

**ECONOMIC CONTRIBUTION OF URBAN REFUGEES IN NAIROBI CITY
COUNTY, KENYA**

By

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DECLARATION

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DEDICATION

*To the late **Prof. Omar Egesah***

The late Prof. Omar was a father, a mentor, and, more importantly, he was the coordinator of the AMAS Project which I am one of the beneficiaries.

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ABSTRACT

This study delves into the intricate fabric of urban refugees' existence in Nairobi, Kenya. It focuses on understanding their complex interplay of socio-economic challenges, the ramifications of prevailing policies, and their noteworthy contributions to the economic landscape. Guided by the Neoclassical Theory of Supply and Demand and the New Institutional Economics theory, the study employs a mixed-method approach to explore these multifaceted dynamics comprehensively. Nairobi, a city grappling with the convergence of diverse populations, is the backdrop for this study. Urban refugees in this context confront a web of socio-economic challenges that often intertwine and exacerbate their predicament. These challenges are manifold, including the profoundly entrenched issue of discrimination affecting 68.58% of participants. Language barriers, particularly pertinent among Congolese refugees, pose a significant hurdle for 54.87% of respondents. Meanwhile, an unsettling 53.98% reveal instances of police harassment, underscoring the vulnerability of this population. On the economic front, challenges span the spectrum from limited opportunities (78.76%) and income scarcity (63.72%) to resource constraints (38.05%). These challenges collectively impede access to meaningful employment and hamper the pursuit of sustainable livelihoods. Delving into Kenya's policy landscape exposes a nuanced regulatory framework governing urban refugees. While there is latitude for freedom of movement, the issue of work permits is a pivotal concern. Most urban refugees grapple with the absence of work permits, which hinders their ability to access formal employment channels and avenues for sustainable income generation. However, a silver lining emerges in the form of positive social cohesion. Urban refugees attest to constructive relations with the host community and government authorities, a factor conducive to fostering an environment conducive to economic activities. This social harmony not only engenders economic opportunities but also contributes to the broader narrative of social integration. To assess urban refugees' financial contributions, the study delves into their expenditure patterns and the subsequent impact on the local economy. Employing a rigorous regression analysis framework, the study discerns a robust correlation between refugee expenditure and local economic growth, signifying a 24% connection. This empirical finding effectively underscores the urban refugees' role as active economic agents, wielding power to influence economic dynamics at both local and national levels. Their consumption habits reverberate through the economic fabric, underlining their pivotal contribution to economic expansion. In conclusion, this research transcends the realm of numbers, breathing life into the experiences of urban refugees in Nairobi. This study sheds light on critical aspects of urban refugees' existence by meticulously unravelling the tapestry of socio-economic challenges, policy intricacies, and economic entanglements. As a beacon of insight, this research holds the potential to catalyse meaningful change, guiding policy-makers, international organisations, and local stakeholders toward more informed decisions. Ultimately, this study underscores the resounding potential of urban refugees as agents of economic transformation, uniting the pursuit of livelihoods with the aspiration for social cohesion and integration.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
ABSTRACT.....	v
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	xi
LIST OF TABLES.....	xii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiii
DEFINITION OF TERMS AND OPERATIONALISATION OF VARIABLES.....	xi
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background.....	1
1.2 Problem Statement.....	6
1.3 Research Objectives.....	8
1.3.1 General Objective	8
1.3.2 Specific Objectives	8
1.4 Research Questions.....	8
1.5 Significance of the Study.....	8
1.6 Scope of the Study	9
CHAPTER TWO	11
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	11
2.1 Introduction.....	11
2.2 Refugees in Kenya and Country of Origins.....	11

2.3 Socio-Economic Challenges of Hosting Refugees	13
2.3.1 Unemployment Challenges Facing Refugees and the Government of Kenya.....	15
2.3.2 Insecurity Threat of Hosting Refugees in Kenya.....	16
2.3.3 Education Challenges Facing Refugees in Kenya	20
2.4 Refugees Hosting Economic Impact.....	22
2.5 Education and Refugee Socio-Economic Impact	29
2.6 Refugee Policies and Practices in Host Country	33
2.6.1 Refugee Policies and Practices in Africa	33
2.6.2 Refugee Policies and Practices in Kenya.....	41
2.7 Theoretical Framework.....	44
2.8 Research Gap	52
CHAPTER THREE	54
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	54
3.1 Introduction.....	54
3.2 Research Design and Approach	54
3.3 Target Population and Research Site	57
3.4 Selection of Sample Size	58
3.5 Sources and Nature of Data	61
3.6 Data Management	62
3.8 Data Analysis Strategies	62

3.8.1 Qualitative Data Analysis	63
3.8.2 Model Specification	63
3.9 Validity and Reliability of the Study.....	65
3.10 Ethical Issues	67
3.11 Limitations of the Study.....	67
CHAPTER FOUR.....	69
URBAN REFUGEES’ DEMOGRAPHICS CHARACTERISTICS AND SOCIO- ECONOMIC CHALLENGES IN NAIROBI.....	69
4.1 Introduction.....	69
4.2 Socio-Demographics of the Urban Refugees in Nairobi	69
4.3 Refugees in Nairobi and Country of Origin.....	70
4.4 Urban Refugees Education in Nairobi	72
4.5 Urban Refugees Areas of Residence in Nairobi	73
4.6 Urban Refugees’ Language Proficiency	75
4.7 Refugees’ Challenges and Experiences in Nairobi within the Host Communities	77
4.8 Refugees Housing in Nairobi.....	78
4.9 Urban Refugees’ Freedom of Movement in Nairobi	79
4.10 Refugee Gainful Employment in Nairobi	81
4.11 The Right to own Properties in Kenya by Urban refugees	84
4.12 Social Challenges Facing Urban Refugees in Nairobi.....	85
4.13 Economic Challenges Facing Urban Refugees in Nairobi	87

CHAPTER FIVE	90
KENYA'S POLICY AND PRACTICES ON URBAN REFUGEES IN NAIROBI	90
5.1 Introduction.....	90
5.2 Refugees Policy According to the 1951 Geneva Convention.....	90
5.3 Refugees in Kenya and Policy	91
5.4 Urban Refugees Practices and Policy in Nairobi.....	92
5.5 The Practices of the Urban Refugees in Nairobi	96
CHAPTER SIX	104
ECONOMIC CONTRIBUTION OF URBAN REFUGEES IN NAIROBI COUNTY ..	104
6.1 Introduction.....	104
6.2 Empirical Findings.....	104
6.3 Urban Refugees' Professional Situation	108
6.4 Urban Refugees' employment status in Nairobi	109
6.5 Urban Refugees' Professional Status	110
6.6 Labour Market Entry	110
6.7 Urban Refugees' Primary Source of Cash or Income in Nairobi.....	112
6.8 Urban Refugees' Remittances Received as a Source of Income	113
6.9 Urban Refugees who Received Aid from Humanitarian organisations	114
6.10 Tax Payment to Kenyan Government by Refugees	116
6.11 Urban Refugees' Economic Contribution through Business in Nairobi	117
6.12 Urban Refugees Business License Holders	118

CHAPTER SEVEN.....	120
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	120
7.1 Introduction.....	120
7.2 Summary of the Findings.....	120
7.3 Conclusions.....	123
7.4 Recommendations.....	125
REFERENCES.....	128
APPENDICES	134

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CAPI	Computer-assisted personal interviewing
CNR	Commission National for Refugees
DE	Design Effect
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organisation
IDP	Internal Displaced Person
NACOSTI	National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
OAU	Organisation for Africa Unions
OCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
OLS	Ordinary Least Square
RDS	Respondents-Driven Sampling
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
USD	United States Dollar

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 Refugees and Asylum Seekers in Kenya by Country of Origin and Location.....	12
Table 4.1 Tabulation of the Level of Education and Residence Area	74
Table 6.1 OLS Results of Refugees' Income and Expenditure in Nairobi County.....	104

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 Refugees and Asylum Seekers in Kenya by Country of Origin	13
Figure 3.1 GPS of Respondents Location.....	58
Figure 4.1 Respondents Gender.....	70
Figure 4.2 Respondents' Country of Origins	70
Figure 4.3 Respondents' Marital Status	71
Figure 4.4 Highest Education Level	73
Figure 4.5 Respondents' Area of Residence in Nairobi.....	74
Figure 4.6 English Language Level of Refugees.....	76
Figure 4.7 Kiswahili Language Level of Refugees	76
Figure 4.8 Reason for Fleeing From the Country of Origin	78
Figure 4.9 Type of Accommodation	79
Figure 4.10 Rent Payment	79
Figure 4.11 Freedom of Movement in Nairobi	81
Figure 4.12 Urban Refugees Work Permit Status in Nairobi.....	81
Figure 4.13 Right to Own Property by Refugees.....	84
Figure 4.14 Social Challenges Facing Refugees in Nairobi	85
Figure 4.15 Economic Challenges Facing Refugees in Nairobi.....	86
Figure 5.1 Refugees' Perception of Their Interaction with Government Officials.....	93
Figure 5.2 Refugees' Opinions about Their Interaction with Local Government Officials	94
Figure 5.3 Refugees' Opinion on Security Personnel Attitude Towards Them	95
Figure 5.4 Religious Leaders' Attitude towards Refugees w.r.t Current Situation	96
Figure 5.5 The Refugees' Relationship with the International Organizations (UNHCR)	97

Figure 5.6 The Refugees' Relationship with the NGOs	98
Figure 5.7 The Refugees' Relationship with Kenyans in General	99
Figure 5.8 Kenyans' Attitude towards Refugees.....	100
Figure 5.9 Refugees' Harassment in Nairobi.....	100
Figure 5.10 Refugees' Blackmailing in Nairobi	101
Figure 5.11 Refugees' Arrested or Detained in Nairobi.....	101
Figure 5.12 Refugees' Deportation in Kenya	102
Figure 5.13 Public Services Denial to Refugees in Kenya	102
Figure 5.14 Private Services Denial to Refugees in Kenya.....	103
Figure 5.15 UNHCR Services Denial to Refugees in Kenya	103
Figure 6.1 Urban Refugees' Professional Situation.....	108
Figure 6.2 Urban Refugees Employment Status.....	109
Figure 6.3 Urban Refugees' Professional Status.....	110
Figure 6.4 Finding the Current Job.....	111
Figure 6.5 Refugees' Primary Source of Income in Nairobi	113
Figure 6.6 Remittances Received by Refugees	114
Figure 6.7 Percentage of Urban Refugees Receiving Aid from Humanitarian Organisations	115
Figure 6.8 Type of Aid Received from Humanitarian Organizations	116
Figure 6.9 Tax Payment to Kenyan Government by Refugees.....	117
Figure 6.10 Business Suppliers.....	118
Figure 6.11 Business Demanders.....	118
Figure 6.12 Business License Holders.....	119
Figure 6.13 Tax for Shop	119

DEFINITION OF TERMS AND OPERATIONALISATION OF VARIABLES

Refugees: Individuals forced to flee their home countries for fear of persecution, conflict, or violence have sought refuge in another country (UNHCR, 2021f).

Forced Displacement: The involuntary movement of individuals or groups from their homes or habitual residence due to conflict, persecution, or other environmental or human-made disasters (UNHCR, 2021e).

Urban Refugees: Refugees residing in urban areas rather than designated refugee camps. They often seek opportunities for livelihood and integration in urban environments (Betts et al., 2018).

Socio-economic Challenges: Difficulties faced by individuals influenced by social and economic factors. In this context, these challenges pertain to issues related to discrimination, language barriers, lack of opportunities, income scarcity, and resource limitations faced by refugees (Nanima, 2017).

Work Permit: An official document issued by a host country that grants refugees the legal right to work within its borders (Betts et al., 2018).

Social Cohesion: The level of mutual trust, interaction, and cooperation between different groups within a community, including refugees and the host population (Nanima, 2017).

Economic Contribution: Refugees can positively impact the host community's economy by participating in economic activities, spending patterns, and job creation (UNHCR, 2021e).

Operationalisation of Variables:

1. Socio-economic Challenges (Independent Variable):

- **Discrimination:** Measured as the percentage of respondents who reported experiencing discrimination based on their refugee status.
- **Language Barrier:** Measured as the percentage of respondents who faced challenges due to language differences.
- **Lack of Opportunities:** The percentage of respondents indicated limited access to job and income-generating opportunities.
- **Lack of Income:** Measured as the percentage of respondents who reported inadequate or inconsistent income sources.
- **Lack of Resources:** Measured as the percentage of respondents who faced challenges accessing necessities and resources.

2. Kenya's Refugee Policies and Practices (Independent Variable):

- **Work Permit Issuance:** Measured as the percentage of refugees holding valid work permits.
- **Social Cohesion:** Measured through a Likert scale assessing the level of positive interactions and relationships between refugees and the host community.
- **Access to Services:** Measured as the percentage of refugees reported receiving public and private services without discrimination.

3. Economic Contribution (Dependent Variable):

- Refugee Expenditure: Measured as the percentage of refugees' income spent on goods and services within the host community.

4. Social Cohesion (Mediating Variable):

- Trust and Interaction: Measured through Likert scale questions assessing the degree of trust and interaction between refugees and the host community.

5. Local Economic Growth (Outcome Variable):

- Measured through an analysis of economic indicators such as job creation, increased demand for goods and services, and overall economic activity within the host community.

By defining these terms and operationalising variables, the study aims to provide a clear framework for understanding and analysing the relationships between different factors, contributing to a comprehensive assessment of the socio-economic challenges, policies, contributions, and outcomes of urban refugees in Nairobi County.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The Horn of Africa and the Great Lakes are the regions continuously affected by violent conflict and displacement in Africa. The continued violent conflict causes an exponentially increased number of refugees, with the majority of those refugees in neighbouring countries such as Kenya, Uganda, and Ethiopia. Recent statistics published by United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) show that by mid-2020, 80 million people were forcibly displaced worldwide. Meanwhile, 26.3 million were refugees, 45.7 million were Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) and 4.2 million were Asylum-seekers. Around 73% of those people are hosted in neighbouring countries, and importantly, 85% of them are hosted in developing countries (UNHCR, 2021f).

Kenya is one of the developing countries hosting about half a million (512,494) refugees and Asylum Seekers. This makes it the third-largest refugee-hosting country in Africa after Uganda (1,498,442 Refugees; as of 30 June 2021) (UNHCR, 2021e) and Ethiopia (785,322 Refugees; as of 30 June 2021) (UNHCR, 2021a). The vast majority of those refugees (54%) are from Somalia, followed by (25%) of refugees from South Sudan, the Democratic Republic of Congo (9%), Ethiopia (5.7%), Burundi (3%), Sudan (2%), and other nationalities (Uganda, Eritrea, Rwanda and more is about 1.3%). Despite the restrictions and the encampment policies the Government of Kenya put in place, out of the 512,494 refugees and asylum seekers in Kenya, 81,574 reside in the urban areas (Nairobi, Nakuru,

and Mombasa). The rest reside in the camps (430,920) without mentioning the undocumented urban refugees in the country (UNHCR-KENYA, 2021).

Even though Kenya is a signatory to both the 1951 Refugees Convention and the 1967 Refugees Protocol, and the 1969 OAU Convention on refugees, and has ratified various other international instruments protecting human rights. In late 2006, Kenya enacted the first refugee legislation, the Refugees Act (2006).

Although the 1951 Convention holds a contracting State responsible for, according to refugees, lawfully staying on its territory, the right to choose their place of residence and to move freely within its territory, Kenya has since the early 1990s practised a policy of encampment which obliges the majority of refugees to remain within the confines of refugee camps. The Refugees Act (2006) does not explicitly indicate whether refugees must reside in these designated areas. Still, it provides for legal sanctions against those who contravene the Act by residing, without authority, outside camps in urban areas (UNHCR, 2020d).

Indeed, the situation is in Kenya with others. Crisp (2003) points out that in some African countries of asylum, refugees are confronted with legal constraints on their economic activities; they do not have access to land, they are not allowed to enter the labour market, and they cannot take out commercial loans. Restrictions on their freedom of movement make it difficult for them to engage in trade. Furthermore, the ability to engage in agricultural, wage-earning, and income-generating opportunities is denied to refugees. Nanima (2017) points out a couple of consequences of that kind of restriction by saying

that the restriction of freedom of movement affects the enjoyment of rights by refugees and the integration of refugees into the economic and social life of the country.

Meanwhile, a study conducted in Kenya by Upton (2015) shows that when refugees can exercise income-generating activities, they contribute positively and significantly to the host country's economy. Moreover, besides being customers and creating demand for goods and services, his study found that refugee households with businesses make employment for refugees and Kenyan nationals. He adds that almost half of those working in refugee-owned enterprises are Kenyan nationals. This statement leads us to ask whether the regulatory regime in urban circumstances does not stop refugees' influx, prevent them from settling in the host country, and contribute positively and significantly to the host community economy. To understand this unclear fact, this study assessed the nature and magnitude of urban refugee problems in Nairobi, examined the impact of Kenya's policies on refugee settlement and economic activities, and finally evaluated the influence of refugee contribution on the host community's economy.

Assessing the nature and magnitude of urban refugees' problems in Nairobi is essential in understanding the reality of the socio-economic facts in the host community where refugees interact because they do not interact in a vacuum. Since refugees face a distinctive regulatory environment in Kenya compared to the host community, this study sought to assess the nature and magnitude of urban refugees' problems in Nairobi, how those challenges affect their income-generating activities, and how they vary from one refugee to another. According to Betts *et al.* (2018), refugees in Kenya face a particular economic governance framework. The restrictions on the right to work and freedom of movement define this. In practice, "there is a de facto legal pluralism within Kenya. Restrictions are

enforced differently and implemented in different parts of the country; the camps and Nairobi represent different regulatory environments” (Betts et al., 2018). Nevertheless, this study was interested in discovering the socio-economic challenges facing the refugees in Nairobi, where the policy differs from the one on paper, host community, and government. The study revealed that 97.79 per cent of the refugees say they are free to move within Nairobi. Meanwhile, 2.21 per cent say they do not have freedom of movement in Nairobi. This shows that the restriction policy in the camps differs from the one in the urban areas of Nairobi.

The Refugees Act (2006) stipulates that “the refugee and asylum seeker shall be issued with a refugee identity card or pass in the prescribed form and be permitted to remain in Kenya following the provisions”. While waiting to issue the identity card, the refugee must be confined in a designated place for verification purposes or in a designated camp. However, while in a base, the refugee is prohibited from travelling to other parts of the country unless granted permission, including seeking medication or education. Meanwhile, the same Act states that “every refugee and member of his family in Kenya shall in respect of wage-earning employment be subject to the restrictions imposed on the persons who are not citizens of Kenya”. What is happening in practice on the ground about this freedom of movement and right to work in the urban area of Kenya in Nairobi? The research found that the majority (68.14 per cent) of the urban refugees in the sample study do not have work permits.

However, only 31.86 per cent do have. Betts *et al.* (2017) note that refugees engage in significant economic activities no matter the restrictive circumstances, even under the radar of host country authorities. This allows them to create new opportunities for themselves

and others worldwide. According to Betts *et al.* (2018), refugees in Nairobi usually enjoy better economic freedom. This is because there are variations in refugee policy enforcement between the national and local levels. Does it mean that some refugees are favoured and granted freedom of movement and the right to work over others? The study has revealed that 44.69 per cent of the urban refugees are self-employed, while 20.35 per cent are jobless but looking for a job. Moreover, only 17.7 per cent of refugees are waged employees, and about 8.85 per cent are students.

Finally, suppose the law enables them to move freely and access work. In that case, evaluating their economic contribution becomes relevant to understand better their interaction with the host community in Nairobi. Some research done in Sub-Saharan Africa, even from developed countries, revealed that refugees contribute positively to the host country's economy. "The costs and benefits in the short and medium term depend on factors such as the characteristics of the refugees as well as the economic and political context of the host countries" (Khoudour & Andersson, 2017: p20). This means that the contribution of the urban refugees to the host community economy greatly depends on the law and regulations put in place by the host government. Dadush (2018) looks at the question of hosting refugees strictly from an economic perspective in economically advanced countries. He considers all the main economic dimensions, such as fiscal, economic growth, and labour market impact. He discovers that the costs of hosting refugees are front-loaded for most advanced countries, while the benefits of hosting them only accrue over time. Alloush *et al.* (2017), who based their research on three refugee camps in Rwanda, found out that when the refugees are financially included in the host country, they generate more income and positively and significantly impact the host

community economies. Nevertheless, this study examined the socio-economic perspective in Kenya by considering the economic dimensions such as the labour market impact, expenditure and income, financial contribution through entrepreneurship, and ethical and social considerations of refugees in the host community in Nairobi. The findings showed that most urban refugees (52.65 per cent) in the study sample said they are self-employed, and the rest (47.35 per cent) are employed. The study also showed that those who own businesses buy their products from Kenyans.

That means they contribute to the host country's economy by buying from them (demand for goods and services). In the same way, the refugees sell to the Kenyans, meaning that they contribute to the host country's economy by going business with the host community (supply of goods and services).

1.2 Problem Statement

The economic contribution of urban refugees in Nairobi, Kenya, is a complex issue influenced by various factors such as government policies, labor market dynamics, and the refugees' integration into the local economy. Despite the growing recognition of refugees as active economic agents, the discrepancy between official policy frameworks and the practical experiences of refugees in Nairobi raises questions about the ideal conditions for urban refugees to maximize their economic participation. This study seeks to address this gap by conducting a comprehensive investigation into the economic engagement of urban refugees in Nairobi, aiming to understand the intricate dynamics and potential impacts on the host community.

As evidenced by the growing body of literature focused on the economic contributions of refugees in host countries, it becomes evident that refugees are not merely passive beneficiaries of aid but rather active economic agents who can make positive contributions to the host economy when integrated effectively. The increased demand for goods and services, often driven by the refugee population, has a tangible impact on the labour and goods markets. This is illustrated in the basic economic principle that heightened demand for specific products stimulates increased production and subsequently augments the demand for labour. Consequently, this increases employment opportunities and wage levels for the host community and refugees (Schneiderheinze & Lücke, 2020).

Refugees, however, play a multifaceted role beyond consumption; their presence can create openings for the host community, mainly if the regulatory framework of the host nation is conducive to such outcomes. These individuals can serve as catalysts for international organisations and donors to engage, effectively attracting investment and establishing job opportunities for the local population. Betts et al. (2018) emphasise the heterogeneous regulatory environments refugees face in Kenya, with camp restrictions differing from those experienced in urban areas such as Nairobi. In the context of Nairobi, refugees encounter varied degrees of labour market and movement restrictions, suggesting a gap between policy and its practical implications. The extent and manner refugees engage in economic activities with the host community need to be clarified, necessitating a thorough assessment of their financial contributions.

Given the substantial presence of urban refugees registered with the UNHCR, Nairobi emerges as a fitting research site. As of May 31, 2021, Nairobi's registered refugee and asylum-seeker population was 82,028 (UNHCR, 2021b). However, a key question arises:

What constitutes the ideal situation for urban refugees in Kenya? Ideally, urban refugees should have the agency to function as total economic participants.

1.3 Research Objectives

1.3.1 General Objective

The main objective of this research is to evaluate the economic contribution of urban refugees settled in Nairobi to the host community economy.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

More specifically, the objectives of this study were to:

1. Assess the socio-economic characteristics of urban refugees in Nairobi,
2. Examine the effect of Kenya's policy and practices on urban refugees in Nairobi,
3. Evaluate the influence of refugee contribution to Nairobi County's economy.

1.4 Research Questions

The following research questions answered the study:

1. What are the socio-economic challenges facing refugees in Nairobi?
2. What are Kenya's refugee policy and practices and their effect on urban refugees in Nairobi?
3. What is urban refugees' economic contribution to Nairobi County?

1.5 Significance of the Study

Kenya, the third-largest refugee-hosting country in Africa, imposes various policies on the refugee population (UNHCR, 2021b). Analysing the socio-economic challenges facing urban refugees, assessing the different policies and practices, and evaluating their

economic contribution to the host community where they interact within Nairobi is an opportunity to contribute to the growing literature in refugee economics studies.

Additionally, this study contributes to the forced migration research field, economics and development literature because it is an interdisciplinary study but lies down in the field of forced migration studies. Moreover, it improves the socioeconomic challenges facing the Urban Refugees and the Government of Kenya.

Nevertheless, the study will help to address asylum policy related to refugee economic inclusion in developing countries by international organisations and policymakers. It will also show the causal effect relationship among research variables associated with Nairobi County, which will add value for the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees to advocate on behalf of refugees with the Government of Kenya on how to inform refugee integration in urban areas in the country.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to evaluate the economic contribution of urban refugees settled in Nairobi to the host community economy. More specifically, it was to assess the nature and magnitude of urban refugees' problems in Nairobi, to examine the impact of Kenya's policies on refugee settlement and economic activities, and evaluate the financial contribution of those urban refugees in Nairobi to the host community economy. Nairobi (Kenya) was the selected study area to enable this research to achieve its objectives because of the urban concentration and most urban refugees reside in that sizeable metropolitan city.

Moreover, Nairobi was the right choice of the area of the study because of the concentration of urban refugees in the city, and they are legally registered (as of 31 May 2021, the Registered Refugees and Asylum-Seekers Host in Nairobi were 82,028) (UNHCR, 2021b). The age bracket interviewed was between 18 and 70 years because of the work age range in Kenya. The study covered Kasarani, Ruaraka, Kibra, Kamukunji, Starehe, Embakasi East, Dagoretti North, Roysambu constituencies and others.

Regarding the vast number of refugees registered in Nairobi, the study was eager to determine whether the policies related to refugees hosting in Kenya favoured the urban refugees in Nairobi to contribute to the host community economies. The issue of urban refugees' economic inclusion has been given attention by international organisations such as European Union and UNHCR. However, their economic contribution remains under evaluation, and the majority of them have limited access to opportunities and are left in limbo (UNHCR, (2019a), Joyce, (2020)).

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The literature review chapter presents a comprehensive exploration of key contributions in the field of refugee studies, forced migration, displacement, and economics. This chapter begins with examining the specific case of refugees in Kenya, shedding light on their economic activities, contributions to the host country's economy, and the policies that shape their livelihoods. Subsequently, it delves into a broader analysis of literature concerning the economic aspects of refugees, including their economic impact on the host community and the theoretical frameworks used to understand their financial behaviours. By synthesising these diverse sources, the literature review chapter aims to provide a solid foundation for understanding the complex dynamics of refugee economies and their implications on the broader social and economic landscape.

2.2 Refugees in Kenya and Country of Origins

Table 2.1 and Figure 2.1 describe the Refugee population in Kenya. As of June 2020, the total population of refugees in Kenya is 494,921. Less than half (209,309) of that population is Somalis Refugees, and they are based in Dadaab camp, and a few (34,894) of them are in Kakuma camp and urban area (21,627). As far as the South Sudanese Refugees are concerned, they are hosted in Kakuma camp (84,404), Kalobeyei settlement (28,900), and Urban area (8,455) and very of them reside in Dadaab Camp (612). The third largest number of refugees hosted by Kenya is the Democratic Republic of Congo Refugees; they are hosted in the majority in an urban area of Nairobi (30,672), some of them are in

Kakuma (12,475) and Kalobeyei settlement (1,417). The rest are hosted in the Dadaab camp. Moreover, there are also Ethiopian, Burundi, Sudanese and Ugandan Refugees hosted in Kenya, but they are in the minority. They also reside in those camps, settlements and urban areas.

