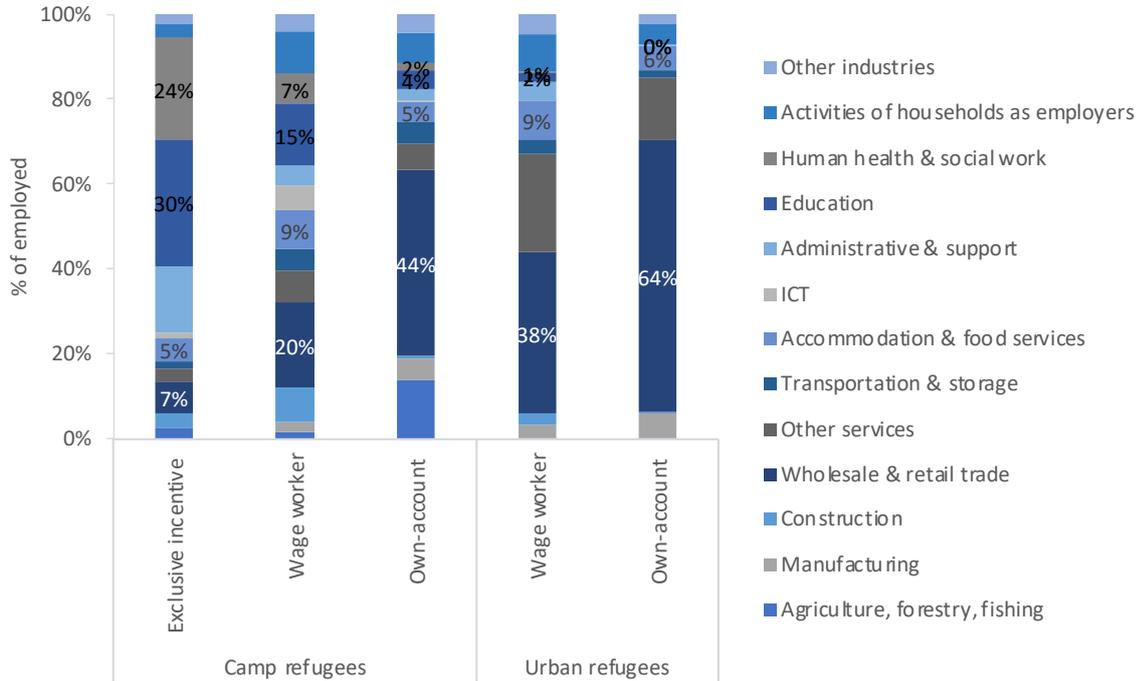
or administrative sectors (16 percent, Figure 46).⁴⁶ Among wage workers, 90 percent are involved exclusively or partially in such ‘incentive’ jobs. Although incentive work may appear more appealing due to its association with large international organizations, it is still precarious in nature. It is often on short-term contracts, with few benefits, and workers receive reduced ‘incentive pay’ (Betts et al. 2018; Vuni and Iragi 2023). Those not engaged in incentive work mostly rely on the informal service sector, which is especially true for urban refugees who do not have access to incentive opportunities.

⁴⁵ In Nakuru and Mombasa the share of employed is notably smaller, with only 29 percent of refugees in employment compared to 58 percent in Nairobi.

⁴⁶ 43 percent of exclusive incentive workers are ‘higher skilled’ based on the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO). This compares to 21 percent not working as incentives. They are also generally more educated, with 24 percent of exclusive incentive workers having completed university and 38 percent completed secondary school, compared to 5 and 12 percent respectively for non-incentive workers.



Figure 45: Which sectors do refugees work in?



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

4.2.2 Factors associated with increased likelihood of being employed

High levels of education are positively associated with employment outcomes, particularly with holding incentive jobs. Regressions with simple demographic controls reveal higher levels of education are generally associated with more labor force participation (LFP) and better employment outcomes (Table 4). Tertiary education in particular remains a significant predictor for LFP even when location, nationality, pre-displacement labor force status, networks, household composition and mental health are controlled for (Table 5). While these results are largely illustrative and lack the exogenous variation to infer causality, they point towards an association between higher levels of schooling and LFP. Especially in camps, this is likely to be the case due to the high prevalence of incentive jobs which favor refugees with higher educational attainment.⁴⁷

Refugees who have obtained a work permit or movement pass are significantly more likely to be engaged in the labor force than those without work documentation. Refugees are legally entitled to formal employment as they are technically able to access work permits, seek and gain employment, and start a business. Yet in practice, administrative hurdles, travel distances to registration centers and associated costs often prevent refugees from obtaining work permits or movement passes. Only less than 1 percent of refugees in the sample have a work permit. Those who do obtain work permits or movement passes have significantly better employment outcomes, suggesting there is scope to improve participation by simplifying administrative processes (Table 5), although it is also possible that individuals that go through the hurdles of obtaining documentation are also more predisposed to engage in the labor force.

⁴⁷ A similar regression on the sub-sample of camp refugees suggests that among camp refugees, those with tertiary education have a 37 percent higher chance of having an incentive job compared to those without education, while having a work permit is negatively associated with having an incentive job, likely because permits are not needed for incentive work.

Table 4: Who works and holds better jobs?

| VARIABLES | (1) LFP | (2) Employed | (3) Log monthly earnings | (4) Log hourly earnings |
|--|----------------------|----------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Demographics | | | | |
| Age | 0.066*** (0.005) | 0.045*** (0.004) | 0.352*** (0.078) | 0.164*** (0.039) |
| Age squared | -0.001*** (0.000) | -0.001*** (0.000) | -0.004*** (0.001) | -0.002*** (0.000) |
| RR is a woman | -0.041* (0.024) | -0.014 (0.019) | 0.277 (0.298) | 0.210 (0.161) |
| RR is married | 0.049 (0.033) | 0.015 (0.029) | -0.058 (0.278) | -0.054 (0.146) |
| Woman x Married | -0.170*** (0.040) | -0.163*** (0.034) | -2.032*** (0.538) | -0.784*** (0.277) |
| Educational attainment (no education=omitted) | | | | |
| Primary | 0.055** (0.027) | 0.036 (0.022) | 1.226*** (0.293) | 0.251 (0.162) |
| Secondary | 0.052* (0.028) | 0.004 (0.022) | 0.788** (0.391) | 0.130 (0.193) |
| Tertiary | 0.239*** (0.047) | 0.240*** (0.046) | 0.889** (0.395) | 0.231 (0.193) |
| Constant | -0.851*** (0.092) | -0.604*** (0.071) | 0.127 (1.600) | -0.102 (0.777) |
| R squared | 0.113 | 0.104 | 0.082 | 0.049 |
| Observations | 5542 | 5542 | 1801 | 1792 |

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: Modes (3) and (4) were estimated on working refugees only and results are applicable to that subsample.⁴⁸ Regression results are weighted using survey weights. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

Informal networks matter for finding job opportunities.

Refugees whose friendship group includes Kenyans have a 5 percent higher likelihood to participate in the labor market and 4 percent higher likelihood to be employed, when demographics, location, documentation, and mental health are controlled for. Having friends outside one's own country of origin also positively affects LFP by 4 percentage

points (Table 5). Networks also matter in terms of how jobs are acquired. Most paid wage employees found their jobs directly by approaching employers (38 percent) or through being connected through friends and family (22 percent). Fewer submitted a written application (10 percent) and almost nobody had a job arranged via their school or training institution.

⁴⁸ Models 3 and 4 were also repeated including those who do not work and setting their wages to zero. Results remain the same.

Table 5: Determinants of LFP for refugees, including extended set of controls

| VARIABLES | (1) LFP | (2) Employed | (3) Log monthly earnings | (4) Log hourly earnings |
|--|-------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| Demographics | | | | |
| Age | 0.050*** (0.005) | 0.029*** (0.004) | 0.212*** (0.071) | 0.099*** (0.037) |
| Age squared | -0.001*** (0.000) | -0.000*** (0.000) | -0.003*** (0.001) | -0.001** (0.000) |
| Is a woman | -0.053** (0.023) | -0.038** (0.018) | 0.292 (0.321) | 0.176 (0.169) |
| Is married | 0.068** (0.033) | 0.034 (0.028) | -0.083 (0.331) | -0.042 (0.168) |
| Woman x Married | -0.133*** (0.050***) | -0.117*** (0.029***) | -1.493*** (0.212***) | -0.559** (0.099***) |
| Educational attainment (no education=omitted) | | | | |
| Primary | 0.006 (0.029) | 0.018 (0.022) | 0.121 (0.324) | -0.186 (0.174) |
| Secondary | 0.015 (0.030) | 0.003 (0.023) | -0.121 (0.382) | -0.238 (0.196) |
| Tertiary | 0.088* (0.046) | 0.109** (0.043) | -0.217 (0.432) | -0.175 (0.213) |
| Controls | | | | |
| Has worked before displacement | 0.106*** (0.040) | 0.124*** (0.040) | 0.303 (0.466) | 0.056 (0.231) |
| Length of stay (years) | 0.001 (0.005) | 0.008** (0.004) | 0.001 (0.063) | 0.002 (0.035) |
| Length of stay (years) squared | -0.000 (0.000) | -0.000** (0.000) | 0.001 (0.002) | 0.000 (0.001) |
| Is a single mother | 0.008 (0.033) | 0.030 (0.025) | -0.017 (0.367) | -0.037 (0.182) |
| Lives in a nuclear family | -0.099*** (0.028) | -0.051** (0.023) | 0.027 (0.336) | 0.077 (0.174) |
| Lives in a mixed adult household with children | -0.080*** (0.024) | -0.075*** (0.018) | -0.629** (0.314) | -0.307* (0.157) |
| Possesses a refugee ID card | 0.062*** (0.019) | 0.038** (0.015) | 0.154 (0.276) | 0.071 (0.141) |
| Possesses a Movement pass | 0.267*** (0.056) | 0.279*** (0.059) | -0.047 (0.722) | 0.035 (0.340) |

Table 5: Determinants of LFP for refugees, including extended set of controls (Continued)

| VARIABLES | (1) LFP | (2) Employed | (3) Log monthly earnings | (4) Log hourly earnings |
|--|----------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| Possesses a Work permit | 0.193** (0.097) | 0.065 (0.098) | 0.611 (0.953) | 0.556 (0.482) |
| Has Kenyan friends | 0.055** (0.022) | 0.037** (0.017) | -0.146 (0.323) | -0.228 (0.166) |
| Has refugee friends from different countries | 0.036* (0.021) | 0.025 (0.018) | 0.785*** (0.282) | 0.348** (0.144) |
| Kenya feels like home (10 on likert) | -0.078*** (0.020) | -0.030* (0.018) | -0.041 (0.304) | -0.045 (0.148) |
| PHQ-8 (depression indicator) | 0.003 (0.002) | -0.002* (0.001) | -0.063*** (0.023) | -0.029** (0.012) |
| Constant | -0.614*** (0.110) | -0.462*** (0.082) | 4.698*** (1.522) | 2.172*** (0.789) |
| Country of origin FE | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Stratum FE | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| R-squared | 0.231 | 0.273 | 0.209 | 0.152 |
| Observations | 5508 | 5508 | 1792 | 1783 |



Older refugees are more likely to be engaged in the labor force and command higher wages. With each year of age, refugees are on average 5 percent more likely to engage in the labor force and 3 percent more likely to be employed, although returns decrease over time. They also earn significantly more (Table 5). This is in part due to more experience, but also reflects displacement experiences. Most of the current working age population were displaced during their childhood when they were primarily engaged in education (42 percent) or inactive for

non-educational purposes (33 percent; Figure 49). They entered Kenya with disrupted education and little practical job experience and may delay entry into employment in favor of resuming their education. Presently, 33 percent of camp refugees who were aged 0-18 years at the time of displacement are enrolled in school, while 45 percent are not participating in the labor force (Figure 47). Only 10 percent have secured employment which is half the rate of those displaced as adults.

Figure 46: Age at the time of displacement

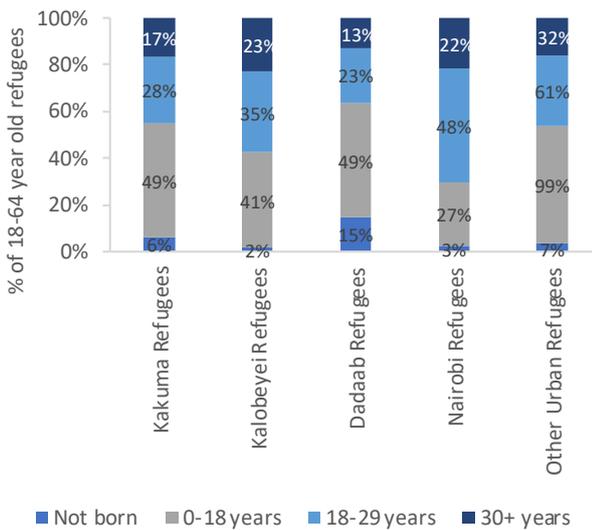
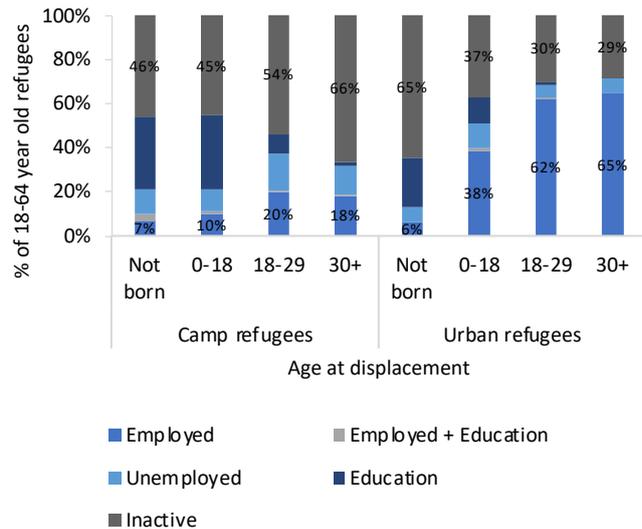


Figure 47: Current labor force participation by age at displacement



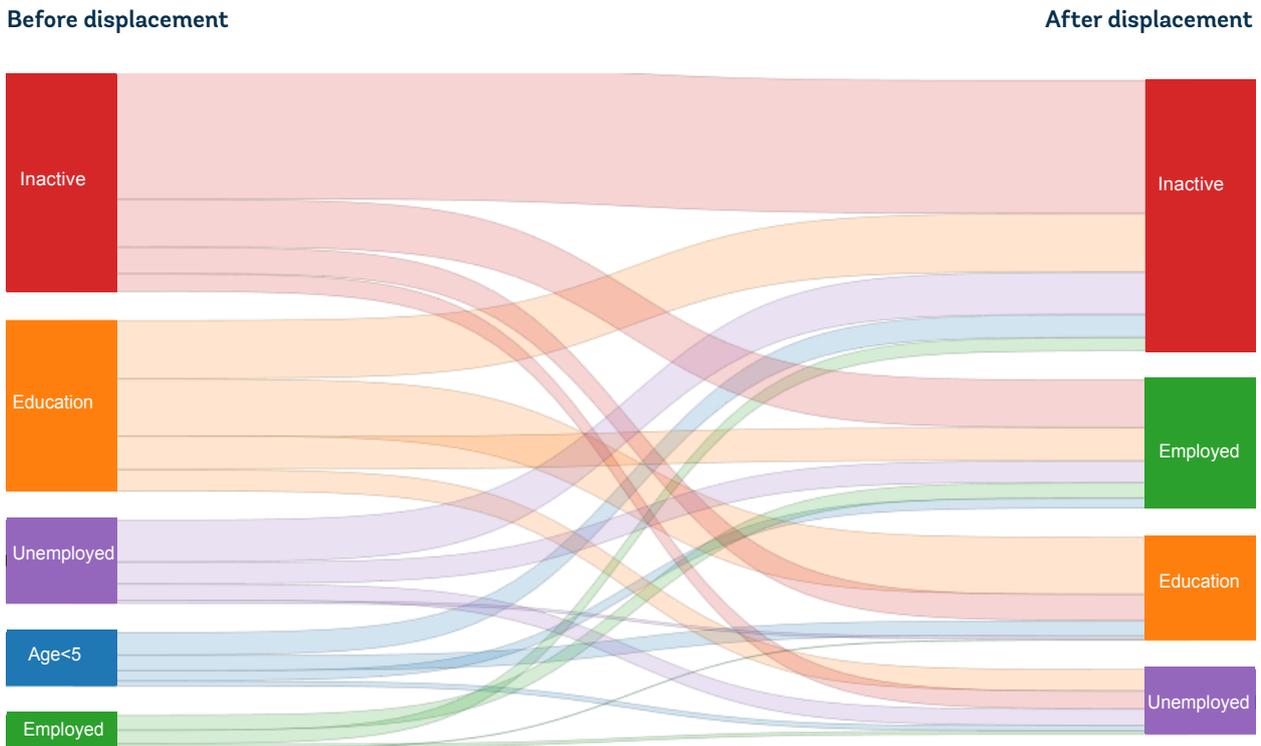
Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Because most refugees were children at the time of displacement, there is no clear evidence of occupational downgrading unlike in other contexts. In Colombia, recent research documented higher educated Venezuelan refugees disproportionately entering positions typically employing less-educated natives, leading to higher competition and lower wages for the host population and overall reduced aggregate productivity (Lebow 2024). Due to the majority of refugees entering Kenya as children

without job experience and with disrupted education, the same dynamic is less likely to occur among those who were adults pre-displacement, only 11 percent held a job before coming to Kenya. Furthermore, less than half of those who held a job are employed post-displacement (Figure 48). The subset of individuals who have worked pre- and post-displacement and where occupational downgrading could occur is thus very small and unlikely to have a large effect on the host community.⁴⁹

⁴⁹ In addition, the encampment model bars refugees from engaging in certain protected occupations reserved for hosts. Refugees cannot engage in agriculture (except for self-sufficiency use of small kitchen gardens in Kalobeyei), the collection of firewood, or in pastoralist activities among others, which creates a legal barrier to increased competition with the native community.

