APPLIED RESEARCH PROJECT

A multi-country analysis of the impacts of internal displacement

December 2022

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GENEVA GRADUATE INSTITUTE

iDMC internal displacement monitoring centre

Executive Summary

Purpose and Context

At the end of 2021, 38 million internal displacements had been triggered across 141 countries and territories. The global figure for conflict and violence-induced displacement was the highest ever recorded at 14.4 million. However, climate and environment-related disasters were responsible for more than 60 per cent of internal displacements recorded. By the end of 2021, 59.1 million people were living in displacement, the highest figure on record. Of these, about 25.2 million are estimated to have been under 18 years of age. Despite the increasing trends in internal displacement and the children affected, studies on the impacts of internal displacement remain few and limited in scope. Thus, little is understood about the challenges faced by internally displaced children. Furthermore, the root causes of internal displacement and possible solutions to mitigate its impacts have not been extensively studied. The consequences of these knowledge gaps are significant as national and international legislations are often ill-equipped to address the challenges faced by Internally Displaced People (IDPs). The need for comprehensive research on the impacts of internal displacement is at the heart of the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre's (IDMC) mission.

Research Objectives

With a mandate to provide high-quality data, analysis, and expertise on internal displacement, IDMC conducts research and develops knowledge products on fostering durable solutions for IDPs. In line with this mandate and existing knowledge gaps, this Applied Research Project (ARP) assesses the **impacts of internal displacement on education and income**. In doing so, this research aims to equip policymakers, humanitarian, and development actors, as well as donors with the necessary information to improve planning, responses, and financial investments to better address the needs of IDPs. The research was used to inform two of IDMC's reports: The 2022 Global Report on Internal Displacement (GRID), and the report titled Informing better access to education for IDPs. **This report aims to outline the approach, findings, and lessons learned from the ARP.**

The research outlined in this report was informed by the following two questions:

1. What proportion of IDPs in each chosen country have lost their income because of displacement?
2. How do the impacts of displacement on children's education vary depending on different influencing factors?

Methodology

To assess the **impacts of internal displacement on income**, the research made use of a qualitative method characterised by the literature review of annual Humanitarian Needs Overviews (HNOs) and Humanitarian Response Plans (HRPs). The first research question focused on 22 countries, namely: Afghanistan, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Colombia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, Iraq, Libya, Mali, Mozambique, Myanmar, Niger, Nigeria, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan, Syria, Ukraine, and Yemen.

A mixed-method approach was used to assess the **impacts of internal displacement on access to education** and respond to the second research question. More specifically, this research took an explanatory sequential design, where the analysis of quantitative survey data collected by IDMC occurred first and was followed by the analysis of qualitative data from Key Informant Interviews (KIIs) and secondary literature. Qualitative data analysis was used for the contextualisation and triangulation of quantitative data. The second research question focused on case studies in eight countries: Colombia, Ethiopia, Nigeria, Somalia, Indonesia, Nepal, Papua New Guinea, and Vanuatu.

Key Findings

The findings of this research show that internal displacement, whether caused by conflicts or disasters, has **grave impacts on education and income**. IDPs across all the contexts studied encountered barriers to addressing their **income/employment needs** because of displacement. Most IDPs have low to no income and prioritise employment, food, accommodation, and cash as their most pressing needs. Food insecurity seemed to be the primary consequence of lack/low income. **Unpredictable crises**, such as the COVID-19 pandemic, have an exacerbating effect on these impacts. Furthermore, it was also observed that IDP households **living in camps** in some countries had more income-related vulnerabilities compared to those out-of-camp. This research also revealed the urgent need to contribute to **durable solutions** for the re-establishment of rights and the socioeconomic stabilisation of identified vulnerable people.

When it came to analysing the **impacts of internal displacement on education**, the cause of displacement was taken into consideration as a determining factor. In this regard, households with children displaced by conflict reported **longer periods of school disruptions and greater reductions in school enrolment than those displaced by disasters.** The degree of these impacts in each context varied considerably depending on gender and ethnicity. In this regard, girls in most contexts studied experienced greater reductions in school enrolment after their displacement. Similar **gender disparities** in education were identified amongst the adult IDPs surveyed, with fewer female IDPs achieving tertiary education than their male counterparts. The Colombia case study revealed the role played by **ethnic disparities** in limiting education access, with African Colombians facing greater barriers than other ethnic minorities. Thus, regardless of the cause, displacement was seen to exacerbate specific **social and political dynamics** of contexts that already played a role in determining access to education.

Despite limitations in linking findings from the impacts of displacement on education and income, it is evident that displacement harms the **income and education** of IDPs. Furthermore, the research pointed to how these impacts intersect and perpetuate one another. Data analysed showed that the **cost of education** was reported as a major reason for the lack of school enrolment among displaced children. Across all eight case studies, **insufficient financial resources** following displacement became a barrier to meeting basic needs, but most displaced households with children did not receive any **financial support from governments or other institutions.** These trends highlight the need for higher investments in the assistance of IDPs as well as greater cooperation between state and non-state actors to foster durable solutions.

Limitations and Recommendations

Through the collection and analysis of disaggregated data by sex, age, disability status, ethnicity, and cause of displacement, the methodology put forth by IDMC and adopted in this ARP represents a step forward in closing these gaps. Nevertheless, there is room for improvement. This report provides the following recommendations for future research based on the limitations identified throughout this ARP:

- The **small sample sizes** of the case studies conducted by IDMC meant data was not nationally representative neither in size nor in diversity. Larger sample sizes would allow for more representative data collection. Furthermore, testing this survey instrument and framing the methodology in a variety of locations and types of IDPs across countries would help to collect a more in-depth analysis of the socioeconomic impacts of IDPs in different settings.

- The triggers for internal displacement accounted for in these surveys were categorised as either conflict-related or disaster-related. This **binary** fails to acknowledge how internal displacement may result from the compounding effects of both conflict and disaster. Furthermore, the specific impacts of different conflict and violence types should also be considered in future research. Future methodologies should be framed in ways that would account for these contexts and their specific impacts on IDPs.
- As the survey tool developed by IDMC continued to be developed as the case studies were carried out, there are **inconsistencies** in the survey structure for the different countries. As this tool continues to be renewed and improved, points of consistency must be ensured to allow for comparisons when conducting analysis.
- The research consisted of **two separate research questions,** with one focusing on the impacts of displacement on income and the other focusing on the impacts of displacement on education. Survey data was only provided for the latter task. This made it difficult to link findings and ensure consistency within the report. For future studies, we recommend the tool incorporate survey questions relating specifically to the loss of income and livelihoods.
- For some countries, the 2022 HNOs and HRPs had yet to be published at the time of the research. Thus, the team was unable to fully capture the most recent income-related developments in displacement contexts for some of the countries. To mitigate this challenge, we recommend the use of **more varied sources of literature** including other policy publications and newspaper articles.

Table of Contents

List of Figures

Acronyms

ARP	Applied Research Project
DRR	Disaster Risk Reduction
EGRIS	Expert Group on Refugee and IDP Statistics
GRID	Global Report on Internal Displacement
HNO	Humanitarian Needs Overview
HRP	Humanitarian Response Plan
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
IDPs	Internally Displaced People
IDMC	Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre
IOM	International Organisation for Migration
IRIS	International Recommendations on Internally Displaced Persons Statistics
IPSOS	Institut Public de Sondage d'Opinion Secteur
JIPS	Joint IDP Profiling Service
KII	Key Informant Interview
OCHA	United Nations Office for Humanitarian Affairs
ToR	Terms of Reference
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
UNSC	United Nations Security Council
WMO	World Meteorological Organisation

Introduction

At the end of 2021, 59.1 million people were living in internal displacement. This figure is the highest recorded to date (IDMC, 2022). Of these, 53.2 million were displaced by conflict and violence, 5.9 million were by disasters, and 25.2 million were estimated to have been under 18 years old. These figures are not limited to the people who were newly displaced in 2021, but also include those in contexts of protracted displacement. Despite the increasing number of IDPs, the root causes of internal displacement and possible solutions to mitigate its impact have not been extensively studied (Dirikgil, 2022). As a result, national and international legislation are often ill-equipped when it comes to addressing the issue. Without adequate support, IDPs' livelihoods, housing conditions, security, physical and mental health, education, social life, and environments deteriorate significantly. The consequences of internal displacement, if left unaddressed, can last for a lifetime. Thus, it is of paramount importance that national and international efforts can prevent and, when prevention is not possible, address internal displacement. Research on the scale, scope and patterns of displacement is necessary to provide States with a comprehensive picture of this phenomenon to then build effective and lasting solutions to internal displacement. The need for such research is at the heart of the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre's (IDMC) mission.

IDMC, established in 1998, is the world's definitive source of data and analysis on internal displacement. Its mandate is to provide high-quality data, analysis, and expertise on internal displacement to inform policy and operational decisions that can reduce the risk of future displacement while improving the lives of IDPs worldwide. This ARP significantly contributes to the development of this mandate, specifically regarding the impacts of internal displacement on education and income. Through an analysis of the data collected by IDMC from over 2,400 households across eight countries, and of secondary literature on the humanitarian needs of IDPs, this research was used to inform two of IDMC's reports: The *2022 Global Report on Internal Displacement* (IDMC, 2022), and the report titled *Informing better access to education for IDPs* (Cazabat and Yasukawa, 2022). This research aims to equip policymakers, humanitarian and development actors, and donors with the necessary information to improve planning, responses, and financial investments to better address the needs of IDPs, a population that is too often overlooked.

This report aims to outline the approach, findings, and lessons learned from this ARP. The rest of this introduction will outline the research objectives set by the Terms of Reference (ToR) for this ARP, as well as the knowledge gaps it seeks to address. The second section will outline the methodology established with IDMC to conduct this research. The third section presents the key findings of the research conducted and a discussion of these results. Finally, the last section of the report will outline recommendations for future research based on the lessons learned from the analysis conducted and the methodology employed.

Research Objectives

As aforementioned, the objective of this ARP is to conduct a multi-country analysis of the impacts of internal displacement on education and income through an analysis of secondary literature on the humanitarian needs of IDPs, and the data collected by IDMC from household surveys across eight countries. Namely, Colombia, Ethiopia, Indonesia, Nepal, Nigeria, Somalia, Papua New Guinea, and Vanuatu. This research aimed to identify trends and patterns across different countries, as well as across different causes of displacement. Consequently, the case studies analysed were split between contexts where internal displacement was conflict-induced or disaster-induced. Such research is a prerequisite for understanding the scale of internal displacement, who is directly affected, how to plan cost-effective responses, measure progress, and evaluate the impact of interventions.

Research Questions

The following research questions were established after discussions with both the partner and the research team. The primary, overarching, research question was: **What are the impacts of internal displacement on displaced people?** While broad, this research question encapsulated the greater objective of this research and of the partner's overall mission of filling the gaps in the literature and data landscape when it comes to fully understanding the phenomenon of internal displacement in different geographical and causational contexts. This overarching question was followed by the following sub-questions:

1. **What proportion of IDPs in each chosen country have lost their income because of displacement?**
    a. What proportion of IDPs are unemployed or do not earn money from work?
    b. Are there any notable changes in IDPs' level of income before versus after displacement?
2. **How do the impacts of displacement on education vary depending on factors including, but not limited to, the child's:**
    a. Sex
    b. caregivers' education level
    c. Main language spoken at home
    d. Disability status
    e. Driver of displacement
    f. Duration of displacement
    g. Ethno-religious origins

The two questions were addressed through separate methodologies and informed separate deliverables. Consequently, a triangulation between the three questions to assess how the impacts of internal displacement on education and income intersect was not within the scope of this ARP's ToR. Such research, however, would be of great use to the accomplishment of the partner's mandate. This opportunity is further detailed in the last section of this report. Despite the lack of alignment between the two methodologies and deliverables this research undertook, the findings do address similar knowledge gaps. Namely, the need for more reliable, up-to-date, and comparable data on the socioeconomic impacts of internal displacement.

Originality and Purpose

Migration has always been an inherent human phenomenon. Unfortunately, the choice to migrate is not always a voluntary one, often resulting from forced displacements, rendering citizens refugees, asylum seekers, or IDPs. These categories are accompanied by differently tailored human rights frameworks, allowing for these individuals' continued protection. However, such categorisations are not equally recognised nor accounted for within policy, international law, or national legislation. Refugees are pragmatically defined as those who have crossed international borders to flee persecution, conflict, violence, or other circumstances that have seriously disturbed public order, and who, as a result, require international protection (UNHCR, 2016). Their legal protection is stipulated in the 1951 Geneva Convention Related to the Status of Refugees, which also safeguards the right to seek asylum and non-refoulment (UNHCR, 1951). On the other hand, IDPs are less acknowledged.

The internationally recognised definition for IDPs is stipulated in the 1998 Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, which defines IDPs as "persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalised violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters and who have not crossed an internationally recognised State border" (OCHA, 1998). The key difference between IDPs and refugees is the crossing of an international border, and while they share many of the same challenges as refugees, IDPs do not hold a special protection status in international law with rights specific to their situation (OHCHR, no date). It is therefore the responsibility of the governments of States where IDPs are found to assist and protect them (OCHA, 1998). Yet, because of this limited recognition, IDP-related issues are often conflated with those of refugees or other categories of displacement-affected people. This is despite the recognition of internal displacement as a serious humanitarian, political and legal challenge capable of becoming a threat to international peace (UNSC, 2020) and sustainable development (United Nations General Assembly, 2015b).

This invisibility is a result of their inability to be captured in data collected at border crossings as the nature of their displacement is defined by their permanence within national borders. Often the only opportunity for their registration is if they receive social assistance or seek refuge in an official displacement camp, which is not often the case as most IDPs find refuge in host communities and informal settlements (Cohen and Deng, 2012; Baal and Ronkainen, 2017; Cotroneo, 2017). It is the responsibility of national governments to account for the number of IDPs in their country, but many cannot do so systematically and comprehensively. Others refuse to do so entirely. To respond to this data gap, IDMC has been at the heart of international efforts to set standards for the collection of data regarding IDPs. It has developed a globally recognised methodology to map and monitor the number of IDPs worldwide, resulting from both conflict- and disaster-induced displacements.

Such methodology has aided in the development of the International Recommendations on Internally Displaced Persons Statistics (IRIS) as part of the IDP subgroup of the Expert Group on Refugee and IDP Statistics (EGRIS), led by the Joint IDP Profiling Service (JIPS) (EGRIS, 2020). While of immense importance to the planning and costing of effective solutions, it is not enough to know the number of people living in internal displacement because of conflict, violence and disasters at the end of each year at the national, regional and global levels. This is because internal displacement severely disrupts the lives of those it impacts, often undermining their welfare and well-being.

Durable solutions to IDP-related issues must therefore be informed by reliable and comparable data on both the number of IDPs and the socioeconomic impacts of internal displacement to prevent and address them. The current data landscape lacks the necessary structure and consistency to allow for such solutions (USAID, 2021). As such, this research, alongside IDMC's other research on the socioeconomic impacts of internal displacement, aims to fill this gap through reliable and consistent data analysis to guide investments into more effective prevention and response (IDMC, no date). The approach taken by IDMC, and adopted in this ARP, looks at the socioeconomic impacts of internal displacement from a holistic perspective. More specifically, it looks at the impacts on the livelihoods, education, health, security, social life, housing, and infrastructure of IDPs and their hosts. Attention is also given to how these effects ripple throughout the different dimensions of IDPs' lives. This information is then disaggregated by age, sex, disability status, and ethnicity to conduct a more fine-grained analysis. The methodology through which this data collection and analysis was conducted is thoroughly outlined in the following section of the report.