Table 2.1 Refugees and Asylum Seekers in Kenya by Country of Origin and Location

Country of Origins	Dadaab	Kakuma	Kalobeyei	Urban	Total
Somalia	209,309	34,894	103	21,627	265,933
South Sudan	612	84,404	28,900	8,455	122,371
DR Congo	72	12,475	1,417	30,672	44,636
Ethiopia	7,354	5,467	4,938	11,036	28,795
Burundi	63	9,067	2,682	4,235	16,047
Sudan	22	9,489	330	179	10,020
Uganda	70	1,215	408	889	2,582
Eritrea	4	33	1	1,838	1,876
Rwanda	7	614	62	1,162	1,845
Other	3	107	39	667	816
Total	217,516	157,765	38,880	80,760	494,921

Source: (UNHCR, 2020b), as of June 2020

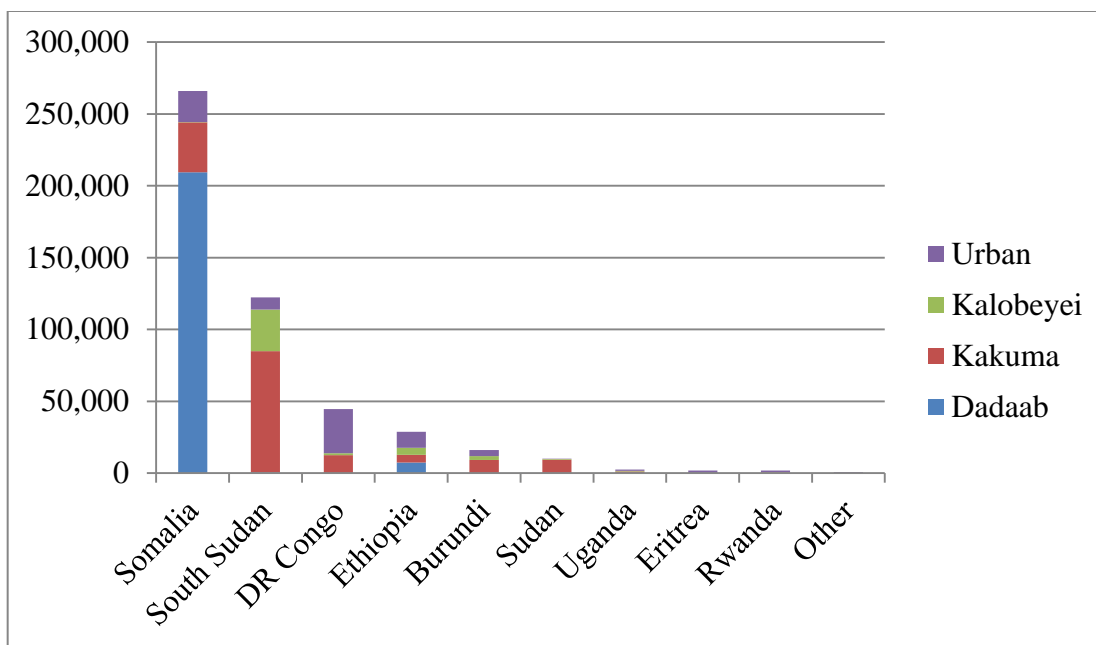


Figure 2.1 Refugees and Asylum Seekers in Kenya by Country of Origin

Source: UNHCR (2020b).

2.3 Socio-Economic Challenges of Hosting Refugees

The economic inclusion of refugees in host communities, particularly in developing countries in Africa, is crucial for their protection and long-term integration. According to UNHCR (2019b), economic inclusion involves providing refugees access to labour markets, finance, entrepreneurship, and economic opportunities. However, implementing such strategies is not without challenges, as governments in developing countries like Kenya often hesitate to grant refugees access to decent work due to concerns about high unemployment rates and security issues, as highlighted in the Global Strategy Concept Note (2019-2023).

Uganda, known for its open-door policy towards refugees, hosts many refugees, reaching 1,475,312 as of June 2021 (UNHCR, 2021d). Despite its reputation for refugee protection, Uganda faces challenges in adequately protecting refugees, especially vulnerable groups

like refugee girls at risk of child marriage, teenage pregnancies, health issues, and gender-based violence (UNHCR, 2020g). Scarce resources at the district level further exacerbate the difficulties in providing sufficient support and protection. Economic integration and sustainable inclusion of refugees also encounter barriers due to Uganda's economic challenges, such as lack of diversification, high public debt, weak institutions, and political uncertainty, as stated in the Uganda Refugee Response Plan by UNHCR (2020f). Additionally, language barriers and limited access to internet connectivity hinder the inclusion of refugee children, particularly Congolese refugees, in educational opportunities. Moreover, refugees face inequalities in accessing justice.

Ethiopia, another major refugee-hosting African country, accommodates approximately 785,322 refugees as of June 2021 (UNHCR-Ethiopia, 2021). Despite adopting a National Plan for refugee protection and gender-based violence prevention in 2019, Ethiopia faces persistent challenges in addressing underlying gender imbalances and inequalities. Issues such as unequal enrollment of boys and girls in schools, domestic gender-based violence, and harmful traditional practices like female genital mutilation within the Somali refugee population persist. Early and forced marriages are also prevalent among the South Sudanese refugee population. Limited energy supply and food assistance further strain the capacity to protect refugees effectively. The education sector also faces significant challenges, including a shortage of learning spaces, a lack of textbooks, insufficient qualified teachers, crowded classrooms, and limited resources for opening secondary schools for refugees in host areas (UNHCR, 2020a).

Therefore, the economic inclusion of refugees in African countries is essential for their protection and successful integration into host communities. However, numerous

challenges hinder the effective implementation of policies to achieve economic inclusion. These challenges range from security concerns and high unemployment rates to limited resources, gender-based violence, and educational limitations. To overcome these obstacles, governments, international organisations, and local communities must collaborate to develop sustainable solutions that address refugees' unique needs while considering the host countries' broader socio-economic context.

2.3.1 Unemployment Challenges Facing Refugees and the Government of Kenya

The Refugees Act (2006) in Kenya outlines how refugees or asylum seekers can access work opportunities within the country. According to the Act, refugees, as non-citizens, are required to obtain the necessary work permit, known as the "class M" permit, to be allowed to work in Kenya. This permit is issued without any charges and can be obtained by refugees with recommendations from employers and a letter from the Department of Refugee Affairs (Zetter & Ruaudel, 2016).

However, the high unemployment rate in Kenya poses a significant challenge to implementing this policy. Unemployment refers to the proportion of people actively seeking employment but cannot find jobs. It includes individuals who have lost jobs, those seeking new employment, and those who lack job opportunities due to a labour market imbalance (Pletcher, 2020). The unemployment rate in Kenya was reported to be around 9.31 per cent in 2019, making it difficult for the government to grant refugees access to the labour market.

As a result, the issuance of "class M" permits is rare, as the government fears that allowing refugees the right to employment may lead to long-term residence and potential job losses among unskilled residents. Most refugees often end up in the informal job market and need

more contact with local authorities, making it challenging to access formal employment opportunities (Zetter & Ruaudel, 2016).

Kenya, classified as a low-middle-income country, still has high poverty rates, and a substantial portion of its population lives below the poverty line. The country's large informal labour market means that most urban refugees engage in everyday economic activities, with only a minority holding "Class M" permits and running their businesses. Those working in urban areas often find themselves in low-paying jobs. According to NOOR (2019), refugees face limited employment opportunities, with only a few able to secure formal employment, primarily due to the lack of qualifications for such jobs. This lack of capability can be attributed to limited access to higher education, vocational training, and language barriers.

Therefore, the economic integration of refugees in Kenya faces multiple challenges, primarily from the high unemployment rate and the prevalence of informal employment. The limited issuance of work permits and the refugees' difficulties in accessing formal job opportunities due to education and language barriers further compound the situation. To address these issues effectively, policymakers must devise comprehensive strategies that tackle the country's unemployment challenges and enhance the skills and qualifications of refugees to enable their meaningful participation in the labour market. Such efforts would contribute to the economic well-being of both the refugees and the host community.

2.3.2 Insecurity Threat of Hosting Refugees in Kenya

The evolution of refugee policy in Kenya has mainly been driven by security concerns rather than a focus on protection considerations and economic inclusion (Andrew Maina, 2019). The perception of refugees as a transitory issue and a potential threat to national

security has shaped the government's approach towards them. One significant event that intensified security concerns was the Westgate Mall attack in Nairobi, where many lives were lost. The attack was attributed to the al-Shabaab group, an Islamic militant organisation based in Somalia. In the aftermath of the attack, the Kenyan government threatened to repatriate Somali refugees back to Somalia, viewing them as potential agents of terrorism, which further deepened the negative perception of Somali refugees as a security risk to the country (Iazzolino, 2020).

Cultural differences and clashes between refugees and the host community have also contributed to insecurity. The coexistence of different beliefs and traditions nearby can lead to conflicts between the two groups (Anomat Ali et al., 2017). Some refugee settlements in Nairobi are even identified by the name or culture of their country of origin, such as "Little Mogadishu" in Eastleigh, which can create divisions and tensions between communities (Mutuku, 2018).

Another source of tension arises from the disparities in living standards among refugees. Some refugees receive remittances or financial aid from non-governmental organisations, leading to a perception among the host community that refugees are economically better off (NOOR, 2019). This perception can foster resentment and conflicts, as host communities may feel that resources are disproportionately allocated to refugees.

In refugee camps, conflicts also emerge due to the competition for limited resources, leading to raids and violence. Bandits and even some police officers stationed in the bases may exploit refugees for their possessions, further exacerbating refugee insecurity (Ali, 2010).

Gender-based violence is another pressing issue in refugee camps, with numerous cases of rape and assault reported, particularly in the Daadab camp (UNHCR, 2006). Such violence traumatises its victims and contributes to the overall sense of insecurity and instability within the centre.

The challenges faced by the Kenyan government in managing refugee issues, especially in large camps like Daadab, have led to discussions of closing these camps and repatriating refugees to their countries of origin (Anomat Ali et al., 2017). Funding shortages from developed countries, competition for limited resources, and increased terrorist attacks in Kenya have all contributed to this consideration.

However, taking a critical and discussion approach to address these challenges effectively is essential. More than simply closing camps and repatriating refugees may not be a sustainable solution, as it does not fully address the root causes of insecurity and may further exacerbate humanitarian crises. Instead, a comprehensive approach that involves dialogue, collaboration, and cooperation among the government, international organisations, host communities, and refugees is necessary.

Promoting the economic inclusion of refugees is one way to address some security concerns. By enabling refugees to access formal employment, vocational training, and education, the government can create opportunities for self-reliance and reduce the competition for resources (Zetter & Ruaudel, 2016). This can also help dispel negative stereotypes about refugees burdening the economy and foster a more positive perception among the host community.

Moreover, addressing gender-based violence and protecting the rights of women and girls in refugee camps is crucial. Implementing effective measures to prevent and respond to such violence is necessary to create a safe and secure environment for refugees (UNHCR, 2006). Additionally, promoting cultural integration and understanding between refugees and the host community can help mitigate conflicts arising from cultural differences (Anomat Ali et al., 2017). Encouraging social interactions and community cooperation can lead to greater acceptance and harmony. The government of Kenya should also engage in diplomatic efforts to address the root causes of refugee crises, such as conflicts in neighbouring countries. Collaborating with international organisations to find durable solutions for refugees, including voluntary repatriation, resettlement, or local integration, can help alleviate the pressure on the camps and reduce security concerns (Iazzolino, 2020).

Kenya's security-focused approach to refugee policy has challenged refugees' protection and economic inclusion. To address these challenges effectively, it is essential to adopt a comprehensive and discussion strategy that addresses the root causes of insecurity and promotes the well-being of refugees and the host community. By ensuring economic opportunities, addressing gender-based violence, promoting cultural integration, and engaging in diplomatic efforts for durable solutions, Kenya can foster a more inclusive and secure environment for refugees. Collaboration between the government, international organisations, host communities, and refugees is critical to finding sustainable and humane solutions to refugee issues.

2.3.3 Education Challenges Facing Refugees in Kenya

The lack of sufficient humanitarian aid in refugee camps often compels many refugees to seek better opportunities in urban centres like Nairobi, where they hope to improve their lives and access improved facilities, particularly education (Karanja, 2010). Refugee parents consider education a powerful tool to empower their children and pave the way for a better future, hoping to gain essential skills and secure improved job prospects.

One of the significant factors driving refugees away from camps and towards cities is the poor quality of education provided in the centres. Carciotto & D'Orsi (2017) highlight that refugees frequently express dissatisfaction with the education offered in the camps, which fails to equip them with the necessary skills to meet market demands. Camp education services cover various age groups, including language lessons, early childhood education, primary education, and vocational training. However, the limited movement of some teachers in the camps contributes to the delivery of subpar education. Additionally, the inadequate infrastructure leads to overcrowded learning centres, depriving many students of proper learning environments.

Despite the availability of free primary education in Kenya, refugee children may face barriers to enrolment due to the lack of clear documentation from UNHCR and birth certificates (Karanja, 2010). This documentation challenge can prevent refugee children from accessing education opportunities in the country. Moreover, the surge in Kenyan children benefiting from free primary education has led to overcrowding in schools, which may further limit space and facilities for refugees. Discrimination and reluctance from some school administrators to enrol refugees also contribute to the educational challenges faced by refugee children in urban areas.

Economic hardship and unemployment among refugee parents can deter them from sending their children to school. Securing work permits for income-generating activities can be a struggle for refugee parents, leaving them with limited financial resources to support their children's education (Karanja, 2010). Even when free primary education is available, the harsh economic conditions experienced by refugee parents may hinder their ability to provide essential educational materials, such as notebooks, desks, and uniforms. In response to these challenges, some refugees, particularly the Sudanese, have taken the initiative to start their schools to ensure that their children gain the necessary educational skills demanded in the job market (Karanja, 2010). This approach is driven by the desire to avoid discrimination faced by refugees in Kenyan public and private schools. However, financial constraints persist as the Kenyan government and UNHCR do not support these schools. Instead, limited assistance comes from the Sudanese refugee community and other donors. Comprehensive efforts are needed to address the importance of education for refugees and their competitiveness in the labour market. Education is a means of empowerment and a pathway towards self-sufficiency for refugees in the host community. To achieve this, a multi-pronged approach is required.

Firstly, efforts should be made to improve the quality of education in refugee camps. Proper training and support for teachers can enhance education delivery, equipping refugees with relevant skills that align with market demands (Carciotto & D'Orsi, 2017). Investment in infrastructure and learning materials will also create conducive learning environments for refugees.

Secondly, there should be a streamlined process for documenting and enrolling refugee children in schools. Collaboration between UNHCR and relevant government agencies can

facilitate the issuance of necessary documents, removing barriers to refugee education access.

Furthermore, the Kenyan government and international organisations should increase support for refugee education initiatives, including the schools started by refugees. Financial assistance can help these schools maintain educational standards and enhance the prospects of refugee children in the job market. Moreover, vocational training programs should be expanded to cater to the specific needs of refugees. Such programs can equip refugees with practical skills that increase their employability and self-sufficiency.

In summary, education plays a pivotal role in the lives of refugees, offering hope for a better future and increased self-reliance. The challenges faced by refugees in accessing quality education should be addressed through improved educational facilities, simplified documentation processes, and increased financial support for educational initiatives. By investing in the education of refugees, Kenya can unlock their potential, foster integration, and contribute to the country's social and economic development.

2.4 Refugees Hosting Economic Impact

The economic impact of hosting refugees on host nations can be positive and negative, depending on various factors. One of the adverse effects mentioned is the potential strain on local resources, such as hospitals, schools, infrastructure, and available land, especially in the short term (Deardorff & Miller, 2018). The perception that refugees take jobs from nationals and do not contribute to the costs of housing, goods, and services further adds to the burden. Additionally, hosting refugees may require the host country to allocate resources to pay salaries and expenses for officials involved in refugee-related tasks, such as setting up camps and providing healthcare and education.

Baloch et al. (2017) focused on the economic impact of Afghan refugees in Pakistan and found a substantial negative effect on economic growth in the host country. This negative impact is likely due to various economic and social factors related to hosting many refugees over an extended period. However, it is worth noting that refugees can also have positive economic impacts on host states. When given access to the labour market and allowed to move freely, they can create jobs, contribute to agricultural production, and attract international aid that boosts the host country's gross regional product.

In contrast to previous research, Alloush et al. (2017) conducted a study on Congolese refugees in Rwanda. They found that cash aid to refugees had significant positive income spill-overs to host-country businesses and households. Their models revealed that an additional refugee increased total real income within the host country and increased trade between the local economy and the rest of Rwanda. The economic spill-overs resulted from refugee households and businesses purchasing goods and services from companies outside the camps, and some refugees even provided labour to host country farms and businesses, creating additional economic gains.

The study commissioned by Upton (2015) to investigate the economic contribution of urban refugees in Kenya showed that most urban refugees were not solely reliant on NGO support for their livelihood. Instead, the majority relied on remittances, business profits, and employment for income. Additionally, refugee households with businesses were found to create employment opportunities for refugees and Kenyan nationals, with almost half of all employees in refugee-owned enterprises being Kenyan nationals. These findings underscore how refugees can contribute positively to the host country's economy by creating jobs and fostering economic growth.

The economic impact of hosting refugees is multifaceted and cannot be simplified as solely positive or negative. It is influenced by a combination of factors, including the size of the refugee population relative to the host country's population and economy, the duration of the refugee presence, the policies and measures put in place by the host country to integrate refugees, and the ability of refugees to access the labour market and contribute to economic activities. To harness the positive economic potential of hosting refugees, host countries must adopt inclusive policies that enable refugees to access education, healthcare, and the labour market. Vocational training and language classes can enhance refugees' skills and employability, leading to economic self-sufficiency and reduced dependency on aid.

Furthermore, fostering economic integration and cooperation between refugees and the host community can bring mutual benefits. Promoting initiatives encouraging refugees to establish businesses and invest in the local economy can create jobs and stimulate economic growth. Additionally, facilitating trade and economic interactions between refugee communities and the host country can create economic opportunities for both parties.

However, addressing the challenges and potential negative impacts of hosting refugees is also essential. Straining resources can be managed through targeted investments in infrastructure and service provision. By working with international organisations and donors, host countries can access financial support to alleviate the burden on social services and enhance the overall welfare of refugees and host communities.

Therefore, the economic impact of hosting refugees is complex and contingent on various factors. While some studies highlight adverse effects, others show the potential for positive economic contributions from refugees. To maximise the benefits and mitigate challenges,

host countries must adopt inclusive and proactive policies that facilitate economic integration and cooperation between refugees and the host community. With the right approach, hosting refugees can be an opportunity for economic growth, social cohesion, and mutual prosperity.

Dryden-Peterson & Hovil (2004) shed light on the resourcefulness and resilience of self-settled refugees in Uganda's Moyo District. Despite opting out of the settlement structure and forgoing basic aid such as food, non-food items, and land allocations, these refugees have chosen to engage in various commercial activities throughout the district. Their decision reflects a preference for pursuing self-reliance and seizing commercial opportunities, even without support from UNHCR or NGOs. The example of a young boy travelling to Sudan during the mango season to pick and sell mangoes exemplifies the ingenuity and determination of refugees to generate income and support themselves, even without external assistance.

Betts et al. (2017) conducted a significant study in Uganda, focusing on enhancing opportunities for refugee self-reliance and understanding the markets in which refugees participate. Their findings revealed that refugees in urban areas, such as Kampala, have higher income levels and lower dependency on aid than refugees in other sites. This underscores the importance of host country policies that enable refugees to settle, have freedom of movement, and access to work opportunities. When refugees integrate into local economies, they can contribute positively to their households' financial well-being and the host country's economy.

Moreover, Zhu et al. (2016) researched refugee settlements in Uganda and found that refugees significantly impact local economies. Specifically, refugee households that

received cash food assistance contributed substantially to the local economy. An average refugee household's additional income was noteworthy at Rwamwanja and Adjumani settlements. However, the type of aid provided to refugees, whether in cash or food, influenced the extent of economic impact on the host community and the country's economy. Hence, policymakers should carefully design aid policies to maximise positive effects on the host country's economic growth.

The research collectively showcases the potential economic contributions of refugees in the host country. Their entrepreneurial spirit and ability to engage in commercial activities demonstrate their desire for self-reliance and willingness to seize opportunities for economic betterment. While refugees may initially face challenges and limitations, their resourcefulness allows them to adapt and create income-generating activities, benefitting themselves and the local economy. However, it is crucial to note that the economic impact of hosting refugees is not uniform across all contexts. Factors such as host country policies, market conditions, and the availability of resources can influence refugees' ability to become economically self-reliant. Therefore, policymakers and humanitarian organisations must consider refugees' diverse needs and circumstances when designing assistance programs.

Additionally, fostering a conducive environment for refugee self-reliance requires a comprehensive approach. Providing refugees access to education, vocational training, and work opportunities can enhance their employability and potential contributions to the host economy. Empowering refugees with the right skills and resources enables them to participate actively in their new communities. Furthermore, collaboration between host

communities and refugees can lead to mutually beneficial outcomes. When refugees are integrated into local economies, they can create jobs, enhance market demand, and stimulate economic growth. This integration fosters social cohesion and reduces tensions between refugees and the host community. Nonetheless, addressing potential challenges that may arise from increased economic activities by refugees is essential. Strains on local resources and infrastructure must be managed effectively to ensure equitable access to critical services for refugees and the host population. Equitable distribution of economic opportunities can also help prevent competition and resentment between refugees and nationals.

Notably, the research discussed highlights the economic potential of hosting refugees, particularly when refugees are empowered to become self-reliant and contribute actively to the host country's economy. Their resourcefulness and willingness to engage in commercial activities showcase their determination to improve their livelihoods. However, realising the full economic benefits of hosting refugees requires supportive policies, inclusive programs, and collaborative efforts between refugees, host communities, and policymakers. By harnessing the economic potential of refugees, host countries can create an environment where both refugees and nationals thrive and contribute positively to social and economic development.

The research by Deardorff (2018) provides valuable insights into the economic contributions of refugees in Canada. Contrary to common perceptions, refugees in Canada report higher rates of employment and higher incomes and pay more taxes compared to other immigrant groups. This indicates that refugees are self-sufficient and actively contribute to the Canadian economy. Additionally, refugees attract international

organisations and aid workers, benefiting host communities through increased economic activity and development.

Similarly, Sanghi Apurva's (2016) study in the Kakuma refugee camp in Kenya highlights the positive economic impact of refugees in the region. The research reveals that the presence of refugees boosts the gross regional product by over 3 per cent and increases employment opportunities by about 3 per cent. The neighbouring Turkana area also experiences development and sees a 6 per cent increase in per capita host incomes due to economic integration resulting from the presence of refugees. These findings indicate that hosting refugees can benefit host communities significantly, increasing economic activity and improving living standards.

Gengo et al. (2017) study in the same Kakuma Refugee Camp further supports the notion of positive effects on host communities. The study found that refugees positively affected Turkana's nutritional status, suggesting that economic opportunities associated with refugees contribute to improved well-being for the host population. This finding highlights the potential for refugees to create economic opportunities that benefit not only themselves but also the local communities in which they reside.

These research findings challenge the notion that refugees invariably have a negative economic impact on host communities in developing countries. While there may be initial challenges, such as strains on resources and services, the financial contributions of refugees can lead to significant positive outcomes. When refugees are given opportunities to engage in the local economy, they can create demand for goods and services, which benefits local businesses and stimulates economic growth.

Policymakers and host communities need to recognise and capitalise on the potential economic contributions of refugees. Facilitating access to education, vocational training, and work opportunities for refugees can enhance their skills and employability, enabling them to make even more significant economic contributions. Moreover, promoting economic integration and cooperation between refugees and host communities can foster social cohesion and reduce tensions. However, it is crucial to approach refugee integration and economic contributions balanced and sustainably. Host countries must ensure that resources and services are managed effectively to accommodate the needs of refugees and the host population. Additionally, efforts should be made to avoid overburdening specific regions or communities, and equitable distribution of economic opportunities should be prioritised.

In summary, the studies discussed demonstrate that refugees can be significant economic contributors to host countries, dispelling common misconceptions about their economic impact. Refugees can find creative ways to contribute positively to the economy and local communities when given opportunities and support. Recognising and harnessing the economic potential of refugees can lead to improved economic growth, increased employment, and enhanced well-being for refugees and host communities. Policymakers and stakeholders should work together to create an environment that fosters economic integration and mutual benefits, ultimately leading to more inclusive and prosperous societies.

2.5 Education and Refugee Socio-Economic Impact

Education has been recognised as a crucial factor shaping the economic outcomes of refugees in host countries. Betts et al. (2017) researched Uganda and found that education

plays a significant role in determining the income levels of refugees. Acquiring an additional year of education is associated with a 3 per cent higher average income for refugees. Moreover, the type of education matters, with higher returns associated with higher levels of education. Each year of primary education leads to a 1 per cent increase in earnings, while each year of tertiary education is associated with a substantial 27 per cent increase in income. These findings highlight the importance of education in empowering refugees to improve their economic prospects in the host country.

The positive correlation between education and economic contributions extends beyond income levels. Betts et al. (2019) conducted a comparative study and found that education significantly impacts refugees' livelihoods and job opportunities. Refugees with access to education are more likely to find employment, which increases income. As a result, refugees have the means to contribute to the local economy through spending on goods and services. This positive effect on the host community's economy is an important aspect to consider in discussions surrounding the economic impact of hosting refugees.

However, despite the potential benefits of education, there are challenges that refugees face in accessing quality education in Sub-Saharan Africa. In Uganda, which is often recognised for its open-door refugee policy, language barriers and differences in school curricula pose significant obstacles for refugee children trying to access primary education. As a result, the enrolment rates for primary school among refugees could be higher, limiting their educational opportunities. Additionally, the high cost of secondary education results in lower enrolment rates for refugee children compared to primary school attendance.

Addressing these challenges is crucial to harness the economic potential of education for refugees fully. Providing quality education for refugee children empowers them to improve

their financial prospects and fosters social cohesion and integration with the host community. Education can be pivotal in breaking down barriers and fostering mutual understanding between refugees and the local population.

Moreover, the involvement of international organisations in education provision can significantly impact the quality of education available to refugees. The comparative study between Kenya and Uganda by Betts et al. (2019) illustrates different approaches to refugee education services. In Nakivale, refugees are integrated into national services, while in Kakuma, nationals are integrated into refugee services. The study suggests that the international community's involvement in education provision in Kakuma results in better educational opportunities than in Nakivale, where the national government primarily runs schools.

The positive economic impact of hosting refugees extends beyond education. Sanghi (2016) conducted a study in the Kakuma refugee camp in Kenya. He found that the presence of refugees significantly affects the region's gross regional product and employment. The research indicates that the presence of refugees boosts the gross regional product by over 3 per cent and increases employment opportunities by about 3 per cent. Additionally, the Turkana area experiences development due to the refugee presence, leading to a 6 per cent increase in per capita host incomes. These findings demonstrate that hosting refugees can have substantial positive economic benefits for the host communities, leading to increased economic activity and improved living standards.

Furthermore, Gengo et al. (2017) study at Kakuma highlighted the positive effect of hosting refugees on the nutritional status of the host community. The study found that refugees positively impacted Turkana's nutritional status. Economic opportunities

associated with refugees, such as increased demand for goods and services, likely contribute to improved well-being for the host population. This indicates that when refugees are given opportunities to integrate into the local economy, their presence can lead to positive outcomes for refugees and the host community.

In summary, education plays a vital role in shaping the economic outcomes of refugees in host countries. Acquiring education empowers refugees to secure better jobs and higher incomes, leading to increased spending in the local economy. However, language barriers and access to quality education persist in Sub-Saharan Africa. Addressing these challenges is crucial to leverage refugees' potential economic contributions fully. Moreover, hosting refugees can positively impact host communities through increased economic activity and development. The presence of refugees can lead to improvements in the gross regional product, employment opportunities, and even nutritional status in the host communities. By investing in education and promoting social integration, host countries can create an environment where refugees can thrive economically and contribute positively to the host community's development and growth. The research presented in this discussion sheds light on the complex and multifaceted relationship between refugees and host communities, emphasising the potential for refugees to be active economic contributors when provided with opportunities and support.

Consequently, this research sought to prove the findings mentioned above by using a causal effect relationship between education income and expenditure when refugees are self-sufficient.

2.6 Refugee Policies and Practices in Host Country

2.6.1 Refugee Policies and Practices in Africa

The increasing number of refugees in Sub-Saharan Africa has prompted neighbouring countries to re-evaluate and adjust their refugee hosting policies. Unlike the restrictive policies observed in developed countries, Blair et al. (2020) shed light on a gradual shift towards more liberal policies in the developing world, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa. Their study indicates that developing countries show greater openness in status and entry procedures, rights to free movement and documents. However, progress has been relatively slower in granting refugees civic participation and citizenship rights. This shift towards more liberal policies is likely driven by the advocacy efforts to promote refugees' livelihood and economic inclusion, with better access to services, rights to employment, and freedom of movement being crucial policy pull factors.

For instance, Benin has established legislation, including Order No. 75-41 of 16 July 1975 and Decree No. 97-647 of 31 December 1997, to govern the management of refugee affairs within its territory. These legal texts recognise the right of refugees as defined by international refugee law and grant them certain privileges and benefits similar to nationals. Refugees in Benin have rights to education, work, and social benefits, aligning with the principles of international refugee protection. The National Commission for Refugees (CNR) in Benin, established by Decree, plays a vital role in recognising refugee status and providing legal and administrative protection to refugees. It also coordinates aid and assistance from national and international sources to benefit refugees.

Refugees with qualifications and skills find opportunities in the labour market, particularly within private companies. However, unskilled refugees need help in securing formal

employment, leading them to engage in the informal sector for economic survival. This highlights the need for further support and initiatives to enhance the economic integration of refugees, especially those with limited skills or education. The positive trend towards more liberal policies in refugee-hosting countries is encouraging, as it allows refugees to access fundamental rights and opportunities, contributing to their self-reliance and economic empowerment. However, challenges persist, particularly in language barriers, differing educational curricula, and limited access to quality education for refugee children. Addressing these challenges is crucial for refugees to fully harness their potential and contribute positively to the host community's economic growth.