Figure 48: Sankey chart on education or labor force status pre- and post-displacement (for those currently 18-64 years old)



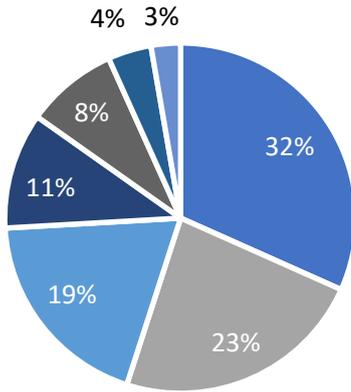
Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

4.2.3 Education and skills trainings are perceived to be key to employment

Education and skills training is the most mentioned type of support needed by refugees – both for employment and self-employment. 32 percent of refugees looking for a job would like to gain further technical or vocational skills and 23 percent would like to complete their education (Figure 50). Similarly, among those intending to establish businesses, there is a significant demand for skills development, with 26 percent

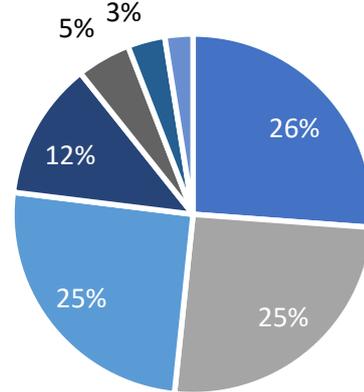
seeking technical or vocational training and 25 percent desiring business training (Figure 50). These results indicate a need for accessible education and skills training programs among refugees currently seeking employment. Approximately a quarter of prospective entrepreneurs also express a need for capital, underscoring a need for initiatives to facilitate access to finance.

Figure 49: The main support needed by those looking for employment is education, vocational training and contacts with employers



- Technical or vocational skills-training
- Continue or complete education
- Securing contacts with other employers
- support with access to markets
- Securing other documentation
- Securing work permit

Figure 50: The main support needed by those looking to become self-employed is vocational training, business skills and credit



- Technical or vocational skills-training
- Business Training
- Loan or credit
- support with access to markets
- Childcare opportunities/help with housing
- Continue or complete education

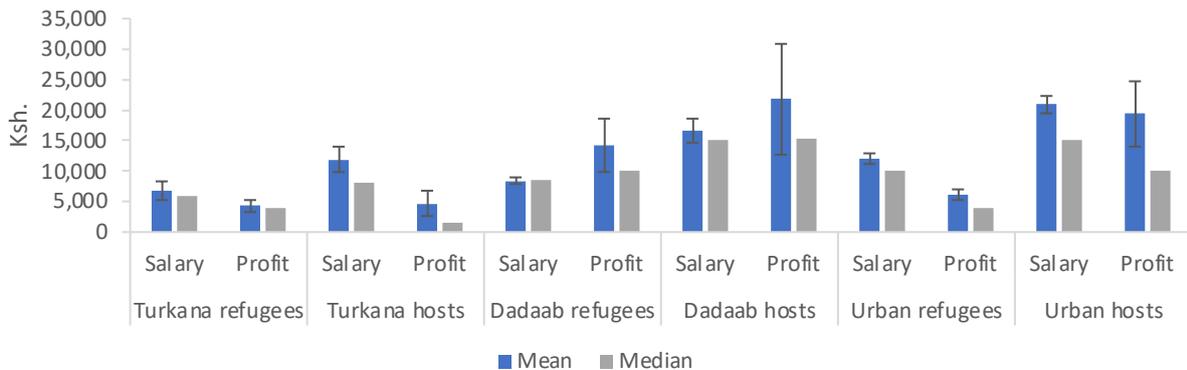
Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

4.2.4 Demand-side and other constraints

Wages are low overall but there are also some wage disparities between refugees and hosts. The median monthly wage for refugees was Ksh. 8,000 compared to Ksh. 15,000 for hosts, nearly twice the amount (Figure 51). Earnings for camp refugees are especially low, averaging around Ksh. 6,800 per month in Kakuma and Kalobeyei and Ksh. 8,400 in Dadaab, which in both cases is significantly

below rates for hosts. Although urban refugees engage in similar work to hosts, mostly including wholesale and retail trade, their earnings average Ksh. 11,900 a month compared to Ksh. 21,000 for hosts. This divergence signals that refugees are often working in precarious situations and suggests a need for policies addressing the economic integration and wage parity of refugees in urban areas.

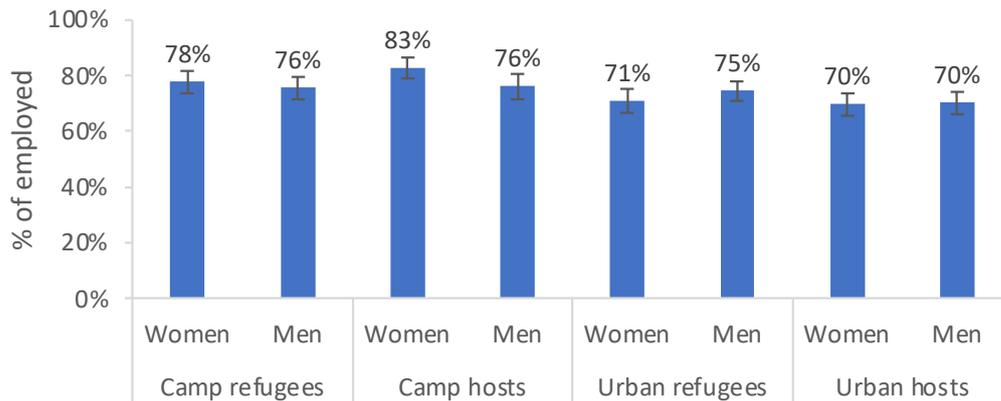
Figure 51: Salaries of paid employees and profits from own-account work in non-agricultural businesses



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.
 Note: Monthly salaries and profits depicted are of the primary activity only.

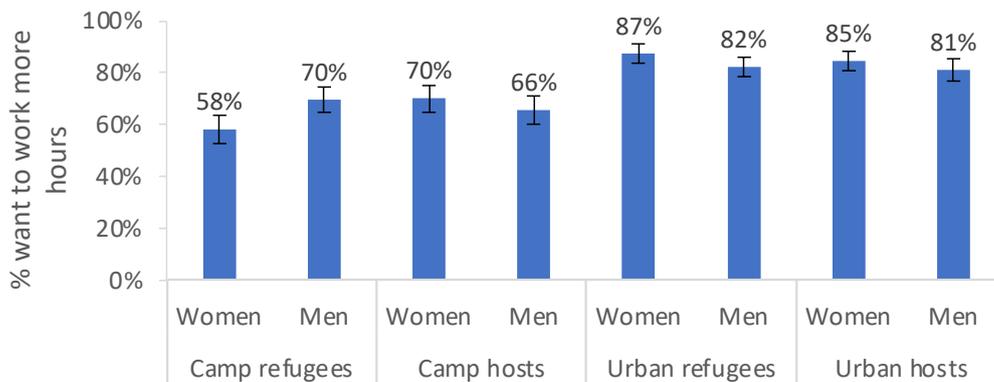
Most employed refugees would like to work more hours. 65 percent of employed refugees work more than 35 hours a week, yet an overwhelming majority would want to work more hours if paid (Figure 52). This is true for both men and women, although notably fewer women can start additional work within two weeks if they were offered a job (Figure 53).

Figure 52: Proportion of employed refugees who would like to work more hours if they were paid



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Figure 53: Proportion of refugees who would be able to work more hours in the next two weeks if offered a job



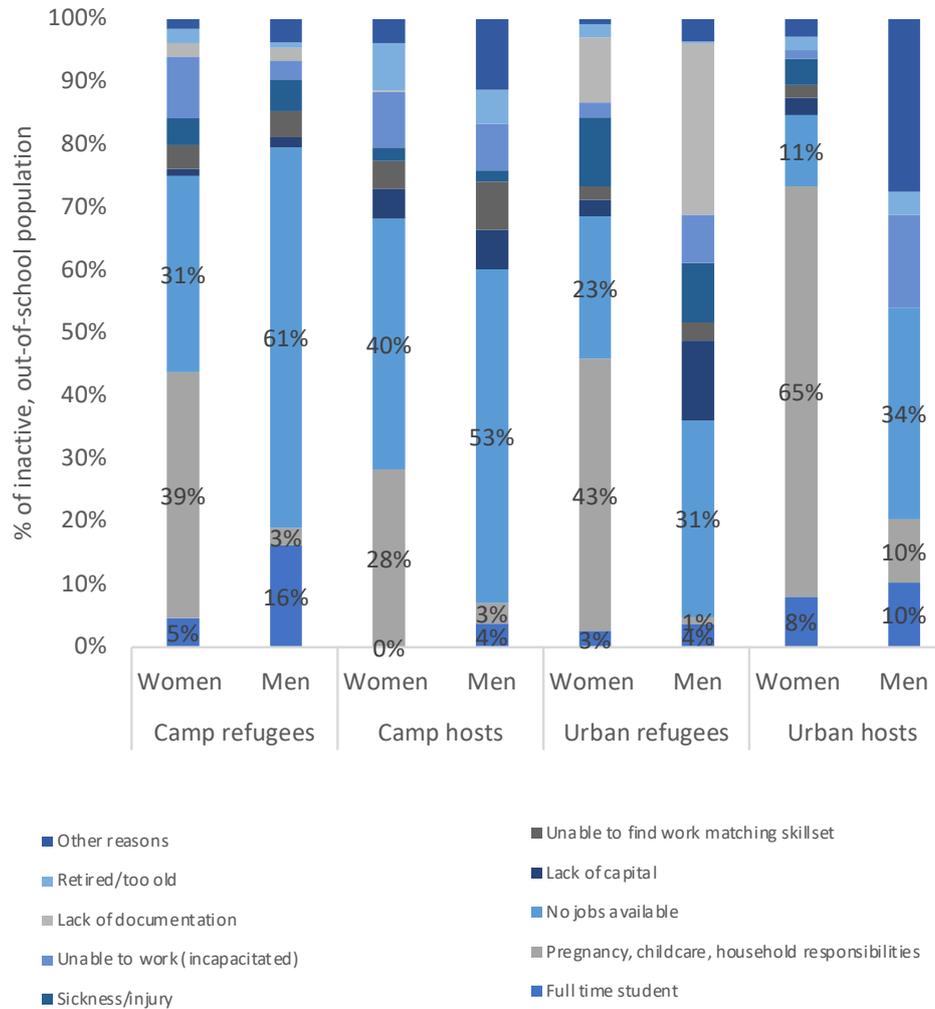
Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Many refugees outside the labor force are discouraged by the lack of available jobs. 85 percent of refugees without an economic activity were not looking for a job or an opportunity to start a business in the last four weeks. Among men, 61 percent cite a lack of jobs as the main reason for not looking, while among women, pregnancy, childcare and household responsibilities are the most cited reasons, followed closely by a lack of jobs (Figure 54). While urban areas offer relatively more opportunities,

a lack of jobs is still the primary reason for inactivity. In addition, access to documentation emerges as a critical barrier to employment, with 27 percent of men citing it as their primary obstacle. Overall, a lack of opportunity appears to be affecting all groups, including those living in urban areas and hosting communities. Given the difficult labor market from the demand side, policies increasing labor supply alone are not necessarily going to increase employment.



Figure 54: Reasons for not looking for jobs



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Women face many of the same challenges as men but also higher childcare and household responsibilities. 39 percent of women in camps and 43 percent in urban settlements reported pregnancy, childcare and household responsibilities as the most important reason for staying outside the labor force (Figure 54). Overall, women in camps spend 32 hours each on childcare and household chores per week (Figure 55). In comparison, male refugees in camps

only spend 18 hours on childcare, almost half the time as women. In urban areas, the difference is even stronger. After controlling for demographics, location, networks and mental health, there is a significantly negative relationship between hours spent on childcare and employment albeit small in magnitude – each hour spent on childcare reduces the likelihood of being employed by 0.1 percent (Table 6).

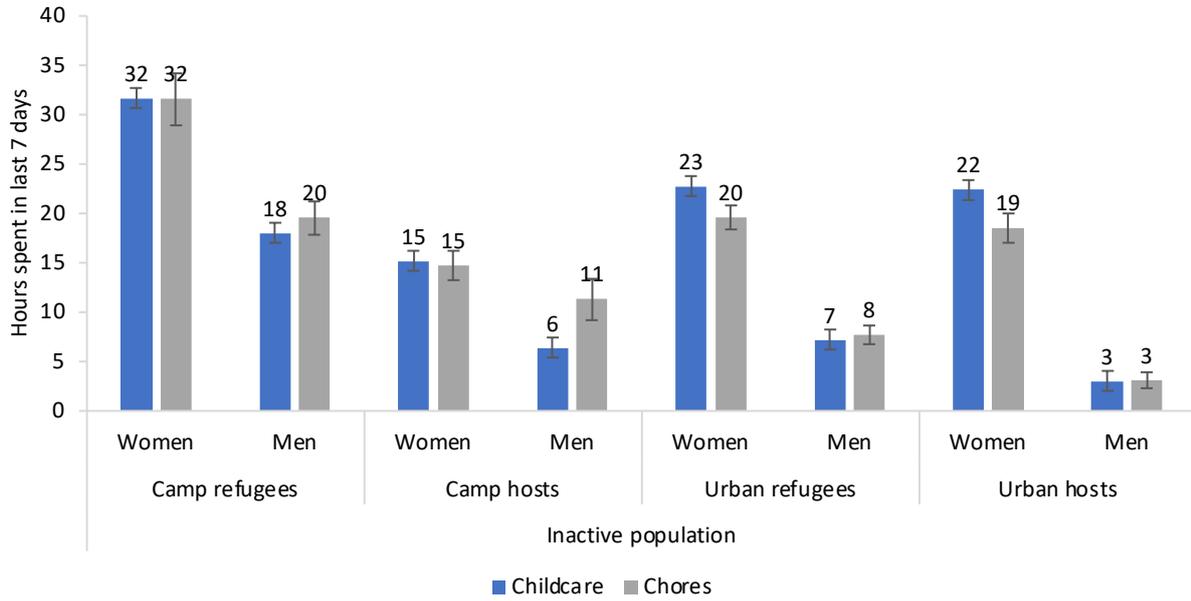
Table 6: Regression - Determinants of employment, hours worked, and earnings for women

| VARIABLES | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) |
|--|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| | LFP | Employed | Log monthly earnings | Log hourly earnings |
| Demographics | | | | |
| Age | 0.037*** (0.008) | 0.026*** (0.005) | 0.271** (0.122) | 0.146** (0.058) |
| Age squared | -0.000*** (0.000) | -0.000*** (0.000) | -0.003** (0.001) | -0.002*** (0.001) |
| Is married | -0.066** (0.030) | -0.088*** (0.024) | -1.576*** (0.543) | -0.642** (0.280) |
| Educational attainment | | | | |
| Primary | -0.005 (0.036) | 0.014 (0.025) | 0.049 (0.487) | -0.260 (0.256) |
| Secondary | -0.042 (0.043) | 0.002 (0.032) | -0.765 (0.696) | -0.603* (0.355) |
| Tertiary | 0.070 (0.087) | 0.179** (0.083) | 0.644 (0.606) | 0.159 (0.331) |
| Childcare | | | | |
| Hours spent on childcare | -0.002*** (0.000) | -0.001*** (0.000) | -0.002 (0.008) | -0.003 (-0.005) |
| Controls | | | | |
| Has worked before displacement | 0.068 (0.067) | 0.130** (0.063) | 0.847 (0.854) | 0.372 (0.442) |
| Length of stay (years) | 0.004 (0.008) | 0.015*** (0.005) | 0.038 (0.095) | 0.046 (0.050) |
| Length of stay (years) squared | -0.000 (0.000) | -0.000*** (0.000) | 0.000 (0.002) | -0.000 (0.001) |
| Is a single mother | 0.094** (0.041) | 0.093*** (0.031) | 0.092 (0.400) | 0.024 (0.205) |
| Lives in a nuclear family | -0.009 (0.045) | -0.003 (0.036) | 0.252 (0.691) | 0.126 (0.346) |
| Lives in a mixed adult household with children | -0.007 (0.037) | -0.020 (0.031) | -0.222 (0.411) | -0.138 (0.222) |
| Possesses a refugee ID card | 0.046* (0.027) | 0.019 (0.021) | 0.618 (0.509) | 0.408 (0.270) |
| Possesses a Movement pass | 0.362*** (0.078) | 0.336*** (0.079) | -0.029 (1.078) | 0.001 (0.488) |
| Has Kenyan friends | 0.032 (0.032) | -0.005 (0.024) | 0.424 (0.523) | 0.028 (0.272) |
| Has refugee friends from different countries | 0.032 (0.032) | -0.005 (0.024) | 0.424 (0.523) | 0.028 (0.272) |
| Kenya feels like home (10 on likert) | -0.130*** (0.025) | -0.071*** (0.021) | 0.318 (0.447) | 0.132 (0.212) |
| PHQ-8 (depression indicator) | 0.007*** (0.002) | 0.002 (0.002) | -0.105*** (0.037) | -0.039** (0.019) |
| Constant | -0.453*** (0.157) | -0.501*** (0.102) | 1.602 (2.789) | 0.128 (1.321) |
| Country of origin FE | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Stratum FE | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| R-squared | 0.166 | 0.243 | 0.256 | 0.215 |
| Observations | 2787 | 2787 | 738 | 735 |

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: Regression results are weighted using survey weights. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

Figure 55: Hours spent on childcare and household chores



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.



