Forced Displacement Literature Review¹
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¹ The JDC Literature Review provides summaries of recently published research to encourage the exchange of ideas on topics related to forced displacement. The findings, interpretations and conclusions expressed in the literature included in this review are entirely those of their authors and do not necessarily represent the views of the Joint Data Center, UNHCR, the World Bank, the Executive Directors of the World Bank or the governments they represent. For convenience, the literature review contains links to websites operated by third parties. The Joint Data Center and its affiliate organizations do not represent or endorse these sites or the content, services and products they may offer, and do not guarantee the accuracy or reliability of any information, data, opinions, advice or statements provided on these sites.

Soazic Elise Wang Sonne and Paolo Verme

Between 1993 and 2001, northwestern Tanzania hosted large numbers of refugees from Burundi, Rwanda and Congo, the majority in temporary camps near the border and a short distance to Tanzanian villages. This paper examines whether Tanzanian children born to mothers who spent their early childhood in high refugee-receiving areas have poorer health outcomes. The analysis is based on the geocoded 2015/16 Tanzanian Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) capturing migration histories of mothers and fathers.

Key results:

- **Children of mothers exposed to the 1993-2001 refugee crisis in northwestern Tanzania are more likely to be stunted.** Almost 15 years after the refugee influx, children under five year’s of age born to mothers who were themselves under five during the 1993-2001 refugee crisis and living closer to refugee camps have lower Height-for-Age Z-scores and are more likely to be stunted than a comparable sample of children whose mothers were more than five years old at the time of the refugee crisis.

- **Mothers who were in utero and less than 24 months at the time of the high refugee influx period (1993-1996) are more likely to give birth to children who are stunted.**

- No differentiated impacts between male and female children.

The authors suggest several possible mechanisms to explain these results. Previous studies on the impact of refugees in Tanzania have shown that wellbeing increased for host households living near the refugee camps, in particular by increasing employment opportunities. However, there was also a reallocation of labor away from primary health care and education services and towards low-skilled services to the aid community during a period characterized by increased demand for these services and a general downgrading of schools and health centers. This could have resulted in an intra-household reallocation of labor, with increased demands on women and possibly negative effects on childcare, and leading to children experiencing a combination of decreased standards in education, health...
care and home care services. Using additional data from the 1991 and 1996 DHS, the authors show that:

- **There was an increase in female labor force participation during the refugee crisis.** Grandmothers in 2015/16 who were mothers in 1996 (during the crisis) had higher labor force participation than those who were mothers in 1991 (before the crisis). There was no increase in the labor market participation of grandfathers during the same period.
- **Mothers exposed to the refugee crisis during their first five years were less likely to complete more than secondary education, less likely to own land and a house, and more likely to participate in the labor market later in their life.** Increased labor force participation can potentially translate into reduced child care at home and poorer anthropometrics of their under five-year-old children.
- **Parents in their early age during the refugee influx suffered from decreased nutritional standards and increased morbidity.** Children in refugee receiving areas in 1996 had lower Weight for Age, Weight for Height and Biomass Index scores, and were more likely to be wasting, underweight, have diarrhea or fever. This is expected to affect the anthropometrics of their own children in 2015-2016.

## Estimating Poverty for Refugee Populations: Can Cross-Survey Imputation Methods Substitute for Data Scarcity?

Hai-Anh H. Dang and Paolo Verme


Refugees are, for the most part, excluded from global poverty statistics, due to the lack of micro survey data on displaced populations. This paper presents the first application of recent advances in cross-survey imputations to estimate poverty among Syrian refugees living in Jordan. The authors exploit data on about 40,000 households captured in both:

- Administrative data from UNHCR’s profile Global Registration System (proGres)—while proGres does not capture data on income, consumption or expenditure, it contains socio-economic data that are potential predictors of consumption; and
- Survey data from UNHCR’s Jordan Home Visits (HV) Round 2 (November 2013 to September 2014), covering a third of registered refugees in Jordan—HV includes data on income and expenditure, as well as a large set of individual and household socio-economic characteristics.
The authors test the accuracy of the poverty estimates imputed from proGres data, by comparing them with ‘true’ poverty rates produced directly from the HV survey. The main model specification uses only variables available in proGres: household size, and the characteristics of the Principal Applicant (age, gender, educational attainment, occupation group, marital status, religion, governorate/city of origin). The authors demonstrate that:

- **Imputation-based poverty estimates are not statistically different from non-predicted consumption-based poverty rates.** This result is robust to various validation tests, including alternative poverty lines and disaggregation by case size.
- **Imputation-based poverty estimates are found to perform better or have smaller standard errors than other poverty measures based on asset indexes or proxy means testing.**
- **Imputation models require relatively few predictor variables that are already available in UNHCR’s proGres database.**
- **Relatively small survey samples may be combined with a census-type registration system to provide cost-effective and updated estimates of poverty.** However, the methodology may not apply to other country contexts, sources of data or welfare measures.