One critical aspect of refugee inclusion that deserves attention is their involvement in civic participation and their path to citizenship. While progress has been relatively slower in this area, recognising refugees' civic rights and offering a pathway to citizenship can foster a sense of belonging and strengthen social cohesion between refugees and the host community. Countries in Sub-Saharan Africa should consider adopting policies that facilitate the integration of refugees into the local community, allowing them to participate in decision-making processes that affect their lives actively. Furthermore, the positive economic impact of hosting refugees, as evidenced by studies in Kakuma refugee camp, Kenya, and other locations, emphasises the potential benefits of refugees' presence in the host country. Refugees can stimulate economic activity, increasing regional gross product and employment opportunities. Acknowledging the positive contributions refugees can make when given a chance to participate in the local economy is essential.

Notably, the evolving refugee hosting policies in Sub-Saharan Africa, particularly towards more liberal approaches, reflect the recognition of refugees' rights and potential economic

contributions. Education plays a vital role in empowering refugees to improve their economic prospects, and policies that provide access to services, employment opportunities, and freedom of movement are critical factors that attract refugees to certain countries. However, challenges remain, and efforts should focus on providing quality education, breaking down language barriers, and fostering social cohesion between refugees and the host community. By adopting inclusive policies that recognise refugees' civic rights and offer paths to citizenship, host countries can create an environment that fosters the economic integration and self-reliance of refugees, ultimately benefiting both refugees and the host community.

The policies and practices regarding treating refugees in different African countries demonstrate variations and complexities. While specific policies may appear inclusive and protective on paper, the actual implementation on the ground can differ significantly. This has implications for refugees' economic inclusion and self-sufficiency in these host countries.

Chad, for example, has a seemingly accommodating policy towards refugees. Once admitted into the country, refugees can access health and education services and enjoy freedom of movement once they obtain their passes. Additionally, refugees in Chad have access to the labour market under the same conditions as foreign nationals. However, the reality is more nuanced. Refugees who have been residing in camps for extended periods often rely heavily on aid in the form of food, water, healthcare, and education. This dependency on aid raises questions about economic self-sufficiency and integration into the labour market. Anecdotal evidence also suggests delays in recognising foreign

qualifications, hindering refugees' ability to seek formal employment (Zetter & Ruaudel, 2016).

Ethiopia, the second-largest refugee-hosting country in Africa, grants refugee status on a prima facie basis, allowing refugees some rights, although with certain restrictions. While restricted in their movement and required to stay in designated places, they can live elsewhere if they can financially support themselves. However, the Ethiopian Ministry of Labour only provides work permits to foreign nationals if no qualified citizens are available. This policy effectively bars refugees from accessing formal employment, further contributing to their dependency on UNHCR aid and limiting their economic opportunities. Refugees often find themselves underpaid in local jobs due to their limited options in the labour market (Zetter & Ruaudel, 2016).

In South Africa, the Refugees Act of 1998 prohibits the refusal of entry, expulsion, and extradition of refugees. However, there have been instances where asylum seekers were denied refugee status and labelled as economic migrants. Consequently, South Africa has a lower rate of refugee influx. The country allows asylum seekers to apply for a five-day asylum transit permit, enabling them to report to the nearest refugee station. While refugees in South Africa have the freedom to move and settle wherever they wish, they still face challenges in accessing formal employment opportunities. Some refugees have resorted to engaging in small businesses to make a living, exemplified by many Somalis who have pursued entrepreneurial activities (Zetter & Ruaudel, 2016).

The discrepancies between refugee policies and their implementation highlight the importance of critically examining the effectiveness of host countries' approaches to economic inclusion and self-sufficiency for refugees. While policies may appear

welcoming, their practical application can hinder refugees' economic participation and integration into the labour market.

Host countries must take concrete steps to align policies with practice to foster better economic integration. This includes addressing bureaucratic delays in recognising foreign qualifications and creating pathways to formal employment for refugees. Empowering refugees with the right to work can enable them to contribute positively to the local economy and reduce their dependence on aid. Language and vocational training can enhance refugees' skills, making them more employable in various sectors.

Furthermore, host countries can collaborate with international organisations and non-governmental entities to implement projects that support refugees in establishing businesses and entrepreneurial ventures. These initiatives can create economic opportunities for refugees and the host community, leading to more inclusive and sustainable growth.

South-South cooperation and partnerships between host countries can also be crucial in sharing best practices and innovative approaches to refugee inclusion. By learning from each other's experiences and successes, countries can develop more comprehensive and effective policies to address the economic challenges refugees face.

In summary, treating refugees in African countries reveals promising policies and practical challenges. While some nations have adopted seemingly inclusive policies, the implementation only sometimes reflects the intended support for economic inclusion and self-sufficiency. Host countries must bridge the gap between policy and practice to enhance refugees' economic prospects and reduce aid dependency. This requires a proactive

approach to address bureaucratic hurdles, provide access to education and training, and create opportunities for refugees to participate in the labour market and contribute to the host community's economy. Moreover, international collaboration and knowledge-sharing can facilitate more comprehensive and effective refugee integration strategies across Sub-Saharan Africa.

Adopting the Asylum Organization Act in Sudan in 1974 was intended to regulate the status of refugees in the country. However, despite this law, many refugees remain undocumented, challenging their freedom of movement and access to the labour market. Many refugees are confined to designated camps with limited movement rights, making seeking employment outside these areas difficult. The work permit system, which theoretically grants refugees the right to work for one year without renewal, needs to be revised. In reality, only some refugees receive these permits due to high unemployment rates. As a result, refugees often engage in informal and low-paying jobs, such as farming their land or working in small-scale trade and service sectors. Women, in particular, tend to find work as housemaids for wealthier individuals, which can expose them to exploitation (Zetter & Ruaudel, 2016).

On the other hand, Uganda has emerged as the largest refugee-hosting country in Africa, with a refugee population of around one and a half million (UNHCR, 2020f). The major drivers of this influx are conflicts and violence in the Horn of Africa and the Great Lakes Region, with South Sudan, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), and Burundi being particularly affected. Uganda's refugee legislation, adopted in 2006, has been lauded as a model for Africa, recognising the rights of refugees to work, move freely within the country, and live in communities rather than being confined to camps (UNHCR, 2009).

This liberal approach to refugee policy has been praised for its potential to empower refugees and make them less dependent on aid and assistance.

Despite the progressive refugee legislation in Uganda, there are still challenges in realising the full potential of this policy. While refugees are legally permitted to set up and run businesses, the process can be cumbersome and costly, often influenced by local officials who may increase the cost of permits. Consequently, many refugees engage in informal labour and the agricultural sector. For those with access to fertile land, selling agricultural products in nearby markets becomes a viable income-generating option. On the other hand, refugees settled in urban areas must actively seek employment opportunities to sustain themselves financially.

To fully leverage the potential economic contributions of refugees, policymakers need to address the barriers that hinder their integration into the formal labour market. Simplifying obtaining permits and reducing bureaucratic hurdles can encourage more refugees to start businesses and contribute to the economy. Additionally, investing in vocational training and skill development programs can enhance refugees' employability, enabling them to access higher-paying jobs and contribute even more significantly to the host community.

It is essential to recognise that the liberal policy approach towards refugees benefits the refugee population and positively affects the host community. When refugees are empowered to become self-sufficient and economically independent, they contribute to the local economy through increased spending, job creation, and tax payments. This economic activity has a multiplier effect on the host community, leading to improved economic growth and development.

However, to achieve the full potential of this liberal policy, there must be concerted efforts to address the challenges that refugees face in accessing livelihood opportunities. Access to quality education and vocational training can equip refugees with the skills needed to compete in the labour market. Creating an enabling environment for businesses and reducing bureaucratic red tape can encourage entrepreneurship and investment by refugees.

Furthermore, international cooperation and support are essential to help host countries effectively manage the refugee influx. Adequate funding and technical assistance from international organisations can enhance the implementation of policies that promote economic inclusion and self-sufficiency for refugees. Regional collaboration can also facilitate knowledge-sharing and best practices among countries hosting large refugee populations.

Notably, the treatment of refugees in Sudan and Uganda highlights the importance of adopting liberal policies that empower refugees to become self-sufficient and economically independent. While Uganda's approach has been praised for its inclusivity and recognition of refugee rights, there are still challenges in realising the full potential of this policy. Addressing barriers to formal employment and investing in skill development can enhance refugees' economic contributions and foster greater integration with the host community. Overall, a liberal policy approach benefits refugees and has positive implications for the economic growth and development of the host country.

A liberal policy allows refugees to become independent from aid and assistance. By them being better off in the host country, the host community is also better off.

2.6.2 Refugee Policies and Practices in Kenya

Kenya, Africa's third largest refugee-hosting country, has a long history of hosting refugees, initially adopting an open-door policy in the 1970s. However, due to the mass influx of refugees from conflict-affected regions in the Horn and the Great Lakes of Africa, the country shifted towards an encampment and restriction of movement policy. The primary refugee settlements in Kenya include Dadaab in Garissa County, Kakuma in Turkana County, and a population of urban refugees in Nairobi (Hanibal Goitom, 2016).

As a signatory to various international instruments protecting human rights and refugee rights, including the 1951 Refugees Convention, the 1967 Refugees Protocol, and the 1969 OAU Convention on refugees, Kenya enacted its first refugee legislation, the Refugees Act, in 2006. This act recognises two types of refugees: those falling under the definition of the 1951 Refugees Convention and those considered "prima facie" refugees. The registration of refugees is carried out jointly by the Department of Refugees Affairs and the UNHCR.

The Kenyan government's policy on asylum seekers and refugees underwent significant changes in response to terrorist attacks over the last decade. One notable change was introducing an encampment policy and restricting movement for refugees. The government cited security and logistical challenges stemming from the presence of refugees in urban areas as reasons for this decision (Hanibal Goitom, 2016). Additionally, there were instances of Somali refugees being forcibly deported back to their country, which contradicts the principle of non-refoulement. Another controversial policy decision was the attempt to impose a limited number of refugees allowed to stay in the country, which the high court rejected in 2014, as it could have led to the potential refoulement of hundreds of thousands of refugees (Hanibal Goitom, 2016).

Despite the provisions in the Refugees Act, refugees in Kenya have faced challenges in accessing their rights, particularly the right to employment. The Act grants refugees the right to work, property ownership, freedom of movement, and the possibility of obtaining permanent residency. However, obtaining work permits has been a challenging process for refugees. As a result, very few refugees have been able to participate as economic actors in the labour market. Many refugees depend on humanitarian assistance for survival, while some engage in limited farming activities in their camps, constrained by the scarcity of land and water resources. In contrast, those in urban areas like Nairobi, who possess work permits, tend to be involved in economic activities and may own businesses (Zetter & Ruaudel, 2016).

The disparities between the theory and practice regarding refugee rights in Kenya highlight the complexities of implementing policies in real-world contexts. While the Refugees Act enshrines the rights of refugees, challenges in delivering work permits and implementing specific policies have limited refugees' economic opportunities. This has implications for refugees' self-sufficiency and financial contributions to the host country.

To enhance the economic contributions of refugees and promote their self-sufficiency, the Kenyan government must address the obstacles refugees face in obtaining work permits. Streamlining the process and reducing bureaucratic hurdles can encourage more refugees to seek formal employment, which, in turn, can lead to increased economic activity and contributions to the local economy. Investing in vocational training and skill development programs tailored to the needs of refugees can also enhance their employability and make them more competitive in the labour market.

Furthermore, it is essential to strike a balance between national security concerns and the protection of refugee rights. While security considerations are valid, policies should be designed to ensure they do not unduly restrict refugees' movement and economic opportunities. Finding innovative solutions to address security challenges while upholding human rights is critical for fostering a conducive environment for refugees to thrive economically.

Moreover, there is a need for international cooperation and support to assist host countries like Kenya in managing large refugee populations. Adequate funding and technical assistance from international organisations can strengthen the implementation of policies that promote refugees' economic inclusion and self-sufficiency. Collaboration with other countries and regional organisations can facilitate knowledge-sharing and best practices to address common challenges.

In conclusion, Kenya's experience as a significant refugee-hosting African country demonstrates the complexities and challenges of implementing refugee policies. While the Refugees Act grants refugees certain rights, the realisation of these rights in practice has been mixed, particularly concerning the right to work. Addressing these challenges and creating an enabling environment for refugees to become self-sufficient and economically active can bring positive economic contributions and benefits for refugees and the host community. Striking a balance between security concerns and the protection of refugee rights is crucial, and international cooperation can play a vital role in supporting host countries in managing refugee populations effectively.

2.7 Theoretical Framework

Understanding the economic lives of refugees is crucial for rethinking refugee assistance to promote sustainability rather than dependency (Betts et al., 2017). Betts et al. (2017) employed an interdisciplinary approach to gain insights into refugees' economic activities in their study conducted in Uganda. The researchers combined the Microeconomics theory of demand and the New Institutional Economics theory, as there is a lack of a specific approach focused on refugees' economic lives.

The Microeconomics theory of demand, rooted in neoclassical economics, is concerned with comprehending and supporting market capitalist systems. It explores the interlinkages within such economies and delves into how people's perceptions of product usefulness influence market forces, supply, and demand (Daniel et al., 2020). In this context, the theory posits that consumers aim for customer satisfaction while organisations seek profit maximisation. Consumers play a decisive role in determining price and demand, as they perceive products to be more valuable than the cost of production, thus impacting the market for the products. Economic choices are made based on the anticipation that specific options will yield more excellent value in the future. In the case of refugees, this theory was employed to understand how they interact within the host community's economic market, including the supply and demand of goods and services and the job market.

Refugees, particularly urban refugees in Nairobi, can significantly influence the host community's demand for goods and services as they interact with suppliers and contribute to market dynamics. Simultaneously, they can also affect the job market by offering their labour to meet the demand in the host community (Betts et al., 2017). Applying the

Microeconomics theory of order in this study helps elucidate how refugees make economic decisions and engage in economic activities that impact the local market.

On the other hand, the New Institutional Economics theory is relevant in understanding how the host country's international and national laws guide refugees' economic behaviours. This theory bridges the financial market and the State, where economic activities occur within the legal institutions' framework. The economic market, where supply and demand meet buyers and sellers, operates under the guidance of legal frameworks set by the State. In the context of refugee research, this theory helps shed light on how refugees navigate the economic landscape, considering the legal and institutional structures that influence their economic choices.

The interdisciplinary approach adopted by Betts, Omata, et al. (2017) in combining the Microeconomics theory of demand with the New Institutional Economics theory allows for a comprehensive examination of refugees' economic lives in Uganda. By drawing from microeconomic principles and incorporating the impact of legal institutions, the study provides a nuanced understanding of how refugees engage in economic activities, interact with the local market, and contribute to the host community's economic landscape.

Extending this theoretical context, it is evident that refugees' economic inclusion and self-sufficiency play a critical role in shaping their overall well-being and resilience. When refugees are allowed and enabled to participate in the local economy, they have the potential to become self-reliant and contribute positively to the host community. Sustainable economic integration of refugees can lead to a win-win situation, where

refugees find opportunities for livelihood and host communities benefit from increased economic activity and cultural diversity.

However, achieving sustainable economic inclusion for refugees is not without challenges. Legal and policy barriers, bureaucratic hurdles, and the lack of recognition of foreign qualifications can hinder refugees' access to formal employment and entrepreneurial opportunities. Language barriers and educational system differences can impede refugees' economic integration in the host country.

To address these challenges and promote refugees' economic sustainability, policymakers and stakeholders need to adopt a holistic approach. This approach should encompass targeted support for vocational training and skill development, recognition of foreign qualifications, and streamlined processes for obtaining work permits. Moreover, fostering social cohesion and promoting cultural exchange between refugees and host communities can contribute to smoother economic integration and reduce potential tensions.

International cooperation and support also play a significant role in promoting refugees' economic sustainability. Providing financial assistance and technical expertise to host countries can enhance their capacity to manage large refugee populations and implement effective policies that facilitate economic integration. Furthermore, sharing best practices and lessons learned among countries hosting refugees can foster knowledge exchange and innovative approaches to address economic challenges.

Therefore, understanding the economic lives of refugees is essential for reshaping refugee assistance to promote sustainability and self-reliance. The interdisciplinary approach that

combines the Microeconomics theory of demand with the New Institutional Economics theory allows for a comprehensive examination of refugees' economic activities in the host community. By identifying the barriers and opportunities for economic inclusion, policymakers and stakeholders can design targeted interventions to enhance refugees' economic contributions and foster their resilience. Achieving sustainable economic integration for refugees requires collaboration, innovative policies, and a supportive environment recognising refugees' skills and potential as economic actors in the host community.

New Institutional Economics (NIE) is an interdisciplinary field incorporating various disciplines, including economics, law, organisation theory, political science, sociology, and anthropology. It provides valuable insights into the institutions, social, political, and economic dynamics surrounding refugees in the host country (Obianska-Wajda, 2016). Within the NIE framework, several prominent theories, such as agency theory, transaction costs theory, and property rights theory, play a crucial role in understanding the interactions and behaviours of refugees as they engage with the host community.

Agency theory within the NIE context examines the relationships between different parties, such as employers and employees, owners and managers, or buyers and suppliers, which mirrors how refugees interact within the host community. Refugees seeking livelihood opportunities become economic actors, seeking employment or setting up businesses. In these roles, they engage with employers or other economic agents, where the dynamics of agency relationships come into play. Employers may seek to maximise their interests, while employees or business owners aim to optimise their well-being and income-generating

activities. Understanding these agency relationships sheds light on how refugees navigate the labour market and economic opportunities within the host community.

The transaction costs theory, another integral part of NIE, focuses on the costs incurred in market transactions. For refugees engaging in economic activities, there are often costs associated with conducting business or trade. These transaction costs include information search, negotiation, and enforcement of agreements. The level of transaction costs can significantly impact the economic choices made by refugees, affecting their decisions to participate in specific economic sectors or engage in formal versus informal employment. Reducing transaction costs and facilitating smoother economic transactions can enhance refugees' economic integration and self-sufficiency.

Property rights theory, as a pillar of NIE, examines how property rights determine individuals' ability to benefit from or be harmed by specific actions and who should be responsible for any damages or liabilities. In the context of refugees in the host country, property rights define the legal framework within which they can engage in economic activities, own property, and access resources. These property rights are influenced by both international institutions and the host country's legal system, as reflected in the Refugees Act (2006) in the case of Kenya. The clarity and security of property rights for refugees can profoundly impact their economic choices and ability to participate in the host community's economic activities.

Extending the discussion to other chapters, the economic lives of refugees are influenced by various factors beyond the NIE theories. For instance, education is vital in shaping refugees' economic outcomes. Studies have shown that access to education enhances

refugees' employment prospects and income levels (Betts et al., 2017). Acquiring education and skills can empower refugees to pursue better job opportunities and participate more effectively in the labour market. However, challenges in accessing education, such as language barriers or differing curricula, can hinder refugees' economic integration (Idris, 2020).

Additionally, the economic impact of refugees on the host community has been a subject of interest in various studies. Contrary to common misconceptions about refugees draining host economies, research has shown that refugees can contribute positively to local economies through their demand for goods and services (Sanghi Apurva, 2016). Moreover, refugees' entrepreneurial spirit and ability to seize economic opportunities have been demonstrated in different contexts, as evidenced by their engagement in various income-generating activities (Dryden-Peterson & Hovil, 2004).

However, to fully harness the economic potential of refugees, it is essential to address policy and institutional barriers. The policies and practices of host countries vary significantly and can either facilitate or hinder refugees' economic inclusion. Countries with more liberal policies that grant refugees the right to work and access services tend to witness higher refugee self-reliance and economic contribution (Betts et al., 2017). On the other hand, restrictive policies, such as encampment and limitations on work permits, can hinder refugees' economic opportunities and perpetuate dependency on humanitarian aid (Hanibal Goitom, 2016).

Furthermore, social cohesion between refugees and the host community can significantly impact economic integration. When refugees are welcomed and embraced by the local

community, they are more likely to engage in economic activities and contribute positively to the local economy (Idris, 2020). On the contrary, tensions and hostilities can create barriers to economic interaction and integration.

The theory is a multidisciplinary field that integrates insights from economics, law, organisation theory, political science, sociology, and anthropology. Its interdisciplinary nature makes it a valuable tool for comprehending the complex institutions, social dynamics, political structures, and economic interactions that shape the lives of refugees in the host country (Obianska-Wajda, 2016). Within the NIE framework, prominent scholars such as Ronald Coase (1937), Herbert Simon (1978), James Buchanan (1986), Douglass North (1993), and Olivier Williamson (2009) have developed vital theories, including agency theory, transaction costs theory, and property rights theory, that provide valuable insights into understanding the economic behaviours and decisions of refugees as they interact with the host community.

The agency theory, a significant aspect of the NIE, delves into the relationships between different economic actors, such as employers and employees, owners and managers, or buyers and suppliers, in the context of refugees interacting with the host community. As refugees engage in economic activities, they act as agents making choices and decisions within the local labour market, supply chains, and business enterprises. Understanding these agency relationships allows us to analyse how refugees navigate their economic roles, seek opportunities, and engage with various stakeholders in the host economy.

Transaction costs theory, another fundamental element of the NIE, explores the costs involved in conducting market transactions. These costs encompass various activities such

as information search, negotiation, and enforcement of agreements. For refugees, engaging in economic activities in a new environment can be particularly challenging due to language barriers, cultural differences, and unfamiliar legal systems. By examining transaction costs, researchers and policymakers can identify obstacles that hinder refugees' access to economic opportunities and develop strategies to reduce these barriers, thereby facilitating their economic integration.

The property rights theory is a crucial aspect of the NIE that examines how property rights define relationships between individuals or groups and the resources they control. In the context of refugees, property rights are pivotal in determining their access to land, housing, and other economic assets in the host country. These property rights, shaped by international institutions and the government of the host country (e.g., the Refugees Act, 2006 in Kenya), govern refugees' economic interactions and their potential to contribute to the local economy.

To contextualise these theoretical insights, studies in various African countries highlight the importance of adopting liberal policies that promote refugees' economic inclusion and self-sufficiency. Countries like Uganda, with an open-door policy allowing refugees to work and live outside of camps, have seen positive outcomes, with refugees showing higher incomes and reduced dependency (Betts et al., 2017). On the other hand, challenges in accessing formal employment and entrepreneurship opportunities have been observed in countries like Ethiopia and Kenya (Zetter & Ruaudel, 2016). These practical experiences further demonstrate the relevance of the NIE in understanding the economic lives of refugees in the host country.

In conclusion, the New Institutional Economics offers a comprehensive theoretical framework for comprehending the economic lives of refugees as they interact with the host community. The agency theory, transaction costs theory, and property rights theory provide valuable insights into how refugees navigate economic roles, engage in economic activities, and access resources within the host economy. However, successful economic integration requires a holistic approach considering the broader social, political, and cultural context in which refugees interact with the host community. By adopting inclusive and sustainable policies, policymakers can empower refugees to become self-sufficient economic actors, fostering their positive contributions to the host community's prosperity while promoting social cohesion and mutual understanding.

2.8 Research Gap

There is a growing recognition of the positive economic impact of hosting refugees when they can participate as economic actors in the host community. Consequently, substantial research has been generated in refugee economics and development over the last decade. However, the economic interventions of forced displacement still need to be researched. Few empirical studies tackle the economic contribution of refugees in developing countries because of methodological and estimation challenges (Khoudour & Andersson, 2017). Additionally, (Betts *et al.*, 2017), to understand the refugees' economies, used an interdisciplinary approach to exploring the refugees' economic lives in Uganda by combining the Microeconomics theory of demand and New Institutional Economics theory because of the lack of a specific theory on refugees' economic lives.

Khoudour & Andersson (2017), after identifying some of the main challenges when empirically evaluating the economic contribution of refugees in host countries, suggested

that a mixed-method approach which combines primary and secondary data to analyse both micro and macro effects should be used to handle the study. Sort of study would strengthen the understanding of refugees' costs and contributions and help direct policymakers in implementing sustainable development policy on forced displacement.

In line with this recommendation above, some studies have been done in Africa by combining a qualitative and quantitative approach to come out with significant findings, such as (Betts et al. (2017); Betts et al. (2018); Alexander et al. (2019); Betts et al., (2019)).

However, there is still a dearth of research on refugees' economic contribution in the host countries in Sub-Sahara Africa, which use a rigorous causal effect impact evaluation. Most of the researchers use a simple correlation regression to analyse their findings.

This study, however, used rigorous causal effect impact evaluation methods evaluating the urban refugee's economic contribution to the host community in Nairobi. By doing so, this research was able to assess the nature and magnitude of the urban refugee problem in Nairobi (Kenya) and assess the policies and practices on refugee influx and their impact on refugees' economic activities. Finally, the study evaluated the urban refugee's economic contribution to the host community in Nairobi by using a quantitative method.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The present chapter discusses the methods used by the research to achieve the study objectives. It presents the research design and approach, population and study sample, sample size and selection of model, data sources, data collection, data management, data analysis, validity and reliability of data and techniques, ethics and human subject issues.

3.2 Research Design and Approach

The domain of refugees and forced displacement research has historically been dominated by qualitative investigations conducted on a small scale, predominantly through field studies. Within this context, it is evident that quantitative methodologies have been relatively underrepresented, with few studies embracing a quantitative approach within this extensive research domain. Betts et al. (2017) highlight a prevailing trend in refugee research, wherein studies are often conducted over short periods and rely on limited, unsystematic, and unrepresentative samples. Consequently, the capacity for generating comprehensive insights and broad generalisations is constrained, underscoring the need for improvements in research methodologies to enhance the depth and breadth of findings.

Therefore, in assessing the socio-economic contribution of urban refugees in Nairobi, the study adopted a mixed research design, combining qualitative and quantitative methods to design the questionnaire and analyse the gathered field data. The qualitative inquiries provide a contextual understanding of the socio-economic realities experienced by refugees and their strategies for income generation. On the other hand, the quantitative component

enables a more systematic and comprehensive evaluation of their economic impact on the host community. The research was conducted within the urban areas of Nairobi, Kenya, a relevant setting due to its concentration of urban refugees.

A mixed research design, also known as a mixed methods research design, is an approach that combines both qualitative and quantitative research methods within a single study. This methodological approach seeks to capitalise on the strengths of qualitative and quantitative research to provide a more comprehensive and nuanced understanding of the research topic. Mixed research designs are particularly beneficial when a research question requires a deeper exploration of complex phenomena and a broader examination of patterns or trends.

The central premise of a mixed research design is that integrating both qualitative and quantitative methods can yield a more robust and holistic view of the research problem. By blending these two approaches, researchers aim to compensate for the limitations inherent in each method while leveraging their respective advantages.

Qualitative research involves collecting and analysing non-numerical data, such as interviews, observations, and open-ended surveys. It aims to capture the richness, context, and depth of human experiences, providing insights into motivations, perceptions, and underlying meanings. Qualitative methods are beneficial for exploring complex social phenomena, understanding the why and how of certain behaviours, and generating hypotheses.

Quantitative research, on the other hand, deals with numerical data and focuses on establishing patterns, relationships, and statistical significance. This approach is well-suited

for testing hypotheses, generalising findings to larger populations, and identifying trends within large datasets. Quantitative methods provide researchers with statistical tools to analyse and interpret data objectively.

According to Schoonenboom and Johnson (2017), the integration of these two approaches in a mixed research design offers several benefits, including:

1. **Comprehensive Understanding:** Researchers gain a holistic understanding beyond each approach's surface-level insights in isolation using qualitative methods to explore the depth of a research topic and quantitative methods to uncover patterns and relationships.
2. **Triangulation:** Mixed research designs facilitate triangulation, a process where findings from one method can be validated or cross-verified by results from another. This enhances the credibility and validity of the research.
3. **Enhanced Validity:** The combination of qualitative and quantitative methods can mitigate the limitations of each approach, potentially leading to higher internal and external validity.
4. **Addressing Research Questions:** Some research questions inherently require both qualitative and quantitative data to be fully addressed. Mixed research designs allow researchers to tackle multifaceted questions more effectively.
5. **Richer Discussion:** When presenting results, incorporating both qualitative narratives and quantitative statistics can provide a better-rounded and nuanced discussion of findings.

However, according to Schoonenboom and Johnson (2017), mixed research designs also present challenges, including the complexity of managing qualitative and quantitative data, the need for expertise in both methodologies and the potential for time and resource constraints.

To execute a mixed research design successfully, the researcher carefully planned the integration of methods, considering the timing of data collection, the sequence of analysis, and the potential ways in which findings from one form can inform the other. Transparency in reporting the integration process was also crucial to ensure the credibility of the research.