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05

(Dis-)enablers to Sustaining Self-Reliance and Resilience

(Dis-)enablers to Sustaining Self-Reliance and Resilience

5.1 Social cohesion

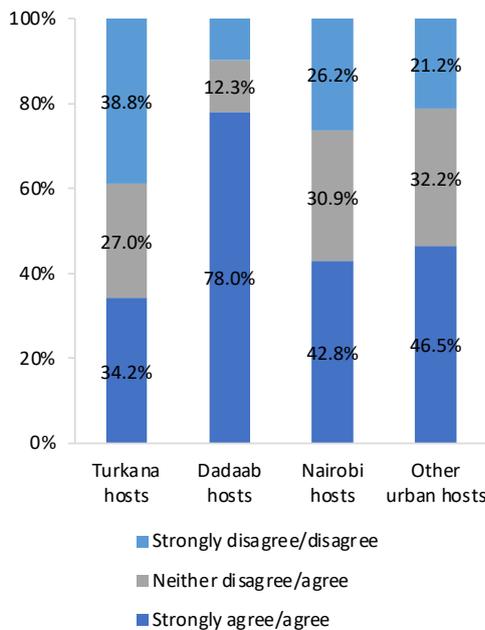
Social cohesion, defined as "the degree to which bonds exist within a community or society, fostering trust among unfamiliar individuals, a willingness to collaborate, and faith in institutions" (De Berry and Roberts 2018; Barron et al. 2023) may enhance integration efforts and provide a mutually enabling environment for both refugees and hosts. This sub-section therefore focuses on trust and safety as components of social cohesion given its potential to enable or limit self-reliance and resilience.

Trust perceptions are low in Turkana County including for hosts towards refugees, refugees towards hosts and even among refugees. Only slightly over a third of Turkana hosts view refugees as trustworthy. Similarly, only a small proportion of refugees in Turkana County

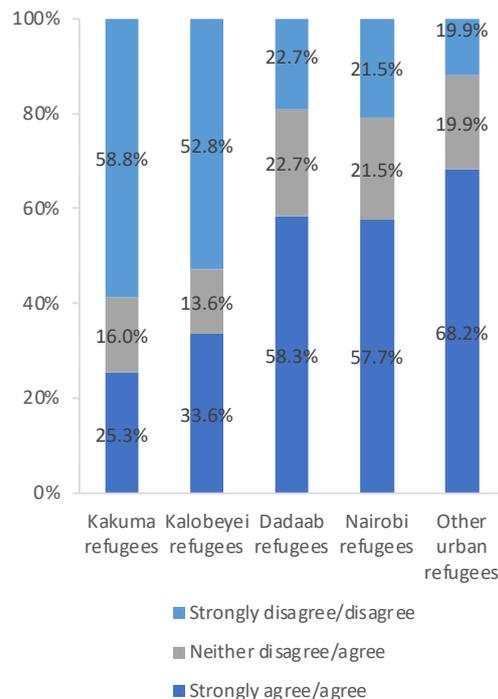
(25 percent in Kakuma and 34 percent in Kalobeyei) view hosts as trustworthy. By contrast, in Garissa County, 80 percent of hosts around Dadaab camp reported feeling that refugees are generally trustworthy. Among refugees, over half in urban areas and the Dadaab camp expressed strong trust in hosts, as well as among refugees from different tribes or clans (Figure 56, Figure 57). Even after controlling for other factors, location remains associated with trust – Dadaab and urban hosts demonstrate higher levels of trust in refugees compared to their counterparts in Turkana. These findings are in line with those of Betts et al. (2022), who observes that urban hosts in East Africa are more likely to perceive refugees as friendly or trustworthy.

Figure 56: Perception of trust towards out-group

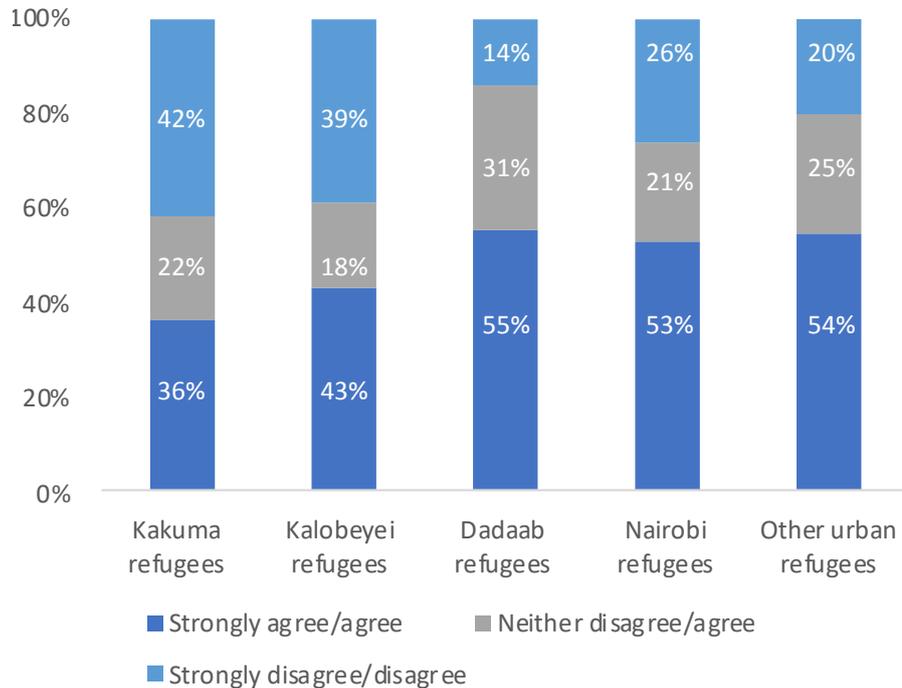
a. Refugees are trustworthy (hosts' perceptions)



b. Hosts are trustworthy (refugees' perceptions)



c. Refugees from different ethnic groups are trustworthy (refugees' perceptions)



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Besides location, social networks and perceived social support are positively associated with higher perceptions of trust towards individuals from groups different from one's own (out-groups). Regression analysis (Table 7) suggests that all else being equal, having more friends from the out-group is significantly associated with higher trust in members of the out-group. Specifically, among refugees, having more Kenyan friends is associated with higher perception of trustworthiness of hosts. Similarly, for hosts, having more refugee friends enhances their trust in refugees. Across all groups, individuals with a higher self-reported social support are more likely to report higher perceptions of trust. Active membership in associations and community groups is also associated with higher trust of refugees towards hosts and refugees of different origin. However, among hosts, active membership in a few associations and community groups is associated with lower trust in refugees. Overall, the results are largely consistent with research in displacement contexts which highlights social networks and group memberships as fundamental elements of a cohesive and collaborative community and

finds them positively associated with trust (Fajth et al. 2019; El-Bialy et al. 2023).

Employment, poverty status and education level are also associated with trust perceptions among refugees (Table 7). Being employed and having higher education are associated with decreased trust in both neighbors and fellow refugees, possibly suggesting that limited opportunities for refugees creates a situation where the few that get opportunities may see others as a threat. Similarly, low household welfare, proxied by multidimensional poverty, is associated with lower trust in both neighbors and fellow refugees even among those of the same tribe. On the other hand, being married is associated with higher trust in hosts and refugees of different tribes compared to being unmarried or divorced. Possible hypotheses for the association between marital status and trust in out-group could be that individuals that are married are predisposed to trust to begin with, being married may create opportunities to foster trust and/or individuals may be married to spouses from a different group, which increases interaction with out-groups and possibly fosters feeling of trust.

Table 7: Factors correlated with perceptions of trust

| | Hosts trusting neighbors | Hosts trusting refugees | Refugees trusting neighbors | Refugees trusting hosts | Refugees trusting refugees from different tribes | Refugees trusting refugees from same tribes |
|--|--------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|--|---|
| Employment status | 0.088 | -0.059 | -0.362*** | -0.098 | -0.195* | -0.247** |
| Age | 0.009 | 0.004 | 0.000 | -0.002 | 0.005 | 0.003 |
| Gender (female_dummy) | 0.053 | -0.060 | -0.083 | -0.064 | -0.091 | -0.011 |
| Marital status (married_dummy) | -0.108 | -0.109 | 0.097 | 0.305*** | 0.198** | 0.066 |
| Multidimensional poverty | -0.530* | -0.020 | -0.591*** | -0.076 | -0.300** | -0.591*** |
| Receipt of assistance | -0.035 | -0.120 | -0.190 | -0.135 | -0.508*** | -0.170 |
| Migration experience (Ref: <2 yrs) | | | | | | |
| Migration experience (3-5 yrs) | | | 0.003 | -0.024 | -0.628 | 0.095 |
| Migration experience (6-10 yrs) | | | 0.334 | 0.034 | -0.307 | 0.353 |
| Migration experience (10+ yrs) | | | 0.599 | 0.220 | -0.066 | 0.518 |
| Secondary education or higher | 0.132 | -0.070 | -0.185 | -0.157 | -0.177* | -0.341*** |
| Location (Ref: Turkana Refugees) | | | | | | |
| Dadaab Refugees | | | 0.538*** | 1.511*** | 0.809*** | 0.358*** |
| Nairobi Refugees | | | 0.337 | 1.570*** | 0.351* | 0.836*** |
| Other Urban Refugees | | | 0.554** | 1.832*** | 0.374* | 0.667*** |
| Location (Ref: Turkana Hosts) | | | | | | |
| Dadaab Hosts | 0.363* | 2.179*** | | | | |
| Nairobi Hosts | -1.792*** | 0.543** | | | | |
| Other Urban Hosts | -0.478 | 0.668*** | | | | |
| Social Network | | | | | | |
| % of refugee friends (>50%) | 0.267 | 0.673*** | | | | |
| % of Kenyan friends (>50%) | | | -0.197* | 0.204* | 0.056 | -0.321*** |
| % of refugee friends from the same country (>50%) | | | 0.090 | -0.180* | -0.183* | 0.215** |
| % of refugee friends from different country (>50%) | | | -0.185 | -0.101 | 0.186 | -0.137 |
| % of refugee friends from different tribe (>50%) | | | 0.030 | 0.115 | 0.164 | 0.074 |
| Membership to groups (Ref: None) | | | | | | |
| Active membership (1 to 3 groups) | -0.240 | -0.353*** | 0.153 | 0.018 | 0.124 | 0.202* |
| Active membership (4 to 6 groups) | -0.707 | 0.708 | 1.241*** | 0.921** | 1.052*** | 0.794** |
| Active membership (7 or more groups) | 0.527 | 0.548 | 0.846 | 2.068*** | 1.448*** | 1.234*** |
| Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (Ref: Low support) | | | | | | |
| Moderate support | 0.193 | 0.263 | 0.442*** | 0.395*** | 0.290** | 0.509*** |
| High support | 0.723** | 0.861*** | 1.249*** | 0.934*** | 0.845*** | 1.305*** |
| Observations | 3,023 | 3,010 | 4,552 | 4,551 | 4,550 | 4,551 |

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: The multidimensional scale of perceived social support (MSPSS) score is derived from the summation of all items in the MSPSS (from special person, family, friends); Low support" corresponds to MSPSS scores ranging from 0 to 2.99. "Moderate support" corresponds to MSPSS scores ranging from 3 to 5. "High support" corresponds to MSPSS scores ranging from 5.01 to 7; Migration experience refers to length of stay in Kenya; Regression results are weighted using survey weights; *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1



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Perceptions of safety are low in Turkana County as well as in Nairobi. While across all locations a majority of individuals feel safe during the day, perceived nighttime safety is low particularly in Turkana and Nairobi (Figure 68). More than 7 out of 10 refugees in Turkana County do not feel safe walking at night compared to 3 out of 10 refugees in Garissa County. Hosts in Dadaab report highest safety perceptions with more than 6 out of 10 feeling safe walking even during the night. All else being equal, women are more likely to feel unsafe walking alone at night (Table 22). The perception of crime is also higher among refugees in Turkana and Nairobi hosts with over half saying crimes are common in their respective neighborhoods (Figure 70). This heightened perception of crime may be due to a

combination of factors including socioeconomic challenges, resource scarcity and strained communal relations in these areas.

Socialization and views on integration

For child refugees, having Kenyan friends, feeling safe at school, and being treated fairly by adults at school is significantly associated with their sense of belonging in Kenya (Table 8). Similarly, for adult refugees, being part of community groups and feeling supported by others is positively associated with a sense of belonging. The results suggest that refugees tend to feel more at home when they have support networks in place and underscores the importance of social connections in fostering a sense of belonging, regardless of the physical location (Table 9).

Table 8: Regression on correlates of feeling like Kenya is home (refugee children)

| | Kenya feels like home (Children) |
|--|----------------------------------|
| Multidimensional poverty | -0.578* |
| Care giver's employment status | 0.042 |
| Gender | 0.295 |
| Age | -0.031 |
| Location (Ref: Dadaab Refugees) | |
| Kakuma Refugees | -0.570 |
| Kalobeyei Refugees | -0.269 |
| Number of Kenyan friends (Ref: None) | |
| Number of Kenyan friends (One) | 0.103 |
| Number of Kenyan friends (2-5) | -0.057 |
| Number of Kenyan friends (>5) | 0.931** |
| Number of refugees friends from different country (Ref: None) | |
| Refugees' friends from different country (One) | -0.123 |
| Refugees' friends from different country (2-5) | -0.039 |
| Refugees' friends from different country (>5) | -0.373 |
| Feel safe at school | 0.954*** |
| Teachers support me when I need them | -0.062 |
| Adults at my school treat students fairly | 0.614*** |
| Observations | 443 |

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: Regression results are weighted using survey weights; *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0$; Feel safe at school, Teachers support me when I need them and Adults at my school treat students fairly are dummy variables (1=Strongly agree/agree, 0=Strongly disagree/disagree).

Table 9: Regression on correlates of feeling like Kenya is home (refugee adults)

| | Kenya feels like home (Adult) |
|--|-------------------------------|
| Employment status | 0.048 |
| Age | -0.007 |
| Gender | 0.113 |
| Marital status (married_dummy) | -0.123 |
| Poverty status (multidimensional) | -0.211* |
| Receipt of assistance | -0.030 |
| Migration experience (Ref: <2 yrs) | |
| Migration experience (3-5 yrs) | 0.311 |
| Migration experience (6-10 yrs) | 0.246 |
| Migration experience (10+ yrs) | 0.669 |
| Secondary education or higher | -0.093 |
| % of friends that are Kenyan (>50%) | 0.206* |
| Membership in groups (Ref: None) | |
| Active membership (1 to 3 groups) | 0.037 |
| Active membership (4 to 6 groups) | 1.101*** |
| Active membership (7 or more groups) | 1.906*** |
| Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (Ref: Low support) | |
| Moderate support | 0.742*** |
| High support | 1.405*** |
| Location (Ref: Turkana Refugees) | |
| Dadaab Refugees | 0.887*** |
| Nairobi Refugees | 0.885*** |
| Other Urban Refugees | 1.247*** |
| Observations | 5,514 |

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: Regression results are weighted using survey weights; The multidimensional scale of social support (MSPSS) score is derived from the summation of all items in the MSPSS (from special person, family, friends); Low support" corresponds to MSPSS scores ranging from 0 to 2.99. "Moderate support" corresponds to MSPSS scores ranging from 3 to 5. "High support" corresponds to MSPSS scores ranging from 5.01 to 7; Migration experience refers to length of stay in Kenya; *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Location, membership in groups and social networks are also associated with adult's attitudes towards children socializing with out-groups. Generally, respondents in Dadaab and urban areas express greater comfort with children socializing with the out-group community (Figure 69). Regression analysis (Table 23) reveals that for hosts, besides location, some memberships in social groups and having refugee friends increases the likelihood of feeling comfortable with children socializing with refugee children. The results point to the potential role of contact and interactions in building social cohesion (Hewstone 2015). Refugees who have more friends from the same country tend to have more positive views about their children associating with host children. Conversely, those who have more friends from different countries tend

to have less positive views on this matter.

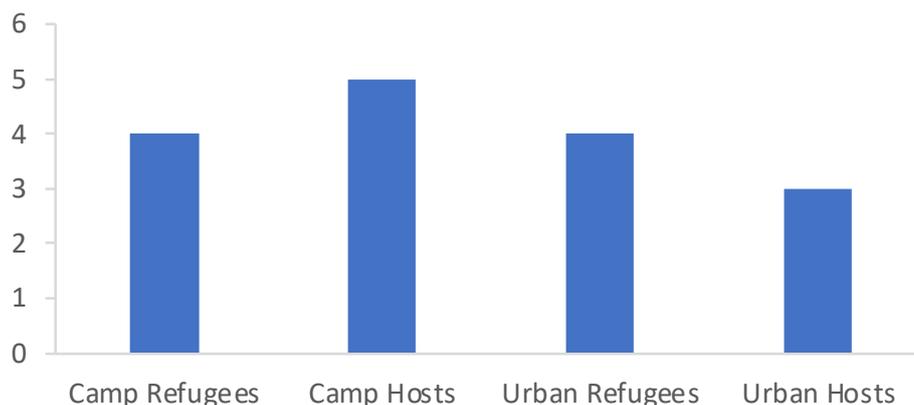
Preferences for integration are strong among refugee children. Most refugee children would prefer to attend a mixed school (refugees and hosts), one of many elements of integration. The preference is associated with both the caregiver's education level and their connections within the Kenyan community. Children whose caregivers have higher education levels are more likely to prefer mixed schools compared to those with only primary education or no formal education. Having at least one Kenyan friend increases the likelihood of preferring mixed schools. These findings underscore the importance of both caregiver education and social networks in shaping school preferences for children (Table 24).