Overall, this approach allows for the impact of internal displacement to be assessed comprehensively, addressing the knowledge gaps that often inhibit the capacity of policies to address the phenomenon in its entirety. Furthermore, the disaggregation of the data by age addresses another major data gap - that relating to internally displaced children.

Data disaggregated by age and displacement type is very difficult to come by, making internally displaced children twice as invisible (IDMC, 2019). This is a result of the time and resource constraints faced during displacement crises. The existing sources of data on displaced children often conflate internally displaced children with categories of “crisis-affected children '' or “children in need” (Lundberg and Wuermli, 2012). Another commonly encountered issue is the irregularities in different entities’ definitions of age groups, making national-level figures difficult to compile. Finally, ethical considerations also need to be considered when collecting data on children, meaning other people are often surveyed on their behalf. This can pose obstacles to obtaining accurate information. Nevertheless, through the data made available by the World Population Prospects, IDMC was able to estimate the number of internally displaced children across the 13 different countries selected for the education report this research contributed to, including Afghanistan, Colombia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, Iraq, Mozambique, Myanmar, Nigeria, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan, Syria, and Yemen. IDMC estimates that there were 14 million internally displaced children, between the ages of five and seventeen, at the end of 2021 across all 13 countries (see figure 1).

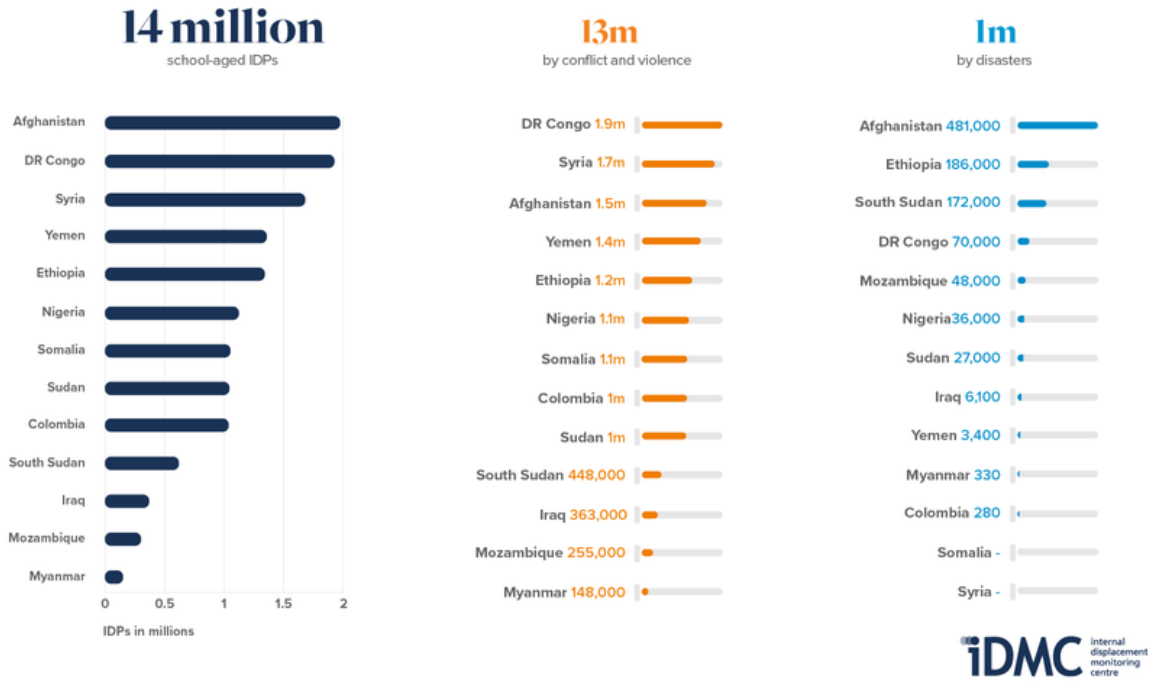

Figure 1: Data on internally displaced children for selected countries, divided by cause of displacement (Cazabat and Yasukawa, 2022)

The global number of internally displaced children at the end of 2021 can be estimated to have been about 9.9 million aged between five and 11, and 7.5 million between 12 and 17 (Cazabat and Yasukawa, 2022) Through this same methodology, IDMC has been able to estimate the number of IDPs because of conflict, violence, and disasters per different age group for the end of 2022 (see figure 2).

Figure 2: Estimated number of people of different age groups living in internal displacement as a result of conflict, violence and disasters globally at the end of 2020

There are limitations to this methodology, which are further outlined in the last section of this report, likely making these numbers conservative. Nevertheless, this data, and the report to which the research of this ARP contributed, demonstrates a first step in addressing the gaps in the existing knowledge and data landscape. In addition to these figures, research must also explore the specific impacts of internal displacement experienced by children. Such research is invaluable considering how internally displaced children lack access to basic services and are at risk of exposure to violence, exploitation, abuse, and trafficking. They are also at risk of child labour, child marriage and family separation which all pose direct threats to their health and safety. (UNICEF, 2020). When left unaddressed, these issues have long-lasting repercussions on the future well-being of the children in question, as well as on the communities they are a part of. Strategic investments and united efforts from governments, humanitarian and development actors, and the private sector are therefore necessary to ensure internally displaced children have equitable access to services such as education and healthcare. As aforementioned, timely and accessible data and evidence that improves our understanding of how internal displacement impacts children and their families is paramount. The research conducted by this ARP contributes to delivering this agenda.

Methodology

To address the research objectives outlined above, this ARP adopted different methodologies to respond to the different research questions. As aforementioned, while being included in the same ARP, the research questions stipulated in the ToR corresponded to separate methodologies as they also informed different deliverables. With regards to the first research question (i.e., **What proportion of IDPs in each chosen country have lost their income because of displacement?**) a qualitative method approach was undertaken in the form of a literature review. On the other hand, a mixed methods approach was taken to respond to the second research question (i.e., **How do the impacts of displacement on children's education vary depending on different influencing factors?**). More specifically, this research took on an explanatory sequential design, where the quantitative data analysis occurred first and was followed by qualitative data collection and analysis. This approach was chosen as the qualitative data analysis was utilised to explain and contextualise our quantitative findings. The following section gives an overview of the different research methods and sources of data utilised to conduct the research.

Research Question 1

A qualitative research approach was utilised to answer the first research question of this ARP on the **impacts of internal displacement on income**. This consisted of a literature review of secondary sources. These sources specifically included:

- The Humanitarian Needs Overview (HNO) and Humanitarian Response Plan (HRP) from 2020 to 2022 published by the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA)
- IOM's Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) national assessments
- Impact Reach's Multi-Sectoral Needs Assessments (MSNAs)

This literature review synthesised the findings of this representative literature on the topic of IDP income loss in an integrated manner on the countries of interest to the partner, which included: Afghanistan, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Colombia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, Iraq, Libya, Mali, Mozambique, Myanmar, Niger, Nigeria, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan, Syria, Ukraine, and Yemen. These reports were analysed to identify any references to the percentage of IDPs who lost income because of displacement, who are unemployed, or who do not earn money from work. Any other relevant information about income was also recorded. Findings focused on the IDP population of the country in question, rather than sub-groups of IDPs and sub-regions, to determine how the humanitarian sector can provide for the livelihood needs of IDPs. This literature review was conducted by dividing up the countries to be analysed amongst the research team.

Everyone's findings were collected in the same Excel document and referenced appropriately. Preliminary findings were sent to the partner organisation for feedback, which was then addressed in the second round of analysis by the research team. Following this second round of analysis, the findings were shared with the partner by mid-March for them to be integrated into IDMC's 2022 Global Report on Internal Displacement, published in May 2022. The table summarising the findings for this first task can be found in Appendix I.

Research Question 2

To address the second research question on the **impacts of internal displacement on education**, this research made use of the primary data collected by IDMC for their socioeconomic impacts case studies in Colombia, Ethiopia, Nigeria, Somalia, Indonesia, Nepal, Papua New Guinea, and Vanuatu. These case studies were conducted by IDMC in partnership with the Institut de Publique Sondage d'Opinion Secteur (IPSOS) in 2021 and consisted of original surveys of 150 IDPs and 150 non-IDPs, as well as Key Informant Interviews (KIIs) with community leaders, local NGO workers, etc., for each country of interest. For these surveys, respondents were asked to compare their household's situation before and after displacement in five areas: livelihoods, housing, health, security, and education. Results were disaggregated by sex, age, disability status and main language spoken (a proxy for ethnicity) in the home. This data was then analysed through a mixed methods approach.

Both the raw and cleaned datasets drafted by IPSOS were analysed by the ARP research team to draw comparisons between IDP and non-IDP households about (in)access to and quality of education. Each researcher individually analysed the datasets for each country, summarising the key findings in an Excel document. For ease of comparison and future analysis, each finding was also labelled as relating to one or more of the following topics: IDPs, non-displaced, enrolment, cost, quality of education/satisfaction, sex, income, caregivers' education level, the main language spoken in the household, disability status, duration of displacement, and/or other. After everyone's initial analysis of the datasets, the separate findings of each researcher were compiled into a single Excel document. The research team would then meet to discuss findings, analyse overarching patterns, and clean the data before sharing it with the partner for feedback.

Through this initial analysis and feedback, it became evident that there was a need for further research which would aid in contextualising the findings identified. As such, the analysis of the datasets was later supplemented by secondary research, especially relating to ethnicity, income level, geographic location, and government aid. Furthermore, the KIIs were also shared and utilised to aid in this contextualization of the quantitative data analysis This explanatory sequential design allowed for the research team's quantitative

findings to be further explained and contextualised. As such, overarching trends and patterns were also explored. These overarching trends were first explored across all eight case studies and then further broken down by cause of displacement.

This choice was motivated by the fact that all eight case studies are based in very separate geographical contexts, inhibiting the possibility of a regional analysis of the impacts of internal displacement on children's education. Rather, the case studies could easily be split between cases where internal displacement was conflict-induced and where it was disaster-induced. This allowed for context-specific analysis of the overarching trends identified, and the findings were summarised in two separate tables for each comparison (these can be found in Appendices II and III). Overall, through this contextualisation, the hope was to mitigate the chance of drawing assumptions rather than founded conclusions. The findings from this second task were incorporated into IDMC's most recent report titled, Informing better access to education for IDPs, published November 2022.

Presentation and Discussion of Results

Students participate in class at the Baba Gurgur primary school for girls in Tuz, Salah Al Din governorate. © Ahmed Kaka/NRC, March 2022

The following section provides an extensive summary of the key findings from the two methodologies outlined in the previous section. The first subsection outlines the findings related to the first research question, looking at the impacts of internal displacement on income. This is followed by a discussion of these findings. The second subsection outlines the findings related to the second research question, looking at the impact of internal displacement on education. For ease of reading and analysis, the key findings, and their relative discussion for the eight case studies here were divided between the contexts of conflict-induced and disaster-induced displacement. The specificities of what is defined as a disaster- and conflict-induced displacement, and why these shape the impacts of and solutions to internal displacement differently, are also outlined here.

Impacts of Internal Displacement on Income

What proportion of IDPs in each chosen country have lost their income because of displacement?

With each new displacement IDPs and their households are suddenly faced with new barriers that inhibit them from meeting basic needs, often with little to no support from external institutions. These barriers inhibit IDPs' ability to earn income, gain employment or engage in other income-generating activities become heavily compromised. As a result, the economic impacts of internal displacement are often felt immediately the following displacement as IDPs are unable to continue their normal income-generating activities. Impacts on health, education and security tend to become visible over longer periods (IDMC 2021). As seen in figure 3, the highest economic impacts in 2021, from the 18 countries assessed in IDMC's 2022 GRID, prevailed in healthcare and livelihoods, which largely includes income ((IDMC, 2022)). IDMC estimates that the economic impact of internal displacement worldwide was more than $21 billion in 2021 (IDMC, 2022a). This estimate includes the cost of providing support for housing, education, and security, as well as accounting for income losses during displacement (IDMC, 2022a). Whilst IDPs may eventually find mechanisms to generate income, these often include negative coping mechanisms such as selling their assets and properties, cutting down on food to save money for the family, child labour and transactional sex. In rare cases where IDPs find positive income-generating activities in their host area, it takes a long, daunting amount of time (IDMC 2021).

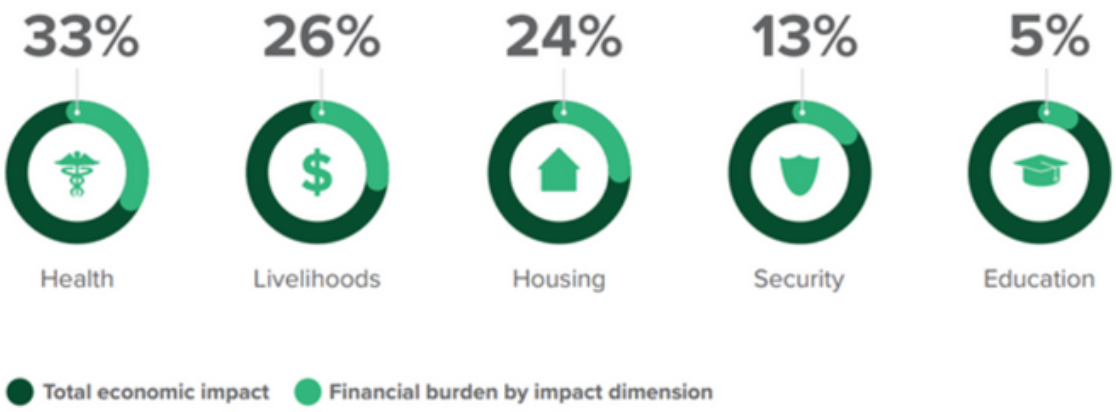

Figure 3: Financial burden of internal displacement in 2021 by impact dimension (IDMC, 2022a)

Uncovering the costs and losses during displacement is useful to understand and address the severe impacts of displacement on income. Unfortunately, such information is not readily available (IDMC 2021). The ability to assess these impacts would represent a first step towards bridging this knowledge gap and addressing the issue of loss of income and livelihoods during displacement.

Key Findings and Discussion

After extensive analysis of OCHA's HNOs and HRPs, IOM's DTM national assessments, and Impact REACH's MSNAs from 2020 to 2022 (for Afghanistan, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Colombia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, Iraq, Libya, Mali, Mozambique, Myanmar, Niger, Nigeria, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan, Syria, Ukraine, and Yemen) the following trends were identified. A summary of these findings can be found in Appendix I.

Firstly, it was observed that the majority of IDPs across these contexts suffer from income/employment needs as well as food needs. Most IDPs have low to no income and prioritise employment, food, accommodation, and cash as their most pressing needs. For Colombia IDPs, when asked what their top three needs were, 76 per cent of the respondents said employment, 64 per cent said support for accommodation, and 77 per cent said food. (REACH Colombia 2021). In Mali, the priority needs for IDPs are as follows: 0.64 per cent of IDPs need employment assistance, 15 per cent need cash, and 75 per cent need food (Mali HNO 2020, p.47). In Nigeria, 30 per cent of the IDP households prioritised cash income as their main need (Nigeria HNO 2021 p.41). A large proportion of IDP households report resorting to begging as a coping mechanism (for income), eroding their dignity.

Food insecurity seemed to be the primary consequence of lack/low income. Displacement has a major effect on food security levels as well as nutrition-related health conditions. In Burundi, 41 per cent of IDPs reported eating only one meal a day because of financial constraints. (Burundi HNO 2021 p. 35). However, food insecurity among IDPs often results from a loss of livelihood, whether they were income-productive or not. Most IDPs in the

African contexts analysed practised agriculture as their main source of livelihood before displacement, but due to conflicts and disasters, they resorted to selling their lands, homes, and livestock as coping mechanisms.