Therefore, a mixed research design offers a powerful tool for seeking a comprehensive understanding of the research topic. By blending the strengths of qualitative and quantitative methods, the researcher overcame the limitations of each approach and generated more holistic insights that contributed to a deeper understanding of complex refugee phenomena.

3.3 Target Population and Research Site

The study population of this research is the urban refugees settled in Nairobi County. According to the statistics from the UNHCR (2020a), as of April 2020, Kenya's refugee population and asylum seekers are about 494,649. The study used this figure because of the data's availability while calculating the survey's sample size. The vast majority of those refugees (54%) are from Somalia, followed by (25%) of refugees from South Sudan, the Democratic Republic of Congo (9%), Ethiopia (5.7%), Burundi (3%), Sudan (2%), and other nationalities (Uganda, Eritrea, Rwanda and more is about 1.3%). The research

covered Kasarani, Ruaraka, Kibra, Kamukunji, Starehe, Embakasi East, Dagoretti North, Roysambu constituencies and others. Moreover, 226 well-completed surveys have been submitted on the Kobo Toolbox server. This study's respondents were mainly from Somali, South Sudanese, Ethiopians, Rwanda, the Democratic Republic of Congo and Burundi. Figure 3.1 shows the Global Position System (GPS), where the data has been collected from urban refugees in Nairobi.

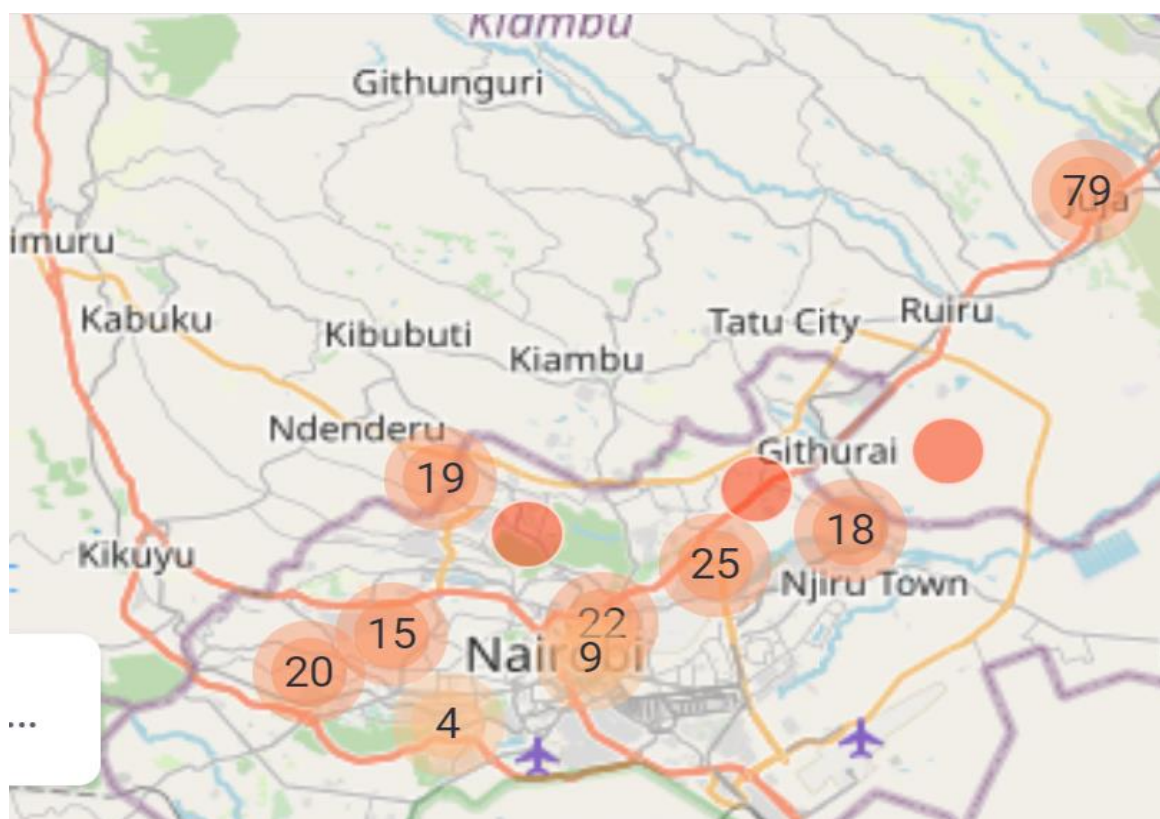


Figure 3.1 GPS of Respondents Location

3.4 Selection of Sample Size

This study used Respondent-Driven Sampling (RDS), similar to snowball sampling, also called a chain-referral sampling method, where study participants recommend other people they know. This technique is useful for sampling from hard-to-reach populations. As police

harassment does not allow urban refugees in Nairobi to reveal their identity, this technique enabled this study to reach them. Utilising the respondent-driven sampling (RDS) technique. Baraff et al. (2016) elucidated that RDS is a valuable strategy for accessing and studying hidden and hard-to-reach populations by leveraging initial respondents to recruit further participants from within the target population.

Heckathorn (2007) points out that a researcher wishing to study a population without a sampling frame could attempt to construct such a frame. However, for several people, this frame construction is made impractical or impossible by, first, the small size of the target population and, second, the difficulty of locating members of the target population. That is the case of this research. The study population, the refugees settled in urban areas in Nairobi, took much work to reach because they were mixed with the citizens and hid their identity for several reasons.

According to Baraff *et al.* (2016) and Tang et al. (2013), respondent-driven sampling (RDS) is a common way to reach members of the refugee population in urban areas by allowing a small number of respondents to recruit further respondents in the target population from their contacts. Therefore, Heckathorn (2007) suggests chain-referral samples can produce asymptotically unbiased estimates when appropriately handled by respondent-driven sampling (RDS). They further say that respondent-driven sampling (RDS) is cheaper, quicker, and easier to implement than other methods commonly used to study hidden populations. The respondent-driven sampling (RDS) sample size calculation requires complex formula. Following Wejnert *et al.* (2012), before calculating the RDS sample size, the researcher needs to calculate the simple random sample (SRS) size of a given population and then multiply the SRS by the Design Effect (DE). According to the

literature, the typical design effect used is equal to 2 (DE=2) (Heckathorn, (2007); Kral *et al.* (2010); Gray *et al.* (2015)).

However, researchers like Wejnert *et al.* (2012) figured out that the design effect for injected drug users (IDU) study mainly falls between DE=2 and DE=4. The following formula is used to compute the RDS sample size:

$$n = \frac{DE * (Pa(1 - Pa))}{(SE(Pa))^2}$$

Where (DE) is the Design Effect of the respondent-driven sampling, (n) is the RDS sample size, is the standard error, and (Pa) is the proportion. It the simple random sampling formula.

Nevertheless, following the recommendation of Fearon *et al.* (2017), one should calculate sample size for estimating population size and considering the relationship between reference period or number of objects distributed and proportion (Pa) for potential impact on uncertainty. Therefore, this study felt that the literature recommended using the period proportion (Pa) and the design effect (DE=2). This study can use the following formula to estimate the sample size according to the time with the 95% Confidence Interval width.

The sample size estimated using (Pa) is the proportion attended within three months of data collection. A width of 95% confidence interval with a population size estimate of 81,016 refugees (UNHCR, 2020c) for a value of (Pa) equal to 0.05, assuming a design effect of DE=2, and then the sample size estimated was 764 refugees population in Nairobi (Kenya).

Since the nature of the study and the feasibility, the analysis was stratified according to age and household head. That means the study only considered urban refugees aged from 20 to 70 years. In addition, the research administered the questionnaire only to the household head with more than one individual. Moreover, according to UNHCR (2020a), 48% of the refugees are aged between 18 and 69 and above. Based on that percentage, the sample size was estimated at 226 refugees from the total urban refugees in Kenya, because this research considered only the head of household. The head of household is someone who is manager of the household having more or one person.

3.5 Sources and Nature of Data

The data sources of this study are secondary data from the UNHCR data portal and information collected from the office of various international organisations in Nairobi. The second data source was the primary data collected from the urban refugees in Nairobi.

The data was collected using a digital mobile data collection instrument such as computer-assisted personal interviewing (CAPI). Computer-assisted personal interviewing (CAPI) is an interviewing technique in which the interviewer uses an electronic device to answer the questions. Kobo Toolbox was used in the field for data collection in this study. It allows researchers to collect data in the field using mobile devices such as mobile phones or tablets and paper or computers. It is being continuously improved and optimised particularly for the use of humanitarian actors in emergencies and difficult field environments, in support of needs assessments, monitoring and other data collection activities” (OCHA, 2020). This tool was chosen because of its fastest, accuracy, and works even in remotest situations offline and online.

After designing the questionnaire, it has also been deployed and tested for more correction and accuracy of the data and validated by one of the experts in refugees' research field at Moi University. Lastly, the questionnaire has been deployed on various tablets and smartphones for fieldwork.

3.6 Data Management

Using Kobo Toolbox helped solve common data collection problems such as improving data quality, speeding up data availability, simplifying routing and survey coordination, etc. The collected data did not need any data entered from paper to computer before being analysed because the data was collected on a tablet or smartphone and exported to data managing software, STATA (Stata is statistical analysis software). The analysis was carried out as soon as the data was ready in the Kobo Toolbox server. Therefore, It also helped the study analyse the collected data (OCHA, 2020).

3.8 Data Analysis Strategies

This study used descriptive statistics techniques to analyse the data collected. The research also used content analysis techniques to analyse the qualitative data to deeply understand the refugee's challenges and economic activities to generate income for them in the host community. Secondly, it allowed the study to reduce any bias related to the uncovered data collection sample size or inaccurate information from the respondents. Moreover, this study's primary data analysis strategy is through Ordinary Least Square (OLS) econometric models analysis.

3.8.1 Qualitative Data Analysis

As mentioned above, this study used the content analysis technique to narrate verbal or behavioural information from the data collected during the interviews. According to Astuti (2014), “content analysis is a research method that can be used widely and heterogeneous, either manually or computer-assisted for interpretation contextual of documents generated by the communication process and is expected to lead to the reliable and valid conclusion”.

Specifically, the study uses the social anthropological approach because the research would like to understand the behaviour, economic, regularities, social and everyday life of refugees in Nairobi, Kenya. The analytic task is to identify and explain how people use or operate in a particular setting; how they understand things; account for, take action, and generally manage their day-to-day life (Berg, 2009).

In order to accomplish data collection, the enumerators spent considerable time with the refugees in Nairobi and with individuals in the field. However, the surveyors used questionnaires and observation approaches to collect information from these refugees in Nairobi. Following the standard set of analytic activities of (Berg, 2009), this research collected and made data into text.

3.8.2 Model Specification

The first question of this study was answered by using some descriptive analysis; basically, it is a simple analysis of the various socio-economic challenges facing refugees in Nairobi. It used descriptive analysis and comparison of their various economic generating activities in the host community.

The second question was answered by analysis of the impact of refugee policies such as freedom of movement, access to services, correct to work and social benefit and their effect on their incomes generating activities. Some heterogeneous descriptive analyses can enrich those above. The refugee policies put in place by the government of Kenya assist refugees through their reintegration and economic inclusion.

To enable this study to assess the refugees' economic contribution to Nairobi County, the following OLS model was used as a benchmark equation for the analysis to answer the least and the last question:

$$Y = \alpha + \beta T + \gamma X' + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

Where Y stands for the average spending of the refugees in the host community, T stands for whether the refugees are employed or not and they are free of their movement in the host community (1 for Yes and 0 otherwise), X is a vector of control variables (gender, age, education, etc.)

The idea here was that since the study could not directly observe the refugee economic contribution in the host community, this was captured through their spending. That is more they spend in the host community; the better off would be the host community. Therefore, they are the leading suppliers of the refugee demand. From the benchmark mentioned above equation, this study extended the analysis. It looked at heterogeneous effects such as sex interaction, high education, entrepreneurship willingness, length of refugee status and young and old. Then the following equation:

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_0 T + \beta_1 Inter1 + \beta_2 Inter2 + \beta_3 Inter3 + \gamma X' + \varepsilon \quad (2)$$

3.9 Validity and Reliability of the Study

The validity and reliability of a study are critical aspects that ensure the accuracy, trustworthiness, and credibility of the research findings (Price et al., 2020). This section discusses how these concepts are addressed in the context of the research design, methodology, and data collection process outlined in the previous sections.

In this study, various measures have been taken to enhance the validity of the research. Firstly, adopting a mixed research design enhances validity by triangulating qualitative and quantitative findings. The qualitative component provides an in-depth understanding of refugees' economic lives, coping strategies, and interactions within the host community. On the other hand, the quantitative component provides statistical evidence regarding the refugees' economic contribution, allowing for a more comprehensive analysis of the research problem.

Moreover, using well-established theoretical frameworks, such as the New Institutional Economics theory and the Neoclassical Economics theory of Supply and Demand, lends theoretical validity to the study. These theories offer a solid foundation for understanding the complex interactions between refugees, economic markets, institutions, and policy contexts.

The research instruments used for data collection, including questionnaires and interview protocols, were carefully designed and pre-tested during the pilot phase to enhance construct validity (OCHA, 2020). Feedback from the pilot study allowed for refinements to ensure that the questions effectively captured the intended constructs and concepts.

Additionally, selecting Nairobi as the research site aligns with the study's objectives, as urban areas are hubs of economic activity and refugee concentration. This deliberate choice increases the likelihood that the findings accurately reflect the economic dynamics of urban refugees in the host community.

The reliability of this study is upheld through the meticulous planning and execution of the research process. The research design and methodology are well-documented and transparent, allowing for replication by other researchers. The study's mixed research design, which combines both qualitative and quantitative methods, also contributes to reliability by offering diverse perspectives and cross-validation of findings.

The quantitative survey, conducted using established data collection tools and protocols, promotes reliability by ensuring consistency in measuring participant variables. Additionally, using respondent-driven sampling (RDS) to reach hard-to-reach populations enhances the reliability of the study's sample by tapping into hidden segments of the refugee population.

The research assistants involved in data collection underwent training to ensure uniformity in administering surveys and conducting interviews. This training minimises the potential for interrater variability and enhances the reliability of the gathered data.

Therefore, the validity and reliability of this study are upheld through the integration of qualitative and quantitative research methods, the application of established theoretical frameworks, the careful design and testing of research instruments, the selection of an appropriate research site, and the training of research assistants. These measures collectively contribute to the study's findings' accuracy, credibility, and trustworthiness,

enabling meaningful insights into refugees' economic contribution and livelihood in the host community. Moreover, the research tool was piloted in Eldoret town among the urban refugees before being implemented in Nairobi.

3.10 Ethical Issues

Following the three fundamental principles of research ethics, the study first explained the research's objective to the participants (urban refugees in Nairobi). The information collected would only serve academic purposes and would be highly confidential. They can continue the interview or withdraw from the research if inconvenient. They would be informed about using the information collected to inform policy and academy interpretation. The research would minimise any harm from the study against participants, and the research would also reduce the mental and physical risks. The last principle followed by this study was that all participants were given an equal chance to participate in the study, and the information collected would be protected because of the vulnerability of the refugee population.

After following the rigorous research ethics, the research proposal has been submitted to obtain the research license from National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). The request has been made, and the research license was issued and approved for this research on 13th September 2020 (See annex). The data was collected from November 2020 to February 2021.

3.11 Limitations of the Study

One of the limitations of this study was the access to a larger sample size of the refugee population in Nairobi and the lack of the use of a specific refugee economies theory.

Meanwhile, Trust became a significant challenge in the field because most refugees fear that they may be deported back to their countries of origin owing to the information they had to give. This led to some being hostile and non-receptive during the study, which decreased the morale of collecting data. Nevertheless, a new means and strategy had to be devised to persuade them that the study was for their excellent, if not later. This study's respondents were mainly from Somali, South Sudanese, Ethiopians, Rwanda, the Democratic Republic of Congo and Burundi.

To begin with, the refugees from Somalia were not very much friendly. They are suspicious and keen to discover why they had to participate in the research. The majority of them refused to provide their mobile numbers claiming that they are private and personal to them. The other challenge that cropped in during the interview was the language barrier, most Somalis do not speak Swahili, nor do they understand English, except for a few who have been in Kenya for a long or have some primary formal education. This deterred the study from getting information from some refugees, especially those barely under two years old in Nairobi. For the few who fully cooperated to the end, the research captured their details as they narrated, and those with incomplete information were discarded. Second was the Congolese. Generally, they are materialistic and mean when giving information. They asked and insisted that they be given a small token to participate in the survey. The few whom the researcher persuaded and gave them fifty Shillings of airtime. Next is the South Sudanese, the vibrant, friendly and open refugees this research encountered. They are approachable people and ready to share their stories without hesitation. Accessing them was not much challenging compared to the rest since they could freely lead you to the next person, a relative or a friend. A few pieces of data were

collected over the phone; the interview was done on a phone call and not one on one basis. The primary reason was the city's new average requiring people to minimise movement and maintain physical distance during COVID-19.

The other challenge faced in the field was the requirement of Respondent-Driven Sampling, which stipulates that the researcher should give some incentive to the participants for their time and availability was not fully accomplished. This is because of the availability of resources and financial means. The next chapter discusses the first objective of this study, the urban refugees' challenges and experiences in Nairobi, and gives a more critical analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

URBAN REFUGEES' DEMOGRAPHICS CHARACTERISTICS AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHALLENGES IN NAIROBI

4.1 Introduction

This chapter gives the socio-demographic status of participants. It assesses the nature and magnitude of urban refugees' problems in Nairobi. It provides the three main socio-economic challenges (discrimination, language barrier, police harassment, lack of job opportunities, lack of income and lack of resources) faced by the urban refugees in Nairobi.

4.2 Socio-Demographics of the Urban Refugees in Nairobi

Figure 4.1 below shows that 36.7 per cent of the respondents are female and 63.3 per cent are male. The average age of the respondents is 31 years old; the median is 29 and half years old, while the mode is 24 years old. This figure shows that refugees in the host country who reside in urban areas are primarily male. Meanwhile, the refugees in the

refugee camps are mostly female and children. This is because the refugees' children and females need more protection than males. Moreover, males prefer going to the urban area to work and send money to their families in the camps or elsewhere instead of waiting for humanitarian assistance.

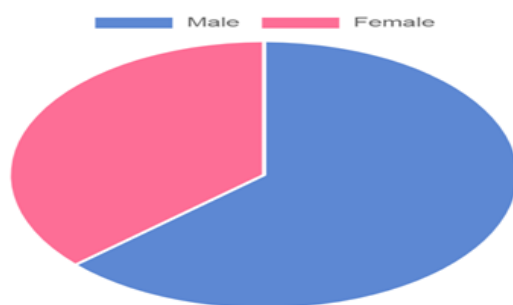


Figure 4.1 Respondents Gender

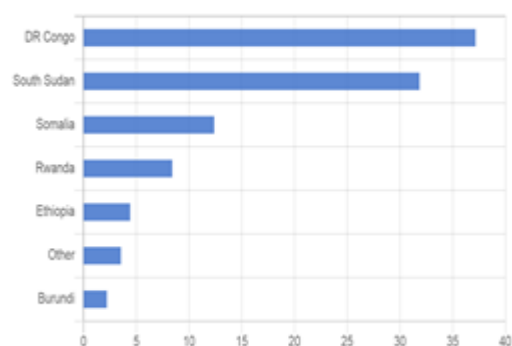


Figure 4.2 Respondents' Country of Origin

1

4.3 Refugees in Nairobi and Country of Origin

Figure 4.2 above indicates that 37.17 per cent of the respondents are urban refugees from the Democratic Republic of Congo, 31.86 per cent from South Sudan, 12.39 per cent from Somalia, 8.41 per cent from Rwanda, 4.42 per cent from Ethiopia, 2.21 per cent from Burundi while the remaining 3.54 per cent are from other countries. On the other hand, figure 4.3 shows that 49.12 per cent of the refugees are married, 46.9 per cent are single, 1.77 per cent are divorced or separated, and 1.77 per cent are widowed. These results align with the UNHCR data, showing that most urban refugees are from DR Congo. The Somali Refugees are in large numbers hosted in the Dadaab complex (camps), and the South Sudanese refugees are hosted mainly in the Kakuma camp.

Most males, the urban refugees, are the majority married. This is likely because they moved with their family to the host country (Kenya) when they fled their country of origin. This could also be justified because the average year of stay in Kenya and urban areas of Nairobi is seven years, the minimum stay is one year, and the maximum is 33 years. That means the more the refugees stay in the host community, the more they mingle with the host community and get married. Although some of them are married, less than half are still single.

According to UNHCR (2021a), “Majority of refugees and asylum seekers in Kenya originate from Somalia (54%). Other major nationalities are South Sudanese (24.6%), Congolese (9%), and Ethiopians (5.8%). People of concern from other nationalities, including Sudan, Rwanda, Eritrea, Burundi, Uganda and others, comprise 6.8 % of the total population”. The results of this study could not reach the representative quota cited above because of the challenges encountered in accessing urban refugees. In particular, finding the Somali refugees proved to entail; meanwhile, the Republic Democratic of Congo refugees are primarily in urban areas, and few are hosted in the camps.

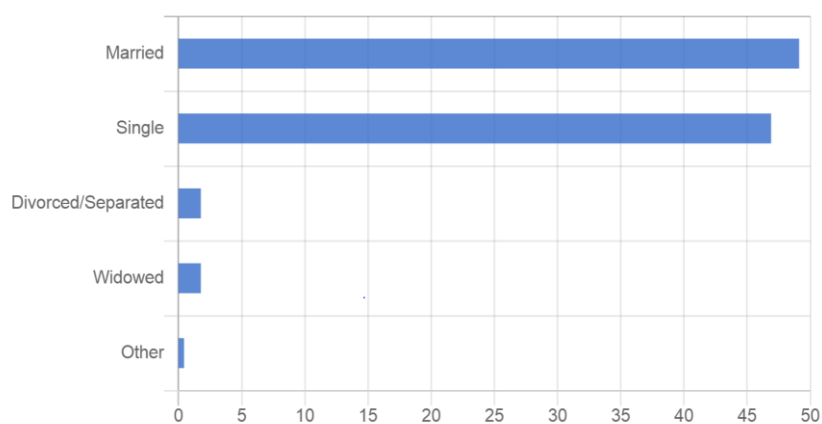


Figure 4.3 Respondents' Marital Status

4.4 Urban Refugees Education in Nairobi

Figure 4.4 shows that 27.88 per cent of the refugee attended senior high school, and 23.01 per cent attended primary school. In addition, 12.83 per cent have a Bachelor's degree, and only 0.88 per cent represent Master's Degree holders. About 11.95 per cent attended junior high school, and 10.62 per cent were vocational trainees or diploma holders. This low educational level may be due to the various discriminations faced by the urban refugees in the host country schools (Dryden-Peterson, 2015). She mentioned four critical dimensions of refugees' educational experience in the host country; limited and disrupted educational opportunities, language barrier hindering access to the host country education, inadequate quality of instruction and discrimination in school settings. This is confirmed by the fieldwork, where the findings show that most Congolese refugees do not pursue their education in Nairobi after fleeing from their home country because of the language barrier; Kenya is an Anglophone country, while Congo is a French-speaking nation.

Betts *et al.* (2018) pointed out that in Kakuma camp, refugees enjoy better education than in their country of origin. However, the paradox is that refugees in urban areas do not enjoy the same education system. They are usually left to their fate, with most even denied access to higher education.

This explains the research findings, which show that most urban refugees hold high school certificates but do not have university degrees or vocational training diplomas. One of the respondents of this research mentioned that he could not pursue his university studies because he could not afford to pay the tuition fees.

According to UNESCO (2020), Kenya took significant steps to ensure that young refugees are integrated into the national education system. If this initiative is effectively implemented in both the camps and urban areas, the number of refugees accessing education will be significantly boosted. Moreover, this will facilitate the social cohesion of the refugees and the host community, economic inclusion, and development from both sides.

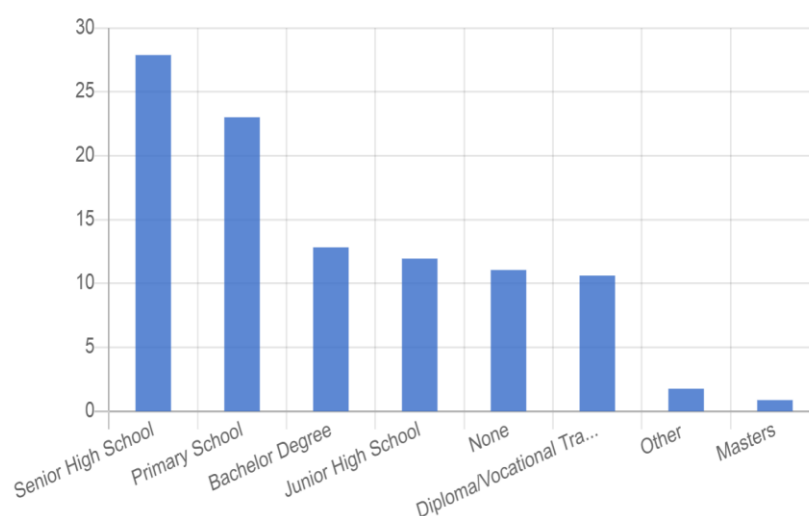


Figure 4.4 Highest Education Level

4.5 Urban Refugees Areas of Residence in Nairobi

Figure 4.5 below shows that 21.24 per cent of the respondents (refugees) in the study reside in Kasarani, 13.27 per cent reside in Ruaraka, and 11.06 per cent stay in Kibera. 10.18 per cent of the refugees reside in Kamukunji (Eastleigh), and 9.29 per cent live in Starehe and Embakasi East, respectively. 8.85 per cent of the respondents stay in Dagoretti North (Kiberia), 7.96 per cent in Roysambu, and the rest in other areas in Nairobi (figure 6).

Table 4.1 below gives a tabulation analysis of refugees' residential areas and education levels. The analysis revealed that the more urban refugees are educated, the more they

intend to stay in urbanised areas such as Roysambu, which has the most Bachelor's degrees holders. Roysambu is an urban area with better sanitation and hygiene and good roads. Kasarani also has the second largest of refugees with Bachelor's degrees. This means that the more urban refugees are educated, the more they look for better residential places. This calls upon the policymakers to design a policy that can allow urban refugees to access higher education so that they would be able to have a moderate living standard within the host community.

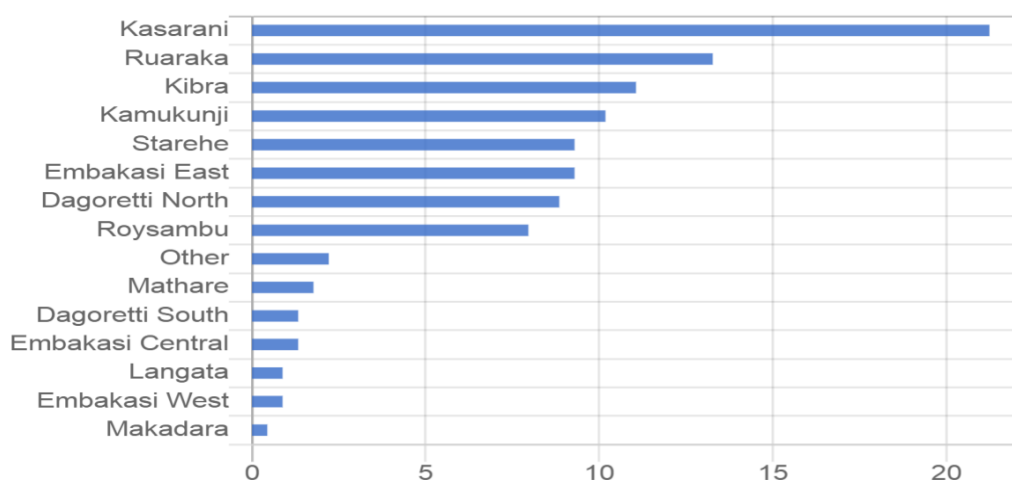


Figure 4.5 Respondents' Area of Residence in Nairobi

Table 4.1 Tabulation of the Level of Education and Residence Area

Higher level of Education	Residence area															
	DN	D	E	EE	E	K	KS	K	L	M	M	O	R	R	ST	Total
		S	C		W	M		B	G	K	T	T	Y	K		
Bachelor Degree	3	0	0	0	1	2	6	3	1	0	0	0	10	2	1	29
Diploma/V. Train	4	2	0	5	0	0	1	3	0	0	1	1	6	1	0	24
Junior High	0	0	1	2	0	5	3	5	1	0	1	1	0	5	3	27
Masters	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	2

None	0	0	0	7	0	3	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	6	3	25
Other	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	4
Primary School	4	1	1	3	1	8	5	4	0	1	1	0	0	11	12	52
Senior High	9	0	1	3	0	4	31	6	0	0	0	2	2	3	2	63
Total	20	3	3	21	2	23	48	25	2	1	4	5	18	30	21	226

Note: DN – Dagoretti North, DS- Dagoretti South, EC- Embakasi Central, EE- Embakasi East, EW- Embakasi West, KM- Kamukunji, KS-Kasarani, KB- Kibra, LG-Lang’ata, MK-Makadara, MT- Mathare, OT-Other, RY- Roysambu, RK-Ruaka, SK- Starehe V. Train – Vocational Training.