5.2 Socioeconomic and environmental shocks

Location matters more than host/refugee status in terms of having experienced a shock and in terms of the type of shock. Refugees and hosts in camp areas experience nearly twice as many shocks as those living in urban contexts. The difference in the kind of shocks experienced among camp and urban respondents show that camp locations are more susceptible to the environment. Floods, droughts, landslides, pests, weeds, livestock disease, and water-borne disease outbreaks, are all more common in camps than in urban locations. The difference between urban and camp areas is particularly stark in the experience of floods or droughts – about 50 percent and around 70 percent of camp

respondents reporting having experienced a flood and drought, respectively, compared to less than 20 percent of urban respondents having experienced a flood and less than 20 percent a drought. This can be explained by the fact that camps are in arid and semi-arid regions. On the other hand, respondents in urban areas report having experienced theft, unemployment, and loss of land/rental property at a higher rate than camp locations. Although overall, in camp areas, there is no statistically significant difference between refugees and hosts in the aggregate number of shocks, the type differs. Camp hosts are more affected by pests, weeds, and livestock disease, compared to camp refugees.

Figure 57: Median number of shocks experienced across locations



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

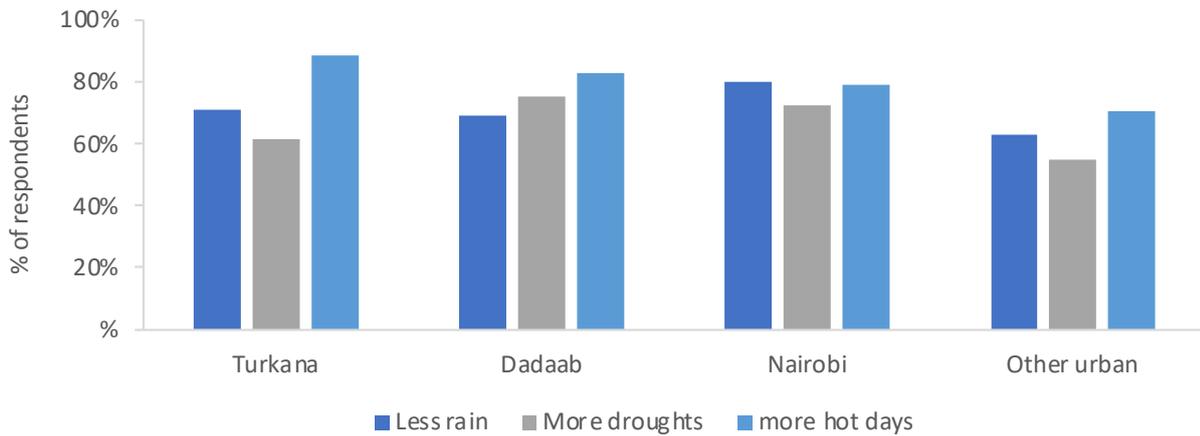
Notes: Shocks include excessive rains/flooding, Drought, Landslides/erosion, Crop disease, Weeds affecting crops, Livestock disease, Human disease from contaminated water, Theft or destruction of assets, Delay in food assistance/aid, increase in food prices, loss of land/rental property, Loss of employment, Death of household member.

Resilience to shocks is low. Food inflation is the most common type of shock experienced with over 90 percent of all respondents reporting facing high food prices.

The most common strategy used to cope with increased food prices was reducing food consumption (more than a third of respondents in all locations), followed by reducing non-essential expenses. Using savings was reported more frequently by urban respondents than camp respondents, with 30 percent and 18 percent of camp refugees and hosts respondents reporting using this strategy, while 39 percent and 47 percent of urban refugees and hosts used their savings. For other shocks (Table 25 in Annex), the most

reported coping strategy across shocks was doing nothing followed by using savings (Table 26 in Annex). There is thus scope to strengthen resilience to shocks particularly in camp areas to ensure access to diversified coping strategies.

Additionally, across all locations, individuals share the perception that the weather has become hotter and drier. Approximately 73.4 percent of individuals say there is less rain, 66.9 percent say there are more droughts, 80.5 percent report more hot days. Planting trees is a common strategy across locations in response to hotter/drier weather, although reducing the number of livestock is common in Garissa.

Figure 58: Perceptions of weather variability within the preceding five years

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

5.3 Psychosocial wellbeing

Previous research reports that depression and anxiety are particularly common mental challenges among refugees, often related to the loss of loved ones, homes, jobs, social connections, and a sense of hope for the future.⁵⁰ The K-LSRH explores self-reported experiences that may indicate symptoms of depression and anxiety (Box 4). Overall, refugees are more likely to experience symptoms of depression than hosts across all surveyed locations except in Dadaab. These results are consistent with the few existing studies on psychosocial wellbeing among refugees in East Africa. Pozuelo et al. (2023) finds higher prevalence of elevated

depressive symptoms among refugees compared to the host population. Similarly, Klabbers et al. (2022) reported higher rates of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), depression, anxiety, and lack of social support among refugees and asylum seekers compared to nationals in Nakivale refugee settlement, Uganda. Refugees are also more likely to show symptoms of anxiety. Urban refugees, particularly in Nairobi, are more likely to show symptoms of moderate/severe anxiety than camp-based refugees (Figure 59) which may reflect the precarious status refugees have outside camps.

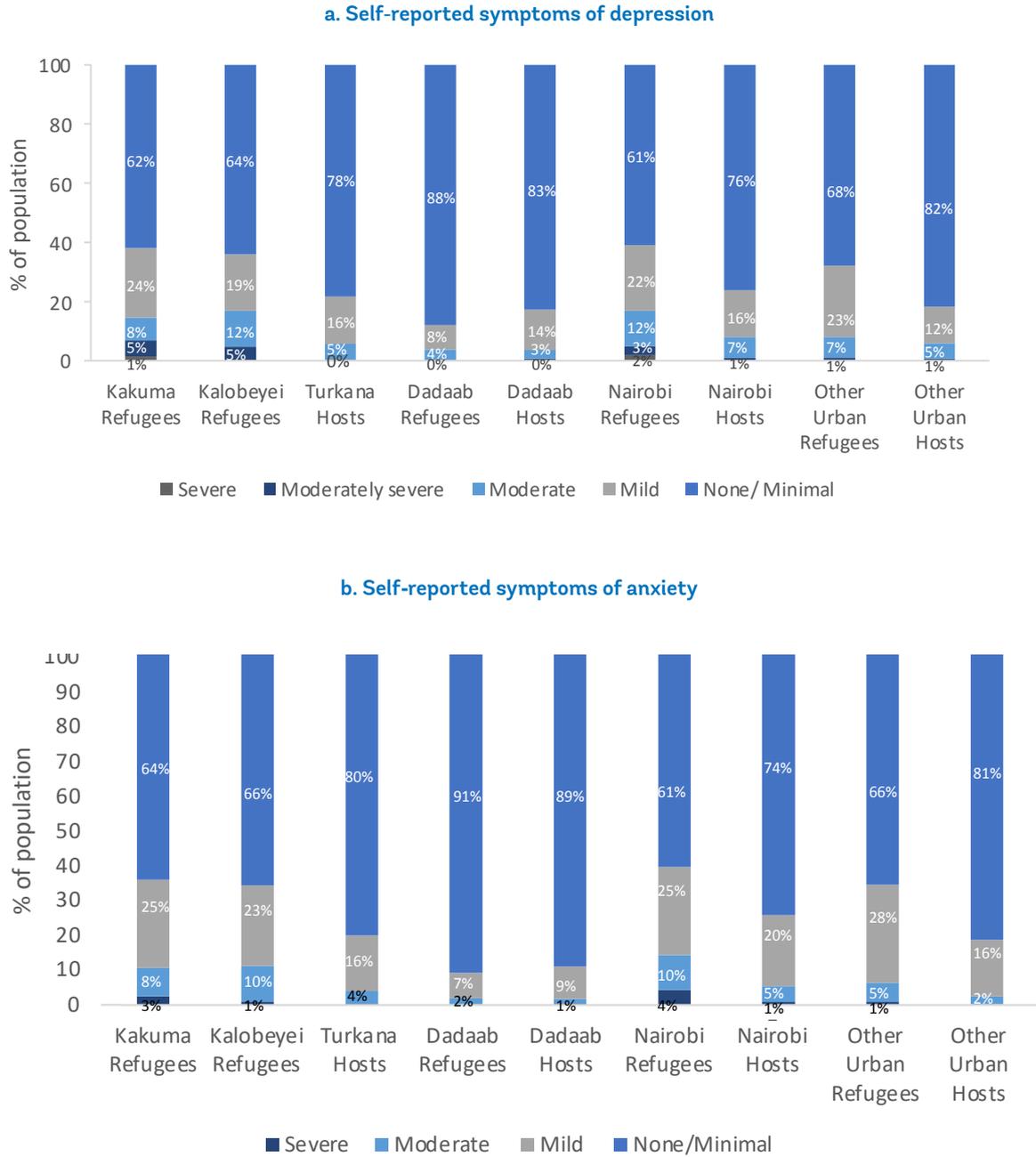
Box 4: Measuring psychosocial wellbeing

The K-LSRH uses the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-8) for screening symptoms of depression. The PHQ-8 is a self-reported measure used to screen depression symptoms and it is not a diagnostic tool. The scale includes eight questions with overall scores ranging from 0 to 24, scores of 0-4 indicating no symptoms of depression, 5-9 = mild, 10-14 = moderate, 15-19 = moderately severe and ≥ 20 = severe symptoms of depression (Kroenke et al. 2001). Anxiety is screened by the Generalized Anxiety Disorder (GAD-7) scale which is not a diagnostic tool. It is made up of seven questions each with responses ranging from 0-3. Scores of 5, 10 and 15 are taken as the cut-off points for mild, moderate, and severe prevalence of anxiety symptoms, respectively (Spitzer et al. 2006).

⁵⁰ See for example Gaynor (2020).



Figure 59: Self-reported experiences that may indicate symptoms of depression and anxiety across



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Marital status, food insecurity and household size are some of the factors associated with psychological wellbeing. Regression analysis (Table 10) suggests that all else being equal, individuals who are divorced, widowed, or married report higher likelihood of depression and anxiety symptoms compared to those who have never been married. Individuals facing higher food insecurity also show higher prevalence of symptoms of distress when controlling for other factors. Additionally, living in urban areas and being from South Sudan, DR Congo, and Ethiopia is associated with higher self-reported depression and anxiety symptoms compared to being from Somalia. Lower reported self-rates of distress among Somali refugees may be linked to cultural and contextual factors

such as their concentration in an area where they share closer cultural ties with the host population in Garissa County or, alternatively, a particular stigmatization related to reporting symptoms of psychological distress.⁶¹ On the other hand, being a host rather than a refugee and better living conditions, as proxied by number of habitable rooms per household member, appears to be linked with lower depression and anxiety symptoms. It is important to note that since psychological wellbeing outcomes are based on self-reported symptoms, results may be biased due to potential stigma and unobserved contextual factors. Understanding the cultural context around perceptions of psychological wellbeing is an avenue where qualitative research can provide further insights.

Table 10: Factors correlated with symptoms of depression or anxiety.

| Variables | Symptoms of depression or anxiety |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| Age | 0.002 |
| Female | 0.044 |
| Is household head | 0.068 |
| Ever attended school | -0.036 |
| Employed | -0.073 |
| Marital status (Ref: Never married) | |
| Divorced/Separated | 0.460*** |
| Widow | 0.288** |
| Married/Couple | 0.156*** |
| Urban | 0.228*** |
| Host | -0.237*** |
| Country of origin (Ref: Somalia) | |
| South Sudan | 0.392*** |
| DR Congo | 0.498*** |
| Ethiopia | 0.492*** |
| Others | 0.293*** |
| Female headed household | 0.032 |
| Household Size | -0.028*** |
| Number of habitable rooms per household member | -0.217*** |
| Food insecurity index | 1.090*** |
| Observations | 8,570 |

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$; The outcome variable is based on the GAD-7 score and PHQ-8 score using Principal Component Analysis. Regression results are weighted using survey weights. *Kenya omitted as country of origin since it fully overlaps with the host community indicator.

⁶¹ Pozuelo et al. (2023) also find that refugees from Somalia were less likely to report depression symptoms compared to those from DR Congo and South Sudan.



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06

Suggestions for Policy Direction

Suggestions for Policy Direction

The Kenya Longitudinal Socioeconomic Study of Refugees and Host Communities (K-LSRH) is a pioneering survey offering comparable data on refugees and hosts in Kenya. The first wave of the panel was conducted between June 2022 and 2023, covering refugees in Kakuma Refugee Camp, Dadaab Refugee Complex, Kalobeyei Integrated Settlement, as well as urban refugees in Nairobi, Mombasa, and Nakuru. It focused on household, individual, and children's outcomes, as well as understudied themes such as psychosocial wellbeing and trust among hosts and refugees. This survey can be informative for policy including Kenya's shift from refugee camps to integrated settlements.

Despite policy advancements, refugees still face significant challenges, such as restricted movement and limited employment opportunities. Key findings highlight reliance on humanitarian assistance, unmet basic needs, barriers to education and employment, and greater vulnerability among camp refugees and hosts. Below we provide suggested policy directions underscoring priorities in the short run (movement to where opportunities are available); factors that will help ease the transition (place-based development) and investments that are essential for sustained self-reliance and resilience (such as education and psychosocial wellbeing).

6.1 Short run: Unlocking access to socioeconomic opportunities through movement and complementary measures

Easing restrictions on the right to work and movement is crucial for enabling refugees to achieve a dignified life. Refugees without work and movement passes face significant barriers to economic activities. Furthermore, access to formal finance is nearly nonexistent, with 89 percent of refugees lacking a bank account and less than 1 percent having a formal loan. Streamlining procedures for accessing work permits, granting freedom of movement, ensuring refugee IDs are accepted for government and private sector, facilitating access to banking and phone registration will allow refugees to participate in the economy

more freely. This approach can help refugees transition towards self-reliance and expand economic opportunities, ultimately leading to reduced hosting costs in the long run (World Bank and UNHCR forthcoming). In Uganda, allowing refugees to work and move freely is estimated to lower the cost of assistance by an estimated US\$225 million annually (Atamanov, Hoogeveen and Reese 2024). In Chad, the policy of inclusion and dispersion caters for 54 percent of the cost of basic needs of refugees (Coulibaly, Hoogeveen and Savadogo 2024).

Upskilling and job search support are essential for empowering refugees, equipping them with the education and skills necessary for successful integration into host communities. Many refugees, especially those who were children when displaced, have experienced interrupted education, and lack practical skills upon arrival in Kenya. There is a strong demand for education among refugees, with a significant portion of the potential labor force currently enrolled in school and expressing a need for technical and vocational skills to secure employment. Supporting refugees in their job search, particularly those with limited connections, is vital. Research into informal job acquisition networks could provide valuable insights for policy aimed at improving labor market outcomes for refugees. By focusing on both upskilling and job search assistance, Kenya can help refugees build pathways to economic self-sufficiency and successful integration.

Demand-side solutions, including self-employment, are crucial for addressing job scarcity in refugee camps, despite movement restrictions and limited resources. Supporting microbusinesses and establishing market linkages beyond the camps can enhance job opportunities. Both refugees and host communities consistently cite the scarcity of jobs as a major obstacle to employment, particularly within the camps. Efforts should focus on creating jobs that benefit both refugees and hosts, exploring strategies to facilitate self-employment while addressing barriers such as limited access to finance. Current self-employment ventures tend to be small-scale and informal,

and this pathway is likely to be a realistic pathway for some population segments, both within refugee and host communities. Parallel efforts can be pursued for the generation of formal employment although such initiatives may be more suitable for urban settings. Policy interventions should aim not only to transition the unemployed into self-employment but also to scale ventures and generate more jobs within the labor market.

Targeted policies for women, such as expanding childcare and early childhood development services, can relieve family responsibilities and enable women to participate in the labor market while nurturing the skills of future generations. Many refugee women are not looking for work due to childcare, household, and other family responsibilities. Among those actively seeking work, 63 percent are pursuing self-employment opportunities, which offer flexibility to balance work and childcare responsibilities from home. Despite a demand for daycare services, few are available, leading women to rely on informal community arrangements, which can be difficult for refugees who are not well-connected. Both government and private sectors have an opportunity to enhance access to affordable childcare by increasing the availability of daycare centers, workplace nurseries, or home-based childminders. This can ease the burden of combining work with childcare responsibilities and enhance women's participation in the labor market.

Integrative initiatives offer promising pathways for increased youth engagement in the labor market by providing refugees with essential skills, resilience, capital, and networking opportunities. This includes various strategies that, after communication campaigns and an intake process, provide youth with labor market information and counseling to help them choose between different types of support, in particular between entrepreneurship, for which they would receive financing support, and wage employment, for which they would receive skills training and job search support (World Bank 2023d).