Unpredictable crises, such as the COVID-19 pandemic, will often exacerbate these impacts. For example, the pandemic affected women above all, as it increased the risks associated with negative coping strategies, such as sexual exploitation, forced prostitution and survival sex. On average, 6 in 10 internally displaced women in Ethiopia have been forced to exchange sexual favours for domestic or fieldwork to support themselves. (Ethiopia HNO, p.114). In Ethiopia, 7 per cent of IDP children were engaged in child labour in 2021 to provide the basic needs for their families. (Ethiopia HNO 2021, p.8)

It was also observed that IDP households living in camps in some countries had more income-related vulnerabilities compared to those out-of-camp. In-camp IDPs are also disproportionately reliant on humanitarian assistance as a primary source of income compared to a lesser percentage of IDPs living outside camps. (Iraq HNO 2021 p.37). Income-generating activities and livelihoods are therefore critical for this population group. In IDP camp sites there is also a heavy reliance on remittances and loan services, and this cuts across different countries. At the same time, nearly two-thirds of the out-of-camp IDPs cannot afford basic needs because their average monthly income from regular financial sources (employment and pension) is very low, lower than the average monthly income. In countries such as Iraq, a larger proportion of out-camp IDPs need emergency livelihoods. (Iraq HNO 2021, p.16).

This literature review also revealed the urgent need to contribute to durable solutions for the re-establishment of rights and the socioeconomic stabilisation of identified vulnerable people. If this objective is not met, many people in a situation of vulnerability will continue to face difficulties in accessing and performing their jobs, entering the labour market, earning an income, etc., and will need to find alternatives (even if negative) to accessing better livelihoods.

Impacts of Internal Displacement on Education

How do the impacts of displacement on children's education vary depending on different influencing factors?

Conflict-Induced Displacement

As global conflicts maintain their increasing trend, populations have become more exposed to conflict-related threats and consequences (Dupuy and Rustand 2017; Stand and Hegre 2021). Forced displacement is among the main consequences of conflict (Lischer 2007, p.1). The decision to migrate away from conflict contexts is based on the actual violence that individuals have been exposed to as well as the threat of violence (Adhikari 2013, p.4). Many of those who have been displaced by conflict migrate internally. As such, conflict-induced internal displacement is of major concern. In 2021, conflict and violence accounted for 14.4 million new internal displacements globally. This number is the highest ever recorded for conflict and violence-induced internal displacement. As depicted in figure 4, a total of 53.2 million people were living in internal displacement because of conflict and violence at the end of 2021 across 59 countries and territories. These contexts ranged from criminal violence, political violence, communal violence, and armed conflict, which constituted more than 12 million of the conflict-induced internal displacements (IDMC, 2022).

Given the prevalence of conflict-induced internal displacement, it is imperative to understand its impacts on populations. Several studies show that conflict-induced displacement is linked to increased vulnerability and reduced access to essential services, including education. Many of these difficulties stem from the fact that conflict-induced displacement reduces the resources available for governments and humanitarian partners to invest in such services. Significant proportions of the limited resources available are directed towards meeting the perceived immediate needs of IDPs such as food, water, shelter, and protection. As a result, Significant portions of government resources are also directed towards participating in, mitigating and/or resolving conflicts. As a result, investment in education is deemed as a secondary priority (Talbot 2013, 8-9).

The limited investments in education in contexts of conflict-induced displacement mean that schools in these areas tend to be few and far away from IDP settlements. Displaced children often must walk long distances to access education or forgo education entirely. Some IDP households in conflict contexts choose to keep their children at home to avoid exposing them to security risks (IDMC 2022, 105). This is the case in Northern Nigeria, where children have been kidnapped, attacked, and even killed on their way to school and while at school (Suleiman, Barde, Sabo and Shettima 2020, 591).

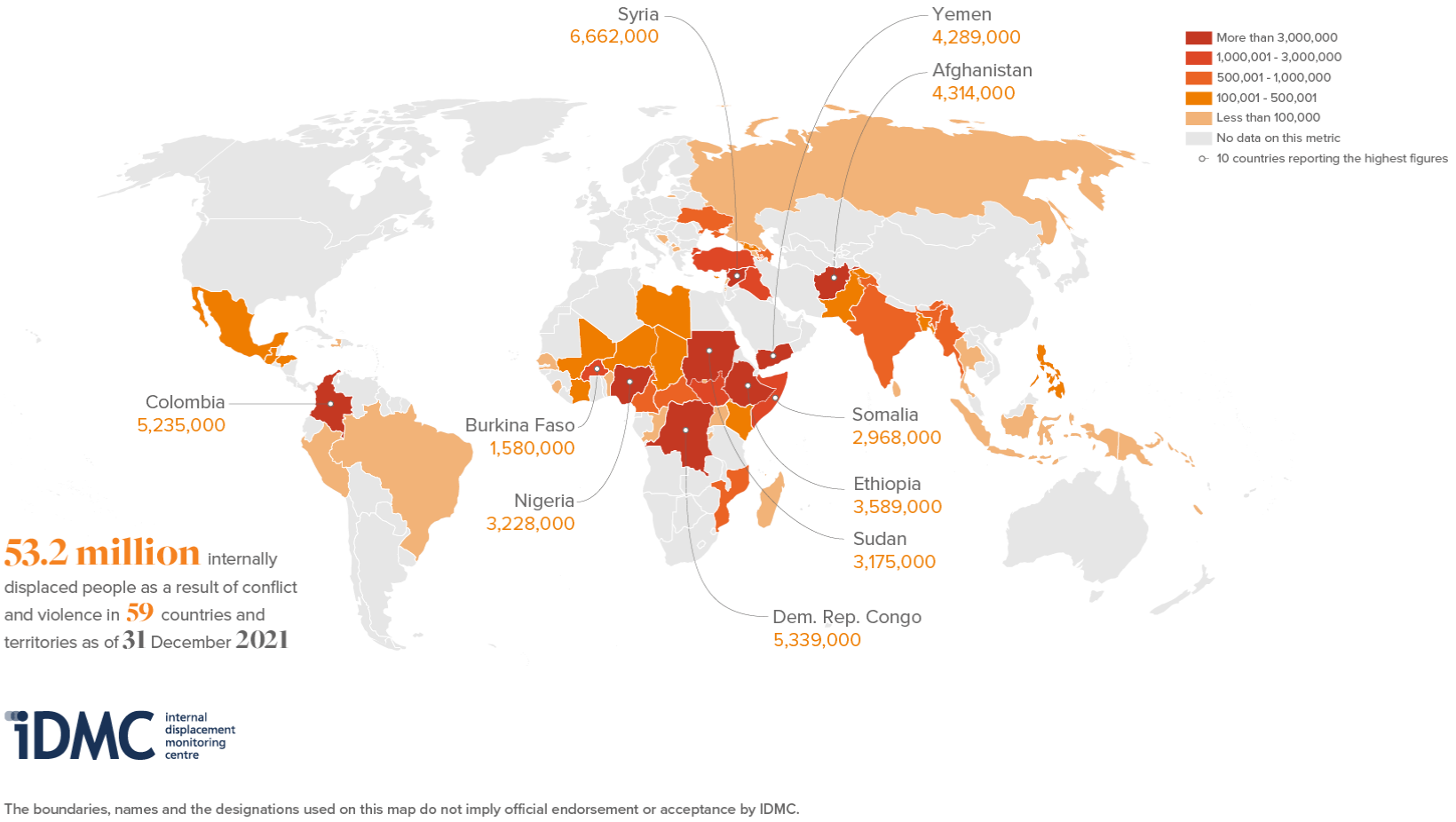

Figure 4: Total number of IDPs by conflict and violence as of 31 December 2021 (IDMC, 2022)

Furthermore, teacher shortages are commonplace in the few schools that are accessible to IDPs. Thus, even when displaced children have access to schools, they struggle to access quality education (Mendenhall, Gomez and Varini 2018, 3-4).

Limited investment in education is compounded by the increased demands placed on education services as displaced communities arrive in host areas. Indeed, schools in IDP host areas are often faced with pressure to absorb large numbers of students. The risk of class overcrowding is often high. As such, children from host communities also face the risk of reduced access to quality education. Furthermore, conflict-displaced children often have unique needs that schools in host areas are often ill-equipped to meet. These children may have experienced considerable disruptions in their schooling or never started their education depending on the time and duration of their displacement. Conflict-displaced children may also have suffered psychological stress and trauma, which might affect their academic performance (Mendenhall, Gomez, and Varni 2018, 3). Furthermore, they may need to learn a new language of instruction. Given the limited resources dedicated to IDPs' education, schools in displacement contexts are often unable to provide the range of educational support services that conflict-displaced children require (UNESCO 2019).

While these barriers to education are more commonplace in contexts of conflict-induced displacement, certain barriers are intrinsic to internal displacement as a whole, whether it be conflict- or disaster-induced. The financial and economic impact of displacement outlined in the previous section, for example, also contribute to the challenges faced by internally displaced children in accessing education. During their displacement, IDP households leave behind their assets and possessions. Once they arrive in new areas, these households are often faced with restrictions on their mobility and regulation of professions that diminish their livelihoods. Therefore, internally displaced households face higher levels of poverty than they did before displacement and struggle to afford tuition and other costs associated with education (Dryden-Peterson 2020). This condition is evident in Goma, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), where 33 per cent of IDP households surveyed by IDMC reported failing to send their children to school due to the high costs involved (IDMC 2020). To cope with the financial challenges of displacement, IDP households often pull their children out of school and resort to child labour (Cely 2020; IDMC 2020). Furthermore, uncertainty about the future compounds poverty, increasing doubts about the benefits of education (Dryden-Peterson 2011). Thus, children in contexts of internal displacement are at a significantly higher risk of being out of school than non-displaced children.

Limited IDP integration is another common barrier to IDPs' education (Dryden-Peterson, 2011). This is because integration is often limited to physical aspects of service delivery and fails to include considerations of the social processes of living together. Not only do IDPs and their children often must learn new languages, but they also must navigate social and cultural differences in an unfamiliar environment. Without meaningful social integration of IDPs, tensions arise and persist between them and the host communities. The consequences of these tensions are evident in different aspects of IDPs' lives, including

their livelihoods and access to education. Regarding the latter aspect, internally displaced children face discrimination and exclusion in schools, which in turn disincentives their school attendance. Furthermore, the lack of social integration for IDPs limits the economic opportunities available to displaced populations, contributing to poverty-related barriers to education (Dryden-Peterson 2011, 4).

Another major impact of internal displacement on education is linked to the loss of documentation. As people are displaced, whether by conflict or disasters, important identification documents such as birth and education certificates are often lost or destroyed. In most countries, schools require school leaving certificates and other certificates proving children's educational achievement for enrolment. Therefore, IDPs' loss of documents makes it difficult for them to enrol on schools in new areas (Suleiman, Barde, Sabo and Shettima 2020, 591-592).

Although most internally displaced children experience challenges in accessing education, the challenges vary in degree depending on sex and disability status. Internally displaced girls and children with disabilities are especially vulnerable. Several studies on IDPs highlight that boys' education is often prioritised over that of girls. Therefore, girls are often the first to be pulled out of school because of displacement-induced poverty. IDP households also resort to marrying off their daughters as a coping mechanism for poverty. Furthermore, due to constructs on the role of girls and women in society, sexual violence is often used against them as a weapon of war in conflict contexts. Therefore, internally displaced girls are more likely than boys to be kept at home for their security. As for IDPs with disabilities, some of the main challenges highlighted in research are linked to physical accessibility issues, discrimination, and lack of inclusive education services (IDMC 2022, 115).

Key Findings and Discussion

Out of the eight countries included in the case studies conducted by IDMC, only two had IDPs reporting conflict as the main cause of their displacement. The country and cause of displacement for these two case studies were:

- **Colombia**: internal displacement resulting from conflict and violence; IDPs interviewed in the municipality of Caucasia, of the Antiquia region (as it was possible to collect only limited data in the Quibdó municipality).
- **Nigeria**: internal displacement resulting from conflict and violence; IDPs interviewed in Jos, Plateau State of Nigeria.

Following a thorough data analysis of both the raw and clean data relating to the impacts of internal displacement on education for these two countries, the main themes identified were summarised in a table (see Appendix II) to facilitate comparison with the other six case studies. This section discusses these key findings in depth. It begins with the specific impacts caused by conflict-induced displacement, followed by the similarities found with the disaster-induced displacement case studies, and finally delves into the country-specific impacts of internal displacement on education.

The main differences between the cases of conflict- and disaster-induced displacement analysed were identified in the enrolment rates before and after displacement, and the average length of disruptions to schooling experienced. As seen in figure 5 below, 90 per cent of boys and 89 per cent of girls in Nigeria were enrolled at school before displacement. Following their displacement, 93 per cent of displaced boys and 81 per cent of displaced girls are enrolled at school. Besides an increase in gender disparity, these findings reveal opposing impacts of internal displacement on the school enrolment rates of displaced boys and girls. School enrolment among boys has increased by 3 per cent while school enrolment among girls has decreased by 8 per cent following displacement. It is worth noting that the gender disparity in the school enrolment rates of non-displaced children is much smaller, with 98 per cent of non-displaced boys and 96 per cent of non-displaced girls being enrolled at school. In Colombia, school enrolment was higher among girls than among boys before displacement. Ninety-four per cent of girls and 93 per cent of boys who are currently displaced were enrolled before displacement. After displacement, girls' school enrolment was reduced to 87 per cent while boys' school enrolment was reduced only slightly to 91 per cent. What these findings suggest is that conflict-induced displacement generally leads to a decrease in enrolment rates amongst internally displaced children and exacerbates gender disparities. The same patterns were not identified in the case studies analysed where displacement was disaster-induced, as enrolment rates tendentially improved or remained unchanged.

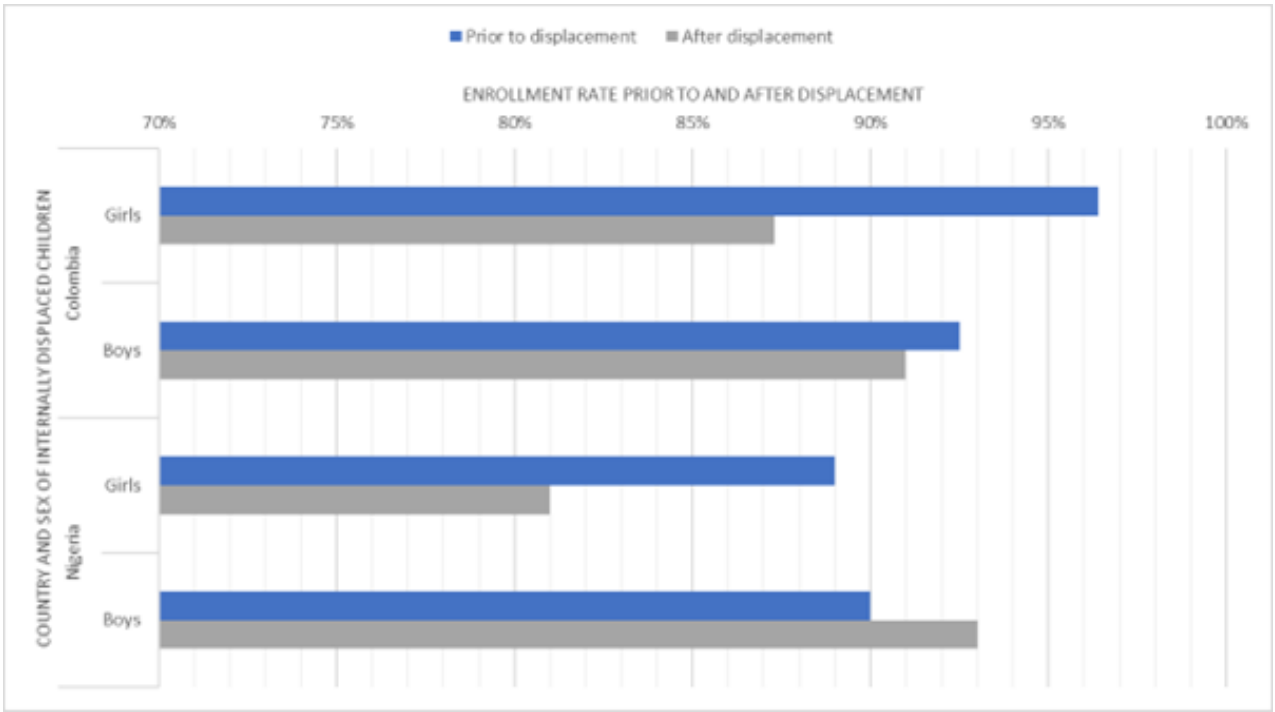

Figure 5: Percentage of displaced children enrolled in school before and after displacement by sex in Colombia and Nigeria

Another impact that differed between the cases of conflict- and disaster-induced displacement was in the average length of disruptions to children's schooling. Across all eight case studies, regardless of the cause of displacement, children experienced disruptions to their schooling and on average most of the disruptions were between one to three months. However, in both Colombia and Nigeria, a significant proportion of internally displaced children experienced longer breaks (see figure 6 below). In the Colombia case study, 26 per cent of children experienced breaks of one to two years, as did 20 per cent of children in the Nigeria case. This was not the case in contexts of disaster-induced displacement, where breaks were tendentially shorter. These longer disruptions in schooling experienced by internally displaced children in Colombia and Nigeria could explain the slight decreases in enrolment rates in these cases.