Source: Author, 2022.

4.6 Urban Refugees’ Language Proficiency

The study found that only 19.91 per cent of the refugees are proficient in English. Meanwhile, 62.39 per cent of them have a basic level of English, and 17.7 per cent have an intermediate level of English (figure 4.6). This shows that the language barrier is one of the significant challenges faced by refugees in Nairobi. In the same way, figure 4.7 below shows that more than half of the refugees (51.77 per cent) have a basic level of Kiswahili, 22.57 per cent have an intermediate level, and only 25.66 per cent are proficient in Kiswahili. Kiswahili is one of the national languages in Kenya; the refugees in Nairobi face a considerable challenge regarding communication. This fact calls upon the policymakers to design a policy that will help and improve the language levels of refugees to assist in smooth integration into the host community.

The findings above had been confirmed by Betts *et al.* (2018), who conducted similar research about Socio-Economic Outcomes for refugees in North-West Kenya, and they found that more than 50 per cent of South Sudanese do not speak Swahili. Only 40 per cent speak basic Swahili in Kakuma. This situation is worse in the Kalobeyei settlement, where

81 per cent of South Sudanese refugees neither understand nor speak Kiswahili, while only 19 per cent speak fluently. The South Sudanese Refugees are not proficient in Kiswahili because they are not from Kiswahili speaking background. Moreover, they are hosted in an area where the host community does not widely speak the Kiswahili language.

They also discovered a similar pattern in Ethiopian refugees whereby only 26 per cent speak basic Kiswahili, while the remaining 74 per cent neither speak nor understand Kiswahili. On the other hand, Burundian refugees are proficient in the Kiswahili language (more than 72 per cent), with only 28 per cent of them with no Kiswahili language skills, depending on their home origins. The reverse is true regarding English language proficiency among Burundian refugees. The majority (84 per cent) cannot speak English, and only 4 per cent are proficient. Nevertheless, most South Sudanese refugees speak good English in Kakuma, while about 57% of South Sudanese and Ethiopian refugees do not speak English in the Kalobeyei settlement.

Basic Proficient Intermediate



Figure 4.6 English Language Level of Refugees

Basic Proficient Intermediate

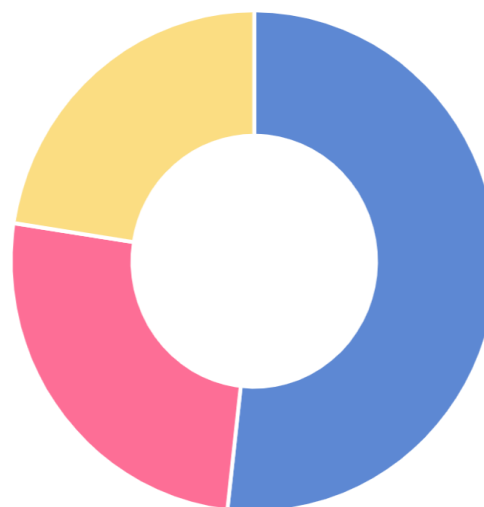


Figure 4.7 Kiswahili Language Level of Refugees

4.7 Refugees' Challenges and Experiences in Nairobi within the Host Communities

Every person would wish to live in their country of origin. However, this may not be the case as one might find themselves in a foreign country due to wars or conflict, violence, and political persecution, among other reasons. Depending on the refugees' identities, living in a host country as a refugee comes with various challenges. This ranges from socio-economic to policies regarding migration in the host countries.

The study was carried out and assessed the nature and magnitude of urban refugees' problems in Nairobi. Starting from the challenges facing the urban refugees in Nairobi, the research figured out some reasons for refugees fleeing their countries of origin. The results revealed that 45.13 per cent of the urban refugees fled their countries of origin because of war or conflict, and 41.15 per cent resulted from violence. Only 6.19 per cent revealed that they fled their home countries because of political persecution. In comparison, 3.98 per cent confirmed that it was because of social persecution, and 1.77 per cent fled because of religious persecution. Meanwhile, the remaining 1.77 per cent revealed they fled for other reasons (figure 4.8). Meanwhile, the average year of stay of the urban refugees in Kenya is seven (7 years), the median is six years, and the mode is five years.

UNHCR (2020g) stipulated that the causes (push factors) of forced displacement in Somalia are a combination of conflict and extreme weather events such as recurrent droughts and floods. This shows that many forced displacements in Somalia resulted from violent conflicts and climate change. Natural disasters also contribute to the forced displacement issue in the Great Lakes region. The recent case was the volcanic eruption in DR Congo at Goma town. The same report

(UNHCR, 2020i) reveals that the fragile peace and localised conflicts in South Sudan continue to force people to flee.

Meanwhile, there are also what is called pull factors meaning the factors which drive the refugees, especially the Somalis refugees in Nairobi, according to our survey report, are the economic opportunities. The study reveals that the vast numbers of Somali refugees in Nairobi are business people. The sexual violence leading to insecurity in the camps, especially in the Dadaab camp, or tensions arising between clans, ethnic groups and host communities, particularly over the use of natural resources, are also another pull factors; moreover, lack of economic opportunities is also an essential factor (ODI, 2010).

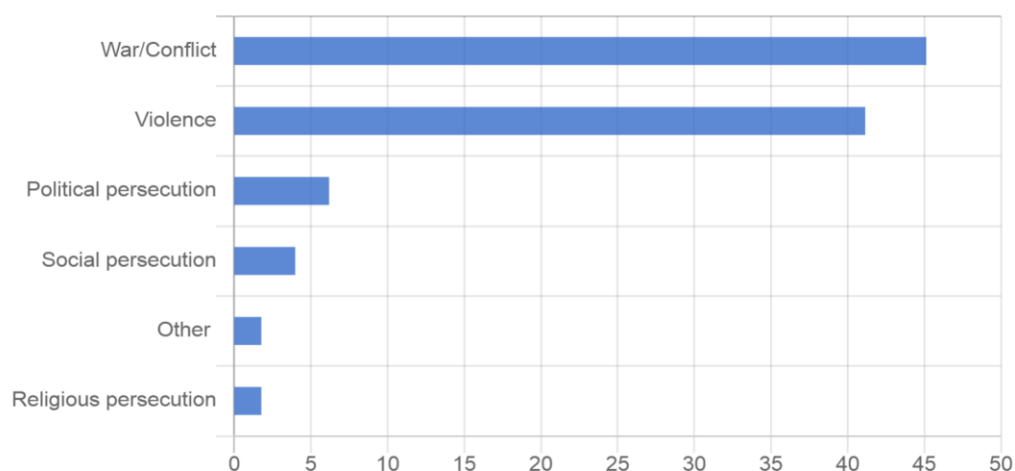


Figure 4.8 Reason for Fleeing From the Country of Origin

4.8 Refugees Housing in Nairobi

Figure 4.9 below shows that 69.91 per cent of the refugees live in houses they share with fellow refugees or relatives. Therefore, only 28.32 per cent of them stay in unshared houses. However, 1.33 per cent of the urban refugees are homeless. Moreover, most of them pay their rent (71.24

per cent), and only 20.35 per cent of the respondents indicated that their family or a friend pays their rent. This shows that refugees in Nairobi face a considerable challenge in housing because they cannot afford to pay for their houses but stay together to afford them. Nevertheless, few of them afford to pay their rent, and they share the houses to afford it.

Meanwhile, only 3.98 per cent of rent is paid by an NGO, and 2.65 per cent of the refugees revealed that they do not pay rent (Figure 4.10). This clearly shows that the urban refugees in Nairobi are mainly self-dependent as far as housing is concerned. This result confirmed the findings of Upton (2015) stipulate that only 3 per cent of urban refugees in Nairobi rely on International Organisations.

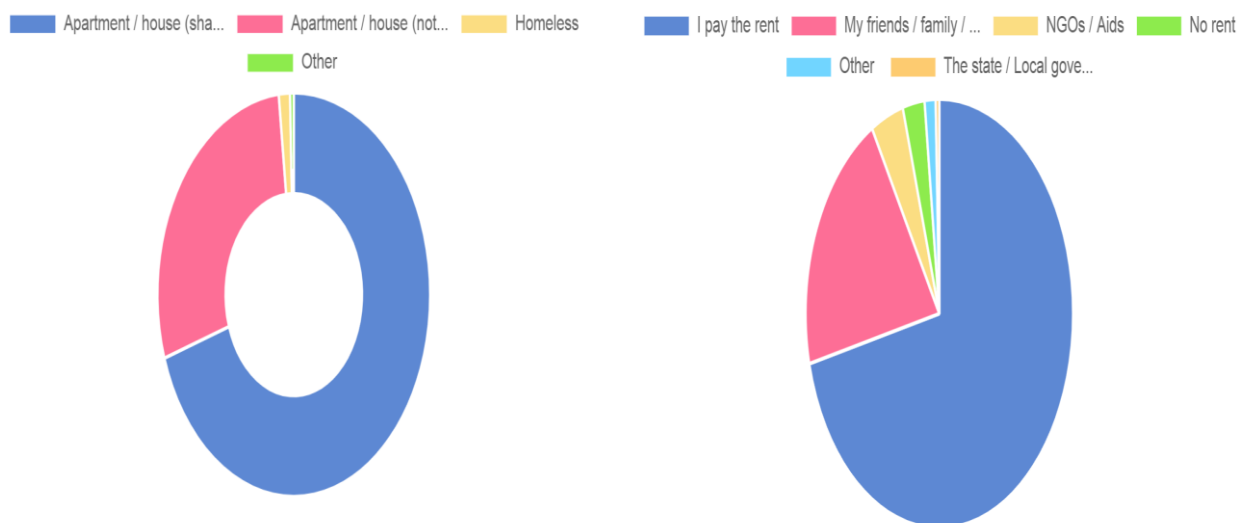


Figure 4.9 Type of Accommodation

Figure 4.10 Rent Payment

4.9 Urban Refugees' Freedom of Movement in Nairobi

One of the central questions this study was interested in is whether the urban refugees in Nairobi experience freedom of movement. The study reveals that 97.79 per cent of the refugees say they can move freely in Nairobi. On the contrary, 2.21 per cent say they do

not have freedom of movement in Nairobi (Figure 4.11). This shows that the restriction policy in the camps differs from the one in the urban areas of Nairobi. Hanibal Goitom (2016) pointed out that the country's encampment policy does not allow refugees and asylum seekers to move around. Contrary to this, urban refugees in Nairobi have freedom of movement. This clearly shows that urban refugees in Nairobi can move within the host community, allowing them to search for their daily bread. Therefore, the policymakers should allow more urbanisation policy than encampment policy.

Moreover, this might also be justified by the implementation of one of the recommendations from the Norwegian Refugee Council (2017:2), which stipulates that the Kenyan Government should *“recognise refugees’ right to freedom of movement and allow refugees freedom of movement within Kenya, including by ensuring refugees can access registration and live legally outside camps.”*

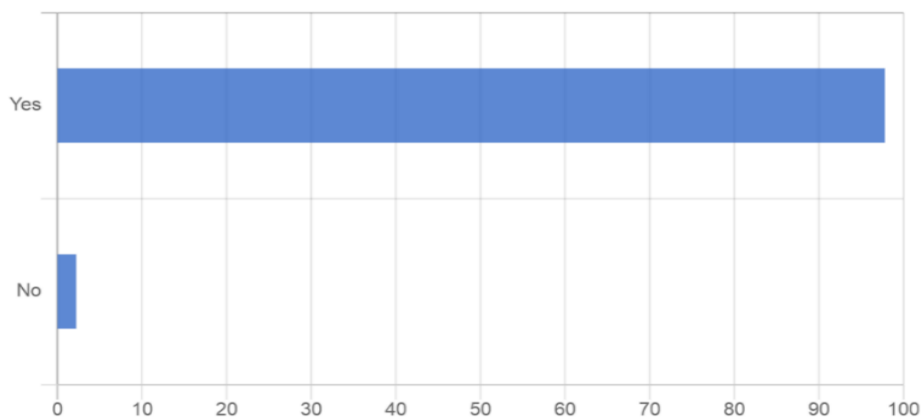


Figure 4.11 Freedom of Movement in Nairobi

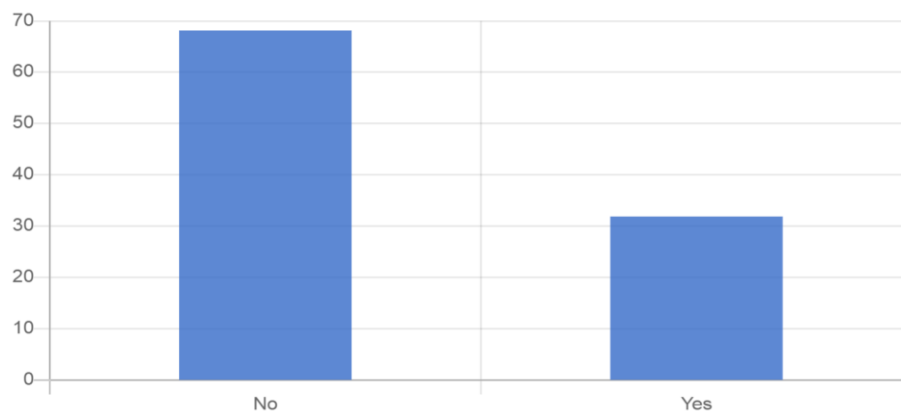


Figure 4.12 Urban Refugees Work Permit Status in Nairobi

4.10 Refugee Gainful Employment in Nairobi

Figure 4.12 above shows that the majority (68.14 per cent) of the urban refugees do not have work permits; however, only 31.86 per cent do have. While conducting the fieldwork, the study asked the refugees why this was so; some of their responses were recorded verbatim. One of the participants said:

“Applying for a work permit takes much time to be approved”.

The permit takes a long to be approved because of requirements such as a recommendation letter from the Department of Refugee Affairs and a valid organisation Tax Compliance Certificate (Kenya Immigration Office, 2021). These two documents are not easy to be obtained from the offices. The KRP Pin is not, in most cases, being delivered to Refugees because they are neither Kenya nor average migrants.

Another one said:

“Acquiring the permit from authorities has been a challenge now that I am not a citizen of Kenya”.

The challenge comes from the fact that the refugees are not allowed to obtain Tax Compliance Certificates according to what the study got from the participants while on the field.

John said:

“I do not have a work permit because applying takes time and is a long process”.

As mentioned above, the process is extended because of the requirements. It even requires some documents that refugees cannot get from the Department of Refugee Affairs (DRA), and also, the KRA Pin is not given to a refugee.

Amina said:

“I applied for it, and it took a long time, and I gave up”.

According to Omata (2020), refugees who work under the exemption of the UNHCR or other international organisations do not need work permits. This statement has been confirmed by one of the respondents, Ruth saying:

“I do not have a permit because I do not need a work permit where I work”.

The fact is that urban refugees in Nairobi have been denied work permits by the Government of Kenya because they do not want them to access the formal job market (Omata, 2020). One of the Congolese refugees said:

“To have a work permit is very hard. If you go for a KRA pin which is one of the documents required to obtain the work permit, they deny you because you are a refugee”.

Goitom (2016) pointed out that refugees and asylum seekers are constrained to look for jobs in the informal market because of a lack of work permits that the government does not issue to them except in very few cases. This statement confirmed the findings above. According to the Norwegian Refugee Council (2017), the lack of urban refugee documentation is connected to restrictions on the right to work and freedom of movement. This means that if the urban refugees in Nairobi do not have the necessary identification documents, they will always be denied access to work. Refugees must get a work permit before accessing formal jobs. Kenya Revenue Authority offices ask them to bring recommendation letters from the employers for them to be issued with a PIN; employers, on the other hand, ask refugees to come with Tax certificates before they can get the job. This becomes back and fourth game towards refugees in Nairobi; getting a job and having a sustainable income is a considerable challenge.

Meanwhile, the Refugees Act (2006) stipulates that *“every refugee and member of his family in Kenya shall, in respect of wage-earning employment, be subject to the same restrictions as are imposed on persons who are not citizens of Kenya”* (Art 16(4)). This means all the refugees have the same right to gainful employment as foreigners in Kenya.

They are supposed to get a recommendation letter from the DRA and Tax Certificate from the KRA Pin office so that they will be able to get the work permit. Thus, the work permit would allow them to apply for jobs in the country.

4.11 The Right to own Properties in Kenya by Urban refugees

Figure 4.13 below shows that 65.93 per cent of the refugees confirmed that they have the right to own properties in Kenya; 34.07 per cent revealed that they do not have the right to own properties. Brian, one of the respondents, revealed that according to Kenyan Law, the refugees are not allowed to buy land; instead, they are allowed to lease land for 99 years. According to Kenya law, an individual is supposed to lease land, even a citizen of Kenya. This means that refugees can own their properties, but the main challenge is the lack of documentation in urban areas. However, having a property as a refugee becomes more complicated.

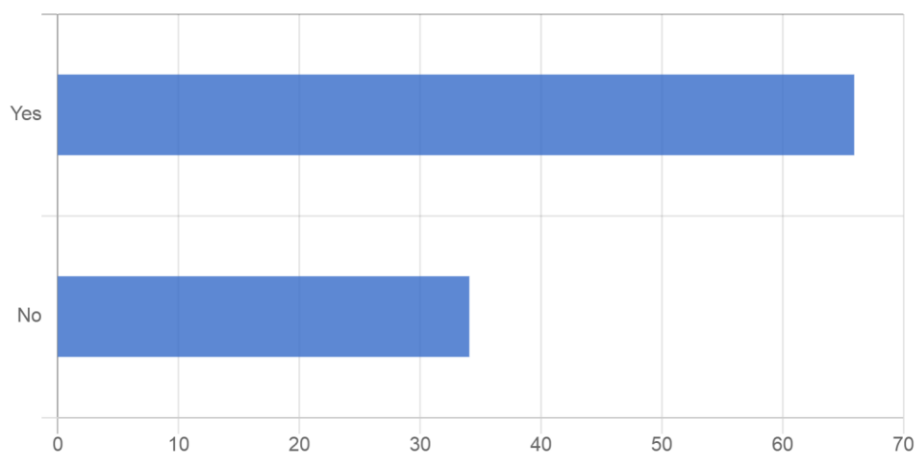


Figure 4.13 Right to Own Property by Refugees

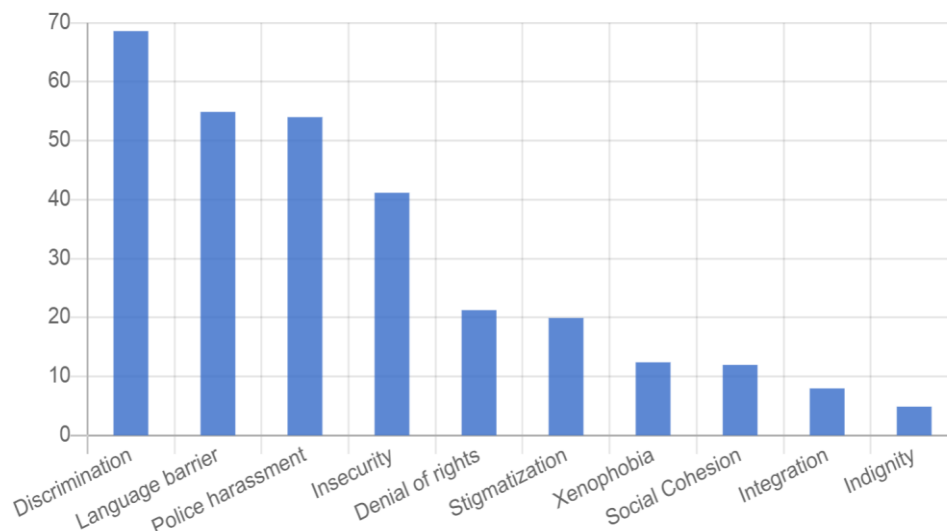


Figure 4.14 Social Challenges Facing Refugees in Nairobi

4.12 Social Challenges Facing Urban Refugees in Nairobi

The main social challenges urban refugees face are discrimination (68.58 per cent); language barrier (54.87 per cent), especially Congolese refugees from francophone backgrounds, with only a few speaking Swahili. Police harassment is the third significant social challenge, with more than half of the refugees falling victim (53.98 per cent) (Figure 4.14). While in the field, a Somali refugee, Adam, said that because of a lack of good English or Swahili, the police harassed them a lot.

“I still do not know good Swahili; many Kenyans take advantage of that to humiliate me. Our rights as Somali people around this place are also not granted, especially in the representation. Police use much force in enforcing the law on us.”

According to Omata (2020), the budget for police is part of the Somali refugee’s daily routine to avoid imprisonment and abusive arrest in Nairobi. Abraham said,

“I have not attended school, so speaking English or Swahili is a problem. Police are not on good terms with us as the Somali people, which is attributed to the insecurity.”

The language barrier was a considerable challenge faced while conducting the research.

The primary group of Somalis do not speak good English. Even Swahili was an issue.

A Congolese refugee John said:

“Coping with the English and Swahili language has not been easy for me over the past eight years I have been around. Police take many bribes from us because they know we cannot get justice even if we are to face them in court. Our rights have not been fully entrenched in the constitution, giving more room for our human rights to be taken for granted.”

The study observed the statement above while in the field conducting the research. Some Congolese refugees are proficient in Kiswahili because of their background; they were from Kiswahili-speaking areas in their country of origin (Eastern Democratic Republic of Congo) and French. Unfortunately, they do not speak good English; this prevents them from getting good jobs in Nairobi, as English is the official language.

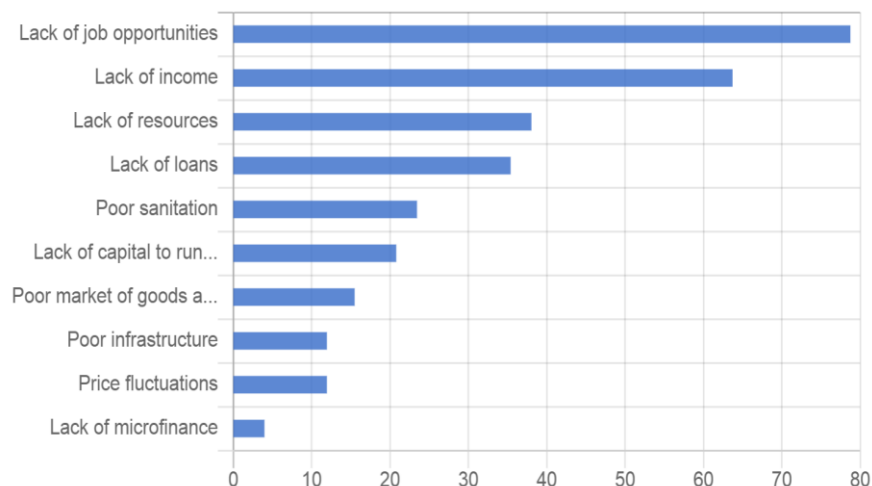


Figure 4.15 Economic Challenges Facing Refugees in Nairobi

4.13 Economic Challenges Facing Urban Refugees in Nairobi

Figure 4.15 above shows that the significant economic challenge faced by urban refugees in Nairobi is the lack of opportunities (78.76 per cent), followed by lack of income (63.72 per cent), and thirdly lack of resources (38.05 per cent). These three economic challenges are correlated. Without economic opportunities, refugees cannot access jobs or start their businesses. Moreover, they will not be able to have sustainable income if they do not have a job.

Paul said:

“There is no job; I have tried searching for a job now it is six years up to no avail. I lack sufficient income to help me expand my business, and when I try accessing the loan from financial institutions, the procedures are just complicated, and their interest is very high that I cannot manage to pay”

Most respondents in this study have pointed out the issue of loans to refugees. They pointed out that the banks in Kenya do not even allow them to have a bank account because of the requirement related to KRA Pin. Therefore, most banks do not give loans if the client has no account.

David said:

“I do not have a proper job, so I chose to be a watchman to cater to my livelihood. My place has poor waste management, and we do not have proper toilets. I cannot access any loan since I know nobody who can be my guarantor.”

The study found that the Congolese refugees, especially the males, decided to become security men. That job does not require a higher education level and proficiency in English. The paradox is that they are not well paid because of low qualifications.

Lydia said:

“Sometimes it is hard even to get food, and I do not have a job right now. I am supposed to move out from where I stay because the one I am staying with is an old woman, so we cannot help each other”.

The issue of housing has been raised by many refugees in Nairobi because being able to afford a house alone is not easy. They prefer to stay with one or more of their fellow refugees where they can afford to pay the rent together.

Sam said,

“If you look for a job, they ask you whether you are a Kenyan. Even if you get a job during the payment, they will ask for a KRA pin, and getting it is so hard”.

The lack of a work permit has been a big challenge in getting a job in Nairobi. The statement above has been narrated by many respondents while conducting the field research. This is why most of those refugees in Nairobi are either jobless or working in the informal sector. The fact is that while working in the informal sector, employers do not pay them good salaries. Some even said that they are doing the work because they must survive. They must pay rent and put bread on the table for their family.

Joe said:

“Our income is very little. You are just surviving; you get the money and spend it on rent and food”.

This is justified because the monthly salary is insufficient because they work in the informal sector. Moreover, the refugees working for international organisations received incentive pay, not salary. The incentive is so little and insufficient for someone residing in Nairobi.

Adam said:

“We are denied of accessing great jobs such as big company jobs. I tried myself I did not get it because of my refugee status. There is even a limit on salary that you are allowed to have. All the refugees earn as incentive workers.”

Though some are qualified to work in a big company, their refugee status does not allow them to do so. The way that the Refugees Act (2006) stipulates that refugees should comply with the regulation about foreign wage earning to get jobs is not the same on the ground in practice.

Mary said:

“Living costs are high, so I struggle alone since my husband is not there; I had to open a small business to sustain my kids and paying my rent is a struggle.”

While conducting the fieldwork, the study met some entrepreneur refugees who started businesses because they lacked sustainable jobs.

Jonatan said:

“I have never been employed since I came to Kenya in 2015; I only get involved in the small manual labour that pays small wages”.

The Congolese and Burundi Refugees are primary manual workers in Nairobi. The females buy and sell the vegetable small ingredients.

Margret said:

“Living cost is high, and since we have nothing to do, we cope with it; getting food is difficult. We must get tomatoes from the Githurai market and sell them door-to-door to earn a living. We also lack the resources to establish a big business or loans from microfinance”.

Another issue raised by the participants during the fieldwork is that the refugees working with international organisations such as the UNHCR do not earn a salary. However, they are given incentives (Omata, 2020).

CHAPTER FIVE

KENYA'S POLICY AND PRACTICES ON URBAN REFUGEES IN NAIROBI

5.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the effect of Kenya's policies and practices on refugee settlement and economic activities in Nairobi. It describes a general understanding of the 1951 Geneva Convention, refugees in Kenya and the procedure which govern them.

5.2 Refugees Policy According to the 1951 Geneva Convention

Refugee is not a new terminology or phenomenon. The United Nations (UN) recognises refugees and stateless persons and grants legal recognition and protection under the United Nations Convention from 1951. According to the 1951 convention, a refugee needs protection in the host country through various policies. Therefore, Article 1(A)(2) of the 1951 Geneva Convention defines a refugee as an:

“individual who is outside his or her country of nationality or habitual residence which is unable or unwilling to return due to a well-founded fear of persecution based on his or her race, religion, nationality, political opinion, or membership in a particular social group” (United Nations, 1951).

Moldovan (2016) pointed out that a refugee is characterised by three main definitions such as: geographically, they are outside their home country; psychologically, they are unwilling or unable to return to their country of origin due to a fear of persecution; causal element, the fear of being persecuted is based on grounds of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion. Nevertheless, African refugees, especially in the Horn and Great Lakes regions, have been displaced by war, violence, conflict and natural disasters such as climate change in the last decade.

Therefore, article 1(2) of the 1969 OAU Convention extends refugee status to an individual who “*owing to external aggression, occupation, foreign domination or events seriously disturbing public order in either part or the whole of his country of origin or nationality, is compelled to leave his place of habitual residence to seek refuge in another place outside his country of origin or nationality*” (UNHCR, 1969 p3).