6.2 Medium-term: Easing the transition with place-based development

Addressing spatial inequalities

Refugee camps and settlements in Kenya, where most refugees live, are in under-developed arid and semi-

arid regions with limited access to infrastructure and services and susceptibility to shocks. Turkana and Garissa counties record some of the highest poverty rates in the country with little progress in poverty reduction. The host communities tend to face high levels of poverty, with these communities also in need of assistance. For example, education, access to water and electricity lag non-arid counties. Food insecurity is also high. While allowing greater mobility towards areas with greater economic opportunities (as outlined in 6.1) can help refugees move to where opportunities are and alleviate pressure on hosting areas, the lagging levels of welfare in refugee hosting counties also suggest scope for place-based policies. Thus, improving welfare of refugees and hosts should be part of a broader strategy to close Kenya's spatial disparities. Implementing place-based development approaches alongside regional development policies can benefit both refugees and host communities. These interventions target specific geographic areas, addressing local challenges while leveraging local assets and community participation. Investments in refugee-hosting locations should benefit both refugees and hosts, fostering social cohesion by directing development resources to these areas. Evidence suggests that allocating resources to benefit nearby communities can mitigate potential backlash against refugees and enhance social cohesion (Zhou et al. 2023). The Kenya Development Response to Displacement Impacts Project (KDRDIP) exemplifies a place-based initiative that supports both refugees and host communities. It employs community-driven approaches by involving local stakeholders in planning and decision-making, ensuring interventions meet specific needs (World Bank 2017).

Strengthening household socioeconomic resilience to shocks

Strengthening household resilience to shocks is a priority for both hosts and refugees in lagging areas. Shock-responsive social protection remains an important strategy to provide immediate relief during crises and prevent vulnerable households from falling deeper into poverty. The data shows that a large share of vulnerable hosts miss out on assistance, and while nearly all camp-based refugees receive assistance, welfare levels are still poor. Location-specific social protection strategies, such as those seen in the Hunger Safety Net Program (HSNP), can enable the most vulnerable refugees and hosts to better cope with shocks and thrive, fostering social cohesion and integration. Other strategies include

livelihood diversification, supporting the development of multiple income streams through vocational training, entrepreneurship programs, and access to microfinance, as well as facilitating access to banking services, savings accounts, and microloans to build financial resilience and cope with economic shocks. To the extent that assistance is necessary while households progress towards self-reliance and resilience, interventions can focus on improving the allocation of aid, especially food aid, including targeting, the amount/quantity and quality.

6.3 Sustaining self-reliance and resilience in the long run

Education as a cornerstone

Addressing barriers to education access is essential for improving and sustaining the prospects of both refugee children and host communities. Over 80 percent of children of primary school age in Kakuma/Kalobeyei and urban areas are enrolled in school, but few children attend school among the Turkana host community and in Dadaab due to cost barriers. Secondary school enrollment is even lower. Immediate integration of refugee children into educational programs upon arrival in Kenya is vital to prevent the loss of valuable education years. Key strategies to enhance children's educational attainment include tackling cost and language barriers, offering accelerated and adult education for older learners, and implementing targeted interventions for unenrolled children with no prior schooling experience. Additionally, additional resources are needed in national education systems to smoothly integrate newcomers and enhance the quantity and quality of schools in affected areas.

Incorporating psychosocial wellbeing in health services and programming

Healthcare services tailored to refugees' unique needs are crucial. As highlighted in Chapter 5, refugees, particularly those in camp areas, often experience higher rates of depression symptoms compared to hosts and their urban counterparts. Mental health support, ensuring language, cultural sensitivity, and gender responsiveness among healthcare providers, and establishing efficient coordination and referral mechanisms could help meet refugees' healthcare needs and support their overall wellbeing and integration into host communities.

6.4 Continuing the implementation of a progressive policy and hosting framework for refugees

While the country has made significant strides towards a policy framework oriented towards refugee self-reliance, addressing bottlenecks in implementation is necessary. Hosting countries and the international community have a shared responsibility in enabling and empowering refugees to achieve self-reliance and resilience. Without the freedom to earn a livelihood or relocate to areas with better opportunities, critical investments in basic services and in a conducive policy framework, the goal of fostering self-reliance and resilience will remain unattainable. In this regard, Kenya's intended transformation of camps into integrated settlements through the Shirika plan holds potential for improved socioeconomic inclusion of refugees while also improving the welfare of hosting communities. To ensure effectiveness, national and sub-national laws and policies should not only be harmonized but also consistently applied across spheres of government. This approach will foster a cohesive legal environment. In this regard, establishing a robust monitoring and evaluation framework is crucial. It will enable the identification and documentation of lessons learned, thereby supporting continuous improvement. For instance, good subnational practices offer opportunities for scaling up to national level. One example is the municipality plan in Turkana County, which aims to provide integrated services and infrastructure to both refugees and host communities. Improved cooperation and coordination among humanitarian agencies, development partners and line ministries, are essential, including ensuring predictable support and resource streams are channeled in municipality budgets for integrated service provision.

More, better, and timely availability of comparable data on refugees and host communities is key to monitor and assess progress. Continued efforts by the government, humanitarian agencies, and development partners to improve the coverage, accuracy, reliability, quality, and comparability of data will provide the necessary analytical foundation for informed policy decisions.

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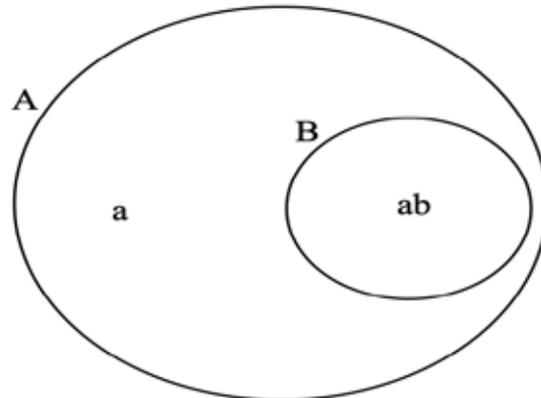
Annexes

Annex 1: Survey Sampling

Refugees were sampled from two frames, the UNHCR registration database proGres and the Socioeconomic Surveys (SES) conducted in Kakuma, Kalobeyei and Nairobi. The UNHCR registration database proGres holds information on phone numbers and the approximate location of all refugee families registered with UNHCR Kenya and therefore represents a perfect sampling frame. The second frame consists of the samples of the Kalobeyei SES (2018), Kakuma Refugee Camp SES (2019) and Urban SES in Nairobi (2020-21). It holds rich socioeconomic baseline

data and is a subset of the first, as depicted in Figure 62.⁵² In the first stage, a subsample $\Lambda(PG)_s$ of proGres families is drawn from the entire proGres frame using implicit stratification by sub-county and nationality.⁵³ In the second stage, an independent subsample $\Lambda(SES)_s$ is drawn from the SES frame for each of the strata with the existing SES. Households who have arrived in Kenya before the SES, represent the overlap group which has a positive probability of being selected into the sample through both the SES frame and through proGres directly. For this subset of households, weights are adjusted using an overlapping frames correction.

Figure 60: A dual frame design in which frame B (SES) is a subset of frame A (proGres)



Hosts were sampled using a two-step cluster design. The sampling frame of host households consists of communities living near refugees who are potentially impacted by their presence. The host community of camp refugees in Turkana and Dadaab are defined as those living within a 15 km radius of the camp borders, while host communities

of urban refugees are defined as neighborhoods hosting at least 10 percent of proGres families living in each city of the stratum. Sampling follows a two-step clustered design, whereby a set of EAs and replacement EAs is drawn with probability proportional to size (PPS) from the universe of eligible EAs.⁵⁴

⁵² Observations in the SES were originally drawn from proGres, and hence households who were registered in Kenya before the SES had both a chance to be sampled for the SES or for K-LSRH directly. We abstract from the possibility that some households have left Kenya or moved within Kenya since the time of the SES, as we know from the UNHCR registration data that this group is very small (~1%).

⁵³ Note: proGres families are not always the same as households defined in standard surveys. For K-LSRH, a household is defined as a "person or group of people living in the same compound (fenced or unfenced); answerable to the same head and sharing a common source of food/share cooking arrangement." Meanwhile, proGres families refer to the group of people in which refugees are registered to UNHCR. A household can comprise of multiple proGres families, and the selection probability needs to be adjusted accordingly.

⁵⁴ For camp hosts, eligible EAs are located at least partly within the 15 km radius around the camp borders. For urban settings, eligible EAs cover the neighborhoods hosting at least 10 percent of proGres families. These are Kayole, Eastleigh North, and Kasarani in Nairobi, Old Town and Majengo in Mombasa, and Lanet, Shabaab, and Langalanga in Nakuru.

Subsequently, a listing exercise is carried out to eliminate ineligible households.⁵⁵ In the second stage, for each selected EA, 10 households and a list of 5 replacements for the case of non-response is drawn using simple random

sampling. This results in a sample of 2,000 households for the host community of camp refugees and of 1,500 households for the host community of urban refugees (Table 11).⁵⁶

Table 11: Host sample breakdown per stratum

| Strata | Number of EAs | Number of HHs per EA | Total |
|--------------------|---------------|----------------------|--------------|
| Turkana | 75 | 10 | 750 |
| Dadaab | 125 | 10 | 1,250 |
| Greater Nairobi | 75 | 10 | 750 |
| Mombasa and Nakuru | 75 | 10 | 750 |
| Total | | | 3,500 |

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Modules on individual level characteristics, women empowerment and child education were administered to targeted respondents. Most questionnaire modules, in particular those relating to household characteristics or household member level data, were elicited from a knowledgeable household member, the Household Respondent (HR). A separate set of questions on individual level characteristics such as labor force participation or personal opinions, were administered to a randomly selected household member aged 18 or above, the Representative Respondent (RR). In addition, the survey included a module on women's empowerment, administered by trained female enumerators to randomly selected female respondents aged 15 and above. If the RR was a woman, the same

respondent also completed the Woman Empowerment Module; otherwise, a woman aged 15 years and above was selected among the women in the household based on simple random sampling. Finally, a module on child education and aspirations was administered to a cohort of upper primary school children and their main caregivers. One Child Respondent (CR) was randomly selected among 5th-grade students currently attending school of any age up to and including 17 years (to also capture over-age students) in selected households.⁵⁷ The child's main caregiver (CG) was also interviewed to capture parental aspirations and main barriers to education. The Caregiver refers to the household member responsible for making the educational decisions for the child.⁵⁸

⁵⁵ This includes households not living within the boundary of selected EAs and households not providing consent to the listing interview. Households where one member was registered with UNHCR as a refugee or asylum seeker were not interviewed, to rule out overlap with the refugee sampling frame.

⁵⁶ Further details on replacement methodology available upon request.

⁵⁷ This should consider students moving into Grade 5 in July 2021, who should then be in Grade 6 in April 2022 and Grade 7 in January 2023.

⁵⁸ Unlike other modules, the Education Module was only implemented in the Kakuma, Kalobeyei, and Dadaab refugee strata and the Turkana and Dadaab host community strata.

Table 12: Overview of survey respondents, questionnaire modules and sampling approaches

| Respondent | Modules | Sampling |
|------------------------------------|--|--|
| Household Respondent (HR) | Roster data on household members Dwelling characteristics Consumption Food insecurity & assistance Household member labor data Transfers & remittances Household shocks | One knowledgeable respondent in the household. |
| Representative Respondent (RR) | Extensive labor module Savings & credit Migration Displacement & return Social cohesion Health & wellbeing Marriage & fertility Ethnicity & religion Education perceptions for boys and girls Weather variability perceptions | One randomly selected adult (age 18+) |
| Women Empowerment Respondent (WER) | Migration and marriage mapping Women's empowerment index | One randomly selected woman (age 15+). If the RR is a woman, she is automatically selected as the WER. |
| Child Respondent (CR) | Schooling attitude & beliefs Learner academic development Beliefs of own academic ability Self-efficacy Health & wellbeing | One 5th-grade student currently attending school of any age up to and including 17 years |
| Child Caregiver (CG) | Caregiver module | The main caregiver of the Child Respondent is selected as the CG. |

Annex 2. Multidimensional Poverty

The multidimensional index used in this document, uses the Alkire Foster (2007) method for constructing indices, where each indicator of deprivation is given a weight, reflecting its importance in the overall index, and an indicator-specific deprivation threshold, defining the level after which a household will be considered deprived in that indicator. For instance, for nutrition indicators, the deprivation thresholds are set to 5 out of 7, meaning that a household needs to have suffered from, say, food shortages in at least 5 out of the past 7 days to be considered deprived in that indicator.

In addition to indicator-specific deprivation thresholds, the Alkire Foster index requires a multidimensional poverty cut-off k , indicating the minimum number of weighted indicators in which the household has to be deprived in order to be considered multidimensionally poor. A person may, for instance, be temporarily deprived in nutrition because they are fasting, in which case they should not be considered poor. But if they are simultaneously deprived in nutrition and health and education, for instance, it is unlikely to be voluntary. In this paper, we have used two different multidimensional cut-offs, $k=0.33$ for moderate multidimensional poverty, and $k=0.5$ for severe multidimensional poverty, meaning that a household will be considered severely poor if they are simultaneously deprived in at least $\frac{1}{2}$ of weighted indicators. The Alkire-Foster headcount poverty ratio, H^0 , for a sample of N individuals, can be written as:

$$H^0 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N I_i(d_i \geq k)$$

Where d_i is the number of weighted deprivations

experienced by household i and $I(\cdot)$ is an indicator function, taking the value 1 if household i is deprived in at least k weighted indicators, and 0 otherwise.

The index contains 14 indicators, which are grouped into 6 different dimensions. It uses a nested weighting system, where each dimension weighs $1/6$ of the overall index, and each indicator has equal weight within the dimension. Dimensions with more indicators will therefore give less weight to each specific indicator. Table 13 provides an overview of the index composition and definitions of deprivations.

The education indicator is only available for households with children aged 7-15, which means that other families are measured on 13 indicators instead of 14. The alternative is to count households without children as not deprived in education. The same issue, but less severe, affects employment (18-64).

The multidimensional poverty approach was preferred to the more conventional monetary approach, as the provision of in-kind assistance makes it difficult to compare consumption levels between hosts and refugees, and across different camps, depending on where assistance is provided in cash/in-kind. While it is possible to impute the value of in-kind assistance, it requires detailed knowledge of what services are being provided in each location. Given the magnitude of the phenomenon, it would also make the poverty estimates very sensitive to modelling assumptions used in the imputation. On the other hand, using a multidimensional approach to poverty means that we are restricted to the indicators for which data are available in the K-LSRH.

Table 13: Multidimensional index composition

| Dimension | Deprivation | Weight | Definition |
|------------|---------------------|--------|---|
| Education | School attendance | 1/6 | 1+ hhd member aged 7-15 is not currently attending school |
| Employment | Paid employment | 1/6 | No hhd members aged 18-64 are in paid work or studying |
| Energy | Cooking fuel | 1/12 | Household uses at solid fuels: wood, farm residue, charcoal, waste |
| | Electricity | 1/12 | Household does not use electricity (grid, generator, solar) for lighting |
| Housing | Crowding | 1/12 | Household has more than 4 members per habitable room |
| | Construction | 1/12 | House has unimproved roof (grass/dung/plastic/tin cans, other) and unimproved floor (earth, dung, planks, palm, other) and unimproved walls (none, cane, plywood, mud, other) |
| WASH | Water | 1/12 | Household uses unimproved water source: not piped, borehole, protected well/spring, rain, bottle, water booster |
| | Toilet | 1/12 | Household uses unimproved toilet (not flush, ventilated, slab) |
| Nutrition | 1. Not enough | 1/36 | Household had not enough food for at least 5 out of the last 7 days |
| | 2. Less preferred | 1/36 | Household had to eat less preferred foods for at least 5 out of the last 7 days |
| | 3. Borrowed | 1/36 | Household had to borrow food for at least 5 out of the last 7 days |
| | 4. Smaller portions | 1/36 | Household had reduced portion sizes for at least 5 out of the last 7 days |
| | 5. Adult meals | 1/36 | Household had to reduce adult intake for at least 5 out of the last 7 days |
| | 6. Fewer meals | 1/36 | Household had eaten fewer meals for at least 5 out of the last 7 days |

Annex 3: Additional Figures and Tables**Table 14: Deprivation prevalence (% of population), by status/ sex of the head of household**

| Dimension | Deprivation | Camp refugees | | Camp Hosts | | Urban refugees | | Urban Hosts | |
|------------|----------------------------|---------------|--------|------------|--------|----------------|--------|-------------|--------|
| | | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female |
| Education | School attendance | 40.7 | 37.4 | 70.7 | 73.2 | 33.0 | 33.4 | 22.7 | 20.6 |
| Employment | Paid employment | 67.7 | 81.2* | 42.0 | 58.1 | 29.0 | 44.5* | 9.4 | 19.2 |
| Energy | Cooking fuel | 98.7 | 98.6 | 97.5 | 97.7 | 12.0 | 27.5* | 10.6 | 12.9 |
| | Electricity | 61.5 | 67.9 | 57.6 | 68.8 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.8 | 0.9 |
| Housing | Crowding | 28.5 | 34.5 | 32.8 | 31.7 | 12.8 | 15.9 | 7.2 | 8.1 |
| | Construction | 4.9 | 4.3 | 26.9 | 41.5 | 0.2 | 0.1 | - | 0 |
| WASH | Water | 0.6 | 0.4 | 17.0 | 25.5 | 8.9 | 7.6 | 12.1 | 13.4 |
| | Toilet | 62.6 | 55.5 | 66.7 | 71.3 | 6.1 | 8.9 | 6.4 | 8.5 |
| Nutrition | Not enough | 9.0 | 10.6 | 9.6 | 16.6 | 14.1 | 12.4 | 7.2 | 4.5 |
| | Less preferred | 11.0 | 10.4 | 13.0 | 23.3 | 28.8 | 25.6 | 19.6 | 13.1 |
| | Borrowed | 2.8 | 2.4 | 3.6 | 7.8 | 4.3 | 6.3 | 2.4 | 2.3 |
| | Smaller portions | 7.9 | 10.5 | 11.0 | 14.5 | 12.6 | 11.1 | 7.4 | 8.5 |
| | Adult meals | 3.1 | 3.4 | 5.5 | 8.7 | 4.8 | 4.4 | 2.4 | 3.0 |
| | Fewer meals | 11.3 | 12.2 | 15.5 | 22.4 | 12.1 | 14.5 | 10.0 | 8.8 |
| Poverty | >1/3 rd depriv. | 74.8 | 83.1 | 73.7 | 84.6 | 9.7 | 16.1* | 3.0 | 7.0 |
| | >1/2 depriv. | 36.9 | 40.1 | 45.0 | 61.4 | 0.8 | 3.3* | 0.3 | 0.0 |

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.
Notes: *difference is statistically significant at 5% level.