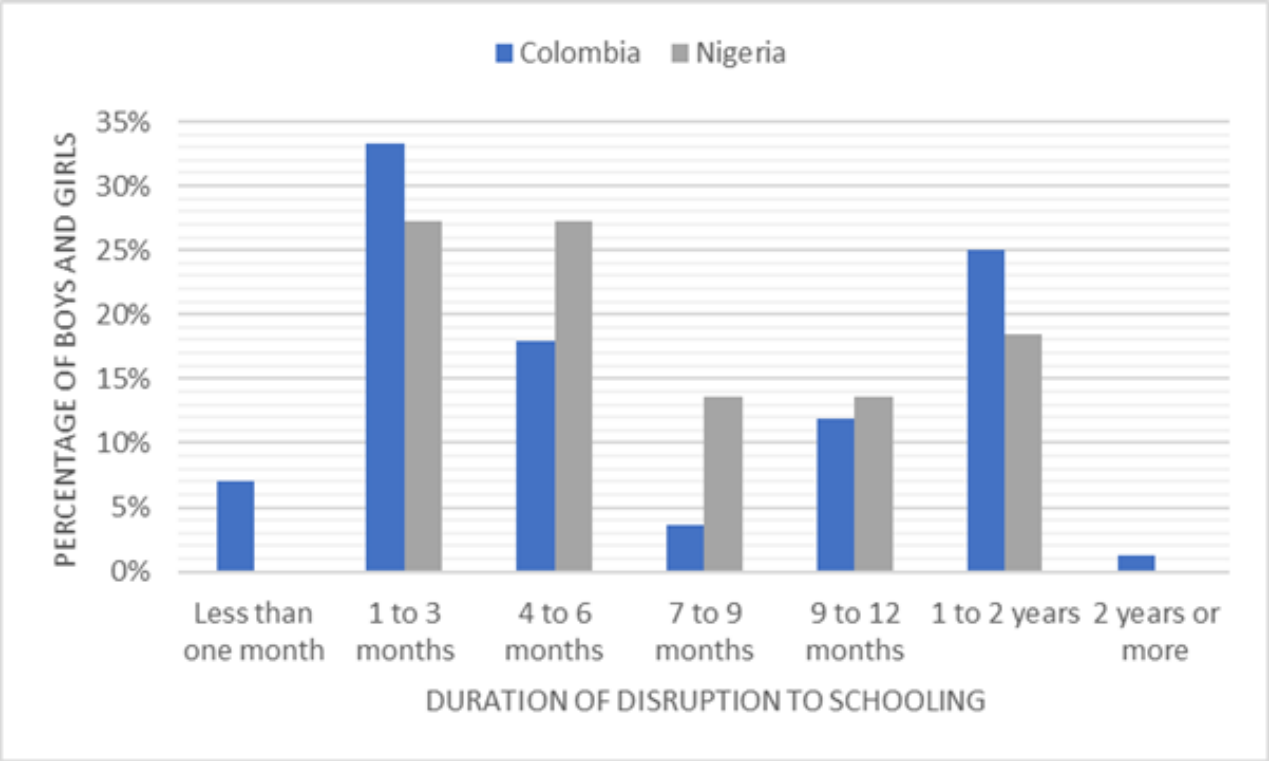

Figure 6: Percentage of displaced boys and girls by length by the length of disruption to schooling in Colombia and Nigeria

Moving on to similarities, across all eight case studies the financial costs of education demonstrated a common barrier to accessing education following displacement. In Nigeria, caregivers gave a variety of reasons for not enrolling their children on school before displacement, with the main reason being distance related. Twenty-five per cent of caregivers reported that their children were not enrolled at school before displacement and stated that this was because schools were too far from their homes. However, high education costs became the main reason for the lack of school enrolment after displacement, with 71 per cent of IDP caregivers giving this reason. A similar trend is evident in the case of Colombia, where the cost of education was not given as a major reason for not enrolling children in school prior to displacement. After displacement, 8 per cent of caregivers whose children were out of school gave high costs of education as the reason.

This trend could be linked to another common trend across all eight case studies, the insufficiency of financial resources following displacement. As mentioned in the previous section, lack of financial resources is a major barrier to accessing education generally, but especially during displacement. In both Colombia and Nigeria, the number of IDP households with insufficient financial resources to meet all their needs increased dramatically following displacement (see figure 7 below). These findings on the insufficiency of financial resources, as well as the cost being cited as a reason for non-enrolment, point to how the loss of income poses a major barrier to internally displaced children's education.

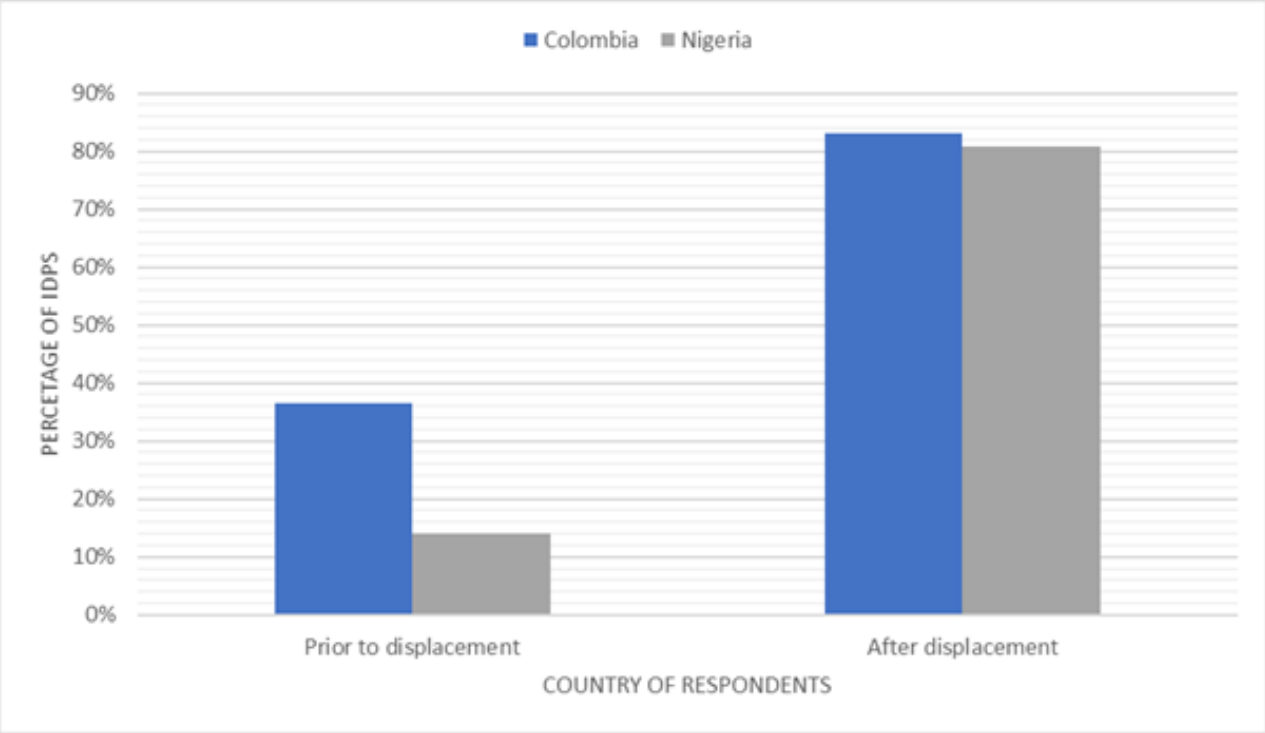

Figure 7: Percentage of surveyed IDPs estimating that they do not have enough financial resources to meet all their basic needs and wants before and after displacement in Colombia and Nigeria

It is important to evaluate the impact of internal displacement on access to quality education with an intersectional approach. While the cause of displacement plays a significant role in determining the scope and scale of impacts on education, displacement also exacerbates existing gender and ethnic disparities regardless of its cause. In Colombia, for instance, 67 per cent of the displaced respondents above 18 with no or some education identified as part of an ethnic minority, while only 33 per cent identified as "White", "Other", or "None" (Ninguno). However, only 6 per cent of the respondents with tertiary education identified as "African-Colombian" and only 9 per cent as "Indigenous" (see next page for figure 8).

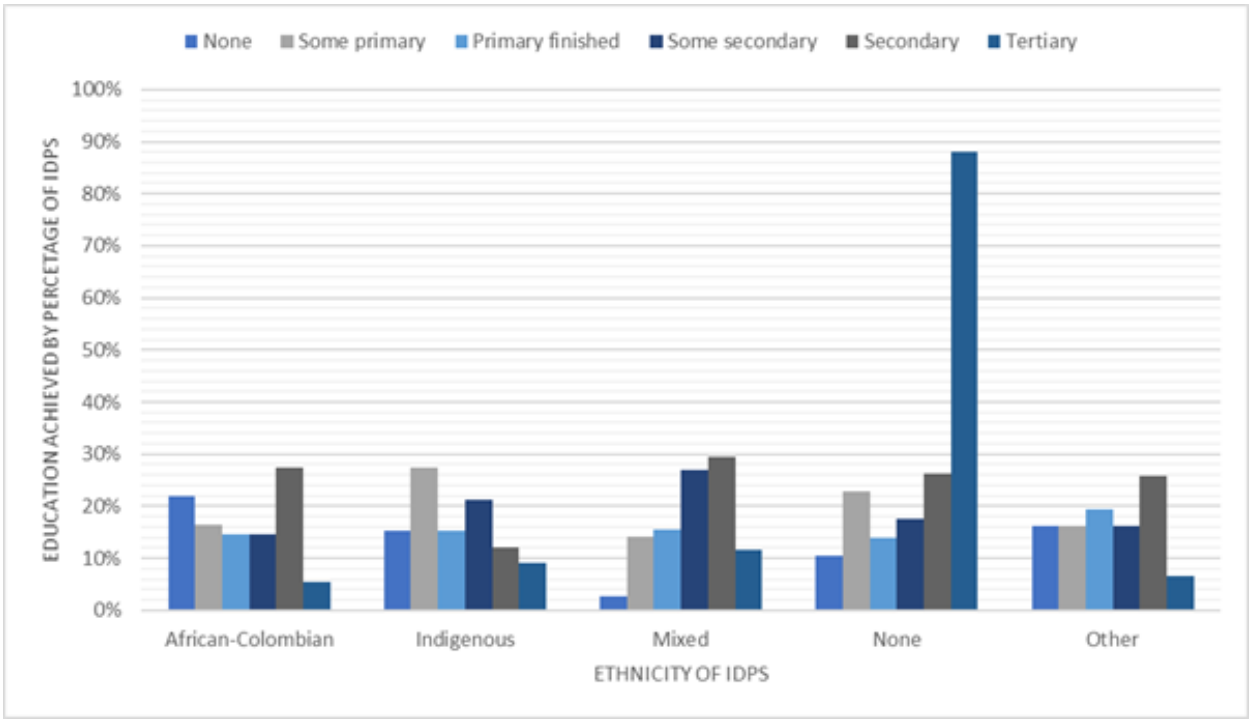

Figure 8: Education level achieved by the percentage of IDPs above 18 of different ethnicities in Colombia

Ethnicity also seems to influence children's access to education following displacement. In Colombia, contrary to other IDP households, Indigenous households experienced a rise in school enrolment for their children following displacement. As seen in the figure 9, African-Colombian and Mixed households have experienced drops in school enrolment for their children. The propensity of internally displaced children from Indigenous households to be enrolled may be tied to their facilitated access to financial support for education. The general trend across all eight case studies was that most internally displaced children attending school following displacement did not receive any form of financial support. This same trend was witnessed in the Colombia case study as well, except in Indigenous households with children. Five out of the 8 Indigenous households with children received financial support from the government for their children's education, while only 1 one the 8 African-Colombian households received support from the government (see next page for figure 9). These findings reinforce UN reports on African-Colombians facing persistent structural and historical discrimination, which result in high levels of social exclusion when compared to the rest of the population (UN, 2020). While the Colombian government has recognised internal displacement as the most pressing issue faced by African-Colombians, the resources and reach of financial support programmes for them must be expanded to fully address their needs (UNHCR, 2022).

The same analysis was conducted for Nigeria to account for ethnic disparities. However, following further research and triangulation through secondary literature, the data on Nigeria did not lead to conclusive findings. With regards to financial support, 98 per cent of the internally displaced caregivers did not receive any financial support. The 2 per cent that did receive it from the government.

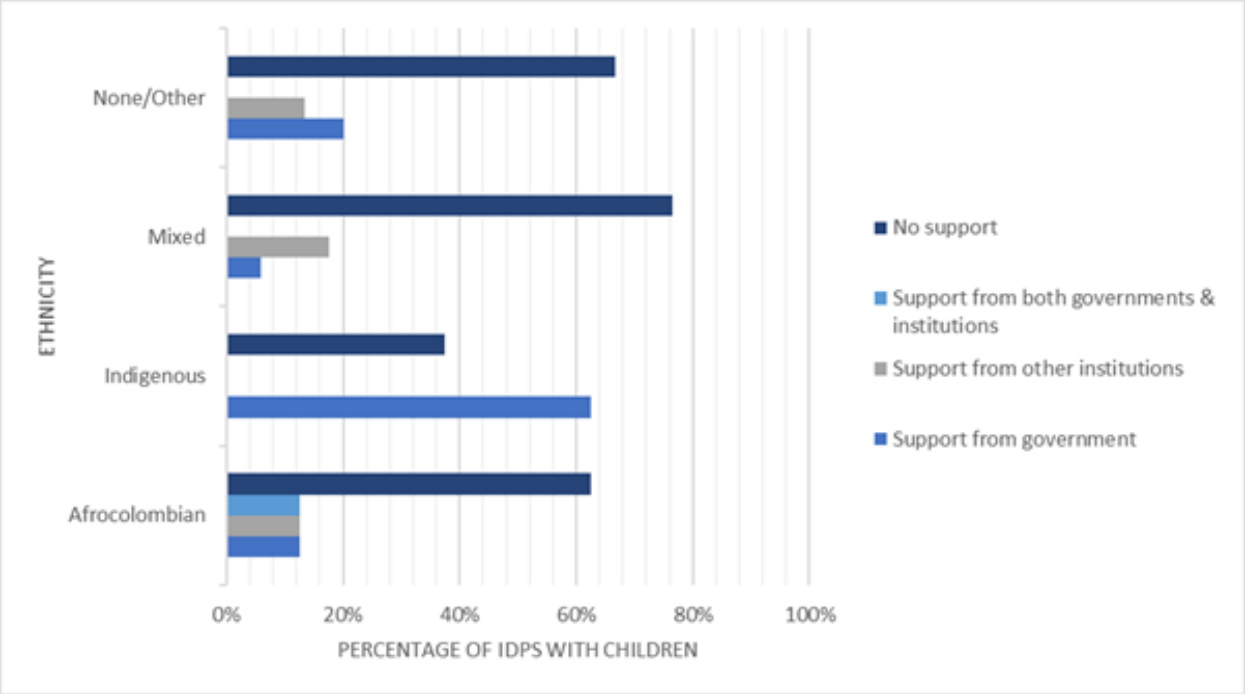

Figure 9: Percentage of internally displaced children who experienced breaks in schooling in Colombia by ethnicity

In terms of gender disparities in access to education, as previously mentioned in this section, these findings point to how internal displacement exacerbates these (see figure 5). Our findings revealed a significant decrease in girls' enrolment following displacement in Nigeria. This could be caused by a negative coping mechanism known to be used in this context - that of child marriage. To address the financial insufficiencies experienced after displacement, families may marry off their young daughters in exchange of financial compensation, disrupting their daughters' fundamental right to education (Human Rights Watch, 2022). According to a key informant interview conducted in 2021 as part of these case studies with a teacher of the Madarasa School in the Plateau State of Nigeria, girls are also more likely to be taken out of school to take care of their younger siblings.