**Syrian refugees in Lebanon: a spatial study**

Casto Martin Montero Kuscevic and Hossein Radmard

*Applied Economics Letters, 2019*

[https://doi.org/10.1080/13504851.2019.1623862](https://doi.org/10.1080/13504851.2019.1623862)

Lebanon hosts the second largest population of Syrian refugees and has the highest per capita population of Syrian refugees in the world. This paper *examines the spatial distribution of Syrian refugees across districts in Lebanon and investigates the factors that explain settlement patterns*. The analysis is based on district-level data from the Vulnerability Assessment of Syrian Refugees in Lebanon (VASyR) for the period 2015-2017. The authors find:

- **Access to credit appears to explain the distribution of refugees across districts.** Other examined factors (food consumption and living conditions) are not statistically significant determinants of refugee location.
- **Refugees cluster in a few districts, which are surrounded by districts with small numbers of refugees.** The authors suggest that since credit is more likely to come (directly or indirectly) from other refugees, clustering increases the likelihood of accessing credit.
Predicting Forced Population Displacement Using News Articles

Sadra Abrishamkar and Forouq Khonsari

*Machine Learning and Applications: An International Journal (MLAIJ)*, Volume 6, Issue 1, March 2019

https://airccj.org/csecfp/library/jvol.php?last=MLAIJ&volname=6&volno=1

This paper *proposes an approach for analyzing a collection of news articles to extract ‘signals of violence’, which can be used in prediction models to forecast forced displacement*. The authors test their proposed approach using news articles drawn from the Expanded Open Source dataset—including over 680,000 news articles on Syria and Iraq from January 2012 to June 2017—as well as monthly refugee population data from UNHCR. The approach involves the following steps:

- Automatically processing and analyzing news articles using topic modeling techniques to identify a set of distinct topics for each month, i.e. based on the probability that certain keywords appear together in a particular topic.
- Manually labeling and categorizing the extracted topics for each month, using the following categories: violence/terrorism; economic issues; environmental issues; political issues; religious conflicts; refugee crisis; and relief.
- Estimating a ‘violence score’ for each month equal to the total number of ‘violence’ topics for each month divided by the total number of topics for each month.
- Building prediction models for forecasting the number of refugees from Syria and Iraq.

The authors demonstrate that *violence scores, constructed from information extracted from news articles, can be effective in improving the performance of models predicting forced displacement.*

Informing Durable Solutions for Internal Displacement in Nigeria, Somalia, South Sudan, and Sudan: Volume A: Overview

Utz Johann Pape and Ambika Sharma

World Bank, 2019

This report presents findings from comprehensive microdata surveys covering IDP and host populations in Nigeria, Somalia, South Sudan, and Sudan. Refugees in Ethiopia from Somalia, South Sudan and Sudan were also surveyed. The analysis includes:

- Profiles of IDPs and hosts (covering displacement history, demographics, poverty, food insecurity, living conditions, access to services, livelihoods, social capital, and return intentions), permitting comparisons across countries, between IDPs and host communities, as well as the analysis of differences among IDPs.
- Classification of households (for the purposes of targeting) into three groups based on their ability to generate income: (1) ‘support-dependent households’ that either have no working-age adults without disabilities or are female-headed with only the household head in the working age and without disabilities; (2) ‘productive but poor households’ that have working-age members without disabilities, yet are still poor; and (3) ‘self-reliant households’ that have working-age members without disabilities and are not poor.
- Multiple Correspondence Analysis (MCA) to draw different profiles of IDPs based on their past conditions (cause-based indicators), present situation (needs-based indicators), and future intentions (solutions-based indicators). MCA illustrates how the full displacement trajectory can indicate tailored solutions.