Table 15: Food insecurity and negative coping strategies (% of population), by status/ sex of the head of household

| Index | Level | Camp refugees | | Camp Hosts | | Urban refugees | | Urban Hosts | |
|-------|--------------------------|---------------|--------|------------|--------|----------------|--------|-------------|--------|
| | | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female |
| CSI | 4-9: moderately insecure | 20.6 | 18.3 | 12.9 | 11.5 | 21.6 | 14.7 | 18.9 | 17 |
| | 10+: severely insecure | 42.3 | 42.9 | 34.7 | 45.9 | 46.6 | 44.6 | 27.4 | 27.6 |
| | 4+: All food insecure | 62.9 | 61.2 | 47.6 | 57.4 | 68.2 | 59.3 | 46.3 | 44.6 |
| LCS | Stress | 19.5 | 20.9 | 24.1 | 21.5 | 33.8 | 37 | 44.1 | 43.4 |
| | Emergency | 17.1 | 16.1 | 13.4 | 23.3 | 12.3 | 11 | 5.5 | 5.4 |
| | Stress + emergency | 36.6 | 37 | 37.5 | 44.8 | 46.1 | 48 | 49.6 | 48.8 |

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.
Note: *difference is statistically significant at 5% level.

Table 16: Percent of households receiving assistance in past 12 months, by programme and location / refugee status

| | Turkana | | Dadaab | | Nairobi | | Other urban | | |
|-----------------|------------|---------------|--------|----------|---------|----------|-------------|----------|-------|
| | Kakuma (r) | Kalobeyei (r) | Hosts | Refugees | Hosts | Refugees | Hosts | Refugees | Hosts |
| Bamba chakula | 99.3% | 16.8% | | 97.9% | | 1.2% | | 6.2% | |
| Bamba chapa | 5.6% | 85.4% | | 3.6% | | 0.9% | | 1.2% | |
| WFP (food) | 96.5% | 19.5% | | 59.4% | | 1.9% | | 3.9% | |
| UNHCR (shelter) | 5.6% | 5.9% | | 18.2% | | 1.6% | | 1.1% | |
| UNHCR (in-kind) | 28.9% | 34.8% | | 37.8% | | 0.4% | | 2.6% | |
| UNHCR (cash) | 59.7% | 19.1% | | 7.5% | | 1.7% | | 2.3% | |
| Fuel/wood | 20.9% | 11.1% | | 34.0% | | 0.2% | | 2.2% | |
| Kitchen garden | 1.1% | 2.4% | | 7.1% | | 0.0% | | 0.1% | |
| HSNP | | | 20.9% | | 7.9% | | 0.4% | | 0.7% |
| OPTC | | | 9.3% | | 4.5% | | 0.3% | | 0.3% |
| CT-OVC | | | 5.8% | | 5.4% | | 0.2% | | 0.3% |
| PWSD-CT | | | 0.6% | | 2.0% | | 0.1% | | 0.1% |
| Linda Mama | | | 9.9% | | 1.4% | | 7.3% | | 2.9% |
| Food aid | 4.1% | 6.1% | 18.9% | 36.7% | 8.6% | 6.0% | 2.1% | 3.3% | 0.8% |
| Health care | 2.8% | 9.6% | 16.0% | 34.7% | 2.1% | 2.9% | 5.1% | 0.9% | 1.2% |
| Hygiene | 4.2% | 11.1% | 1.5% | 36.7% | 9.4% | 1.8% | 2.0% | 0.8% | 0.8% |
| Education | 2.2% | 3.1% | 2.6% | 23.3% | 8.2% | 2.5% | 4.5% | 3.8% | 0.9% |
| Any other | 5.8% | 19.0% | 9.8% | 46.6% | 12.2% | 11.4% | 4.3% | 8.6% | 2.2% |

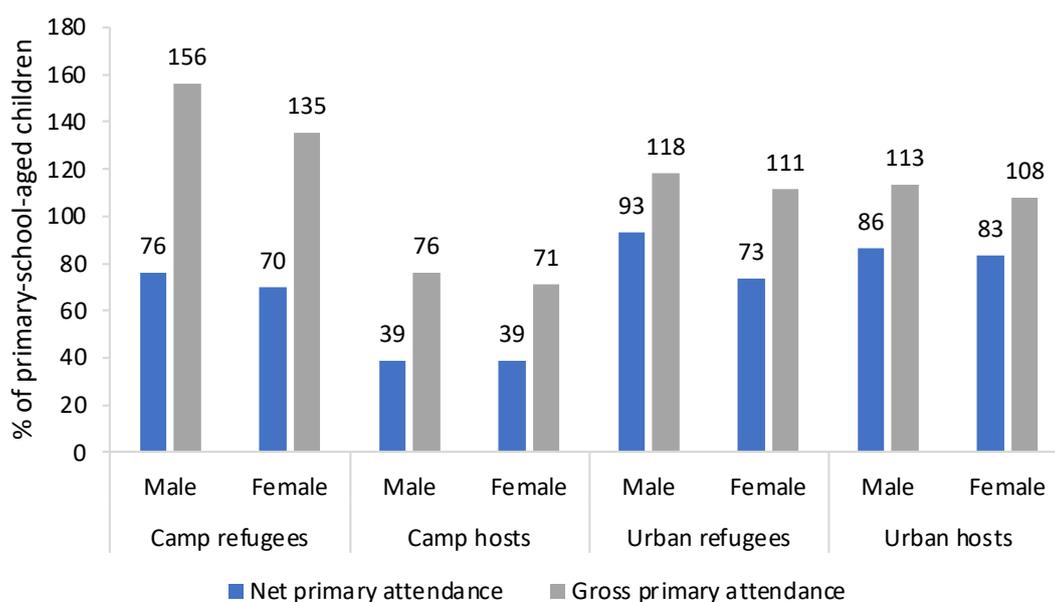
Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: r=refugees. The following host transfers are being considered: Hunger and Safety Net Program (HSNP), Older Persons Cash Transfer (OPTC), Cash Transfer to Orphans and Vulnerable Children (CT-OVC), Persons with Severe Disability Cash Transfer (PWSD-CT) and Linda Mama.

Table 17: Percent of MPI poor households receiving assistance in past 12 months, by programme and location / refugee status

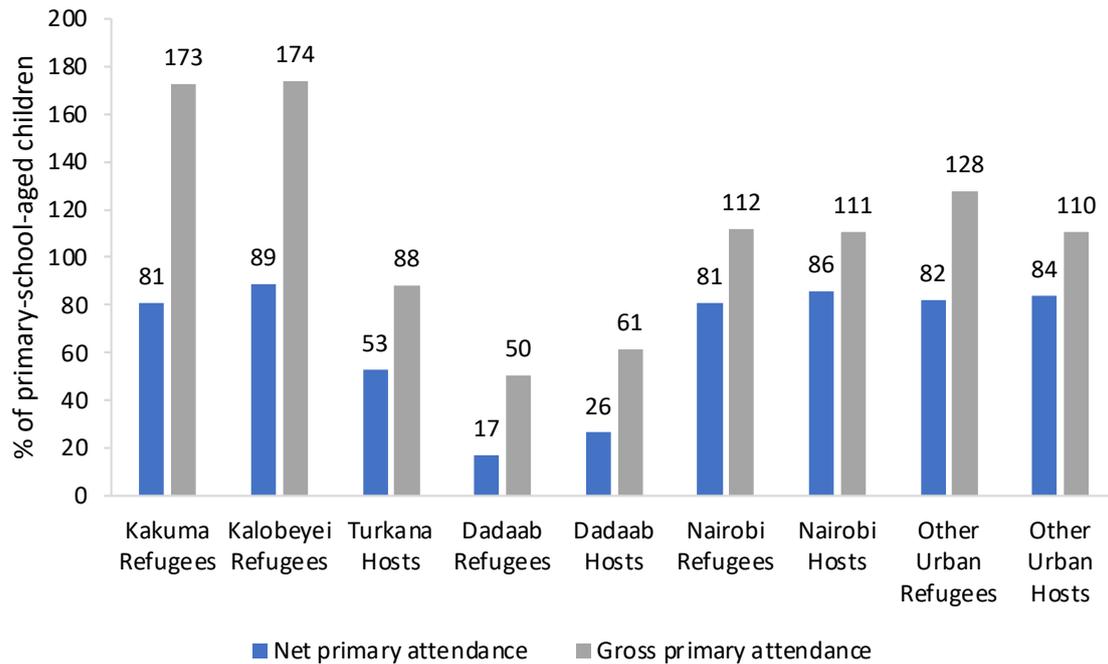
| | Turkana | | Dadaab | | Nairobi | | Other urban | | |
|-----------------|------------|---------------|--------|----------|---------|----------|-------------|----------|-------|
| | Kakuma (r) | Kalobeyei (r) | Hosts | Refugees | Hosts | Refugees | Hosts | Refugees | Hosts |
| Bamba chakula | 99.3% | 16.1% | | 97.5% | | 1.2% | | 6.0% | |
| Bamba chapa | 4.8% | 87.1% | | 3.1% | | 1.2% | | 2.8% | |
| WFP (food) | 96.5% | 18.7% | | 56.7% | | 2.1% | | 3.3% | |
| UNHCR (shelter) | 5.7% | 5.5% | | 13.8% | | 1.0% | | 1.0% | |
| UNHCR (in-kind) | 29.9% | 33.3% | | 35.1% | | 0.0% | | 4.5% | |
| UNHCR (cash) | 59.7% | 18.0% | | 6.4% | | 0.0% | | 2.3% | |
| Fuel/wood | 22.8% | 9.9% | | 31.0% | | 0.0% | | 0.6% | |
| Kitchen garden | 1.1% | 2.2% | | 7.0% | | 0.0% | | 0.0% | |
| HSNP | | | 23.2% | | 8.2% | | 0.0% | | 2.9% |
| OPTC | | | 10.6% | | 4.8% | | 0.0% | | 3.5% |
| CT-OVC | | | 6.5% | | 5.1% | | 0.0% | | 0.0% |
| PWSD-CT | | | 0.8% | | 2.2% | | 0.0% | | 0.0% |
| Linda Mama | | | 9.9% | | 1.8% | | 5.2% | | 1.4% |
| Food aid | 4.1% | 6.6% | 20.9% | 32.5% | 8.3% | 5.2% | 9.6% | 5.2% | 1.5% |
| Health care | 2.1% | 9.6% | 15.4% | 34.7% | 1.7% | 4.0% | 14.4% | 0.6% | 0.0% |
| Hygiene | 3.6% | 11.6% | 1.6% | 33.3% | 7.1% | 2.9% | 8.1% | 3.0% | 0.0% |
| Education | 2.2% | 2.8% | 2.8% | 22.6% | 6.4% | 1.0% | 0.0% | 4.1% | 0.0% |
| Any other | 99.3% | 16.1% | | 97.5% | | 1.2% | | 6.0% | |

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.
Hunger and Safety Net Program (HSNP)

Figure 61: Primary school attendance rates by location and gender

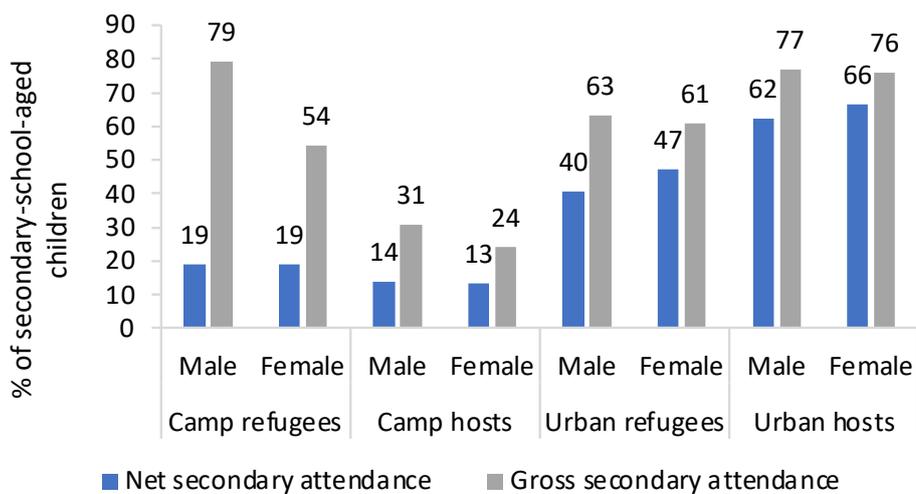
Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Figure 62: Primary school attendance rates by strata



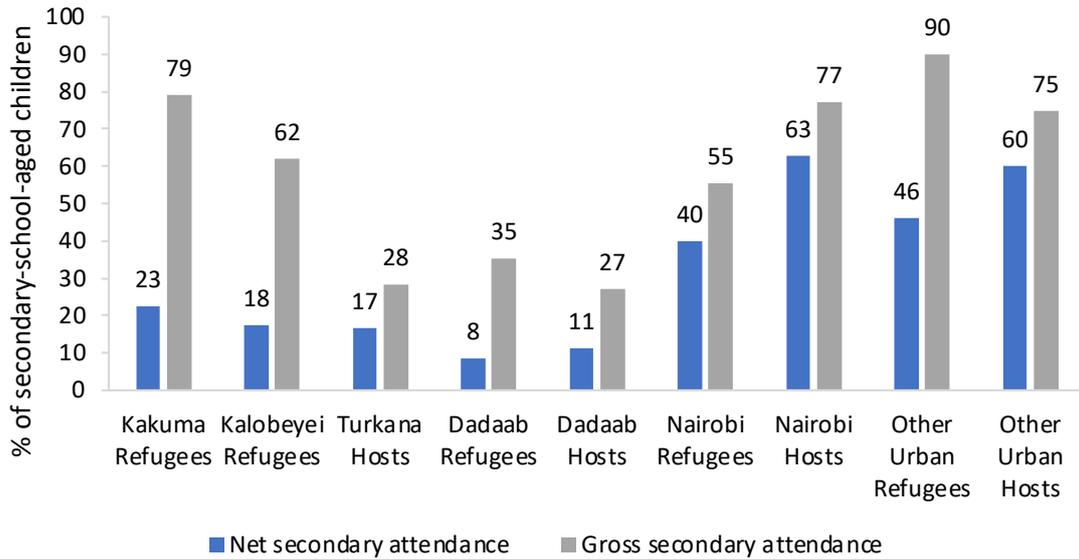
Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Figure 63: Secondary school attendance rates by location and gender



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

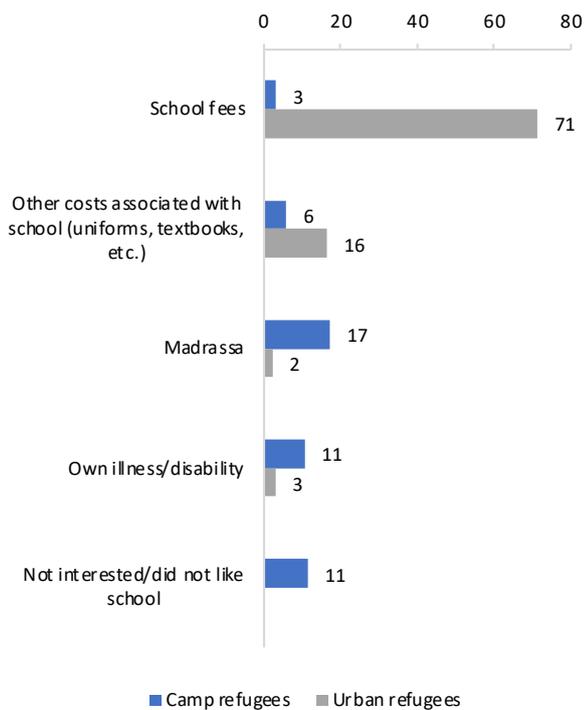
Figure 64: Secondary school attendance rates by strata



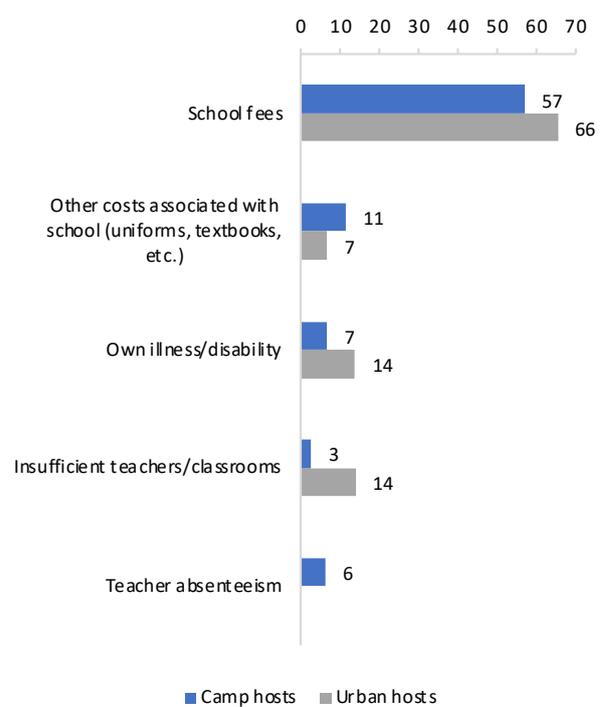
Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Figure 65: Top 5 reasons for not attending school