Gendered disparities in education were also reflected among the respondents of the surveys aged 18 and above in Nigeria. While 50 per cent of the female and male IDPs in the Nigeria case study achieved some education, female IDPs' education seems to stagnate at the lower levels of secondary school. As seen in figure 10 on page 23, 38 per cent of female IDPs reported having some secondary education as their highest level of education. This reduced to 18 per cent for female IDPs with complete secondary education, and only 3 per cent had achieved a tertiary level of education. In contrast, 22 per cent of male IDPs reported having a tertiary level of education. A similar trend was found among the host communities, highlighting a gender gap in the country's access to education.

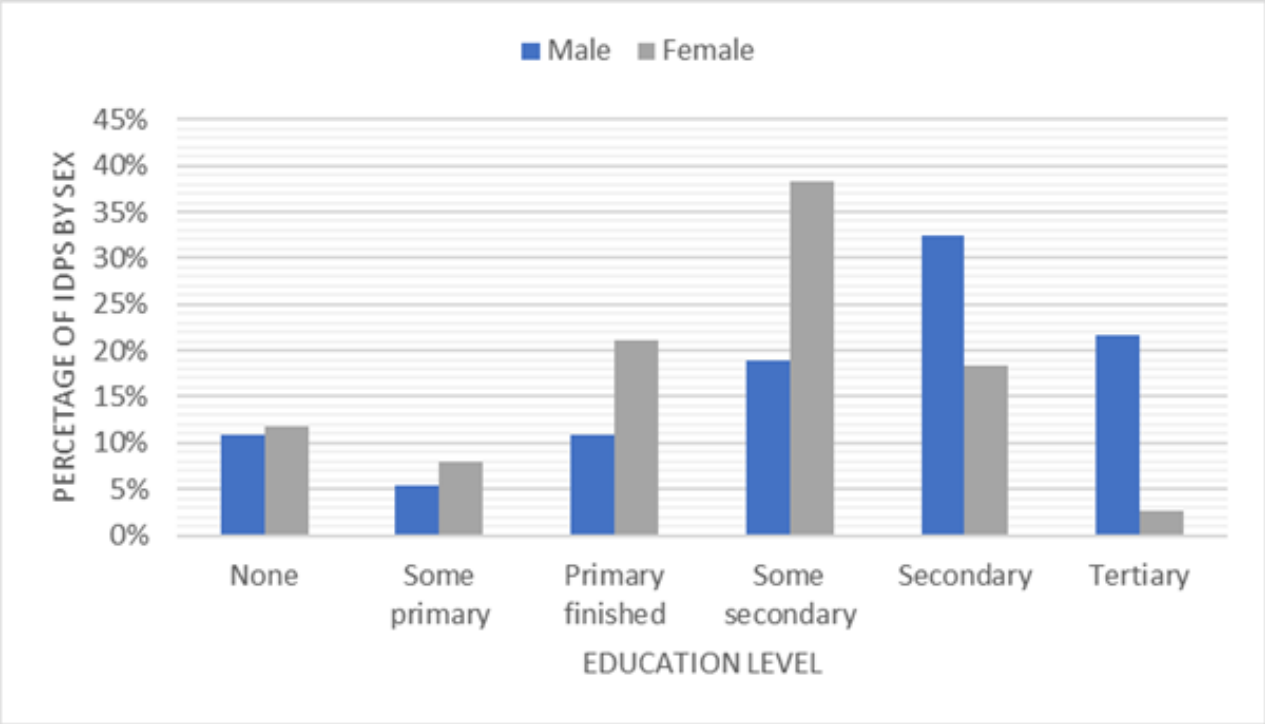

Figure 10: Education level achieved by per centage of IDPs by sex in Nigeria

Unlike in Nigeria, female IDPs were found to have considerably higher levels of education than their male counterparts in Colombia. Fifty-three per cent of female IDPs reported having some education while 47 per cent of male IDPs reported the same. However, it is important to note that a great per centage (66 per cent) of the male IDPs were African-Colombian. Considering the discrimination faced by people of this ethnicity in Colombia, it is possible that the lower rates of education among male IDPs are a product of ethnic discrimination. These disparities are unlikely to be a consequence of internal displacement as the respondents are aged 18 and above and had likely interrupted their education prior to displacement. Nevertheless, it points to how gender disparities in access to education in this context already existed and were exacerbated by displacement. As such, the intensification of ethnic and gender disparities because of internal displacement occurs regardless of whether it is disaster- or conflict-induced.

Disaster-Induced Displacement

Conflict-induced displacement has received a disproportionate amount of attention in both academic and policy research (Bohnet, Cottier and Hug, 2021). With the effects of climate change, however, disaster-induced displacement has become more prominent, even surpassing the number of people newly displaced by conflict in 2021 (Bohnet, Cottier, and Hug 2021; IDMC, 2022). Disaster-induced displacement as studied by IDMC is defined as internal displacement caused by environmental phenomena including climate change, weather events and geophysical crises such as earthquakes and volcanic eruptions (IDMC, 2022; p.15-16). In 2021, disasters triggered more than 60 per cent of the internal displacements recorded worldwide (see next page for figure 11). More than 94 per cent of these disaster-induced displacements were climate and weather-related, encompassing storms, floods, wildfires, droughts, landslides, and extreme temperatures. It is important to note that while climate and weather-related crises contribute the most to disaster-induced displacements, these displacements also encompass geophysical crises such as earthquakes and volcanic eruptions (IDMC, 2022; p.15-16).

Given their prevalence in disaster-induced displacement, climate and weather-related crises are of great importance to this paper. Studies conducted by the World Meteorological Organisation (WMO) highlight climate change as a major global concern in the decades to come. As the average global temperature rises, hydrometeorological disasters are likely to increase in frequency and intensity (WMO 2021). Man-made climate change has likely contributed to these increases (Bhatia et al., 2019). Furthermore, the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) has reported an increasing trend in climate-related disasters such as massive flooding, landslides, droughts, desertification and forest fires (Islam and Khan, 2018). As climate-related disasters increase in frequency and intensity, more people are likely to be displaced as a result. In other words, disaster-induced displacements are likely to rise in decades to come because of climate change.

As such, the study of the specific impacts caused by disaster-induced displacements has grown in urgency and importance (Bohnet, Cottier and Hug, 2021, pp. 493–495). It is worth noting that the causal differences between conflict- and disaster-induced displacement are not always stark and the two types of displacement are not always mutually exclusive. As highlighted in Ghimire, Ferreira and Dorfman's (2015) work, disasters and disaster-induced displacement sometimes contribute to conflict, which in turn exacerbates displacement. Their findings have been affirmed by several authors including Albuja and Adarve, who have also shown that conflict settings have weaker climate adaptation and mitigation capacities. Thus, conflict can increase communities' vulnerability to climate change and disaster-induced displacement (2011, pp. 239–241). Although an increasing number of studies have been exploring these nuances, there are several data limitations that complicate analysis to this end. Comprehensive analysis of the underlying drivers of displacement requires longitudinal data on the conditions before and after displacement.

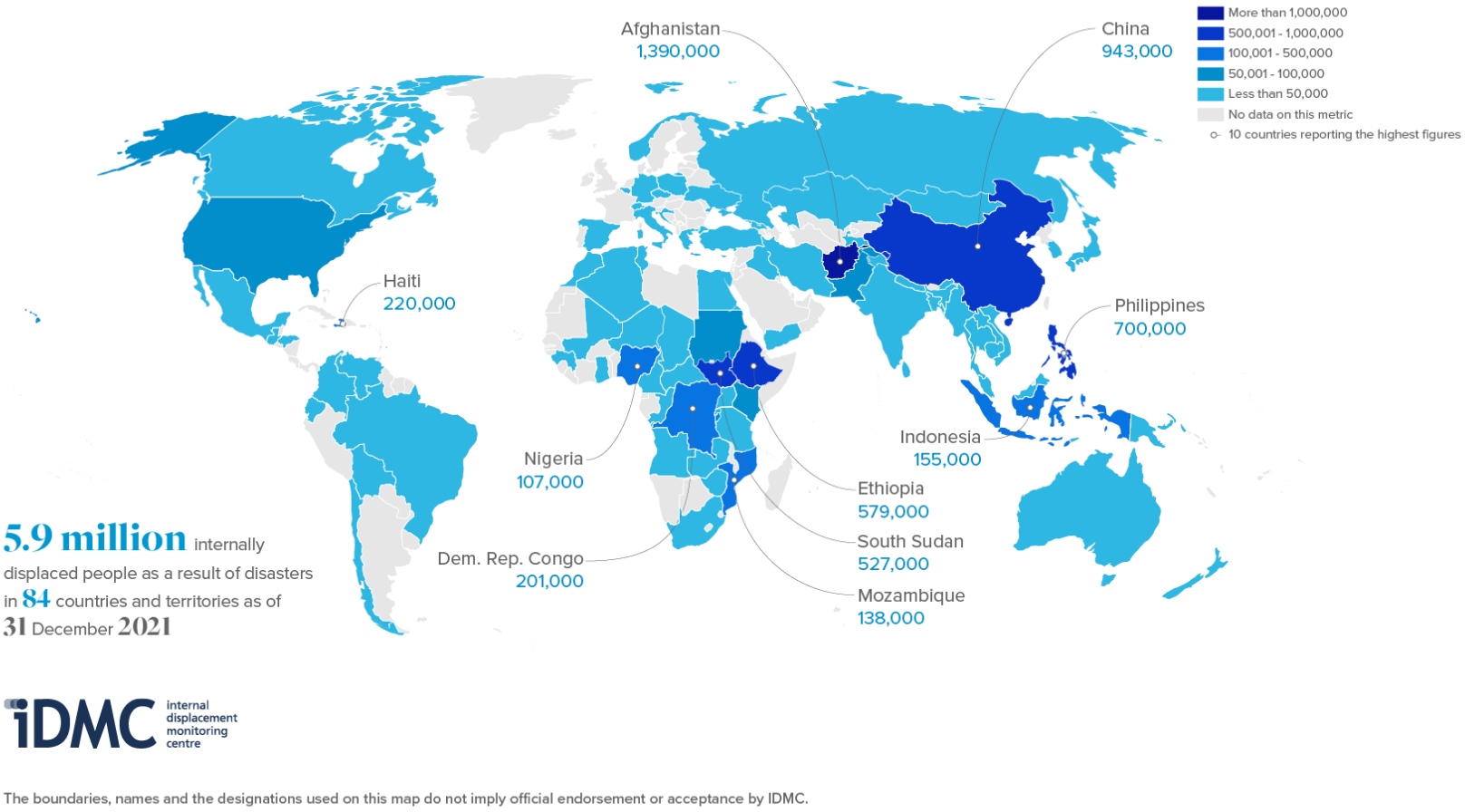

Figure 11: Total number of IDPs by disasters as of 31 December 2021 (IDMC, 2022)

Time-series data is especially important when specifically analysing the consequences of internal displacement's impacts on education. However, in most cases, data collection begins only after displacement has occurred or in places where formal programmes of assistance exist (2020, p. 3). Furthermore, in contexts where data is collected regularly, data collection may be disrupted by the onset of a crisis event. Such gaps in data collection constitute major obstacles to understanding the cause-specific socioeconomic impacts of internal displacement.

There are similarities between the impacts of conflict- and disaster-induced displacement on the socioeconomic aspects of IDPs' lives, including on education. Much like for conflict-induced displacement, governments and humanitarian partners have been found to overlook education in their disaster relief programming. The livelihoods and assets of both conflict and disaster internally displaced households are negatively affected. Therefore, IDP households in both contexts are at a higher risk of poverty than their non-displaced counterparts and struggle to afford education. People displaced by both conflict and displacement often endure family separation and/or the death of family members. Thus, both disaster- and conflict-induced displacement result in trauma for IDPs, which could disrupt their education.

However, disaster-induced displacement introduces some unique impacts on education (Bohnet, Cottier and Hug, 2021; 493-495, IDMC, 2022). In most cases, these differences are not absolute; rather, they are a matter of degree. For instance, research shows that those displaced by disasters are likely to return home more rapidly than those displaced by conflict. Thus, children displaced by disasters are likely to have shorter breaks in schooling. However, in cases such as coastal sinking and riverbank erosion, return may not be an option for IDPs. The exact differences in the degree of impact of conflict and disaster-induced displacement, however, are often unclear. This condition highlights the need for further exploration and comparison of disaster- and conflict-induced displacement (Bohnet, Cottier and Hug, 2021; 493-495; Brookings, 2008).

Understanding the differences in the impacts on education between conflict- and disaster-induced displacement is also of paramount importance when identifying solutions. The Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement identify three solutions: return to the place of origin, integration into the place of displacement and settlement in another part of the country (OCHA, 1998). Although appropriate solutions may differ in various political, social, and economic contexts, one notable difference between conflict- and disaster-induced displacement is that the option of return may not exist for some IDPs, as previously mentioned. Given current climate change trends, such cases are likely to increase in number in the decades to come. The nature of disaster-induced displacement more easily allows for preventative solutions to be formulated. For example, disaster risk reduction (DRR) is a well-established framework aimed to prevent new and reduce existing disaster risks and to contribute to strengthening resilience.

The Sendai Framework has been specifically formulated to stipulate how States can advocate for the "substantial reduction of disaster risk and losses in lives, livelihoods and health and in the economic, physical, social, cultural and environmental assets of persons, businesses, communities and countries." (United Nations General Assembly, 2015a). Considering its socioeconomic framing, and the possible predictability of natural disasters, integrating DRR into education sector planning to mitigate the impacts on education of disaster-induced internal displacement is facilitated (UNESCO IIEP, 2011)

Key Findings and Discussion

Out of the eight countries included in the case studies conducted by IDMC, six were contexts wherein internal displacement had been disaster-induced. The countries and cause of displacement included were:

- **Ethiopia**: internal displacement resulting from **drought** in the Gode woreda of the Somali Region of Ethiopia
- **Indonesia**: internal displacement resulting from **flooding** in Jakarta
- **Nepal**: internal displacement resulting from the 7.8 magnitude Gorkha **earthquake** in 2015
- **Papua New Guinea**: internal displacement resulting from **sea-level rise** in the area surrounding Port Moresby
- **Somalia**: internal displacement resulting from **flooding** in Beledweyne, a city in central Somalia's Beledweyne District
- **Vanuatu**: internal displacement resulting from **volcanic activity** (Manaro) on Ambae island in 2018

To allow for comparison, analysis of the data for these six countries was conducted alongside the same themes analysed in the other two countries where internal displacement was conflict-induced. The main themes identified were summarised in a table (see Appendix III) to facilitate comparison with the other two case studies. This section discusses these key findings in depth.