5.3 Refugees in Kenya and Policy

The Refugees Act (2006) of Kenya Law stipulates that a refugee is a person owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, sex, nationality, membership of a particular social group, or political opinion is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country; or not having a race and being outside the land of his former habitual residence, is unable or, owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for any of the reasons mentioned above is unwilling, to return to it. As the law has said, does a person granted refugee status enjoy the full right, especially in urban areas? This question led this study to inquire more about refugees’ policies and practices in the host community in Nairobi.

According to some researchers, implementing refugees policy in Kenya revealed the opposite of the legal state of the law and the practice (see Omata, (2020)). The Kenya Government prefer a rigorous encampment policy over resettlement and urban settlement. Nanima (2017) pointed out that the Kenyan Government supports the encampment policy because the presence of refugees is ephemeral, and the lasting solution for them is repatriation. Thus, they stay in camps, and their movement is restricted. Despite an encampment policy, some refugees remained in urban areas (Nairobi, Mombasa, Nakuru

and Eldoret). The research inquired more about the policies and practices governing urban refugees in Nairobi and how they influence their daily activities.

5.4 Urban Refugees Practices and Policy in Nairobi

This section of the research found the practices and policies related to refugees' governance in Kenya, especially in the urban areas of Nairobi. The first question is how refugees perceive their relationship with Kenyan government officials. Of the respondents, 53.54 per cent said that the government officials view them well. Some, 26.55 per cent, said that they do not have any knowledge about the view of the government officials, and 14.6 per cent of the refugees said that the government officials view them very well. Only 3.98 per cent said the government officials view them badly, and 1.33 per cent said the officials have a terrible view of them (figure 5.1).

The above results show that Government Officials are okay with Refugees staying in urban areas. But the only worry they have often is the insecurity issue caused by Al-Shabaab attributed to some of the Somali Refugees in Nairobi. Urban Refugees continue to be associated with insecurity, making the protection environment so complex and unpredictable (UNHCR, 2021g).

This optimistic view might boost the refugees' stay in urban areas of Nairobi. Therefore, their peaceful mind would allow them to engage more in economic generating activities without fearing being harassed by government officials.

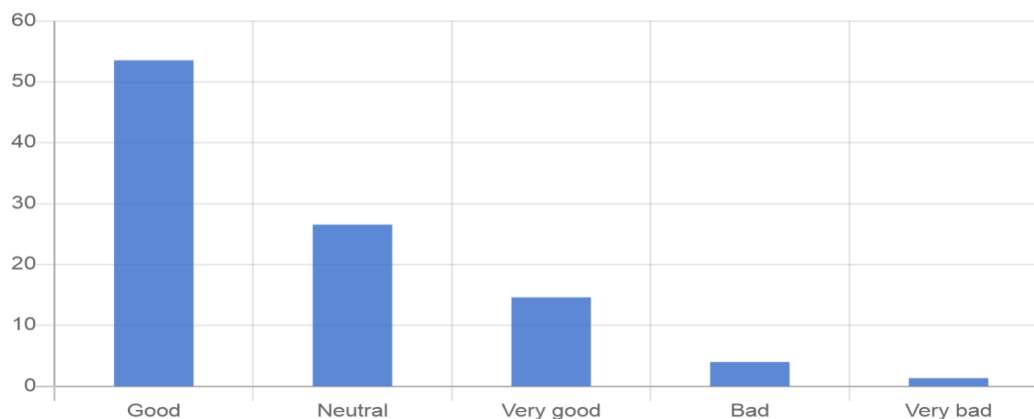


Figure 5.1 Refugees' Perception of Their Interaction with Government Officials

The second question tried to determine how the local officials (Governor, Head of District and delegates) consider the refugees concerning their current situation. Similar results have been found from the field research to the previous ones. About 56.64 per cent said the local officials have a reasonable opinion about them, while 28.32 per cent said that they do not know the idea of local officials. Meanwhile, a few of them (urban refugees) said the local officials have the wrong opinion about them. Contrary to the previous, 6.64 per cent said that the local officials positively perceive them. 1.33 per cent said the local officials need a wrong perception of them (See Figure 5.2).

This result clearly shows that the policy reinforcement in the camp is different from the policy in the urban areas. Betts A. et al. (2018) also found the same result from their research, saying that the policy reinforcement at the national level is different from the policy in the urban areas of Nairobi. The urban refugees enjoy more flexibility from local authorities than the refugees in the camps. Nevertheless, there are refugees in Nairobi who said that the local officials restrict them from engaging in economic activities such as buying and selling goods. While on the field, a refugee from DR Congo in Kasarani said

she started selling fruit juice by the roadside. One day the Kanjo came and took her stuff, and they told her that she was not supposed to undertake such activities because she needed to pay for the local license. But the opposite scenario was observed in Kibera, one of the slums in Nairobi. The Congolese and other nationality refugees in that area enjoy some flexibility from the local officials because those refugees, especially the ladies, sell vegetables and small fish.

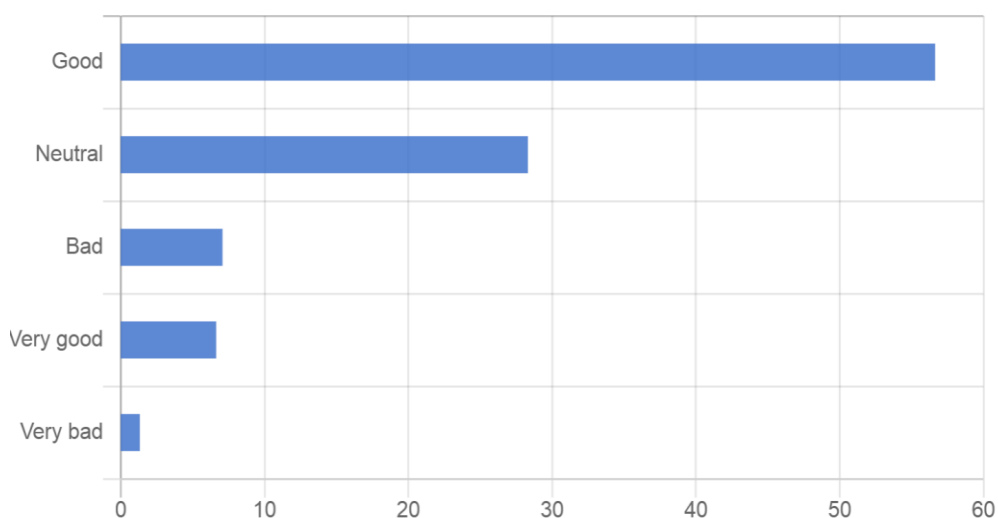


Figure 5.2 Refugees' Opinions about Their Interaction with Local Government Officials

The third question this study handled while conducting the research is how the Kenyan security personnel view them so far concerning their current situation. According to the findings from the field (Figure 5.3), 43.36 per cent of the refugees said that security agents would consider them in Nairobi. Moreover, 27.88 per cent said they are neutral about the Kenyan security officials' view of them. 15.49 per cent said that the Kenyan security officers have a wrong perception of them, and 8.85 per cent said that the Kenyan security

has terrible considerations about them regarding their current situation. Only 4.42 per cent said that Kenyan security views them positively.

This finding shows that the security agents do not involve themselves in the urban refugees' issues too much. That is why few urban refugees do not know the security agents' opinions about them. Moreover, security officials are not allowed to interact with urban issues unless it is a crucial security purpose.

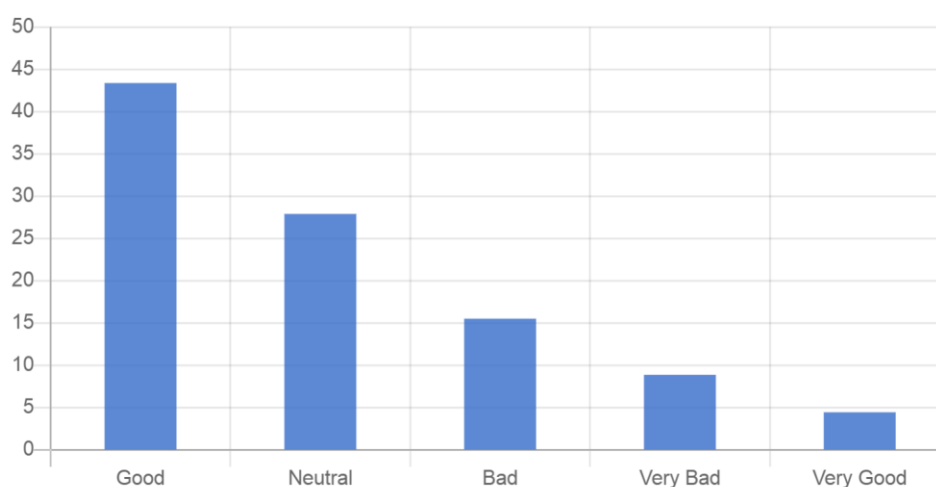


Figure 5.3 Refugees' Opinion on Security Personnel Attitude Towards Them

The question this study handled while conducting fieldwork is how religious leaders view them so far regarding their current situation. According to Figure 5.4 below, 58.41 per cent of religious leaders have a positive attitude towards refugees according to their current situation, and 24.34 per cent have a very positive attitude towards them. But 15.93 per cent said that they need to learn the perspective of religious leaders towards them. Meanwhile, only 1.33 per cent said that the religious leaders have hostile towards them.

This finding is relevant to the reality on the ground. The majority of the participants of the research said they are Christians, especially the refugees from DR Congo, Burundi and

more. Some of them are even Congolese Refugees pastors. They have their churches in the Kasarani areas.

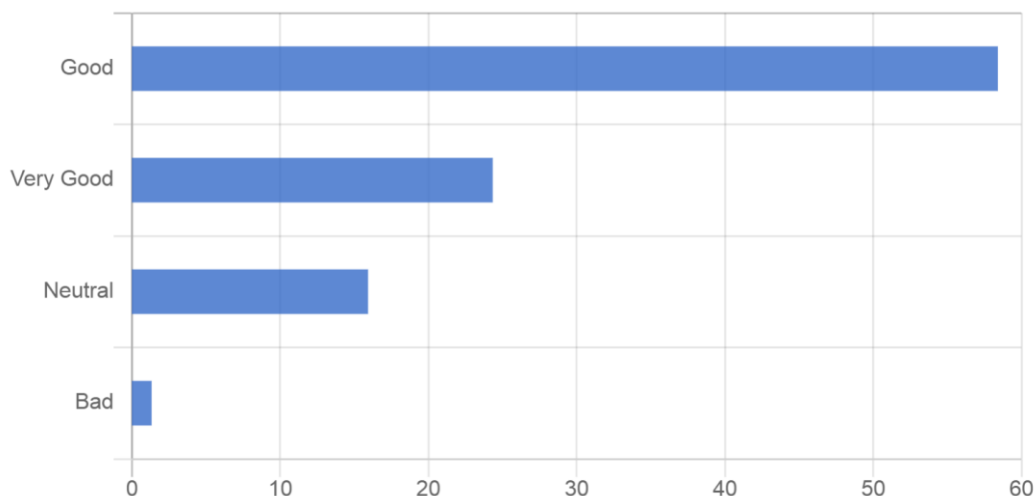


Figure 5.4 Religious Leaders' Attitude towards Refugees w.r.t Current Situation

5.5 The Practices of the Urban Refugees in Nairobi

The research also asked the participants about their relationship with United Nations organisations (UNHCR). Figure 5.5 below shows that only 36.73 per cent said they have a good relationship with international organisations such as the UNHCR. But 28.32 per cent said they have a perfect relationship with the INGOs. About 25.22 per cent of refugees do not have any connection with INGOs, and only 9.73 per cent of the refugees confirmed that they have a negative relationship with INGOs such as the UNHCR.

The results are relevant to the study in Nairobi; few urban refugees have a particular relationship with international organisations. Some even revealed that after getting their Alien Card (Refugee ID), they never went to the UNHCR's office again. Nevertheless, some showed they have a good relationship with the UNHCR because they received some help from them. Nyaoro & Owiso (2021) pointed out that the refugees in Kenya enjoy

fundamental rights from the UNHCR and its partners, such as documentation and in-kind and in-cash donations. The in-cash assistance from the UNHCR will likely help the refugees invest in income-generating activities. However, the more they get help, the more they engage in economic activities in the host community.

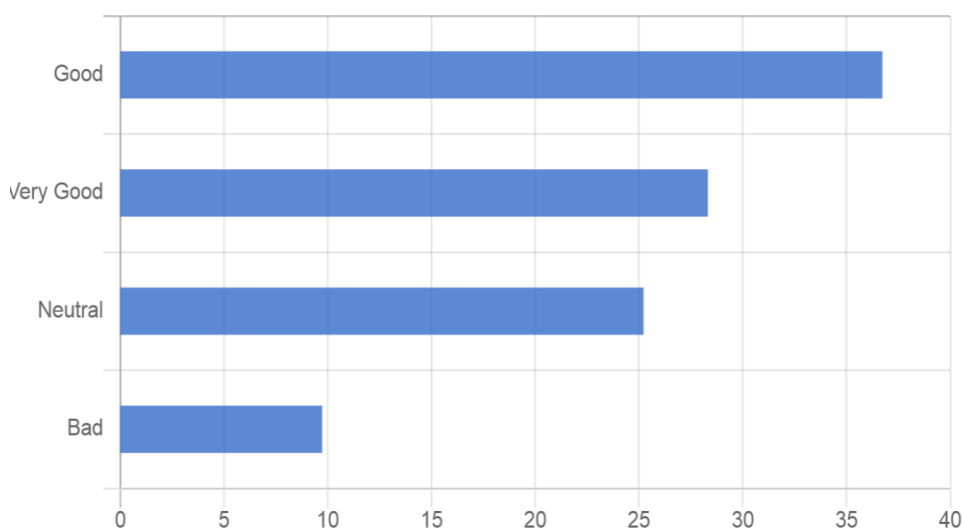


Figure 5.5 The Refugees’ Relationship with the International Organizations (UNHCR)

The study also asked about their relationship with civil society (NGOs). According to survey results, 34.51 per cent of refugees reported that they do not have any association with any NGO. But 34.07 per cent said they have good relationships with some NGOs, and 22.12 per cent said they have positive relationships with NGOs. Only 8.85 per cent said they have a negative association with NGOs (Figure 5.6). Some refugees said that when they arrived in Kenya, they were welcomed by refugees-led organisations such as Africana and international organisations such as World Vision. One of the founders of the refugee-led organisation “*Afrikana*” said they always help newcomers (refugees) to be included in the host community. They train them in language and computer skills because the refugees from DR Congo do not speak English; instead, they speak French. A refugee lady

explained that she usually orders small fish from Tanzania and sells them to her fellow refugees, but this was possible because of her network with international organisations.

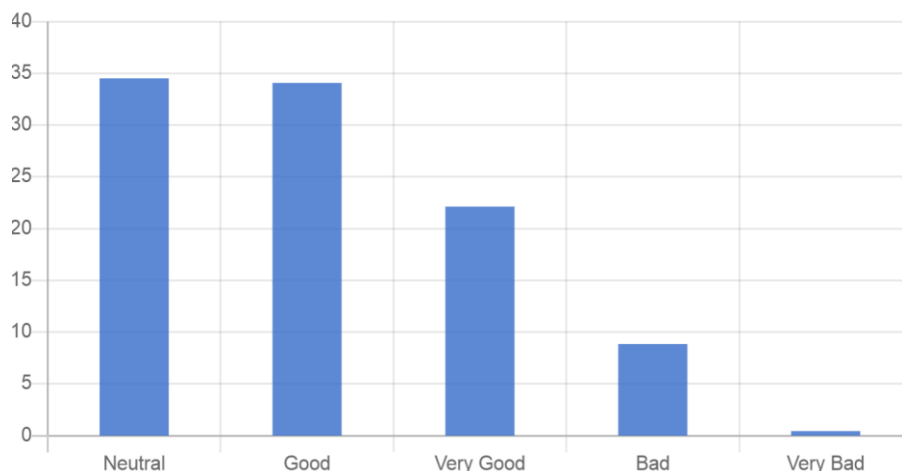


Figure 5.6 The Refugees' Relationship with the NGOs

To better understand the social cohesion of urban refugees in their host communities in Nairobi, the study asked about the nature of their general relationship with the Kenyans. Figure 5.7 below shows that 63.72 per cent of refugees have a good relationship with Kenyans. Meanwhile, 25.66 per cent confirmed that they do not have any connection with Kenyans, and 7.96 per cent of refugees said they have a positive relationship with Kenyans. Only 2.21 per cent of refugees said they have a terrible relationship with Kenyans.

This finding shows that the social cohesion between the host community and urban refugees is essential for doing business among them. The more they interact with the host communities, the more opportunities they create. Moreover, when they interact with the host community, faster they understand the host community's national or local language. Social cohesion is essential for the host community and urban refugees because they create opportunity through the supply and demand of goods and services. Thus, the New Institutional Economics theory helps to understand the refugees' interaction with the host

community. The theory stipulates that the economic system requires human interaction guided by host country laws and regulations.

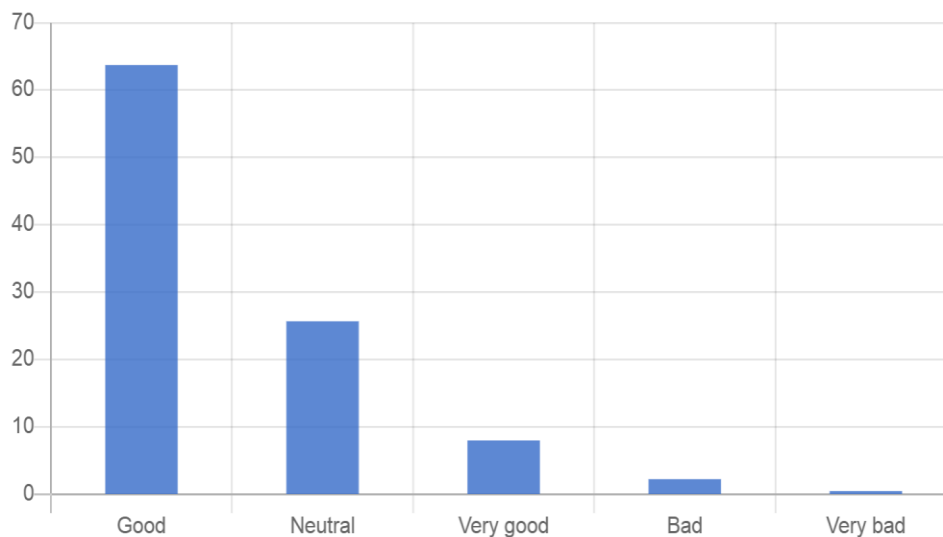


Figure 5.7 The Refugees' Relationship with Kenyans in General

Figure 5.8 reveals that 64.16 per cent of urban refugees said they do not know the feeling of Kenyans towards them. Meanwhile, 19.03 per cent of them confirmed that Kenyans are trustworthy, and 16.81 per cent think they are not. This result shows that the urban refugees in Nairobi must consider what the host community feels about them. Contrary to the question in this research, Betts et al. (2018) ask whether the host community in Turkana is good or trustworthy. The answer received from most refugees was that they need to consider the host community to be good or reliable.

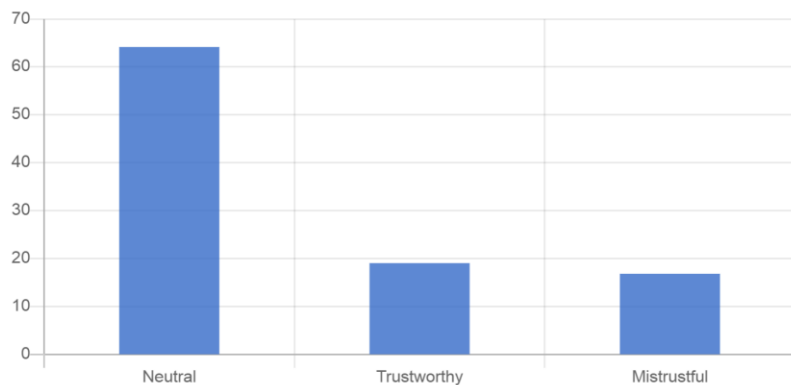


Figure 5.8 Kenyans' Attitude towards Refugees

The urban refugees in Nairobi (61.06 per cent) confirmed that they had been insulted or harassed before in Kenya. Meanwhile, only 38.94 per cent of them said that they had not been insulted or harassed before in Kenya (figure 5.9). This result may be because police harassment is frequent in Nairobi. But while on the field, some urban refugees said their insults were from their fellow refugees. That means the host community does not have an issue with refugees in Nairobi.

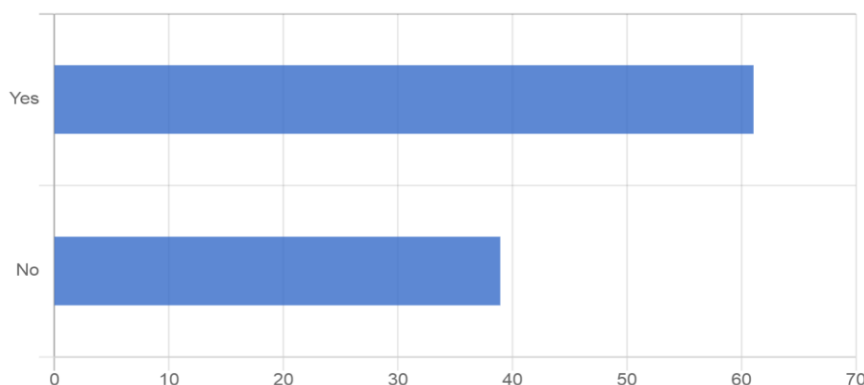


Figure 5.9 Refugees' Harassment in Nairobi

Figure 5.10 below shows that 60.62 per cent of urban refugees confirmed they have been blackmailed before in Kenya, and only 39.38 per cent of them said that they have never been blackmailed in Kenya.

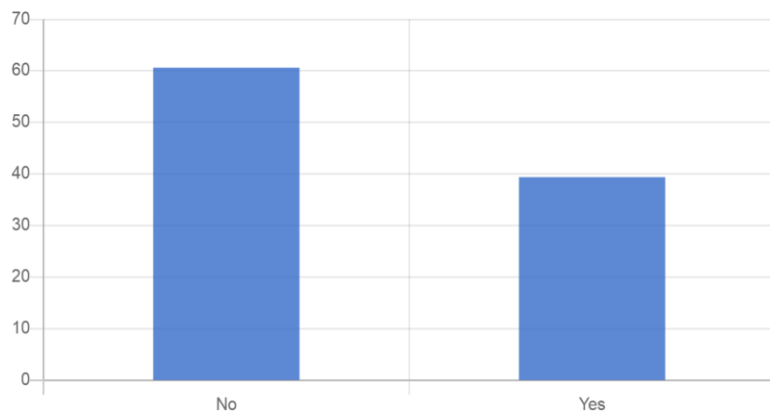


Figure 5.10 Refugees' Blackmailing in Nairobi

Figure 5.11 below shows that 58.41 per cent of refugees confirmed that they had never been arrested before in Nairobi. Meanwhile, 41.59 per cent of urban refugees confirmed that they had been detained by the police before in Nairobi.

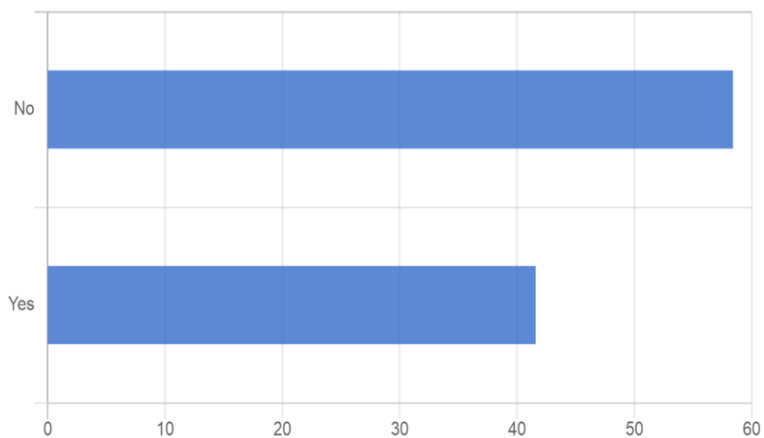


Figure 5.11 Refugees' Arrested or Detained in Nairobi

Figure 5.12 below reveals that 96.46 per cent said they have never been deported back to their country, but only 3.54 per cent confirmed that they have been deported before.

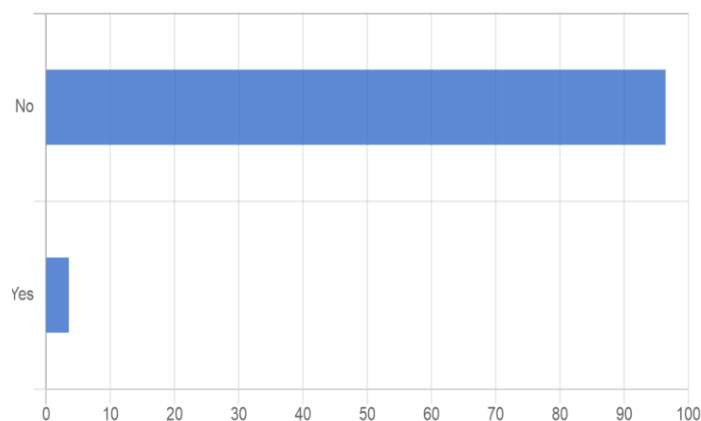


Figure 5.12 Refugees' Deportation in Kenya

Figure 5.13 shows that 81.42 per cent of refugees said they have never been denied a public service before, such as schooling, health services and more. But only 18.58 per cent said they had been denied public benefits before.

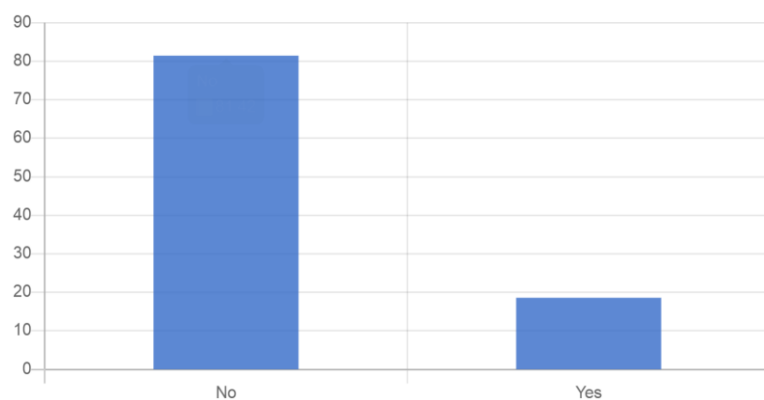


Figure 5.13 Public Services Denial to Refugees in Kenya

Figure 5.14 below reveals that most urban refugees (89.38 per cent) have never been denied private services before, but only 10.62 per cent confirmed that they had been denied personal benefits.

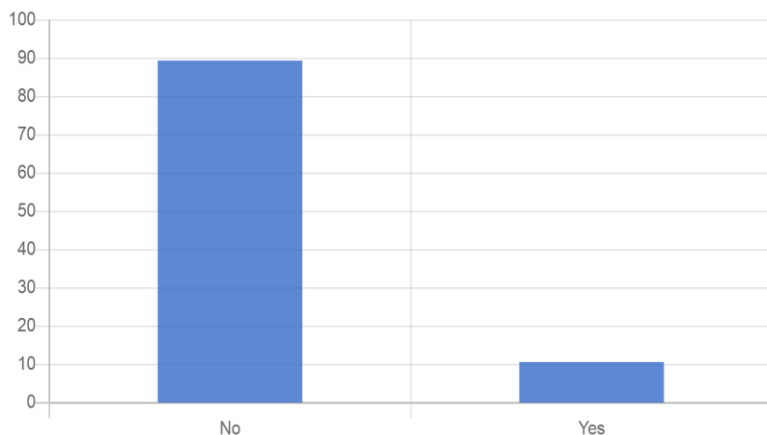


Figure 5.14 Private Services Denial to Refugees in Kenya

Figure 5.15 reveals that most urban refugees (92.04 per cent) said they have never been denied service by the UNHCR in Kenya, and only 7.96 per cent of them confirmed yes.