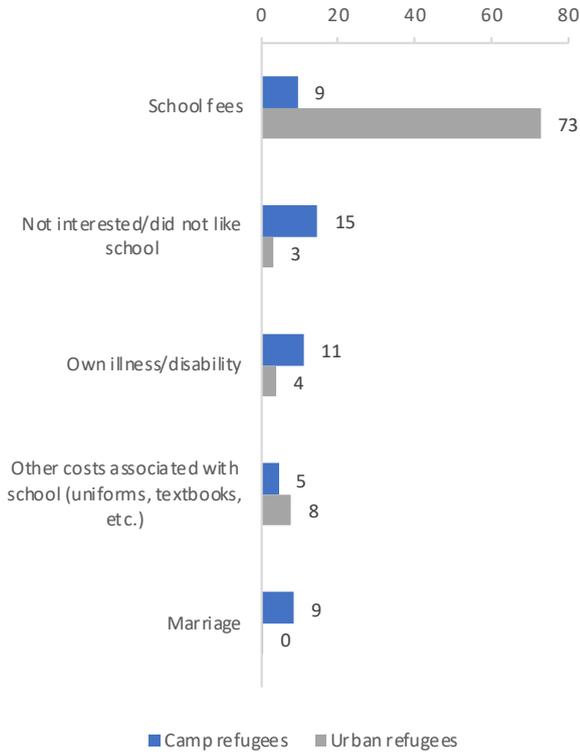
a. Primary-age refugees



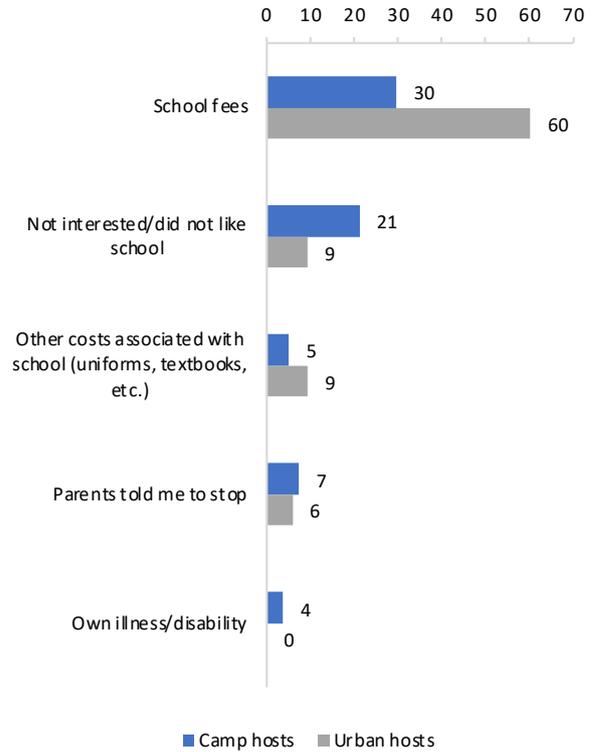
b. Primary-age hosts



c. Secondary-age refugees

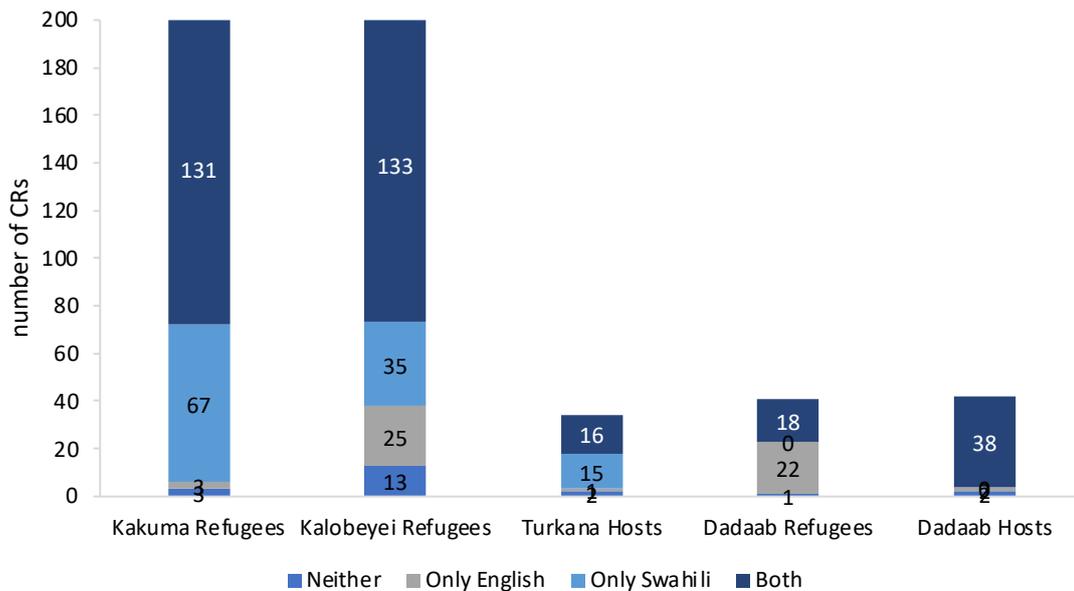


d. Secondary-age hosts



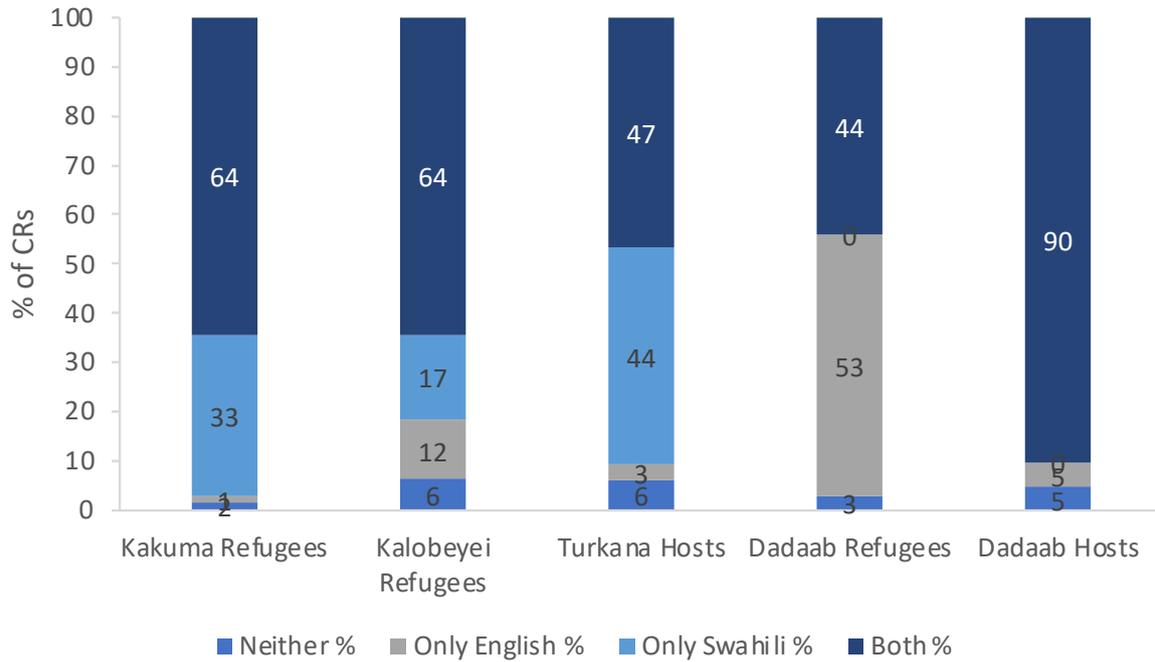
Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.
 Notes: This question is asked about primary-school-age children who have attended school in the past but are no longer enrolled or attending. In figure (a), N=152. In figure (b), N=39.

Figure 66: Number of Child respondents who speak neither, only English/Swahili, or both.



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Figure 67: Proportion of Child respondents who speak neither, only English/Swahili, or both



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Table 18: Regression results on academic achievement Math

| Early Grade Maths Score (0-5) | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|-----------|---------|-----------|---------|-----------|---------|
| | (1) Score | | (2) Score | | (3) Score | |
| Kakuma refugees | 0.991*** | (4.13) | 1.148*** | (3.92) | -0.0107 | (-0.04) |
| Kalobeyei refugees | 0.771** | (3.24) | 1.008*** | (3.52) | -0.301 | (-1.04) |
| Dadaab refugees | 0.949** | (3.14) | 1.315*** | (3.46) | | |
| Dadaab hosts | 0.677* | (2.04) | 0.825 | (1.78) | | |
| Age | -0.0316 | (-0.84) | 0.0102 | (0.19) | -0.00709 | (-0.17) |
| Female | -0.275* | (-2.12) | -0.099 | (-0.57) | -0.352* | (-2.45) |
| No. days absent | -0.0499 | (-0.81) | -0.137 | (-1.34) | -0.0709 | (-1.07) |
| Self-efficacy index | 0.234*** | (3.45) | 0.301*** | (3.54) | 0.203** | (2.93) |
| Health issues | 0.0835 | (0.53) | 0.0669 | (0.33) | 0.0917 | (0.56) |
| No. students in class | 0.00123 | (0.64) | 0.00103 | (0.44) | 0.00212 | (1.02) |
| Female CG | -0.101 | (-0.66) | -0.327 | (-1.75) | -0.104 | (-0.57) |
| CG ever attend school | 0.16 | (1.19) | 0.0578 | (0.33) | 0.138 | (0.95) |
| No. HH shocks | 0.0615* | (2.58) | 0.038 | (1.03) | 0.0640* | (2.49) |
| CG moderate anxiety/depression | | | 0.149 | (0.76) | | |
| Length of stay in Kenya | | | | | -0.0787 | (-0.69) |
| Constant | 3.174*** | (5.36) | 2.680*** | (3.52) | 4.082*** | (4.92) |
| Observations | 513 | | 234 | | 439 | |

t statistics in parentheses; * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: The outcome variable is the raw early grade maths assessment score between 0-5. Correlate coefficients are measured in units of 1 point (equivalent to answering 1 more question correctly). No. days absent represents the number of school days in the past week that the child was absent. The self-efficacy index is the normalized sum of ten questions measuring the child's self-efficacy with regards to school. Health issues is an indicator set to 1 if the child reports having any health problems that regularly affect them in school (e.g. difficulties with sight or hearing). We use the number of students in the child's class as a proxy for school environment. CG ever attend school is an indicator for the caregiver having ever attended school. No. HH shocks represents the number of (unique) shocks experienced by the household in the past 5 years. Length of stay in Kenya uses proGres data for refugees to count the number of years (categorized) from the earliest date of arrival in the household to the interview date. CG moderate anxiety/depression is an indicator set to 1 if the caregiver reports symptoms of moderate anxiety (i.e., a GAD-7 score greater than or equal to 10) or moderate depression (i.e. a PHQ-8 score greater than or equal to 10). Note that as the GAD-7 and PHQ-8 scales are only in the representative respondent module, this data on caregiver mental health only exists if the caregiver is also the randomly selected RR

Table 19: Regression results on academic achievement English

| Early Grade Reading English Z-Score | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------------|--------------|---------|-------------|---------|-------------|---------|
| | (1) BZ-Score | | (2) Z-Score | | (3) Z-Score | |
| Kakuma refugees | 0.737* | (2.17) | 0.235 | (0.57) | 0.820** | (3.92) |
| Kalobeyei refugees | 0.478 | (1.37) | 0.00404 | (0.01) | 0.491* | (2.15) |
| Dadaab refugees | -0.0421 | (-0.11) | -0.264 | (-0.61) | | |
| Dadaab hosts | 0.045 | (0.13) | -0.0361 | (-0.08) | | |
| Age | -0.0340 | (-1.25) | 0.00147 | (0.04) | -0.0429** | (-1.54) |
| Female | -0.278** | (-2.66) | -0.311* | (-2.11) | -0.267** | (-2.61) |
| No. days absent | -0.0129 | (-0.23) | 0.0173 | (0.27) | 0.0187 | (0.42) |
| Self-efficacy index | 0.200*** | (4.18) | 0.158* | (2.32) | 0.164*** | (3.62) |
| Health issues | 0.0818 | (0.55) | 0.256 | (1.38) | -0.00521 | (-0.04) |
| No. students in class | -0.00257 | (-1.70) | -0.00126 | (-0.75) | -0.00171 | (-1.13) |
| Female CG | -0.0448 | (-0.30) | -0.182 | (-0.89) | -0.195 | (-1.37) |
| CG ever attend school | -0.108 | (-1.03) | -0.0640 | (-0.42) | -0.136 | (-1.25) |
| No. HH shocks | 0.0281 | (1.65) | 0.0202 | (0.83) | 0.0459* | (2.51) |
| CG moderate anxiety/depression | | | 0.0665 | (0.33) | | |
| Length of stay in Kenya | | | | | -0.023 | (-0.27) |
| Constant | 0.309 | (0.61) | 0.277 | (0.43) | 0.411 | (0.72) |
| Observations | 372 | | 169 | | 313 | |

t statistics in parentheses; * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: The outcome variable is the combined Z-score of the English oral reading passage and comprehension. Correlate coefficients are in standard deviation units. No. of days absent represents the number of school days in the past week that the child was absent. The self-efficacy index is the normalized sum of ten questions measuring the child's self-efficacy with regards to school. Health issues is an indicator set to 1 if the child reports having any health problems that regularly affect them in school (e.g. difficulties with sight or hearing). We use the number of students in the child's class as a proxy for school environment. CG ever attend school is an indicator for the caregiver having ever attended school. No. HH shocks represents the number of (unique) shocks experienced by the household in the past 5 years. Length of stay in Kenya uses proGres data for refugees to count the number of years (categorized) from the earliest date of arrival in the household to the interview date. CG moderate anxiety/depression is an indicator set to 1 if the caregiver reports symptoms of moderate anxiety (i.e., a GAD-7 score greater than or equal to 10) or moderate depression (i.e. a PHQ-8 score greater than or equal to 10). Note that as the GAD-7 and PHQ-8 scales are only in the representative respondent module, this data on caregiver mental health only exists if the caregiver is also the randomly selected RR.

Table 20: Regression results on academic achievement Kiswahili

| Early Grade Reading Kiswahili Score | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------|---------|-----------|---------|-----------|---------|
| | (1) Score | | (2) Score | | (3) Score | |
| Kakuma refugees | 0.192 | (0.85) | 0.400 | (1.38) | 0.496 | (1.65) |
| Kalobeyei refugees | 0.0823 | (0.33) | 0.161 | (0.49) | 0.463 | (1.43) |
| Dadaab refugees | -0.203 | (-0.71) | -0.431 | (-1.04) | | |
| Dadaab hosts | -0.0752 | (-0.24) | 0.0856 | (0.22) | | |
| Age | -0.0443 | (-0.89) | 0.00342 | (0.06) | -0.0542 | (-0.94) |
| Female | -0.339* | (-2.25) | -0.135 | (-0.67) | -0.448** | (-2.69) |
| No. days absent | -0.197*** | (-3.32) | 0.301** | (-3.03) | -0.235** | (-3.03) |
| Self-efficacy index | 0.276** | (3.30) | 0.316** | (2.92) | 0.247** | (2.87) |
| Health issues | 0.358 | (-1.81) | -0.256 | (-0.84) | -0.406* | (-2.00) |
| No. students in class | -0.00496* | (-2.14) | -0.0107** | (-3.14) | -0.00378 | (-1.46) |
| Female CG | 0.495* | (2.45) | -0.0828 | (0.28) | 0.399 | (1.73) |
| CG ever attend school | 0.178 | (1.04) | -0.220 | (-0.93) | 0.174 | (0.95) |
| No. HH shocks | 0.0140 | (0.50) | 0.0404 | (1.01) | 0.0162 | (0.50) |
| CG moderate anxiety/depression | | | 0.0632 | (0.28) | | |
| Length of stay in Kenya | | | | | 0.248 | (1.91) |
| Constant | 4.154*** | (5.55) | 4.253*** | (4.93) | 3.196** | (3.02) |
| Observations | 454 | | 211 | | 386 | |

t statistics in parentheses; * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: The outcome variable is the raw Swahili comprehension score between 0-5. Correlate coefficients are measured in units of 1 point (equivalent to answering 1 more question correctly). No. days absent represents the number of school days in the past week that the child was absent. The self-efficacy index is the normalized sum of ten questions measuring the child's self-efficacy with regards to school. Health issues is an indicator set to 1 if the child reports having any health problems that regularly affect them in school (e.g. difficulties with sight or hearing). We use the number of students in the child's class as a proxy for school environment. CG ever attend school is an indicator for the caregiver having ever attended school. No. HH shocks represents the number of (unique) shocks experienced by the household in the past 5 years. Length of stay in Kenya uses proGres data for refugees to count the number of years (categorized) from the earliest date of arrival in the household to the interview date. CG moderate anxiety/depression is an indicator set to 1 if the caregiver reports symptoms of moderate anxiety (i.e., a GAD-7 score greater than or equal to 10) or moderate depression (i.e. a PHQ-8 score greater than or equal to 10). Note that as the GAD-7 and PHQ-8 scales are only in the representative respondent module, this data on caregiver mental health only exists if the caregiver is also the randomly selected RR.