Key findings:

- **Conflict, violence, and insecurity are the main reasons that IDPs fled** from their original residence across the four countries, except for 40 percent of Somalis who were displaced due to climate events.
- **IDPs tend to be displaced within their own state or region.**
- **The majority of IDPs are children under 15 years.** Consequently, IDP households have high dependency rates, especially among female-headed households.
- **IDPs are generally poorer and more vulnerable than host communities, although rural hosts are nearly as poor as IDPs.** Overall, more than 8 out of 10 IDPs in Somalia, Nigeria, South Sudan, and Sudan live below the international poverty line of US$1.90 per person per day in 2011 purchasing power parity (PPP) terms. IDPs tend to be poorer than residents, with the exception of Nigeria where hosts are similarly poor. Poverty is also widespread among non-displaced populations in rural areas.
- **IDPs are highly food insecure, often more so than hosts.** In most cases, IDPs are more likely to be hungry (Nigeria, Somalia, Sudan).
- **IDPs, especially in camps, have access to basic facilities but still face poor living conditions.** Few IDPs have access to improved housing, apart from the long-displaced IDPs of Sudan. Displaced households often have comparable or marginally better access to basic services—water sources, health facilities, schools, and markets—than host communities. Most IDPs have access to improved drinking water, and their access is similar to (or better than) the non-displaced, but this does not factor in overcrowding. While a large share of displaced households use improved sanitation facilities, overcrowding often renders these facilities worse than those used by hosts. Many IDPs
have access to health care, though less than hosts. IDP children are less likely to be enrolled in school than children from resident communities. About half of IDPs are literate and their literacy rates are comparable to hosts.

- **IDP and refugee populations have significantly lower access to land, livestock, and income-generating assets than they did before displacement.**
- **Social relations between IDPs and residents are generally good, except in South Sudan.**
- **IDPs face risks differentiated by sex.** Displaced women are more food insecure: 70 percent of displaced women compared to 57 percent of displaced men are highly food insecure. Displaced women are often tasked with the collection of water for the household, exposing them to increased risk of gender-based violence (GBV). Water collection often involves long wait times, leading to missed education and labor opportunities—reflected in worse education and labor outcomes for women versus men.
- **IDPs with agricultural/pastoralist backgrounds who are displaced into urban areas face difficulties adjusting to labor markets and have higher poverty rates than ‘non-agricultural’ IDPs.** IDPs typically relied more heavily on agriculture before displacement than their hosts do now: 42 percent of IDPs relied on own-account agriculture as their primary livelihood before displacement, compared to 26 percent of hosts who currently rely on agriculture. An overall shift in livelihoods away from agriculture is evident in each country except South Sudan. Agricultural IDPs have adjusted to current labor markets in different ways depending on country context. Agricultural IDPs are poorer overall (82 percent compared to 75 percent of non-agricultural IDPs), and are more likely to wish to return to their original residence than non-agricultural IDPs, possibly reflecting a desire to restore agricultural livelihoods.
- **Camp-based IDPs are more likely to be poor, have lower access to services, and be dependent on aid compared to hosts and IDPs outside camps.**
- **Inequality and heterogeneity among hosts can affect their perceptions of IDPs.** Host communities with high levels of inequality are more likely to believe that the arrival of IDPs have worsened job prospects. More prosperous host communities have better relations within the community and more favorable perceptions of IDPs. Heterogeneity along characteristics other than income also affects a community’s perceptions: areas with higher proportions of female-headed households report better social relations but worse perceptions of employment opportunities; higher literacy of household heads is associated with less favorable social relations and perceptions of employment prospects; employment of household heads is associated with less favorable employment perceptions and attitudes towards IDPs; and having aid-receiving host households in the area leads to more favorable perceptions of IDPs.
- **IDPs displaced further from their original residence are more often non-agricultural, have been displaced longer, and prefer to return.**
- **Most IDPs wish to stay in their current location or return to their origin; few want to resettle in a new location.** 50 percent of IDPs in Sudan, 58 percent of IDPs in Nigeria, 58 percent of IDPs in South Sudan, and 70 percent of IDPs in Somalia wish to
remain in their current location. 23 percent of Somali IDPs, 33 percent of South Sudanese IDPs, 25 percent of Nigerian IDPs, and 25 percent of Sudanese IDPs wish to return. IDPs identify security as the most important factor in any future decision.

The authors conclude that policy and programming interventions are urgently needed to improve living conditions by investing in food security, housing, sanitation and education. Additionally, improving security and increasing economic opportunities in return and host areas are critical for durable solutions. The authors note that contextual analysis is crucial—the country cases of Nigeria, South Sudan, Sudan, and Somalia (see below) provide key insights. And, while socioeconomic challenges for IDPs are reflected in their quantitative profiles, such profiles do not adequately convey the suffering of IDPs. The Pulse of South Sudan and The Somali Pulse websites contain hundreds of video testimonials recorded with tablets during fieldwork to capture the voice of the people and give a face to the data.