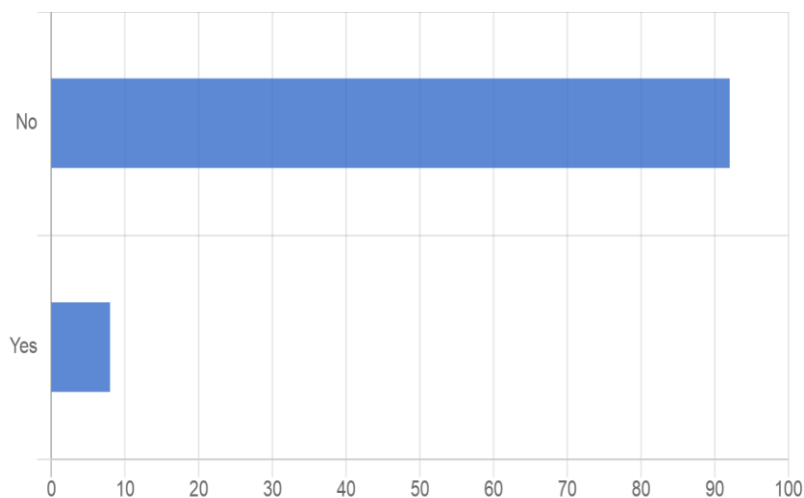


Figure 5.15 UNHCR Services Denial to Refugees in Kenya

In short, the study reveals that the practices and policies which govern urban refugees are in their favour. The urban refugees enjoy their stay in Nairobi, although they face many challenges. The following chapter gives an analysis of urban refugees' economic contribution to the host community in Nairobi.

CHAPTER SIX

ECONOMIC CONTRIBUTION OF URBAN REFUGEES IN NAIROBI COUNTY

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the main objective of the study and the analysis. It evaluates the influence of refugee contribution to Nairobi County. It shows the urban refugees' professional situation and more.

6.2 Empirical Findings

Table 6.1 OLS Results of Refugees' Income and Expenditure in Nairobi County

Variables	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
	Expenditure	Expenditure	Expenditure	Expenditure	Expenditure	Expenditure	income	Expenditure	Expenditure	Expenditure
Income	0.240*** (0.0288)	0.239*** (0.0288)	0.236*** (0.0288)	0.246*** (0.0301)	0.242*** (0.0303)	0.242*** (0.0304)	0.219*** (0.0406)	0.213*** (0.0411)	0.214*** (0.0414)	0.213*** (0.0414)
Freedom of Movement		7,037 (4,381)	6,880 (4,374)	7,374* (4,394)	7,291* (4,397)	7,916* (4,602)	6,738 (12,209)	4,594 (12,450)	4,181 (12,588)	4,172 (12,585)
Rent Fees			-1,031 (753.4)	-955.7 (756.1)	-967.1 (756.5)	-863.3 (789.4)	-688.1 (1,601)	-604.2 (1,606)	-601.3 (1,612)	-1,025 (1,664)
Work Permit				-1,615 (1,454)	-1,564 (1,456)	-1,652 (1,470)	-539.8 (2,198)	-485.3 (2,201)	-538.2 (2,218)	-72.91 (2,263)
Social Cohesion					-653.2 (732.6)	-637.1 (734.7)	-979.9 (1,061)	-1,071 (1,067)	-1,082 (1,072)	-1,179 (1,076)
Professional Situation						-260.7 (555.1)	-1,318 (1,345)	-1,215 (1,351)	-1,155 (1,374)	-1,094 (1,375)
Social Security							5,274 (3,687)	4,937 (3,709)	4,705 (3,814)	5,110 (3,833)
Remittances								-2,467 (2,743)	-2,633 (2,817)	-2,866 (2,825)
Gender									-642.7 (2,276)	-157.6 (2,324)
Age										-157.2 (153.0)
Constant	8,938*** (881.2)	-4,953 (8,692)	-3,096 (8,780)	-2,258 (8,808)	-458.5 (9,040)	-618.2 (9,063)	-4,547 (25,576)	3,022 (26,947)	5,422 (28,362)	5,976 (28,360)
Observations	226	226	226	226	226	226	119	119	119	119
R-squared	0.236	0.245	0.251	0.256	0.258	0.259	0.268	0.273	0.274	0.281
Control	No	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES
Standard errors in parentheses										
*** p<0.01		** p<0.05	* p<0.1							

The empirical analysis employed the OLS econometric model to analyse the economic contribution of urban refugees in Nairobi County. The following OLS model was used to run the regression analysis to understand the urban refugees' economic influence better.

$$\begin{aligned}
Expenditure_i = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 Income_{1i} + \beta_2 Free_Move_{2i} + \beta_3 Rent_Fees_{3i} \\
& + \beta_4 Work_Permit_{4i} + \beta_5 Social_Cohesion_{5i} + \beta_6 Prof_Situat_{6i} \\
& + \beta_7 Social_Secu_{7i} + \beta_8 Remit_{8i} + \beta_9 Age_{9i} + \beta_{10} Gender_{10i}
\end{aligned}$$

The host community's economic outcome is measured through the *expenditure* of the refugee $i = 1, \dots, 226$. The idea is to measure the urban refugees' economic contribution through their expenditure in the host community. The hypothesis is that the more they spend in the host community, the more they contribute to its economies. *Steris Paribus*, all things are equal. That means that the more they contribute to the host community economies, the more they contribute to the host country's economy. Table 6.1 below gives the ordinary least square (OLS) results. The regression analysis revealed that the urban refugees spend 24% of their income in the host community. The result is statistically significant at a 1 per cent confidence level.

The variable $Income_{1i}$ is the monthly income of the refugees; it is used to measure how the urban refugees contribute to their host community economy. As mentioned, the refugees contribute to the host community's economy by spending their income. The result reveals that urban refugees in Nairobi spend 24 points of their income on the host community economy. That means the more they spend their income in their host community, the more they contribute to the host community economy where they reside in Nairobi. Moreover, if local economic growth induces national economic growth, then the urban refugees in Nairobi also contribute to the National economic growth.

The variable $Free_Move_{2i}$ represents the freedom of movement of the refugees in Nairobi areas; this variable measures how freedom of exercise could help to contribute better to the

host community economy. If urban refugees in Nairobi areas are not confined to one place, and their movement is not restricted, they could contribute to the host community better by generating more income. The more revenue they generate, the more they can spend in the host community. Table 6.1 below reveals that freedom of movement contributes to the host community's economy. The result is statistically significant at a 10% confidence level when the rent fees were added to the regression analysis. This means that when the urban refugees can move freely in the host community, they can contribute better to its economy. Therefore, freedom of movement requires the liberty of going out to look for a job or to look for daily income. It leads to freedom of getting into public space. Once in the public space, the refugees request public services. They pay for the services such as transport and more.

The variable $Work_Permit_{4i}$ is used in this study to analyse the impact that having a work permit could have on the expenditure in the host country. Table 6.1 shows that having a work permit does not significantly impact spending in the host community. However, this may not directly impact the host economy, but it might affect income-generating activities.

The variable $Rent_Fees_{3i}$ stands for rent fees payment in the host community by the urban refugees in the host community. The rent fee payment in the host community is used here to figure out whether refugees are self-reliant and how they contribute to the infrastructure economy of the host community. Unfortunately, the result from Table 6.1 is insignificant, which means urban refugees do not have a positive and significant impact on the real estate economy.

The study also included the *Social_Cohesion*_{5i} as one of the variables that could affect the expenditure in the host community. The result from Table 6.1 shows that this is not the case from the analysis. Social cohesion helps the urban refugees have sustainable income to spend more in the host community. That means there is an indirect effect of social cohesion on expenditure through income-generating capability.

The study has found no effect of the professional situation (*Prof_Situat*_{6i}) on the expenditure in the host community. Meanwhile, the professional case is the state of engaging in a specific profession. This leads to having a job that generates income. Thus social work would have more impact on the income-earning capability in the host areas.

The study has incorporated the variable social security (*Social_Secu*_{7i}) to find out the state of having social security could lead to spending more in the host community through tax and insurance fees payment. Therefore, the majority of the urban refugees do not have any significant effect on the expenditure.

Overall, remittances (*Remit*_{8i}), Age (*Age*_{9i}), and Gender (*Gender*_{10i}) have not effect on the expenditure in the host community. Therefore, the results from Table 6.1 show that the impacts are insignificant. This means no remittances of age and gender contribution to the host community economy. In terms of remittance is because the majority of the urban refugees from this study do not receive a considerable amount of remittances.

6.3 Urban Refugees' Professional Situation

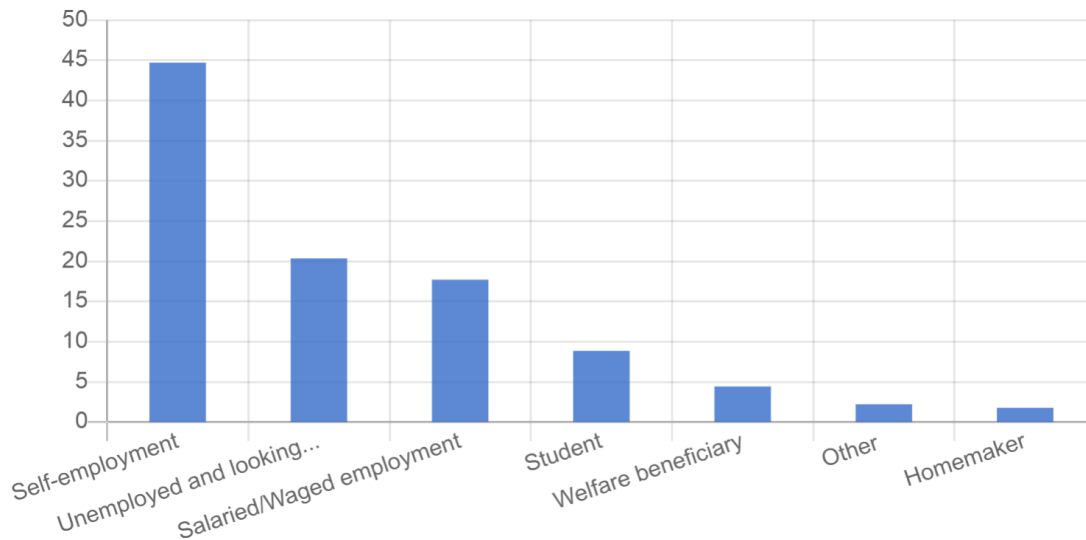


Figure 6.1 Urban Refugees' Professional Situation

The study was also interested in the refugees' labour market experience and economic contribution in Nairobi. Figure 6.1 above reveals that 44.69 per cent of the urban refugees are self-employed; about 20.35 per cent are jobless but looking for a job. Moreover, only 17.7 per cent of refugees are waged employees, and only 8.85 per cent are students. Nevertheless, 4.42 per cent of the urban refugees are aid dependents, and 2.21 per cent have other professions.

The reality on the ground confirmed the findings above. The urban refugees rely highly on themselves; they undertake their initiative by buying and selling or becoming social entrepreneurs. While conducting the fieldwork, the study discovered many refugees lead organisations. Some of them initiated a centre where their fellow refugees could come and learn information technology skills and language skills as well.

The study discussed one of the refugee's lead organisations, "*Africana*", an initiative of three Congolese refugees in Kibera (Nairobi). They created the organisation to help their

fellow refugees and create jobs for themselves. They narrated that most women who sell in the market at their gate are Congolese refugees. Moreover, there were also many manual workers in their compound, and they said those people were refugees from Congo, Burundi and Rwanda. As manual workers, they all have their small consulting companies where they work for the host community under contract. However, some are still jobless among them but actively looking for employment.

6.4 Urban Refugees' employment status in Nairobi

The second question asked was whether they had a job or not. From Figure 6.2 below, most urban refugees (52.65 per cent) said they have a job or are self-employed, while the rest (47.35 per cent) said they do not. To get a clear understanding of the reason why they do not have a job, the study asked them: Why do you not have a job? The answer was that they could not get a work permit to look for a job in the formal labour market. Some of them confirmed that they are still schooling. Moreover, some of them reveal that they need proper documentation. They even said they have been applying for a job but never got a call.

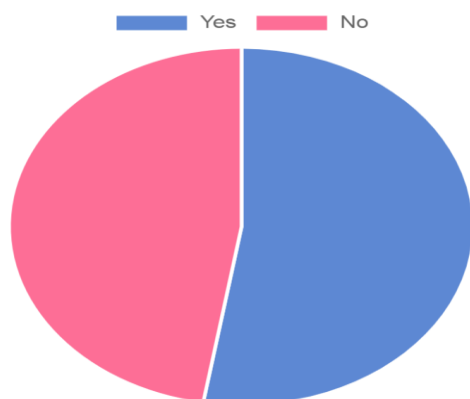


Figure 6.2 Urban Refugees Employment Status

6.5 Urban Refugees' Professional Status

To confirm the professional status of the respondents, the study asked them what the nature of their work is. The answer is that the majority of the urban refugees in the study confirmed that they have their own business (20.8 per cent), from that the 11.06 per cent said that they are skilled manual workers (11.06 per cent) (See figure 6.3 below). This confirmed the reality the study found while searching for self-employed refugees. They are also in the majority of manual skill works. Those educated or who can speak English or Swahili are in the security industry.

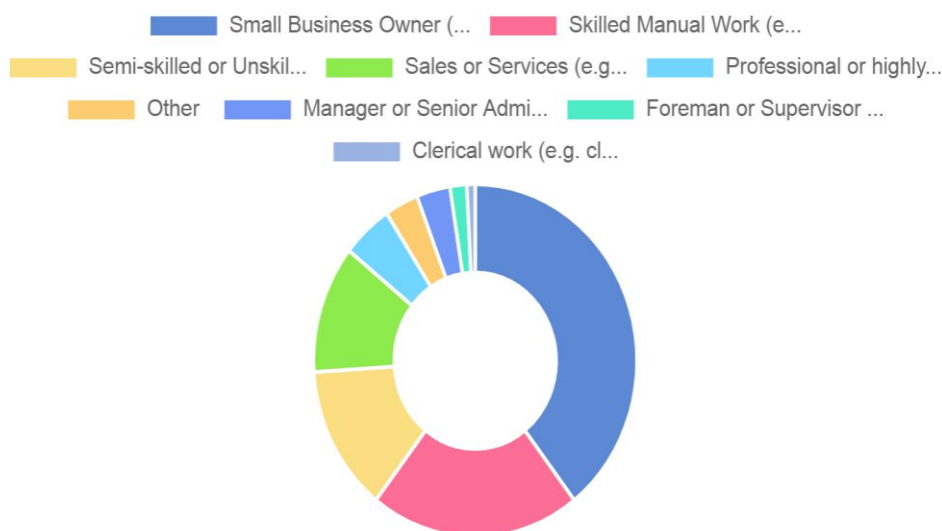


Figure 6.3 Urban Refugees' Professional Status

6.6 Labour Market Entry

To enable the study to understand how the working refugees got their jobs, the research found that the majority (17.7 per cent) started their own business, and 13.27 per cent found their job thanks to their country of origin acquaintances. Meanwhile, 11.5 per cent of refugees found their job through Kenyan acquaintances, and 3.54 of the urban refugees said they started voluntary work. Moreover, 2.65 per cent said they got their job by going door-

to-door search (see Figure 6.4). Contrary to this finding, Refugees in Kampala get their jobs through door to doors search; interestingly, they also find their jobs by the use of Ugandan acquaintances as well as refugees in Nairobi (Vemuru et al., 2016).

This shows that the refugees always have solidarity towards one another. They share the information among their fellow refugees to enable each other to become better off in the host community. Nevertheless, the urban refugees also mingle with Kenyans so that they would be able to get some favour from them (Kenyans). Popularity in job opportunities, job advertisement, information sharing and more. Therefore, social capital is influenced by access to essential goods and services and livelihood opportunities in host communities in urban areas (Joseph Guay, 2021). Moreover, social cohesion reduces economic competition and discrimination but increases access to equitable employment and opportunities for urban refugees and the host community.

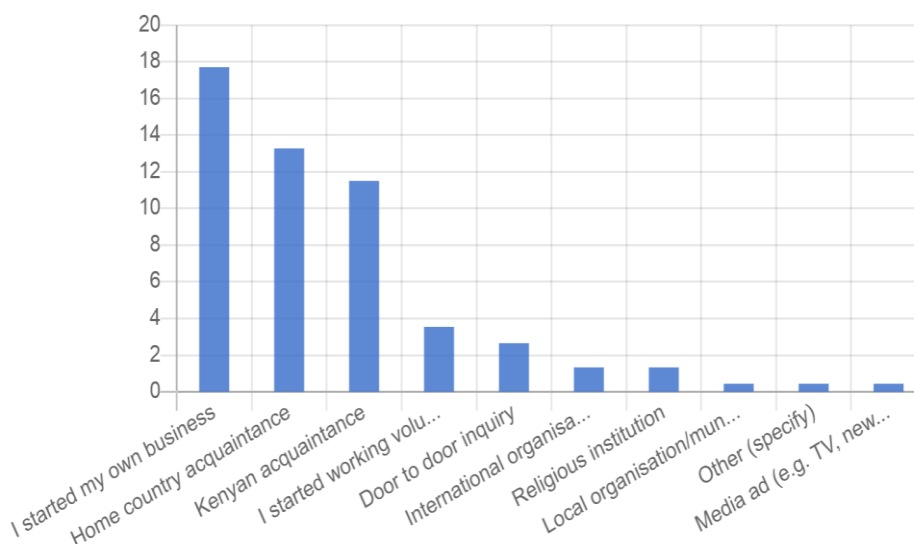


Figure 6.4 Finding the Current Job

6.7 Urban Refugees' Primary Source of Cash or Income in Nairobi

The study asked the participants about the primary source of cash or income to sustain their household in Nairobi. The significant sources of money or income of refugees in Nairobi are Non-agricultural (20.35 per cent), Skilled work (16.37 per cent), Informal commerce (10.62 per cent), Remittances (10.18 per cent), Gifts from family (8.41 per cent) and more. Therefore, the average income of an urban refugee is **20,769** Kenyan Shillings (approximately \$200). Thus, the average expenditure of an urban refugee in Nairobi is **13,925** Kenya Shillings (\$130).

Similar to Nairobi, Refugees in Kampala's sources of income varied from petty trading of accessories, selling clothing materials, retail trading, brokering with their country of origin, tailoring, and running mini-restaurants and bars (Vemuru et al., 2016 p66). These can also be classified as informal commerce and non-agriculture sources of income. Additionally, they also receive remittances and gifts from their relatives or families. According to what the study found from the field, the Somali Refugees engage more in retail trading, restaurants, transportation services, foreign exchange bureaus, and auto repair shops. The same results have been found in Kampala by Vemuru et al. (2016), who also found that Congolese refugees are involved in manual work, restaurants, and small trade. Contrary to Refugees in Kampala, Refugees in Nairobi in the study sample do not engage in agricultural activities to generate income. This is because they are in urban settings. Agricultural lands are not that available in urban areas of Nairobi.

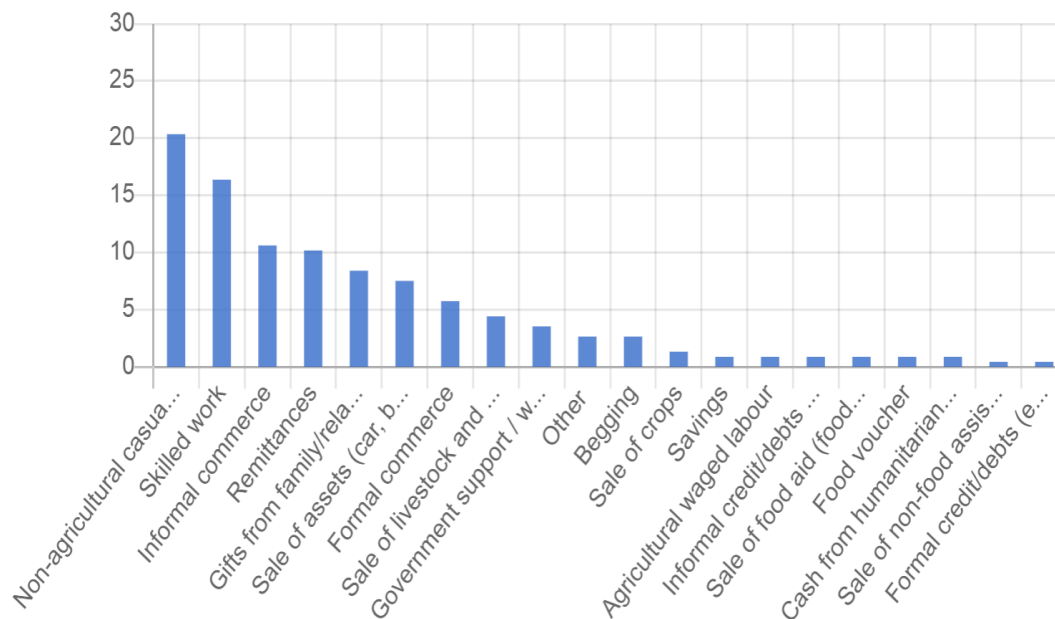


Figure 6.5 Refugees' Primary Source of Income in Nairobi

6.8 Urban Refugees' Remittances Received as a Source of Income

Figure 6.6 below shows that most refugees in Nairobi do not receive remittances from their relatives (72.57 per cent). This is because this study could not have a quota representative from all the refugee populations in Nairobi, which is one of the study's limits. Meanwhile, the average remittances received by the refugees monthly are **15,484** Kenya Shillings. However, Lindley (2007) stated that overseas remittances are a livelihood mobilisation strategy by using the social capital to have financial money in Nairobi by Somali Refugees at Eastleigh. They also mention that even though some do not receive remittances, they are better off through their businesses. In line with this research, very few respondents receive remittances. This is because the large numbers of respondents in this study are Congolese refugees. Unlike the Somali Refugees in Nairobi, who receive massive cash thanks to their relatives abroad and their kinship networks, Congolese refugees do not have such as

kinship network and relatives abroad. Unfortunately, this study did not inquire whether they have relatives abroad who send them money.

Contrary to the study conducted by Mixed Migration Centre (2020), they found that urban refugees rely on remittances from abroad and community support to cope with their daily livelihood; this research found few refugees dependent on overseas remittances to survive. Nevertheless, they confirmed this study by saying that Somali and South Sudanese often rely on remittances more than others. They also added that remittances are significant for urban refugees in Nairobi. Apart from remittances, the primary sources of income for urban refugees in Nairobi are informal employment and income from running a business (Manji & Berry, 2019).

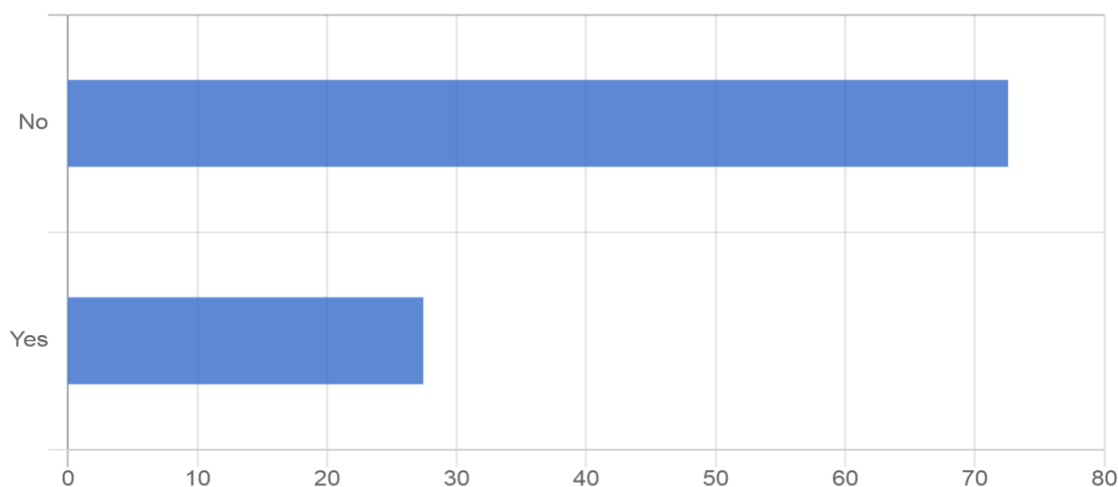


Figure 6.6 Remittances Received by Refugees

6.9 Urban Refugees who Received Aid from Humanitarian organisations

Figure 6.7 below shows that more than half (64.6 per cent) of urban refugees confirmed that they do not receive aid from international organisations such as UNHCR. The question asked them in this context was whether they received any aid or assistance from

any NGOs or UNHCR. Nevertheless, about 35.4 per cent acknowledged receiving aid or assistance from the UNHCR or other INGOs. In line with the latest phrase, Rohwerder (2016: 6) stated in her desk review that refugees in Kampala use aid to fill the gaps in their income. However, self-reliance's main objective is reducing refugees' dependency on the host country. It promotes refugees engaging in income-generating activities so that they would not wait for international organisations to help them every time. However, the objective of refugees' self-reliance is going to be achieved.

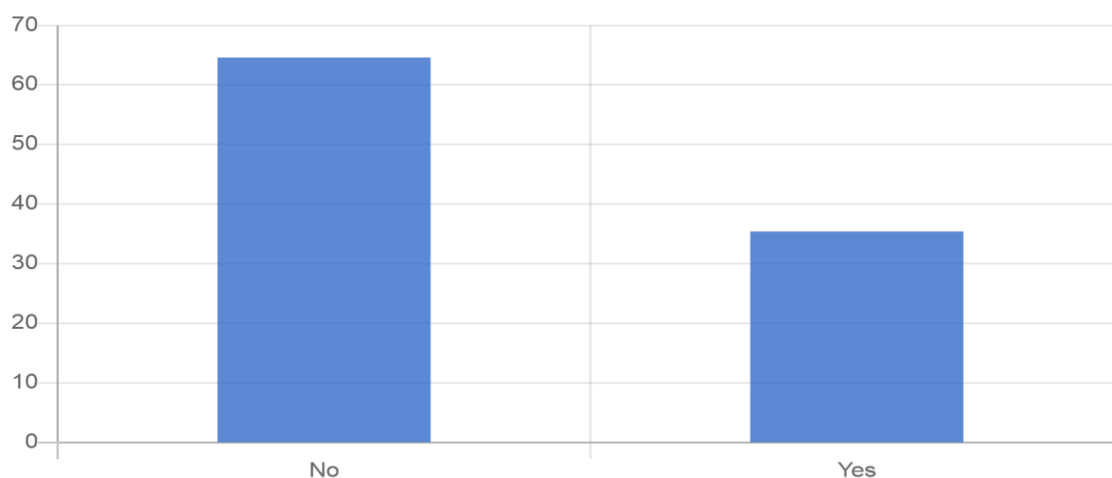


Figure 6.7 Percentage of Urban Refugees Receiving Aid from Humanitarian Organisations

Meanwhile, those receiving aid declared it in-kind, and few said their aid was in-cash (figure 6.8). This shows that urban refugees rely more on other sources of income rather than aid income. However, they receive aid in kind to enable them to cope with their family needs.

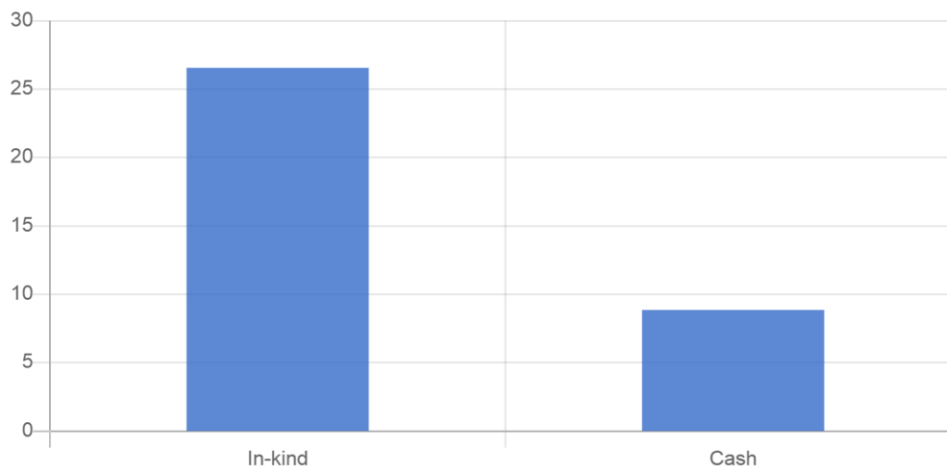


Figure 6.8 Type of Aid Received from Humanitarian Organizations

6.10 Tax Payment to Kenyan Government by Refugees

To enable the study to understand whether urban refugees in Nairobi pay any fees or taxes to Kenya Government, the following question was inquired: Do you pay fees (Taxes, Fees...) to the Kenyan government? According to Figure 6.9, almost three quarter (3/4) of the refugees said that they do not pay any fees or taxes to the Kenyan government, but only one-quarter confirmed that they pay taxes to the Kenyan government. This means that urban refugees in Nairobi do not pay taxes, but they pay fees. For instance, they pay fees when they apply for work permits or request a business license.