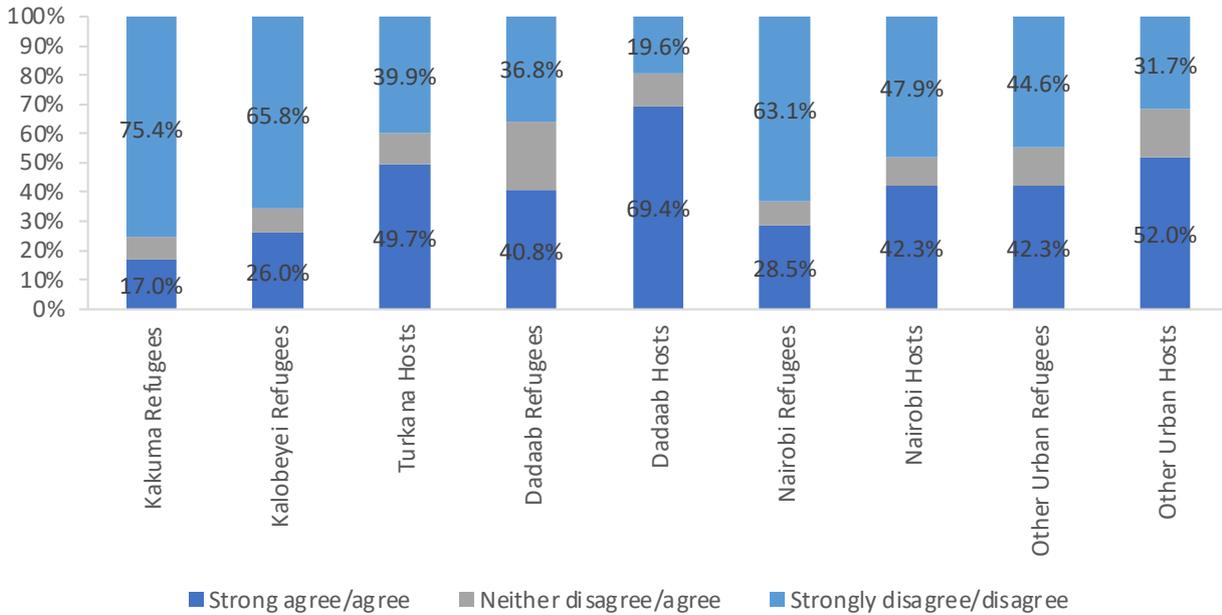
Table 21: The self-efficacy scale:

The self-efficacy scale consists of ten questions to which respondents are required to respond with a score ranging from 0 (not at all true) to 4 (completely true). The questions are:

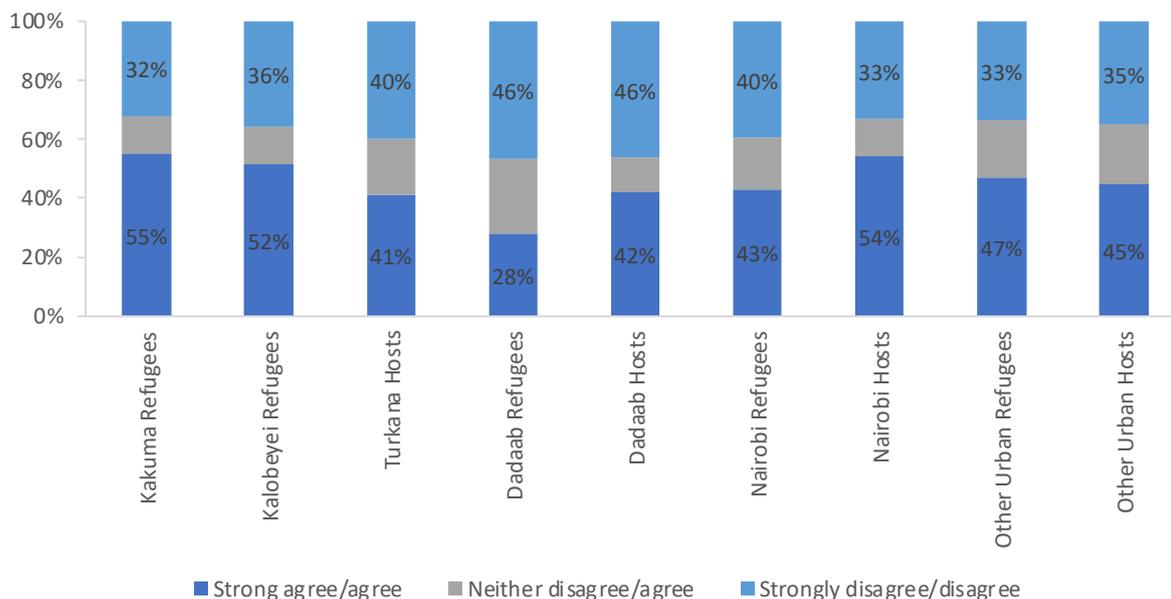
| | |
|---|--------------------------|
| 1. You take good notes during class instruction | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. You can get yourself to study when there are other interesting things to do | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. You can always concentrate on school subjects during class | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. You know how to study to perform well on tests | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. You can remember information presented in class and textbooks | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. You can always manage to solve difficult problems if you try hard enough | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. It is easy for you to stick to your aims and accomplish your goals. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. You are confident that you could deal with unexpected events. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. You can remain calm when facing difficulties because you can rely on your coping skills. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 10. When you are confronted with a problem, you can usually find several solutions. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Figure 68: Perception of safety and crime

a. Feel safe walking alone in area/neighbourhood at night



b. Are crimes common in your neighborhood/areas?



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Table 22: Factors associated with perceptions of safety.

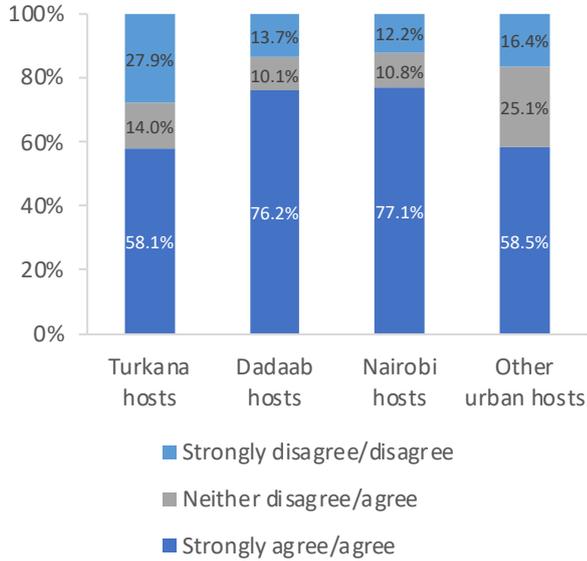
| Feeling safe walking alone during the night | |
|---|-----------|
| Age | 0.005 |
| Gender (female_dummy) | -0.292*** |
| Marital status (married_dummy) | -0.045 |
| Secondary education or higher | 0.095 |
| Location (Ref: Turkana Refugees) | |
| Turkana Hosts | 1.497*** |
| Dadaab Refugees | 1.376*** |
| Dadaab Hosts | 2.534*** |
| Nairobi Refugees | 0.700*** |
| Nairobi Hosts | 1.148*** |
| Other Urban Refugees | 1.115*** |
| Other Urban Hosts | 1.617*** |
| Observations | 8,918 |

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

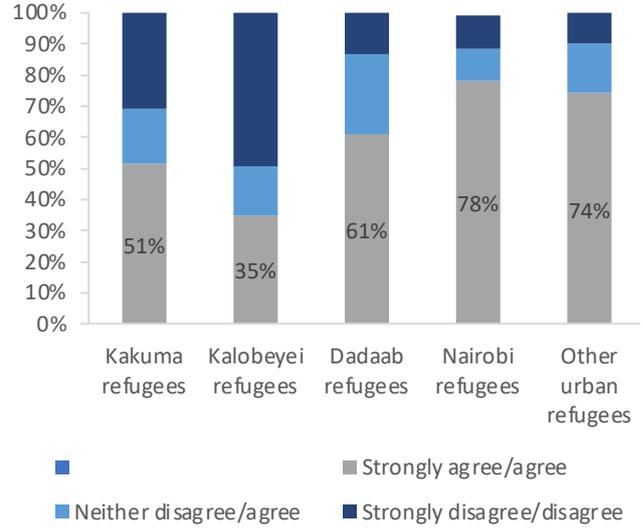
Note: Regression results are weighted using survey weights; Dependent variables values range from 1 (Strongly disagree/disagree) to 3 (Strongly agree/agree); *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Figure 69: Views on socialization of children

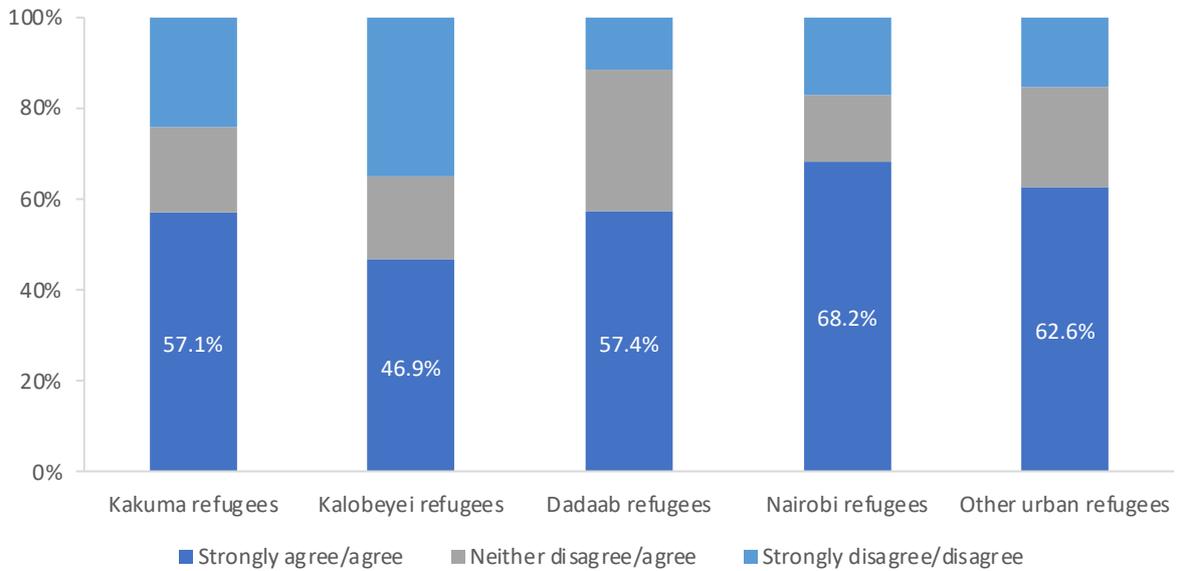
a. Comfort with children socialize with refugees children (hosts' perceptions)



a. Comfort with children socialize with refugees children (hosts' perceptions)



c. Comfort with children socialize with refugees' children from different ethnic groups (refugees' perceptions)



Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Table 23: Correlates of comfort with children socializing with outgroups.

| | Hosts | | Refugees |
|--|--|---|---|
| | Children socializing with refugee children | Children socializing with host children | Children socializing with refugee from different tribes |
| Employment (employed_dummy) | 0.031 | 0.175 | 0.044 |
| Age | -0.005 | 0.001 | -0.002 |
| Gender | 0.074 | -0.129 | -0.131 |
| Marital status (married_dummy) | 0.063 | 0.075 | 0.070 |
| Secondary education or higher | 0.138 | -0.054 | -0.110 |
| Location (Ref: Turkana Host) | | | |
| Daadab Hosts | 0.859*** | | |
| Nairobi Hosts | 0.763*** | | |
| Other Urban Hosts | 0.094 | | |
| Location (Ref: Turkana Refugees) | | | |
| Dadaab Refugees | | 0.0676*** | 0.392*** |
| Nairobi Refugees | | 1.362*** | 0.695*** |
| Other Urban Refugees | | 1.288*** | 0.474** |
| Active membership (Ref: None) | | | |
| Active membership (1 to 3 groups) | 0.025 | 0.558*** | 0.457*** |
| Active membership (4 to 6 groups) | 1.080*** | 1.103*** | 1.960*** |
| Active membership (7 or more groups) | -0.276 | 1.514*** | 1.989*** |
| Social networks | | | |
| % of refugee friends (>50%) | 0.960*** | | |
| % of Kenyan friends (>50%) | | 0.012 | -0.157 |
| % of refugee friends from the same country (>50%) | | 0.318*** | 0.182* |
| % of refugee friends from different country (>50%) | | -0.254** | -0.006 |
| % of refugee friends from different tribe (>50%) | | 0.020 | -0.145 |
| Observations | 3,017 | 4,546 | 4,547 |

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes. Regression results are weighted using survey weights; Dependent variables values range from 1 (Strongly disagree/disagree) to 3 (Strongly agree/agree); Social network variables (% of friends) is a dummy variable 1(>50%) & 0 (<50%)

*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$

Table 24: Regression on correlates of school preferences among refugee children

| | Mixed school |
|--|--------------|
| Child age | 0.018 |
| Child gender | 0.036 |
| Caregiver gender | 0.009 |
| Caregiver education level | 0.137** |
| Location (Ref: Dadaab refugees) | |
| Kakuma refugees | 0.002 |
| Kalobeyei refugees | 0.037 |
| Number of Kenyan friend (Ref: None) | |
| Number of Kenyan friends (One friend) | 0.174*** |
| Number of Kenyan friends (2-5) | -0.001 |
| Number of Kenyan friends (>5) | 0.083 |
| Multidimensional poverty | 0.055 |
| Constant | 0.418 |
| Observations | 434 |

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Notes: Regression results are weighted using survey weights; *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$

Table 25: Proportion of respondents that have experienced shocks

| | Camp refugees | Camp hosts | Urban refugees | Urban hosts |
|---------------------------------|---------------|------------|----------------|-------------|
| floods | 57.7% | 89.3% | 19.4% | 27.6% |
| droughts | 24.3% | 21.3% | 3.6% | 4.0% |
| landslides/erosion | 76.0% | 61.9% | 96.3% | 88.8% |
| pests | 3.4% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% |
| weeds | .0% | .0% | .0% | .0% |
| livestock diseases | 88.5% | 75.6% | 83.7% | 85.2% |
| disease outbreaks | 65.0% | 38.9% | 46.5% | 41.8% |
| theft | 24.6% | 21.7% | 10.9% | 5.1% |
| loss of land or rental property | 34.6% | 31.0% | 59.7% | 50.0% |
| loss of employment | 34.6% | 31.0% | 59.7% | 50.0% |
| death of household member | 39.3% | 45.1% | 34.0% | 32.5% |

Source: Authors' calculations based on K-LSRH 2023.

Table 26: Proportion of respondents using coping strategy among those experiencing the shock

| | flood | drought | land-slide | pests | weeds | livestock diseases | disease outbreaks | theft | loss of land or rental property | loss of employment | death of household member |
|---------------------------------------|-------|---------|------------|-------|-------|--------------------|-------------------|-------|---------------------------------|--------------------|---------------------------|
| Other | .5% | 1.2% | 1.2% | 2.7% | 2.2% | 1.1% | 1.5% | 1.0% | 4.2% | .3% | .5% |
| New work | 1.1% | 3.8% | 1.6% | 2.9% | 3.4% | 1.3% | 2.5% | 2.5% | 1.8% | 13.1% | 2.0% |
| Child dropped school/ looked for work | 1.4% | 1.6% | 2.4% | 2.4% | 1.8% | 2.5% | 2.4% | 1.5% | 1.4% | 2.2% | 2.7% |
| Sold assets | 2.0% | 3.3% | 3.7% | 2.4% | 2.5% | 2.5% | 2.1% | 1.1% | 2.2% | 4.5% | 2.4% |
| Leased land | 2.2% | 2.4% | 5.3% | 3.9% | 4.3% | 2.7% | 1.4% | .6% | 27.9% | 1.4% | 2.1% |
| Cheaper housing | 2.4% | 5.3% | 5.5% | 3.4% | 3.4% | 3.6% | 2.8% | 4.1% | 23.7% | 8.9% | 2.0% |
| Took loan | 3.2% | 6.7% | 6.7% | 8.7% | 4.7% | 6.2% | 4.6% | 5.0% | .3% | 6.3% | 6.7% |
| Migrate/ send kids/ relatives | 4.2% | 3.7% | 3.8% | 3.1% | 3.4% | 4.3% | 2.5% | 1.6% | 13.1% | 1.8% | 2.9% |
| Spiritual efforts | 4.5% | 10.4% | .0% | 5.3% | 6.3% | 5.8% | 16.7% | 8.9% | 8.9% | 5.8% | 28.2% |
| Reduced non-essential expense | 6.4% | 11.3% | 3.3% | 5.7% | 6.3% | 5.2% | 14.0% | 17.8% | 4.5% | 27.9% | 5.6% |
| Aid from govt | 7.7% | 5.5% | .0% | 11.2% | 9.5% | 6.6% | 7.4% | 2.7% | 4.6% | 4.6% | 7.2% |
| Sold/killed livestock | 10.3% | 10.2% | .0% | 14.2% | 11.7% | 20.0% | 4.7% | 1.7% | 6.3% | 4.2% | 5.9% |
| Reduced food consumption | 19.9% | 13.7% | .0% | 9.1% | 8.1% | 8.3% | 10.2% | 16.1% | 9.8% | 23.7% | 6.8% |
| Help from friends/family/church | 20.8% | 7.0% | 100.0% | 10.2% | 13.1% | 7.8% | 9.1% | 5.3% | 5.8% | 9.8% | 15.0% |
| Used savings | 23.1% | 25.8% | 21.0% | 30.1% | 34.1% | 34.4% | 28.8% | 25.3% | 17.0% | 38.1% | 32.5% |
| Nothing | 34.4% | 33.4% | .0% | 33.7% | 34.0% | 29.0% | 30.7% | 40.5% | 38.1% | 17.0% | 20.6% |