**Informing Durable Solutions for Internal Displacement in Nigeria, Somalia, South Sudan, and Sudan: Volume B: Country Case Studies**

Utz Johann Pape, Ambika Sharma, Taies Nezam, Benjamin Petrini, Menaal Fatima Ebrahim, Jacob Udo-Udo, Felix Konstantin Appler, Andrea Fitri Woodhouse, Verena Phipps-Ebler; Alexander Benjamin Meckelburg, Syedah Aroob Iqbal

World Bank, 2019


These case studies are **stand-alone displacement profiles that depict the socioeconomic conditions of IDPs and non-displaced communities.**

**Nigeria Case Study**

Nearly two million people are internally displaced in Nigeria. About 60 percent of IDPs live in host communities and 40 percent live in camps. The Nigeria IDP Survey (IDPS) 2018 covered IDP and host households in six northeastern states where most IDPs are living (Adamawa, Bauchi, Borno, Gombe, Taraba, and Yobe). IDPs were surveyed in two settings: in camps and among host communities. About 1,400 IDP and 1,400 host households were interviewed.
Key findings:

- **Armed conflict is the main cause of internal displacement.**
- **95 percent of IDPs have fled within their state of origin, but outside their local government area.**
- **The majority of IDPs are children.** 57 percent of IDPs are children under age 15.
- **Nearly 40 percent of IDP and host households are headed by women.** Female-headed households tend to be smaller with higher dependency ratios.
- **While the religious composition of IDPs is largely uniform (95 percent Muslim), IDPs belong to various ethnic tribes.** Most IDPs identify with the Kanuri tribe, and many are from Hausa and other smaller tribes.
- **Almost all IDPs are poor, food insecure, and doing badly on a range of basic living outcomes.** 87 percent of IDPs live below the international poverty line, and poor IDPs consume less than 30 percent of the poverty threshold. 61 percent of IDPs are highly food insecure. IDPs suffer from overcrowding, in terms of housing and sanitation. Displaced women are less likely than host women to give birth in a hospital or clinic. IDPs have lower school enrollment rates—many IDP children have not attended school for three years or more and some not since their displacement. Most IDPs lost homes that their families had owned for many years, and now live in worse housing conditions than they did before. Many IDPs lost agricultural land owned by their households.
- **Though slightly better off than IDPs, host communities face widespread poverty and poor living standards.** Host households are more likely to own homes and agricultural land than IDPs, though their home ownership rate is only about 50 percent. They have higher primary and secondary enrollment rates, are more likely to use a doctor or clinic for childbirth, and are less likely to have overcrowded sanitation facilities. Hosts and IDPs have a similar level of access to water, sanitation, schools, and markets. However, despite faring better than IDPs on most welfare measures, host communities face significant challenges. 8 out of 10 host households are poor, consuming on average less than 40 percent of the poverty threshold. 48 percent of host households are highly food insecure, and one in five working-age hosts do not participate in the labor force.
- **IDPs in camps have worse living standards than IDPs in host communities.** While IDPs in camps and IDPs in host communities have similar poverty levels, the latter are slightly better off on a number of dimensions. IDPs in camps face slightly more overcrowding in dwellings, and substantially more overcrowding in toilets (nearly 70 percent share a toilet with more than four households, and over 40 percent share with more than ten households). Camp-based displaced women who are members of male-headed households are less likely to give birth in a clinic or hospital. Camp-based children are more likely to stay out of school for longer than children in host communities; about half the children in camps have been out of school for over 3 years compared to only 16 percent of displaced children living in host communities.
- **A majority of camp-based IDPs wish to return home, while most IDPs living in host communities intend to stay.** 60 percent of IDPs (70 percent of IDPs in host
communities, 20 percent of IDPs in camps) wish to remain in their current location while 40 percent prefer to return to their homes.

- **IDP and host women have worse educational and labor outcomes than men, but displaced women face additional challenges.** About 60 percent of IDP households send girls/women to collect water (compared to 43 percent of host households) which often involves long waiting times, with the opportunity cost of educational or labor force engagement. Water collection chores can also increase the risk of GBV. Displaced women are more likely than host women to deliver babies at home without a doctor/nurse/midwife. School enrollment rates are lower for girls than boys, and women have lower educational attainment than men. Women are also more likely than men to be inactive in the workforce.

- **65 percent of IDPs are employed, mostly in agriculture.** 46 percent of working-age IDPs are employed, and 19 percent are employed and enrolled in education. 20 percent of working-age IDPs are unemployed or inactive in the labor force, which is similar to inactivity rates in host communities. 70 percent of IDP households rely primarily on agriculture for their livelihoods, compared to 50 percent before displacement. IDPs have lost agricultural land, but renting land from host communities could be allowing them to maintain agricultural livelihoods. IDPs who are inactive cite a lack of opportunities, skills, and capital, while host communities primarily cite a lack of opportunities.