Contrary to this finding, the refugees in the camps pay taxes or fees that are set most of the time by the county governments, or the refugees lead organisations in the camps. There were three types of taxes which have been identified by Werker (2007) in some camps in Uganda. The first is a market participation fee, the second is a purchasing fee, and the last is annual business fees. Apart from taxes on economic activities, there are no taxes on individual refugees in the camps (Werker, 2007). The same in the urban settings in Nairobi. There are no individual taxes on refugees but taxes for those running their businesses.

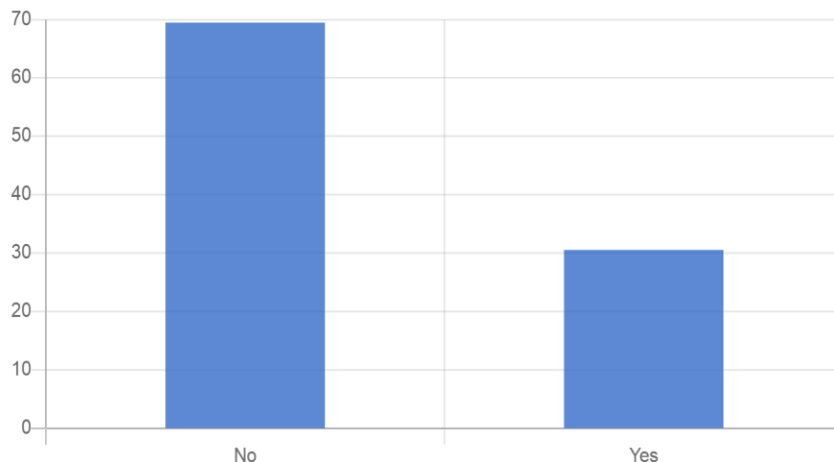


Figure 6.9 Tax Payment to Kenyan Government by Refugees

6.11 Urban Refugees' Economic Contribution through Business in Nairobi

The study inquired about where and from whom the urban refugees who run their businesses get their products from. Figure 6.10 below reveals that those with businesses buy their goods (merchandise) from Kenyans. That means they contribute to the host community's economy by buying from Kenyans through (demand for goods and services).

In the same way, the refugees sell to the Kenyans. The refugees contribute to the host country's economy by doing business with the host community through (the supply of goods and services) (Figure 6.11). Manji & Berry (2019) mentioned that although refugees in Nairobi are generally poor, they are economically active and do business with local communities. The fact found from the field is that Somali refugees are the ones who run businesses in Nairobi at Eastleigh. They had various businesses, from general trade, foreign bureaux and real estate. However, urban refugees make some significant contributions to host community business development.

They not only contribute to the economic issue, but they also strengthen their social cohesion. Therefore, they cannot do business without being on good terms with the host

community. A significant number of urban refugees participating in business activities would appear to contribute towards strengthening refugee-host relations (Church World Service, 2013).

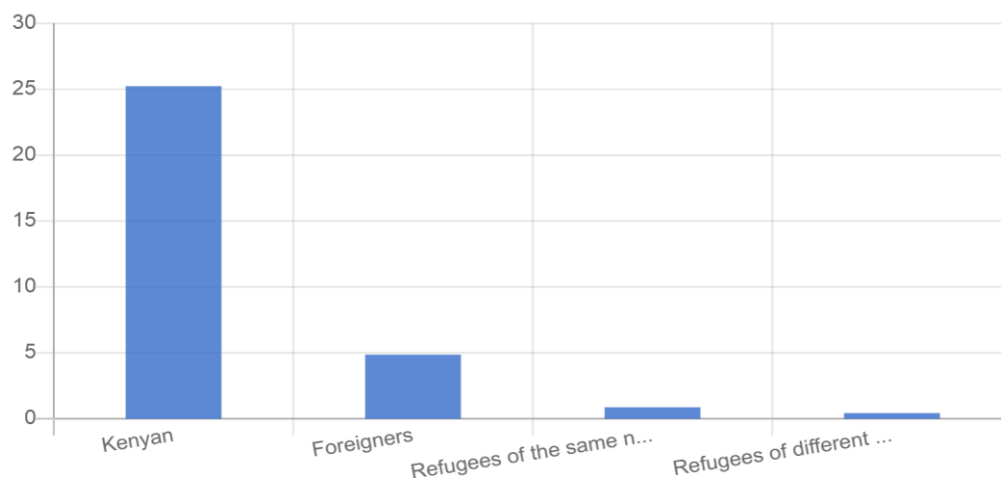


Figure 6.10 Business Suppliers

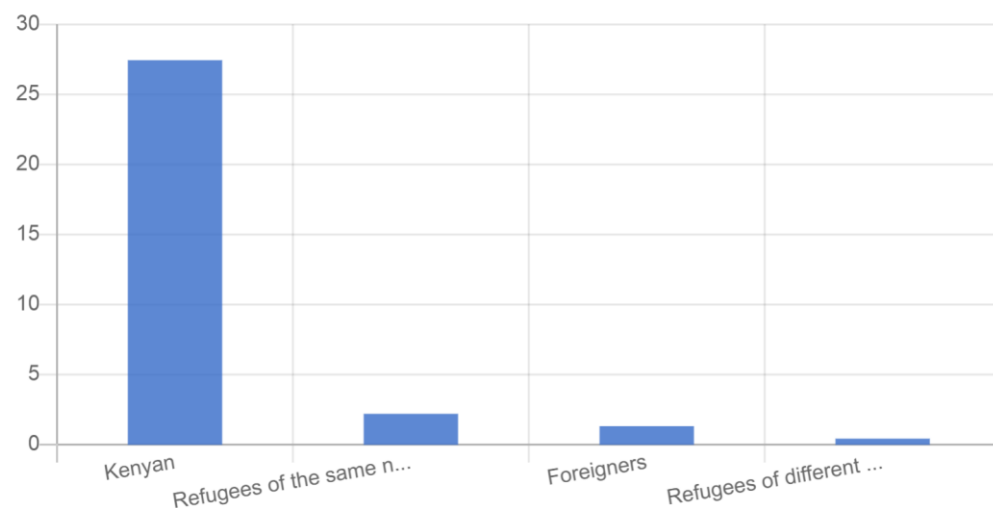


Figure 6.11 Business Demanders

6.12 Urban Refugees Business License Holders

Figure 6.12 below reveals that most refugees with their businesses do not have business licenses. This is because they usually do not have a work permit M. But more interesting is

that those with business licenses pay, on average, 5,000 Kenya Shillings. This is another contribution towards the host country's economy.

Moreover, the urban refugees who own businesses said they do not pay taxes for their shops in the marketplace (figure 6.13). However, those who pay tax for their shops said they pay on average 13,374 Kenya Shillings. This is another type of economic contribution towards the host community economies.

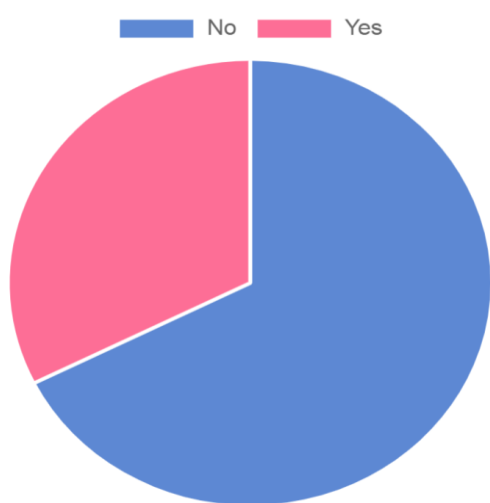


Figure 6.12 Business License Holders

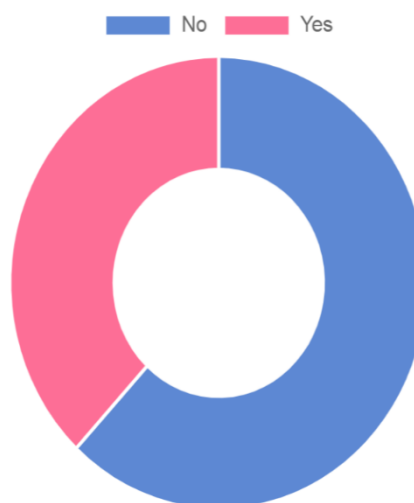


Figure 6.13 Tax for Shop

CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the overall finding of the research, highlights the extent to which the research questions were answered, the conclusions that arose from the study, and the recommendation for future research.

7.2 Summary of the Findings

The study is designed to handle one main objective and three specific objectives. This research aimed to evaluate the economic contribution of urban refugees settled in Nairobi to the host community economy. The specific objectives were to:

1. Assess the socio-economic characteristics of urban refugees in Nairobi.
2. Examine the effect of Kenya's policy and practices on urban refugees in Nairobi.
3. Evaluate the influence of refugees' economic contribution to Nairobi County.

Kenya implemented various policies governing its refugee population as a prominent African refugee-hosting nation. This study undertook a comprehensive exploration of the socio-economic challenges encountered by urban refugees, an evaluation of the prevailing policies and practices, and an assessment of the economic impact these refugees have on the host community within Nairobi. This endeavour aligned with the overarching objective of enriching the literature in forced migration studies. Guided by the Neoclassical Theory of Supply and Demand intertwined with the New Institutional Economics theory, this research conducted a multifaceted investigation.

To ascertain the economic contributions of refugees in Nairobi, the study employed a mixed-method approach that involved developing and implementing a research questionnaire coupled with rigorous field data analysis. In the context of Nairobi, an experimental urban refugee profiling approach utilising respondent-driven sampling (RDS) was adopted, allowing access to hidden and hard-to-reach populations, a challenge that traditional sampling methods often confront. This fieldwork spanned from November 16, 2020, to February 19, 2021, facilitating data collection from 226 participants, thus forming the foundation for subsequent analyses.

The primary inquiry addressed by this study delved into the socio-economic challenges refugees encounter in Nairobi. The findings spotlighted a myriad of social predicaments, most notably insecurity. Among these challenges, discrimination emerged as a prominent concern (68.58%), with language barriers (54.87%) notably affecting Congolese refugees, many of whom hailed from a French-speaking background. Another noteworthy issue encompassed police harassment, impacting over half of the refugee population (53.98%). On the economic front, significant challenges encompassed the dearth of opportunities (78.76%), followed by the absence of income (63.72%), and the scarcity of resources (38.05%). Importantly, these economic challenges exhibited interconnectedness; the lack of economic opportunities perpetuated the inability to secure employment or initiate entrepreneurial endeavours, undermining income sustainability.

The subsequent research question delved into the policies and practices of the Kenyan government and their ramifications for refugee settlements and economic engagement. Findings revealed a regulatory environment in Nairobi that generally permitted urban refugees to move without encountering arrests. Nevertheless, the issuance of work permits

emerged as a pivotal concern, with the majority needing such permits, thereby hindering their access to the formal job market and impeding sustainable income generation. The study yielded a significant revelation regarding the social fabric, as urban refugees reported positive relationships with the host community, underscored by their interactions with the government, local authorities, and security officials. Moreover, the absence of denial of public or private services further indicated the importance of social cohesion. This collaborative spirit facilitated effective business interactions and the creation of supply and demand dynamics.

Lastly, the study pursued an empirical understanding of the economic contribution of urban refugees to the host community within Nairobi. Employing a regression analysis framework, the research gauged economic impact by scrutinising refugee expenditure within the community. This analysis rested on the hypothesis that heightened spending by refugees would correspondingly augment local economic growth. Ordinary least square (OLS) analysis outcomes yielded compelling results, signifying that urban refugees direct 24% of their income toward community expenditures. Statistically significant at a 1% confidence level, these findings underscored the affirmative contribution of urban refugees to the local economy. Inextricably linked, this local economic enrichment cascades to contribute to broader regional and national economic growth.

This study's meticulous investigation of urban refugee dynamics in Nairobi offers multifaceted insights. By delving into socio-economic challenges, scrutinising policies and practices, and quantifying economic contributions, this research contributes substantively to the discourse on forced migration studies. Moreover, the dual application of the Neoclassical Theory of Supply and Demand and the New Institutional Economics theory

provided a robust analytical framework for comprehending these multifarious aspects. These findings carry meaningful implications for policy formulation, social cohesion initiatives, and fostering economic opportunities, collectively contributing to the holistic well-being and development of both refugees and their host community.

7.3 Conclusions

In conclusion, the comprehensive exploration of the socio-economic landscape of urban refugees in Nairobi, the assessment of Kenya's refugee policies and practices, and the evaluation of the economic contributions made by refugees to the Nairobi residents reveal intricate dynamics that shape the refugee experience and their impact on the local economy.

The first objective, which sought to understand the socio-economic challenges refugees face in Nairobi County, illuminated a spectrum of obstacles refugees encounter. Discrimination, language barriers, and police harassment emerged as significant social challenges, echoing the vulnerability of refugees in an unfamiliar environment. On the economic front, the interlinked challenges of limited opportunities, lack of income, and resource scarcity converged to hinder the refugees' capacity to establish stable livelihoods. This underscores the importance of targeted interventions to address these multifaceted challenges and enhance the well-being of urban refugees.

The second objective, focused on Kenya's refugee policies and practices, elucidated the regulatory environment governing refugees in Nairobi County. While the local atmosphere generally facilitated movement, the challenge of work permits surfaced as a pivotal barrier to accessing formal employment and generating sustainable income. The presence of

positive relationships between refugees and the Nairobi residents, coupled with non-discrimination in accessing services, emphasised the importance of social cohesion in promoting economic opportunities and harmonious coexistence.

The third objective delved into the economic contribution of urban refugees to Nairobi County. Through rigorous regression analysis, it was established that urban refugees significantly allocate a substantial portion of their income to community expenditure, positively impacting the local economy. This economic interplay underscores the interconnectedness between refugees and Nairobi County, where increased refugee spending leads to heightened economic growth that ripples the region.

Collectively, these conclusions illuminate the intricate interplay between refugees and Nairobi County, shedding light on challenges and opportunities. The socio-economic challenges underscore the need for targeted support mechanisms, policy adaptations, and initiatives to foster social integration. The regulatory hurdles and the importance of work permits point to the necessity of streamlined policies to enable refugees to contribute meaningfully to the economy. Affirming refugees' economic contributions highlights their potential as economic actors, emphasising their role in driving local economic growth.

This study underscores the dynamic and symbiotic relationship between refugees and Nairobi County, advocating for a comprehensive approach that considers refugees not as passive recipients of assistance but as active participants capable of contributing to their well-being and that of the broader community. The insights derived from this study are significant for policymakers, non-governmental organisations, and international bodies in

shaping policies and programs that promote inclusive economic growth, social cohesion, and sustainable livelihoods for refugees and their Nairobi hosts.

7.4 Recommendations

The findings of this study shed light on the intricate socio-economic challenges faced by urban refugees in Nairobi County, the implications of Kenya's refugee policies and practices, and the tangible economic contributions refugees make to the County. These findings, in turn, offer valuable insights that warrant the following recommendations:

Socio-Economic Challenges Faced by Refugees:

1. **Anti-Discrimination Campaigns:** Given the prevalent issue of discrimination faced by urban refugees, it is recommended that local and international organisations collaborate to launch awareness campaigns promoting tolerance and inclusivity. These campaigns should reshape public perceptions and foster social cohesion between refugees and Nairobi County.
2. **Language and Communication Support:** Addressing the language barrier is crucial. Initiatives such as language classes that specifically cater to the linguistic diversity of urban refugees can enable better integration, improve communication, and create more economic opportunities.
3. **Enhanced Security Measures:** Collaborative efforts between refugee communities, Nairobi local authorities, and security agencies can help address the issue of police harassment. Developing training programs that sensitise law enforcement personnel to refugee rights and experiences can contribute to a safer environment.

Kenya's Refugee Policies and Practices:

1. **Streamlined Work Permit Process:** The study's findings highlight the importance of facilitating work permit issuance for urban refugees. Government authorities should review and potentially streamline the process, making it more accessible and affordable, thus enabling refugees to contribute more effectively to the Nairobi County economy.
2. **Strengthen Social Cohesion Initiatives:** Building on the positive relationships reported between refugees and Nairobi County, community-based initiatives should be encouraged. Programs that promote joint activities, cultural exchanges, and collaborations between refugees and Nairobi locals can strengthen social cohesion and foster economic partnerships.
3. **Inclusive Public Services:** The study underscores the accessibility of public services to refugees. These practices should be further promoted and formalised to ensure refugees' full access to healthcare, education, and other essential services, contributing to their overall well-being.

Economic Contribution of Urban Refugees:

1. **Entrepreneurship and Business Development Support:** Recognizing refugees' propensity for entrepreneurship, targeted support programs should be established. These initiatives include business training, access to microfinance, and mentorship to enable refugees to develop and grow businesses, stimulating Nairobi's local economies.

2. **Partnerships with the Private Sector: Engaging the private sector in refugee integration** can yield mutually beneficial outcomes. Public-private partnerships can provide job opportunities, skill development, and market access, creating a win-win scenario for refugees and Nairobi local businesses.
3. **Data-Driven Policies:** Regular data collection and analysis on refugee economic contributions should be institutionalised. This would enable evidence-based policy-making, ensuring that refugee contributions are fully recognised and integrated into the County's local and national development strategies.

In conclusion, this study's findings underscore the multidimensional challenges and opportunities urban refugees face in Nairobi County. By implementing the above recommendations, policymakers, governmental bodies, NGOs, and the private sector can collaborate to create an environment that harnesses the potential of refugees as economic actors while ensuring their social integration and well-being. These recommendations, when translated into concrete actions, can promote inclusivity, enhance economic vitality, and contribute to the overall development of refugees and the host community.

For further study, this research recommends a natural experimental study on urban refugees by using the country of origin to measure which nationality contributes to the host community better than the others. The study would also like to recommend for further research an impact evaluation of the Somali refugees in Eastleigh on Nairobi's economy.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: REFUGEE QUESTIONNAIRE

Note:

IDENTIFICATION

N°	Question phrasing	Answer
Q0.1	Region	South Central
Q0.2	County	Nairobi
Q0.3	Sub-County	/___/___/___/
Q0.4	Area	/___/___/___/
Q0.5	Questionnaire number	/___/___/___/
Q0.7	Enumerator Name	/___/___/
Q0.8	Interview date	/___/___/-/___/___/-/2__/_0__/_2__ /_0__/
Q0.9	Starting time	/___/___/-/___/___/

BEGINNING OF INTERVIEW

SECTION 1: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHICS

1. What is your gender?	
Male	1
Female	2

2. How old are you?	/ _ / _ / _
----------------------------	-------------

3. What is your country of origin?	
Somalia	1
South Sudan	2
DR Congo	3
Ethiopia	4
Other (specify)	

4. What is your marital status?	
Single	1
Married	2
Widowed	3
Divorced/Separated	4
Other(specify)	99

5. What is your highest level of education?

None	0
Primary School	1
Junior High School	2
Senior High School	3
Diploma/Vocational Training	4
Bachelor Degree	5
Masters	6
PhD	7
Other (specify)	99

6. What language skills do you have? [NOTE: Score as follows: 1 (basic); 2 (intermediate); 3 (Proficient) for each language mentioned by the interviewee without prompting]

		English	Kiswahili	Other (specify)
A	Basic			
B	Intermediate			
C	Proficient			

SECTION 2: REFUGEE CHALLENGE/EXPERIENCE

We would now like to ask you a few questions about your refugee challenge and overall experience.

Q2.1. Why did you leave your country?

1. War
2. Conflict
3. Political persecution
4. Social persecution
5. Religious persecution
6. Violence
7. Other (specify)

Q2.2. How long have you been in Kenya?**Q2.3. What type of accommodation do you currently stay in?**

8. Apartment / house (not shared)
9. Apartment / house (shared)
10. Hotel
11. Homeless
12. Local authority care
13. Other (specify)

Q2.4. Who pays the rent in your apartment/house?

1. No rent
2. I pay the rent
3. My friends / family / relatives pay the rent
4. The state / Local government
5. NGOs / Aids
6. Other (specify)

Q2.5. What is your legal status?

1. Asylum seeker
2. Refugee status
3. Temporary protection
4. Other (specify)

Q2.6. Are you free of your movements in Kenya?

1. Yes
2. No

Q2.7. Do you have work permit?

1. Yes
2. No

Q2.8. Do you have right to own property?

1. Yes
2. No

Q2.9. What are the three main social challenges you face in Kenya?

1. Discrimination
2. Xenophobia
3. Language barrier
4. Police harassment
5. Integration
6. Social Cohesion

7. Insecurity
8. Denial of rights
9. Stigmatisation
10. Indignity

Q2.10. What are the three main economic challenges you face in Kenya?

1. Lack of job opportunities
2. Lack of income
3. Lack of resources
4. Poor sanitation
5. Price fluctuations
6. Lack of capital to run business
7. Lack of loans
8. Lack of microfinance
9. Poor infrastructure
10. Poor market of goods and services

SECTION 3: ETHICAL PERSPECTIVES, PRATICES & POLICY

Q3.1. In your opinion, how do the government officials consider you so far with respect to your current situation?

1. Very good
2. Good
3. Neutral
4. Bad
5. Very bad

Q3.2. In your opinion, how do the local authorities (Governor, Head of District and delegates) consider you so far with respect to your current situation?

1. Very good
2. Good
3. Neutral
4. Bad
5. Very bad

Q3.3. In your opinion, how does the Kenyan security view you so far with respect to your current situation?

1. Very good
2. Good
3. Neutral
4. Bad
5. Very bad

Q3.4 .In your opinion, how do religious leaders view you so far with respect to your current situation?

1. Very good
2. Good
3. Neutral
4. Bad
5. Very bad

Q3.5. What is the nature of your relationship with United Nations organizations (UNHCR)?

1. Very good
2. Good
3. Neutral
4. Bad
5. Very bad

Q3.6. What is the nature of your relationship with civil society (NGOs)?

1. Very good
2. Good
3. Neutral
4. Bad
5. Very bad

Q3.7. What is the nature of your relationship with your employer?

1. Very good
2. Good
3. Neutral
4. Bad
5. Very bad

Q3.8 What is the nature of your relationship with the Kenyan people in general?

1. Very good
2. Good
3. Neutral
4. Bad
5. Very bad

Q3.9. What is the nature of your relationship with your refugee peers in Kenya?

1. Very good
2. Good
3. Neutral
4. Bad
5. Very bad

Q3.10. How do you think Kenya people feel towards refugees?

1. Mistrustful
2. Neutral
3. Trustworthy

Q3.11. Since you have been in Kenya, have you or your family ever been Insulted / Harassed?

1. Yes
2. No

Q3.12. Since you've been in Kenya, has anyone been blackmailing you or your family?

1. Yes
2. No

Q3.13. Since you have been in Kenya, have you or your family ever been arrested / detained?

1. Yes
2. No

Q3.14. Since you have been in Kenya, have you or your family ever been deported?

1. Yes
2. No

Q3.15. Since you have been in Kenya, have you or your family ever been denied services by public institutions (health, school, ministry etc...)?

1. Yes
2. No

Q3.16. Since you have been in Kenya, have you or your family ever been denied services by private business (shops for food or other items)?

1. Yes
2. No

Q3.17. Since you have been in Kenya, have you or your family ever been denied services by humanitarian agencies (UNHCR)?

1. Yes
2. No

SECTION 4: LABOUR MARKET EXPERIENCE, AND ECONOMIC CONTRIBUTION

We would now like to ask you a few questions about your Labour Market Experience, and Economic contribution.

Q4.1. What was your professional situation six months before you left your home country? INTERVIEWER: Please mark the option below that best describes the employment situation, automatically or after reading the categories, if applicable].

1. Salaried/Waged employment
2. Self-employment
3. Unemployed and looking for a job
4. Student
5. Homemaker
6. Welfare beneficiary
7. Other (specify)

Q3.2. What was your job six months before leaving your home country?

[INTERVIEWER: Please mark the option below that best describes the profession, automatically or after reading out the categories, when required]

1. Professional or highly technical work (e.g. doctor, accountant, schoolteacher, university lecturer, social worker, systems analyst)

2. Manager or Senior Administrator (e.g. company director, finance manager, personnel manager, senior sales manager, senior local government officer)
3. Clerical work (e.g. clerk, secretary)
4. Sales or Services (e.g. commercial traveller, shop assistant, nursery nurse, care assistant, paramedic)
5. Small Business Owner (e.g. shop owner, small builder, farmer, restaurant owner)
6. Foreman or Supervisor of other Workers (e.g. building site foreman, supervisor of cleaning workers)
7. Skilled Manual Work (e.g. plumber, electrician, fitter, train driver, cook, hairdresser)
8. Semi-skilled or Unskilled Manual Work (e.g. machine operator, assembler, postman, waitress, cleaner, labourer, driver, bar-worker, call-centre worker)
9. Other (specify)

Q4.3. What is your current professional situation?

INTERVIEWER: Please mark the option below that best describes the employment situation, automatically or after reading the categories, if applicable].

1. Salaried/Waged employment
2. Self-employment
3. Unemployed and looking for a job
4. Student
5. Homemaker
6. Welfare beneficiary
7. Other (specify)

Q4.4. What is your job now?

[INTERVIEWER: Please mark the option below that best describes the profession, automatically or after reading out the categories, when required]

1. Professional or highly technical work (e.g. doctor, accountant, schoolteacher, university lecturer, social worker, systems analyst)
2. Manager or Senior Administrator (e.g. company director, finance manager, personnel manager, senior sales manager, senior local government officer)
3. Clerical work (e.g. clerk, secretary)
4. Sales or Services (e.g. commercial traveller, shop assistant, nursery nurse, care assistant, paramedic)
5. Small Business Owner (e.g. shop owner, small builder, farmer, restaurant owner)
6. Foreman or Supervisor of other Workers (e.g. building site foreman, supervisor of cleaning workers)
7. Skilled Manual Work (e.g. plumber, electrician, fitter, train driver, cook, hairdresser)
8. Semi-skilled or Unskilled Manual Work (e.g. machine operator, assembler, postman, waitress, cleaner, labourer, driver, bar-worker, call-centre worker)
9. Other (specify)

Q4.5. Do you have social security?

1. Yes
2. No

Q4.6. How did you find your current job?

1. Home country acquaintance

2. Kenyan acquaintance
3. Door to door inquiry
4. I started my own business
5. I started working voluntarily / Intern
6. Local organisation/municipality (e.g. job centre)
7. Religious institution
8. International organisation/NGO
9. Media ad (e.g. TV, newspaper, internet)
10. Other (specify)

Q4.7. What is currently the main source of cash/income to sustain your household here in Kenya?

- 1= Sale of crops
- 2= Sale of livestock and animal produce
- 3= Agricultural waged labour
- 4= Non-agricultural casual labour (casual labour, skilled labour, salaried work, provision of services)
- 5= Skilled work
- 6= Formal commerce
- 7= Informal commerce
- 8= Sale of assets (car, bicycle, refrigerator, TV)
- 9= Remittances
- 10= Savings
- 11= Government support / welfare
- 12= Formal credit/debts (e.g. banks)
- 13= Informal credit/debts (e.g. shops, friends, hosts)
- 14= Gifts from family/relatives
- 15= Sale of food aid (food vouchers or parcels)
- 16= Sale of non-food assistance
- 17= Cash from humanitarian/charitable organizations
- 18= Food voucher
- 19= Begging
- 20= Other

Now we will ask you some questions about the economic contribution

Q4.8. How much do you estimate your monthly income in your country of origin?

Q4.9. How much do you estimate your monthly income currently in Kenya?

Q4.10. Do you pay fees (Taxes, Fees,...) to the Kenyan government?

1- Yes

2- No

Q4.11. If so, which one?

Q4.12. How much do you estimate your monthly expenditures in Kenya?

Q4.13. How much do you estimate your current monthly grocery expenditure?

Q4.14. How much do you estimate your current monthly housing budget?

Q4.15. How much do you estimate your current monthly transportation expenditures?

Q4.16. How much do you estimate your current monthly leisure spending?

Q4.17. How much do you estimate your current monthly communication expenses?

Q4.18. Do you receive remittances from your relatives?

1. Yes
2. No

Q4.19. How much remittances do you receive per month?

Q4.20. Do you receive aid from any NGOs or UNHCR?

1. Yes
2. No

Q4.21. Which type of aid?

1. In-kind
2. Cash (how much per month)

Q4.22. Do you have a self-employed job?

1. Yes
2. No

Q4.23. Would you say that the majority of your suppliers are:

1-Kenyan

2- Foreigners

3- Refugees of the same nationality

4- Refugees of different nationality

Q4.24. Would you say that the majority of your customers are:

1-Kenyan

2-Foreigners

3-Refugees of the same nationality

4-Refugees of different nationality

Q4.25. Do you have business license?

1. Yes

2. No

Q4.26. How much do you pay for the business license?

Q4.27. Do you pay taxes for your shop?


1. Yes

2. No

Q4.28. How much do you pay annually?

END OF INTERVIEW

Appendix II: PERMIT NACOSTI




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