The enrolment rates of boys and girls before and after displacement were only available for Ethiopia, Nepal, Papua New Guinea, and Vanuatu, while only the enrolment rates prior to displacement were available for Nepal and Somalia (see figure 12). This was due to IDMC and IPSOS developing their survey tools as the case studies for each country were conducted and adopting lessons learned. Nonetheless, for the four countries where this comparison was possible the following trends were witnessed. Firstly, enrolment rates for both internally displaced boys and girls improved significantly in Ethiopia, Nepal, and Papua New Guinea, while they slightly decreased in Vanuatu. Some of the most drastic improvements in enrolment following displacement were seen in Ethiopia, where boys' enrolment increased from 76 per cent to 93, and girls' enrolment increased from 56 per cent to 88 per cent.

Gender disparities remained, as more boys than girls were enrolled both prior to and after displacement, but there was a clear improvement for both. This may be due to a change in lifestyle following displacement which facilitated enrolment. In the case of Ethiopia, this may be because the households displaced by drought had to leave their pastoralist lifestyles in rural areas for better-serviced urban areas (IDMC, 2021b). Other than Ethiopia, gendered disparities in enrolment rates both before and after displacement between internally displaced boys and girls were also evident in Nepal and Vanuatu, but to a much smaller extent. While in Papua New Guinea enrolment rates between sexes were nearly equal (see figure 12 below). Overall, these results differ from the findings of the Colombia and Nigeria case studies, where enrolment rates decreased following displacement, especially among girls.

In comparison to the displaced population, the enrolment rates of boys and girls from the host population also improved following the arrival of IDPs, except in the case of Vanuatu where there was a small decrease in enrolment rates (see next page for figure 13). The most significant improvements were again identified in Ethiopia and Papua New Guinea, where the initial enrolment rate prior to the arrival of IDPs, however, was slightly higher than the internally displaced children.

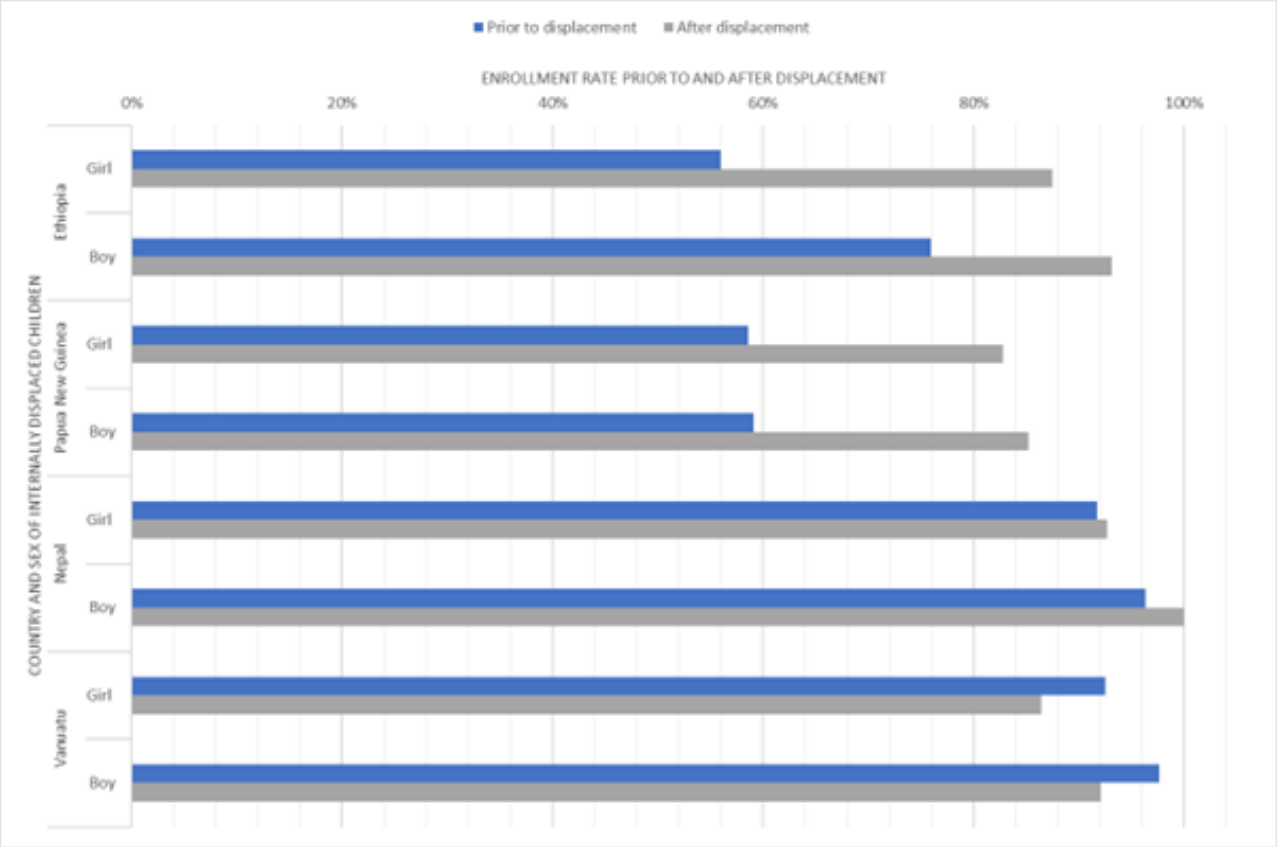

Figure 12: Percentage of internally displaced children enrolled in school before and after displacement by sex

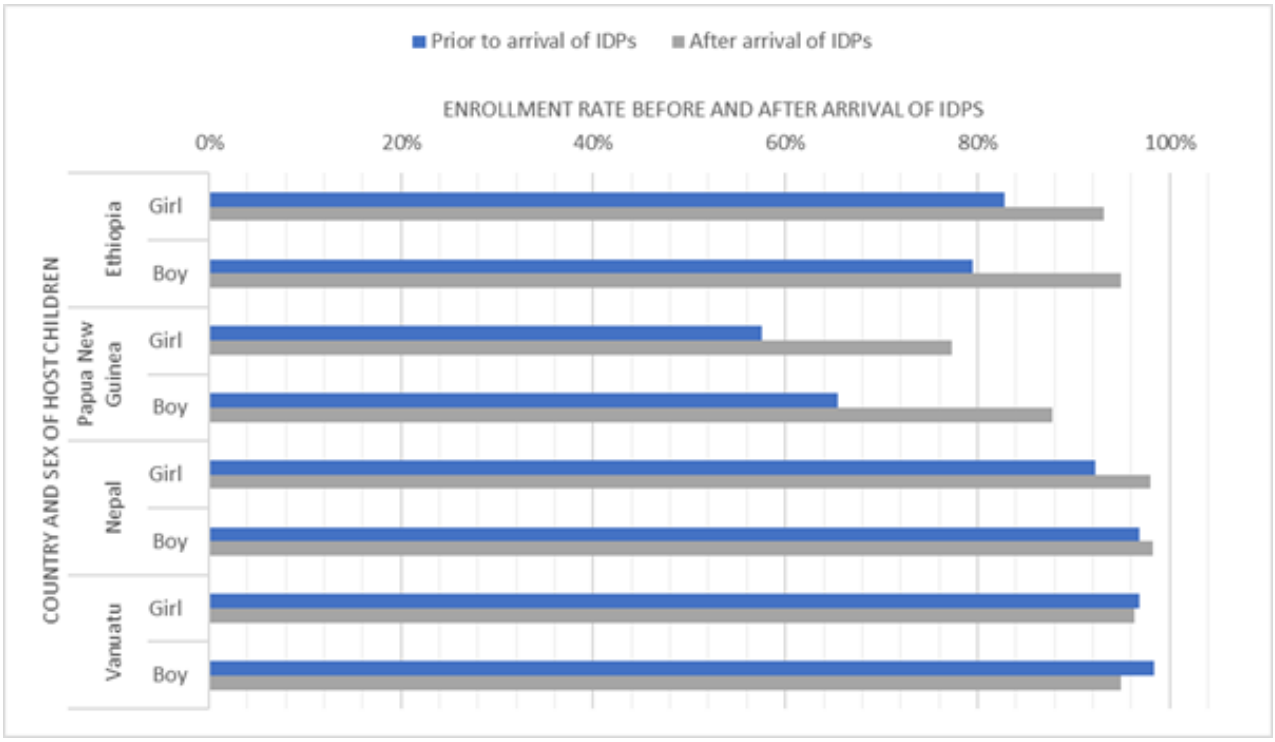

Figure 13: Percentage of children from the host population enrolled in school before and after the arrival of IDPs by sex

The differences in enrolment rates before and after displacement between the countries where displacement was disaster-induced, and those where it was conflict-induced, may be a result of the length of disruptions experienced by children in the different contexts. While children across all case studies experienced disruption to their schooling during displacement, the length of breaks varied according to the cause of displacement. In conflict settings, breaks in schooling ran up to two years. On the other hand, in all six countries where displacement was disaster-induced, most of both boys and girls experienced breaks in schooling of up to three months (see next page for figure 14). Only in Ethiopia and Papua New Guinea did some children experience disruptions of two years or more. There weren't significant gender disparities when it came to the length of these breaks, except for in Papua New Guinea where 65 per cent of the boys were out of school for less than a month, while 47 per cent of the girls were out for up to three months. In the case study conducted in Beledweyne, Somalia, where displacement was caused by flooding, girls were also more likely to be out of school for longer. Others did not go to school at all, as stated by a local youth representative interviewed for the KIIs:

"In IDPs' settlements, teenage girls stay at home and do chores. They are vulnerable to intimidation and harassment from the unstable environment they find themselves in, and their caregivers keep them at home because they are afraid for their safety."

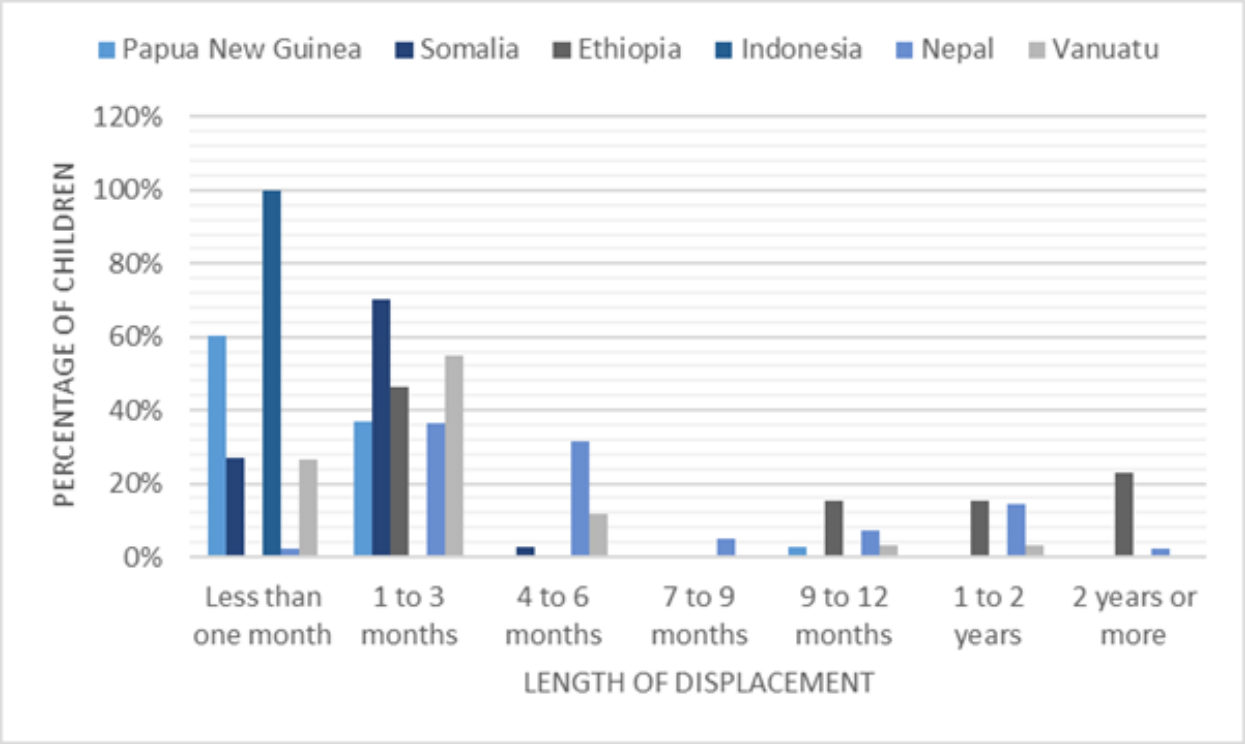

Figure 14: Percentage of internally displaced children by the length of disruption to schooling

When it came to the reasons as to why the children were not enrolled both prior to and after displacement, there were no major differences between girls and boys. However, similarly to the enrolment rates after displacement, there is no data on the reasons for non-enrolment after displacement for Nepal and Somalia. Nevertheless, certain trends can be identified. In the reasons cited for non-enrolment prior to displacement, the most common across the six countries were that help was needed at home, that the school was too far, and that the child was sick or disabled (see next page for figure 15). In terms of gendered disparities, the 47 per cent of girls not enrolled prior to displacement in Somalia, in comparison to 23 per cent of boys, was a result of the need for help at home.

With regards to the reasons for non-enrolment after displacement, both the need for help at home and the child's sickness or disability were still some of the most common in Ethiopia, Papua New Guinea, and Vanuatu (see page 31 for figure 16). However, similarly to contexts of conflict-induced displacement analysed, the third most common reason given was the cost of schooling for both boys and girls. Another interesting difference was that for girls, one of the reasons for non-enrolment given in Vanuatu was that the child was married and had a family of their own now. Additionally, in both Papua New Guinea and Vanuatu one of the reasons for girls' non-enrolment, and only for girls, was that they had finished the desired level of schooling. Taking these justifications for the non-enrolment of internally displaced girls into consideration, it is clear that the economic barriers to accessing education affect girls in a disproportionate manner (Cazabat and Yasukawa, 2022). Such impacts, however, are often culturally specific rather than determined by the cause of internal displacement.