- **Both IDPs and host communities agree that they enjoy good relations,** with the latter feeling that IDPs do not get enough aid.

- **Both IDPs and host community households rely on their social networks for credit,** which they perceive as difficult to tap.

- **IDPs are less likely than hosts to participate in public meetings or meet community leaders.**

- **IDPs living in host communities and in Borno are most likely to be support-dependent.** 71 percent of IDP households are productive but poor, 19 percent are support-dependent, 10 percent are self-reliant. Host communities have a slightly larger proportion of self-reliant households, but most households are productive but poor. IDPs living in host communities are more likely to be support-dependent than hosts and camp-based IDPs. Support-dependent IDP households are concentrated in Borno state.

- **IDPs have two distinct typologies, which can be identified from their locations and return intentions.** Both groups came from similar places of origin, had similar living standards at origin, and were displaced by the Boko Haram insurgency. However, prior to their displacement, Group 1 (74 percent of IDPs) was more engaged in wages or non-farm business, while Group 2 (26 percent of IDPs) was more engaged in agriculture. Group 1 households are more likely to have smaller household sizes, higher dependency ratios or unemployed women as household heads. Group 1 is more likely to live in host communities, while Group 2 is more likely to live in camps. Group 2 IDPs are more likely to rely on agriculture and receive assistance compared to Group 1, although both groups are equally poor and food insecure. Group 1 has higher levels of satisfaction with the current situation, preferring to stay in the current location. Group 2 is more likely to have
lower levels of satisfaction with the current situation, feel less safe, feel more pessimistic about the future, and prefer to return to their origin. Group 1 households require more access to safety nets and gender-responsive programs. Group 2 IDPs can benefit from increased access to agricultural land and skill building to diversify their income.

The authors conclude that substantial investment is required to improve living conditions among host communities and sustain their ability to accommodate disadvantaged and vulnerable IDP groups. Coupled with raising hosts’ living standards, durable solutions for IDPs must prioritize security, both in displacement and return areas, and address the specific needs of the most vulnerable groups: women and IDPs in camps. Additionally, dependable and accurate information is an important resource for IDPs and should form part of a broader humanitarian response plan.

Somalia Case Study

Of Somalia’s total population of 14 million, about 2 million people are internally displaced. Insufficient rainfall over four consecutive rainy seasons, combined with clan-based conflict, and violence by armed non-state actors, caused a surge in displacement from late 2016 to late 2017. The Somali High Frequency Survey (HFS) 2017–18 sampled the Somali population in secure areas (Middle Juba was excluded due to insecurity) including: (a) IDPs in settlements; (b) host communities in urban areas adjacent to IDP settlements; and (c) non-host urban and rural populations. Several households originally part of the urban or rural sample, self-identified as IDPs, resulting in data on IDPs outside of settlements.

Key findings:

- **Climate events and conflict are the main causes of displacement cited by IDPs.** 38 percent of IDP households are displaced due to climate events (drought, famine, flood) and 40 percent due to conflict.
- **About 7 in 10 IDP households live in the same districts as they did originally,** and fewer than 1 in 10 are in a different region, federated member state, or country.
- **Most IDPs are in urban areas (75 percent of IDP households) and in formal settlements (62 percent of IDP households).**
- **IDPs, like the rest of the Somali population, are overwhelmingly young.** Over 50 percent of IDPs are under 15 years and less than 1 percent are above age 64, driving high dependency ratios (larger than 1 in 1).
- **Like the national population, every second IDP household is headed by a woman.**
- **The incidence and depth of poverty are greater among IDPs than urban residents, but about the same as among rural residents.** 74 percent of IDPs live below the international poverty line, compared to 63 percent of urban residents and 70 percent of rural residents. The poverty gap among IDPs (35 percent) is higher than that of urban

...
residents (24 percent) and the national population (27 percent), but similar to that of rural residents (32 percent).

- **Hunger is more common among IDPs.** 55 percent of IDPs experienced hunger, compared to 43 percent of rural residents and 17 percent of urban residents. More than half of IDP households are food insecure.

- **IDPs have worse living conditions.** One in four IDPs have access to improved housing, which is much worse than among the national population, and host and non-host communities, but similar to the share among rural residents (18 percent). IDPs have better access to improved sanitation and health care than rural residents. However, IDP settlements are severely overcrowded, which largely negates access to improved drinking water and sanitation. IDP settlements are also located further from essential facilities than host communities.

- **Displaced children have lower levels of human capital.** Displaced children are less likely to attend school than children from host communities or children in urban areas. Displaced adults have lower literacy rates than non-IDP adults in urban areas.

- **IDPs participate in the labor force at similar rates to the urban and rural population.** Women are much more likely than men to be economically inactive. Most IDPs do the same work they did before being displaced, but about half of the poorest IDPs and those outside settlements have had to change their main employment.

- **IDPs receive relatively low remittances, indicating a lack of safety nets.**

- **Most IDPs feel safe and report good relations with communities around them.**

- **73 percent of IDPs are productive but poor, 26 percent are self-reliant, and less than 1 percent are support-dependent.** Host communities have a larger share of self-reliant households. Household vulnerability varies by region: almost all IDPs in lower Juba are self-reliant, whereas most households in Banadir, Middle Shabelle, Gedo, Woqooyi Galbeed, and Bay are productive but poor.

- **Somali IDPs have two distinct typologies.** Group 1 (40 percent of IDPs) are more likely to come from agricultural backgrounds and to have been displaced by drought, and their living conditions before being displaced were generally worse than their current living conditions. Group 2 households (60 percent of IDPs) were less dependent on agriculture, had better housing quality before being displaced, and are more likely to have been displaced by conflict. Currently, Group 2 households tend to be less poor, less food insecure, and in better housing conditions than Group 1 households. 70 percent of households in both groups prefer to stay in their current location rather than return to their place of origin or relocate. For both groups, security is the main factor driving preferences to stay, return, or resettle. The typology suggests different home and livelihood restoration efforts for the two groups. Resilience to drought would be key to a durable solution, especially for Group 1.

The authors highlight several priorities for durable solutions for IDPs in Somalia including: investments in human capital to prevent lifelong gaps in social and economic development;
improvement of hosts’ living conditions; substantial investment in infrastructure (particularly in urban and peri-urban areas where most IDPs reside) to prevent a decline in service and livelihood quality of hosts and IDPs and preserve positive IDP-host community relations; support to rural development and resilience to drought to enable IDPs to return or relocate to rural areas; and support to enhance access to education and employment opportunities, especially for the younger population.

South Sudan Case Study

The conflict in South Sudan that began in December 2013 has displaced an estimated 4 million people including about 2.1 million refugees and 1.9 million people IDPs, 15 percent of whom are in camps. The Crisis Recovery Survey (CRS) was conducted in 2017 in four of the largest Protection of Civilian (PoC) sites, all in urban areas (Bentiu PoC in Upper Nile, Bor PoC in Jonglei, Juba PoC in Central Equatoria, and Wau PoC in Western Bahr-el-Ghazal). The fourth wave of the High Frequency Survey (HFS) South Sudan 2017 allows for comparisons of IDPs to urban residents, and represents urban areas in 7 of the 10 pre-war states of South Sudan. HFS 2017 does not cover two of the pre-war states (Jonglei and Unity). Consequently, comparisons are drawn at the overall urban and IDP level.

Key findings:

- **IDPs predominantly fled due to armed conflict** (79 percent of IDP households).
- **IDPs tend to be younger than urban residents, driving high dependency ratios.** About 45 percent of IDPs are under 15, compared to 32 percent of urban residents.
- **IDPs and urban residents have fewer adult men than women.**
- **IDPs are mostly from the Nuer tribe,** which is associated with the opposition group.
- Most IDPs are displaced within their state of origin and have not travelled far.
- **About 37 percent of IDP households and 30 percent of urban households have separated members.** IDP households have less contact with separated members, and most do not have access to family reunification mechanisms.
- **Poverty is widespread among IDPs and rural residents.** More than 90 percent of IDP households are poor, compared to 86 percent of rural residents and 75 percent of urban residents. IDPs have deeper poverty gaps: 54 percent for IDPs compared with 51 percent for rural and 40 percent for urban residents.
- **Despite being poorer, IDPs are less hungry than urban residents.** About 24 percent of IDPs have experienced hunger three or more times during the four weeks prior to the survey compared with 32 percent of urban residents. The lower hunger rates among IDPs may be due to more predictable and stable access to food due to aid.
- **IDPs have experienced a drastic deterioration in living standards—their current living conditions are significantly worse than those of urban residents.** Before displacement, 43 percent of IDPs had improved housing, and 86 percent owned their home. The pre-conflict housing conditions of IDPs were better than those of urban
residents today; 21 percent of urban residents occupy improved housing and 78 percent own their dwelling. Now, almost all IDPs live in overcrowded tents/temporary shelters. Severe overcrowding in dwellings and sanitation facilities reduces living standards, contributes to the spread of communicable diseases, and increases the risk of GBV.