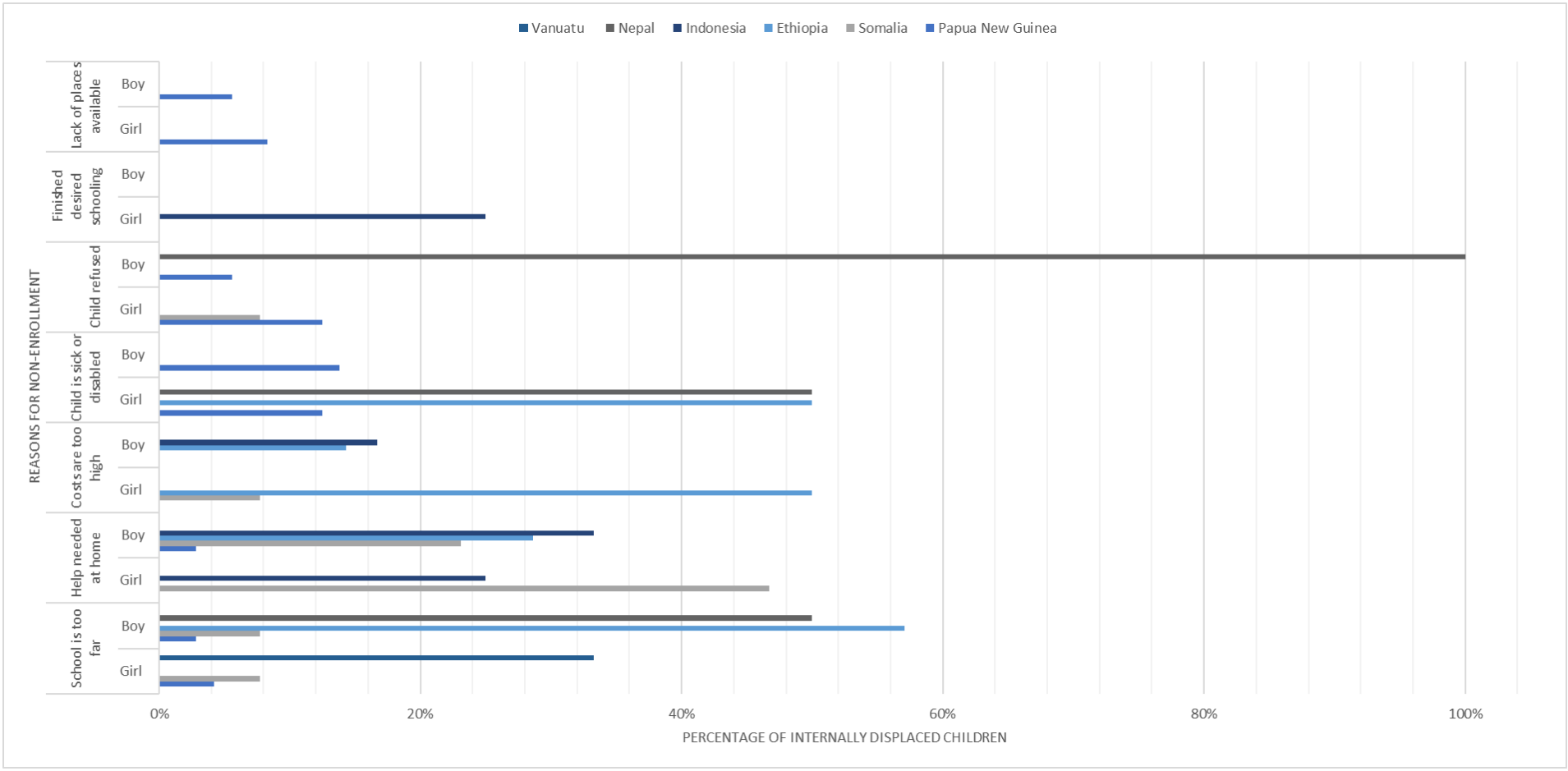

Figure 15: Percentage of internally displaced children by sex per reason for non-enrolment prior to displacement

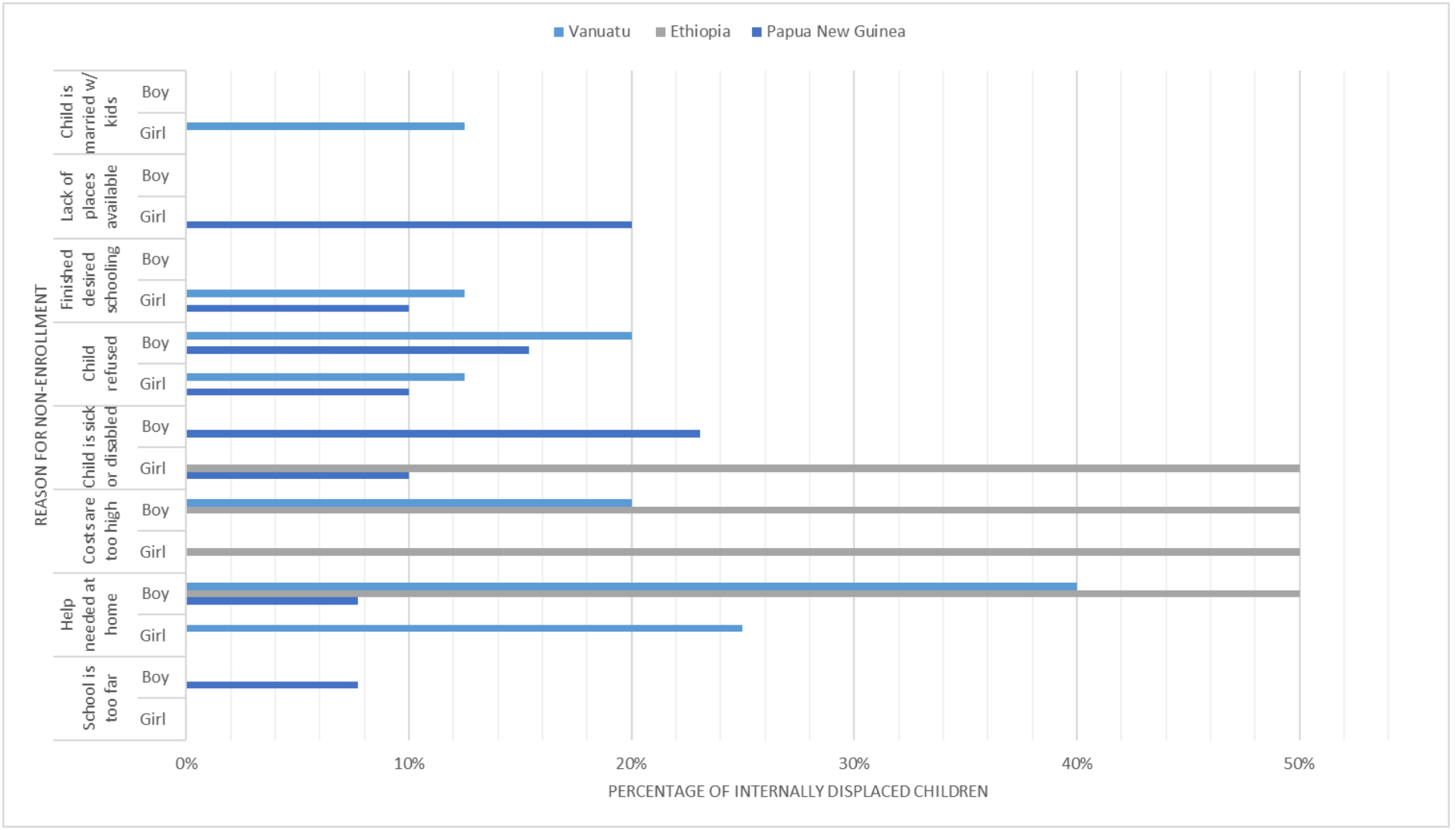

Figure 16: Percentage of internally displaced children by sex per reason for non-enrolment after displacement for Ethiopia, Papua New Guinea, and Vanuatu

As aforementioned in the section on conflict-induced displacement, lack of financial resources is a major barrier to accessing education generally, but especially during displacement, where the financial resources of households are strained. The general trend across all eight case studies was that most internally displaced children attending school following displacement did not receive any form of financial support (see figure 17 below). Only in Indonesia and Vanuatu did a significant percentage of IDPs with children receive financial support from the government for their children's education following displacement.

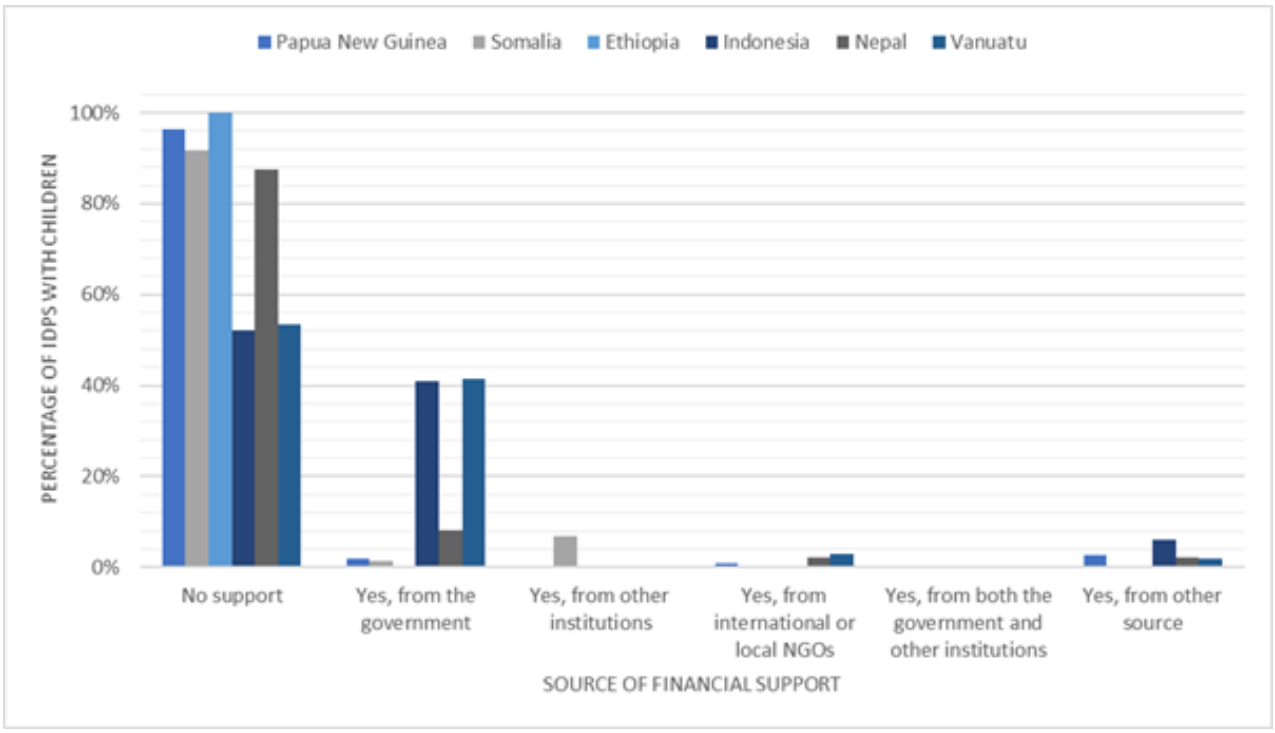

Figure 17: Percentage of internally displaced children by source of financial support received for schooling expenses following displacement

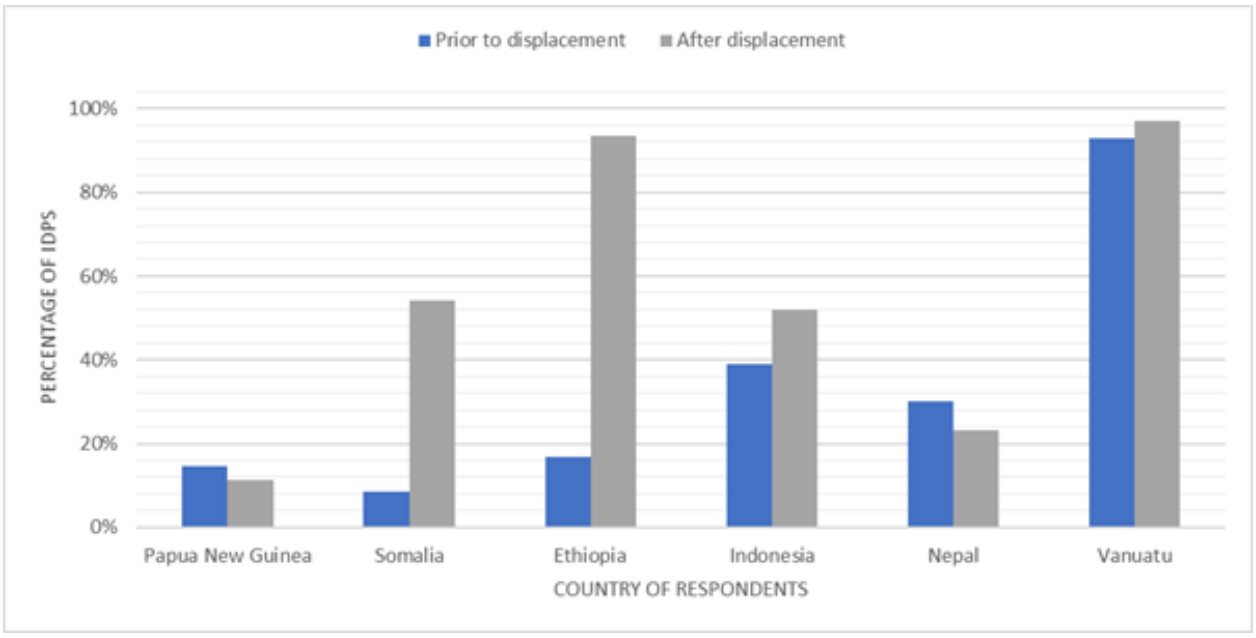

Figure 18: Percentage of surveyed IDPs estimating that they do not have enough financial resources to meet all their basic needs and wants before and after displacement

Nevertheless, in all six case studies wherein displacement was disaster-induced, except for Nepal, the number of IDP households with insufficient financial resources to meet all their needs increased following displacement (see figure 18 above). This trend was also evident in the contexts where internal displacement was conflict-induced. Only IDP households in Nepal saw a slight improvement in their financial resources following displacement. Somalia and Ethiopia saw drastic decreases in the sufficiency of their financial resources following displacement. On the one hand, this resonates with the previous findings on the reasons for why children were not re-enrolled in Ethiopia following displacement. On the other, it contradicts the significant improvement in enrolment rates in Ethiopia following displacement. Thus, despite none of the households with children in Ethiopia receiving financial assistance, and most households struggling economically, the displacement from rural to urban settings somehow improved access to education. Further research is necessary to fully understand and unpack these findings in general, but this demonstrates the importance of such data analysis in understanding the impacts of internal displacement and conceptualising possible durable solutions.

The highest level of education received by internally displaced respondents aged 18 and above according to their sex was also analysed (see next page for figure 19). While the education level achieved by respondents aged 18 and above is not likely to have been impacted by displacement, as the education was likely obtained prior to displacement, it does provide invaluable insights into the general trends for each country in question. This analysis demonstrated similar disparities to those identified in conflict contexts for Ethiopia, Papua New Guinea, and Somalia. Namely, a lower percentage of female IDPs than male IDPs achieved tertiary education, and a higher percentage of female IDPs than male IDPs received no education. On the other hand, these gender disparities were not as evident in Indonesia, Nepal, and Vanuatu, where the highest level of education achieved did not vary greatly by sex. However, in Nepal a higher percentage of female IDPs than male IDPs had received no education, a disparity not evident in Vanuatu and Indonesia.

These results were then compared to the host population surveyed of the six countries. The gendered disparities in tertiary education achievement remained the same to those witnessed among the IDP population across all countries. Overall, however, most of the host populations across all six countries achieved higher education levels than their respective IDP counterparts (see page 36 figure 20). The most drastic difference was witnessed in Ethiopia, where only 7 per cent of the IDP population achieved primary education or above, in comparison to 53 per cent of the host population. While not as drastic, this inequality was also evident in Nepal, where 27 per cent of the IDP population achieved primary education or above in comparison to 53 per cent of the host population.