- **IDPs have better educational outcomes than rural residents but worse than urban residents, and men are more likely to be literate.** 53 percent of IDPs above age 14 are literate, compared with 33 percent of rural and 62 percent of urban residents. Women are much less likely than men to be literate in all three groups. While more than half of IDPs are literate, few have studied beyond primary school. About one in four IDPs has a secondary school or university education.

- **Displaced youth are more likely to be idle.** Displaced youth have lower labor force participation than urban youth (32 percent and 63 percent, respectively). One in four displaced youth are idle—neither working, nor looking for work, nor studying.

- **Sex-based disparities in the working-age population are starker for IDPs.** Young women have higher labor force participation and lower educational enrollment than young men. This is particularly evident among IDPs: 51 percent of young men are in education, compared to 28 percent of young women. Among displaced adults, labor force participation trends are reversed; men are more likely to be active in the labor force while women are more likely to be idle.

- **IDPs have lost most of their income-generating assets and depend on aid.** Access to agricultural land fell from 0.8 acres per household before the conflict to about 0.2 acres today. Livestock holdings fell from 42 to 2 livestock units per household. More than 75 percent of IDP households rely on aid as their main source of livelihood.

- **Many IDPs do not feel safe in the camps, and perceptions of safety are quite low.**

- **58 percent of IDPs wish to stay in their current location, 34 percent wish to return to their place of origin and 7 percent wish to resettle in a new location.** IDPs who wish to stay are motivated by better security, services, and assistance in the camps. Security and services are also the most important concerns for IDPs who wish to leave their current location.

- **13 percent of IDP households are support-dependent (mostly located in Bor, Juba and Wau PoCs), 64 percent are productive but poor, and 23 percent are self-reliant.** Urban resident and IDP households are equally likely to be support-dependent, but urban households are four times more likely to be self-reliant than IDP households.

- **IDPs have two typology profiles.** Before displacement, Group 1 households (40 percent) were more likely to derive their income from wages and businesses. Group 2 households (60 percent) were more likely to have agricultural livelihoods, and worse housing quality. Group 2 households tend to be larger, poorer, more aid dependent, and with higher dependency ratios. They also feel less safe in their current environment, and are more confident of returning or resettling soon. However, Group 1 households are more optimistic about their future. Group 1 households are primarily located in Juba and Bor PoCs, while Group 2 households are concentrated in Bentiu and Wau PoCs. Both
groups reported the need for regular and reliable information about the security and political situation in origin areas, as well as in potentially new areas.

The authors highlight several priorities for durable solutions for IDPs in South Sudan including: preserving human capital by strengthening food security, improving living conditions, and improving access to health care, education and employment opportunities; improving access to services and humanitarian assistance; and reliable information provided to displaced populations about the security and political situation in their original place of residence, as well as in any new re-location area where better living conditions. However, any solution will depend on the improvement of security conditions in the country.

Sudan Case Study

Current estimates suggest that as many as two million individuals, five percent of Sudan's population, are internally displaced. The Sudan IDP Profiling Survey 2018 represents IDPs in two camps near Al Fashir. The two camps, Abu Shouk and El Salam, are in the sub-urban and peri-urban areas of Al Fashir, the capital city of the North Darfur state. The host population (residents of Al Fashir) is also represented in the survey.

Key findings:

- Most surveyed IDPs were displaced at the height of the Darfur conflict in 2003–04. About half wish to remain where they are. Most working-age IDPs engage in income-generating activities in or around the camps. Many IDPs who wish to remain in the camps cite concerns about security, but IDPs also appreciate the health and education services offered in the camps. Almost one in two IDPs were either not born or below the age of five at displacement and have grown up in the camps.

- IDPs are young—their demographic profile resembles that of non-IDP populations more than that of newly registered IDPs. 43 percent of IDPs are less than 15 years of age, compared to 40 percent of hosts. Protracted IDPs are older than what is typically observed among newly registered IDPs.

- IDPs and hosts are extremely poor. More than 8 out of 10 IDPs and 6 out of 10 hosts fall below the international poverty threshold.

- Food insecurity is higher among IDPs (64 percent) than among hosts (31 percent).

- IDPs’ dwellings are permanent structures and similar to their houses before the conflict. 99 percent of IDP households live in tukuls (traditional dwellings with circular mud walls and a roof), or other permanent mud or wood structures.

- While access to many services in the camps is better than at IDPs’ places of origin, access to food and electricity is often deficient. Most IDPs have access to improved sources of drinking water and improved sanitation facilities, as well as health centers, schools, and markets—though they have lower school enrollment than hosts.
However, 60 percent of IDPs have high levels of food insecurity and only 9 percent of IDP households have electricity in their homes.

- **Literacy rates among IDPs are similar to those of the host population, but there are significant gaps between men and women.** While IDPs have lower levels of educational attainment, literacy rates among IDP and host populations are similar (70 percent). 78 percent of displaced men are literate, compared to 62 percent of displaced women. Members of female-headed households are less likely to be literate.
- **Employment levels are similar for adult IDPs and hosts, displaced women are more likely to work than host women, and displaced youth are more likely to be working than to be in education.**
- **Before displacement 95 percent of IDP households depended on agriculture as their main source of income; currently less than half of IDP households depend on agriculture.** IDPs who currently rely on agriculture tend to be the poorest. Only one in three IDP households has access to agricultural land and only one in five IDP households owns livestock.
- **6 percent of IDP households depend on aid as their main source of income, and only 20 percent receive any aid at all.** This independence is generally positive, but also reflects limitations on aid access. IDPs largely generate their own income, yet it is barely enough: IDPs who wish to relocate frequently cite the lack of employment and livelihood opportunities in the camps as their main reason.
- **Relations between IDPs and hosts are mostly perceived as good or very good on both sides.**
- **IDPs feel considerably less safe in their neighborhoods than hosts.**
- **Neither IDPs nor host communities exhibit high levels of civic engagement.**
- **IDPs remain economically vulnerable and more so than hosts, despite being productive.** About 70 percent of IDP households are productive but poor, 10 percent are support-dependent. Only 50 percent of host households are productive but poor, and only 4 percent are fully support-dependent.
- **IDPs have two distinct typologies, which can be differentiated based on their displacement year, location, and return intentions.** Before being displaced, Group 1 (39 percent of IDPs) relied more heavily on agriculture. Group 1 IDPs are more likely to have been displaced in 2003-2004. They are more likely to live in a shelter provided by the camp and are therefore closer to services and more likely to have access to an improved water source. However, Group 1 households have a higher poverty rate and a deeper average poverty gap. They are more likely to face food insecurity and to rely on assistance. Most Group 1 households want to relocate, primarily to obtain better access to employment. In contrast, most Group 2 households prefer to stay where they are for security reasons. More than half of Group 2 households are headed by women. Group 2 also seems to have less access to services and worse housing, perhaps because most of them are located far from the main centers of the camps. Supporting Group 1 IDPs implies improving their skills to help them diversify their incomes. Group 2 households...
require gender-responsive programs, increasing their access to safety nets and better living conditions.

The authors conclude that a durable solution for protracted displacement in Al Fashir must: (a) improve living conditions for hosts and IDPs in camps that have become a permanent residence for many; (b) improving the security situation and expanding economic opportunities in return areas; and (c) business skills development and better access to employment opportunities, mainly for agricultural IDPs.

Informing Durable Solutions for Internal Displacement in Nigeria, Somalia, South Sudan, and Sudan: Volume C: Technical Aspects

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Volume C of the study describes some of the innovations in survey methodology and analysis. Specifically:

- In response to underreporting of consumption patterns, the authors propose the adoption of “honesty primes” in survey design. Honest primes were randomly administered to half of the survey respondents in IDP camps and urban areas interviewed across South Sudan in the 2017 HFS. They included: (a) an emphasis on the importance of accurate answers at the beginning of the survey (appeal to honesty); (b) a short fictional scenario which requires passing judgment on the behavior of one of the characters (moral primes); and (c) additional questions to determine when was the last time that the household had a meal, forcing the respondents to explicitly report that they have not eaten in the last week (investigative probing). While the first two questions target intentional misreporting, the latter addresses classical measurement error. The primes helped ascertain whether there was indeed some misreporting of consumption, which might be the case if there was a differential impact on the consumption reported by IDPs relative to non-IDPs, or among the poorest. The results suggest that there was indeed some underreporting and that the honesty primes had an impact on the consumption reported by poorer and more vulnerable respondents.

- The authors also propose clustering approaches to derive typologies of IDPs, to inform the required specificity of programs, and to find durable solutions. Among the displaced, different groups can have different trajectories in displacement. Initial
circumstances of displacement can translate into different needs and solutions depending on the displacement trajectory, which is pertinent for policy and programming. Clustering analysis helps to identify the different typologies of the displaced. The aim of the analysis is to exploit the socioeconomic micro-level data to identify different groups or profiles of displaced households across countries. These typologies are drawn using data on the causes of displacement, the current needs of displaced people, and the potential solution to end displacement.