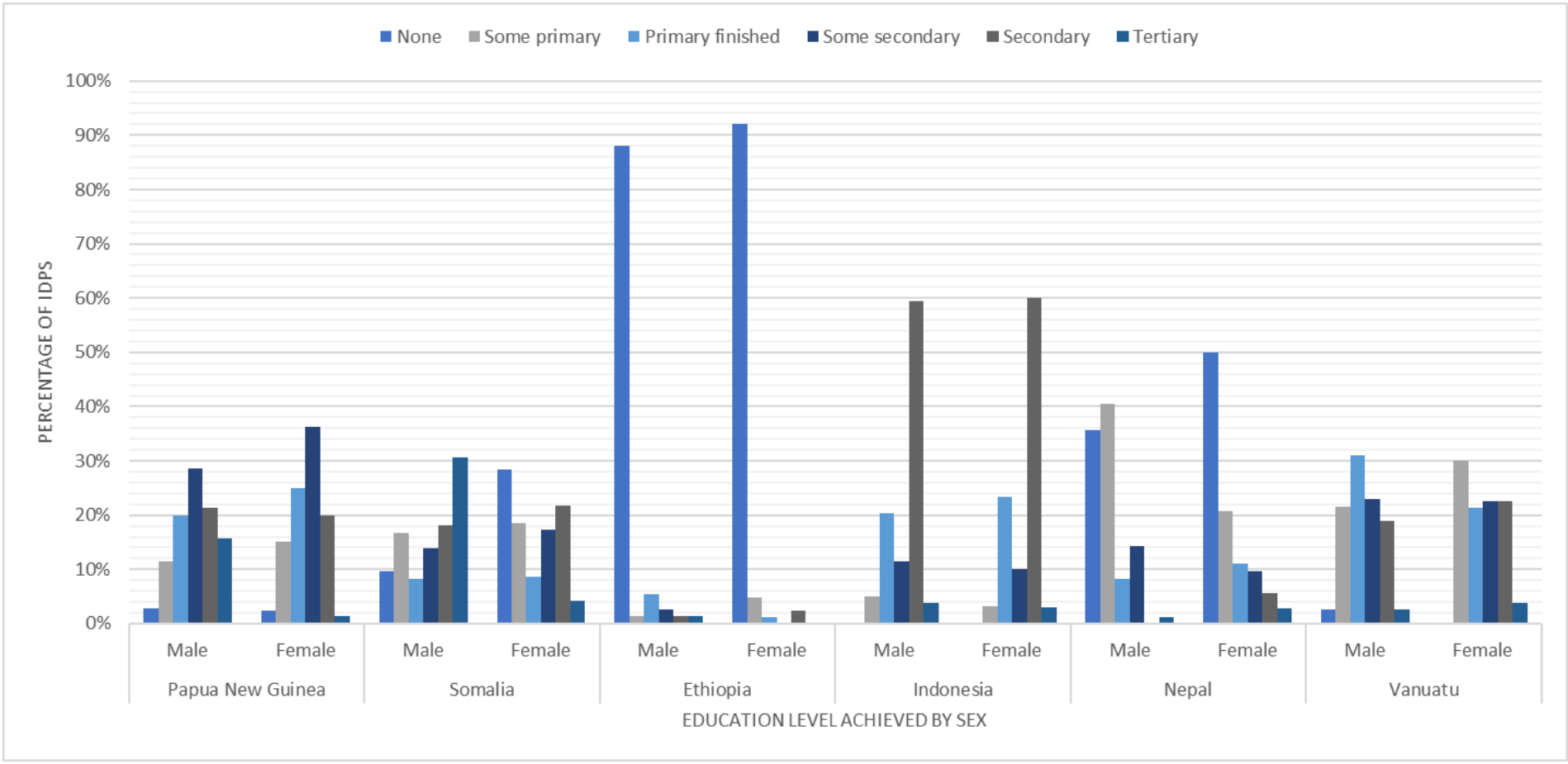

Figure 19: Percentage of IDPs per education level achieved by sex

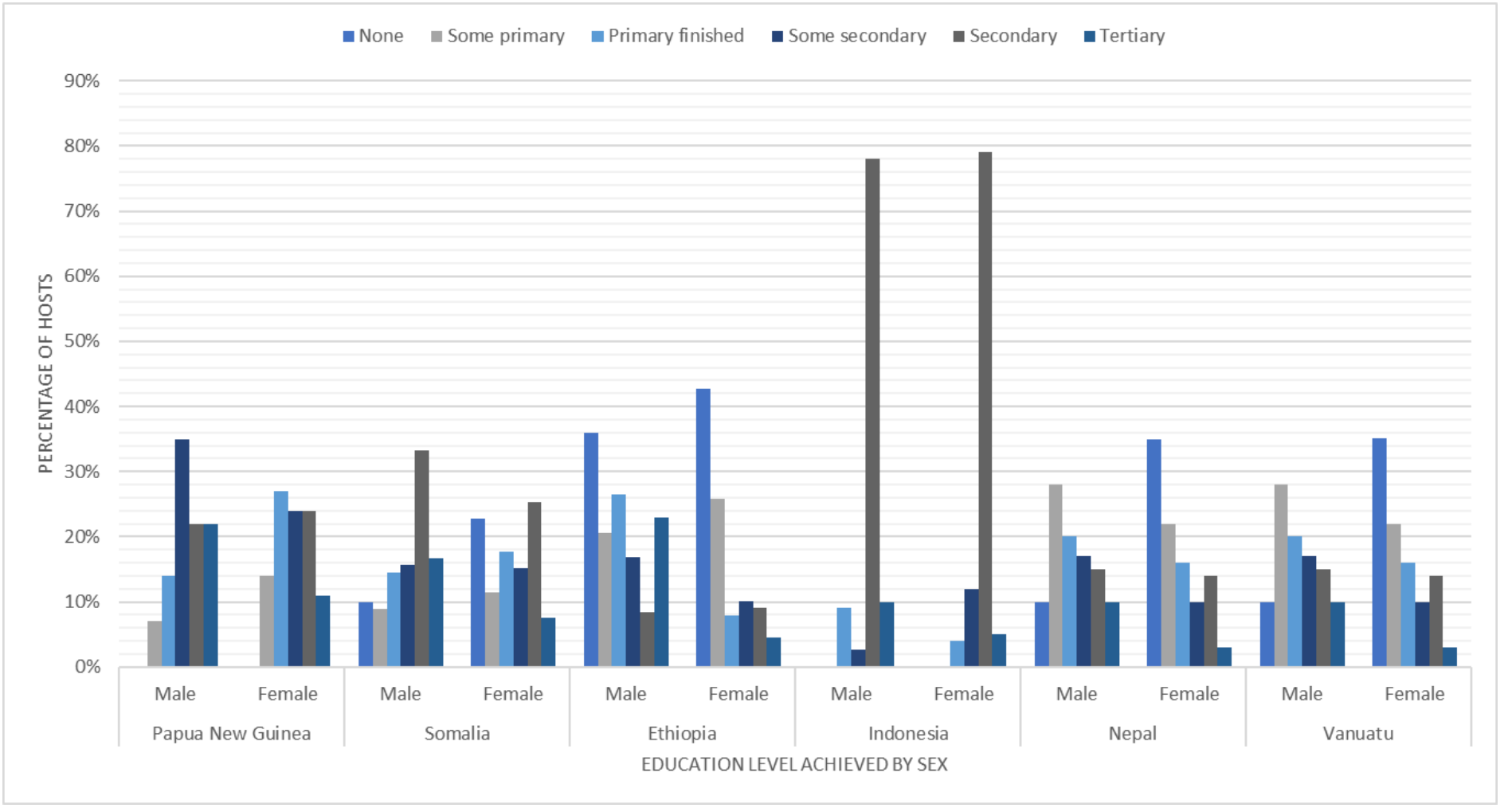

Figure 20: Percentage of hosts per education level achieved by sex

A comparison of education level achieved between the IDP and host populations on the basis of the respondents' ethnicity was not possible for these six countries. While the main language spoken at home was recorded per respondent in these six countries (a proxy for ethnicity), it was not possible to draw conclusions on how this affected education level achieved by respondents. This is obviously not a consequence of the cause of displacement, but rather a limitation of the data collected. Nevertheless, similarly to the cases where internal displacement was conflict-induced, the gendered disparities identified amongst the IDP and host respondents aged 18 and above were reflected in the gendered disparities analysed in children's access to education before and after displacement.

Overarching Trends

A cross-analysis based on the type of displacement was also conducted to observe overarching trends in the different displacement contexts, pointing out and comparing similarities. This helped to make conclusions, not just based on countries or regions but on the causes of displacement and the impacts on education.

Enrolment before and after displacement

School enrolment in both contexts is generally higher among non-displaced than among IDP children with IDP school enrolment being reduced after displacement. Analysis on the basis of gender revealed that there are gender disparities in school enrolment after displacement, affecting girls the most. Results from the survey shows that there are bigger declines in IDP girls' school enrolment than boys due to displacement in both conflict and disaster-induced displacement contexts. For both contexts, the major reason for this decline for girls' school enrolment is due to security and safety factors (physical, psychological, and social). For girls in disaster settings, especially in Somalia and Nepal, the issue of security is tied to the unavailability of efficient transport systems so girls would have to walk long distances and paths (routes) to school were considered unsafe. Distance from school was also identified as a major obstacle to school enrolment after displacement. In Nigeria, another major reason for breaks in schooling after displacement was distance-related, with schools being too far from homes. In disaster contexts such as Somalia, Vanuatu, Ethiopia, Nepal and Papua New Guinea, caregivers also gave reasons related to distance and lack of transportation as reasons why their children were not enrolled in school after displacement.

Socio-cultural factors as key reasons for breaks in schooling after displacement

It is also important to note that though security and transportation appeared to be the major concern and reason for less enrolment for most internally displaced children after displacement in both conflict and disaster contexts, other cultural factors played major roles in causing breaks in schooling. In countries in disaster-induced contexts, some girls had disruptions in schooling because they had to stay at home to help with household chores. In Nepal, for example, caregivers were busy with reconstructions of their homes, so girls needed to take over household duties whilst boys continued with school. For 20 per cent of girls who did not attend school, this was due to the lack of available places in school which had been dominated by the boys. Thus, displacement jeopardises girls' education. Furthermore, certain customs prevented girls from continuing with school after displacement as most girls had reached a certain age where they were not allowed to further their education.

In Nepal, the Chhaupadi tradition practised in some rural parts of Nepal, prohibits women and girls from participating in normal family activities while menstruating (ActionAid UK, 2022). As such, many of the internally displaced girls had reached an age where this tradition began to disrupt their schooling. In Nepal, language barriers also affected the accessibility to education for internally displaced children, as those who spoke the minority vernacular languages were more prone to facing barriers compared to those who spoke English. In Colombia, the biggest cultural obstacle to accessing education were ethnic disparities. Indigenous school children who were internally displaced experienced minimal disruption compared to African-Colombian children. As is observed, displacement coupled with certain socio-cultural factors had severe impacts on internally displaced children in both disaster and conflict settings. However, due to the small sample sizes, further research and larger data sets would be necessary to fully understand and account for how displacement exacerbates pre-existing disparities.

Limit on higher education based on gender

The survey also reveals another marker that limits education for IDPs based on gender. As stated earlier, in both conflict- and disaster-induced displacement contexts, few female IDPs above the age of 18 obtained education levels above secondary schooling (see next page for figure 21). In Nepal, females above a certain age are restricted from pursuing higher education as it was observed that 36 per cent of the females surveyed who were older than 15 years did not receive further education. Only 23 per cent of the female IDPs surveyed had received primary education, 11 per cent received secondary education compared to a stark 2 per cent who received tertiary education. Also, in Somalia, girls above a certain matured age had to stay at home to learn household chores and work and were rather involved in informal education (such as Madrassa or Qur'an classes).

Twenty-seven per cent of female IDPs had received primary education, 39 per cent received secondary education. However, only 4 per cent continued to receive tertiary education. Similarly in Nigeria, women's education seems to decrease from the lower levels of secondary school with 38 per cent of IDP women having some secondary education as their highest level of education compared to just 3 per cent who had tertiary education as their highest level of education. Thus, little to no females in both conflict- and disaster-induced displacement settings have formal higher education.

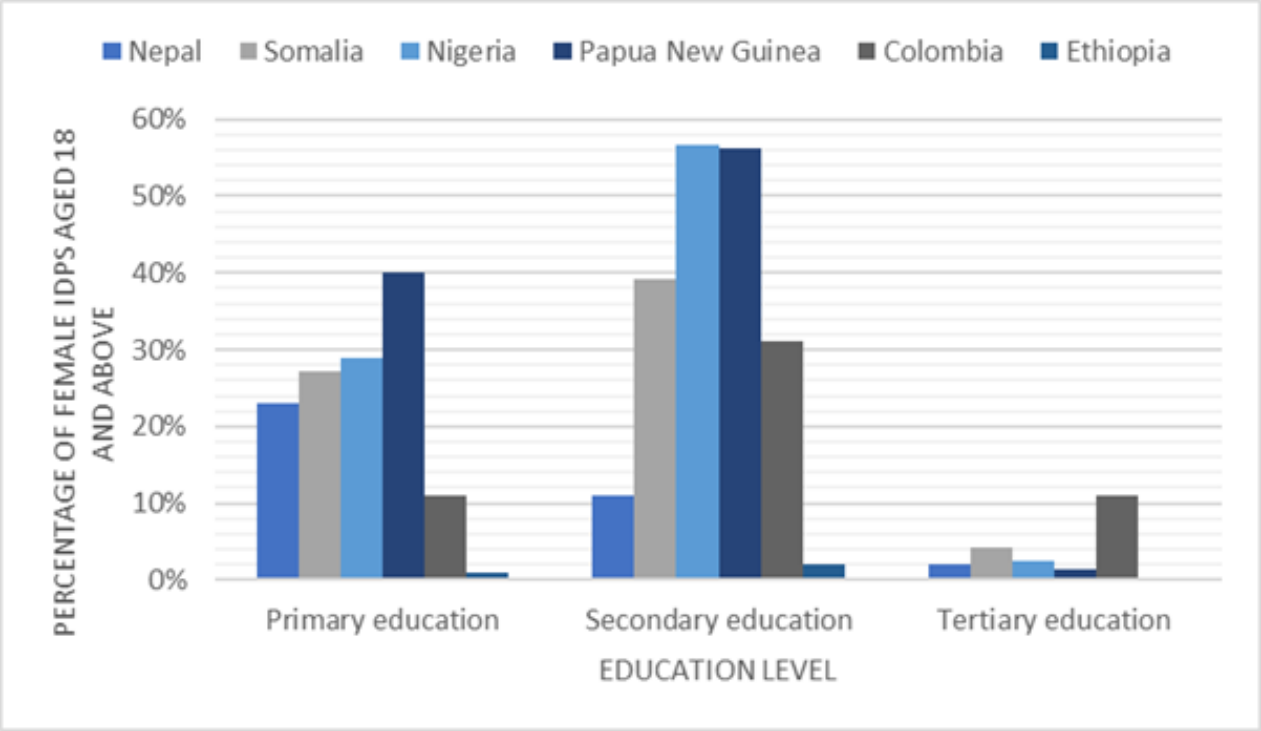

Figure 21: Education level achieved by per centage of female IDPs above 18

Cost of education after displacement

For IDPs in all settings, the cost of education was one of the major factors in internally displaced children not continuing with school after displacement in both conflict and disaster contexts. In one of the KIIs in the Quibdó department of Colombia, a teacher explained how displaced families' insufficient financial resources represented a major barrier in their children were continuing their education:

"It's not enough that the child is registered in school, they must also have the means to get to school, buy their uniform, their notebooks and food so that they don't think about their empty stomachs while they are in class".

Understanding the cost of education in different displacement contexts and populations is crucial to informing strategic planning when fundraising for humanitarian and development programmes. IDMC's report on "Informing better access to education for IDPs", to which this research contributed, developed estimates for such costs based on publicly available information to provide a sense of the funds needed. Figure 22 below provides a summary of the estimates calculated for a year of schooling for an individual internally displaced child and for all IDPs aged five to 17 for 13 countries.

Country	Cost of providing education support for one internally displaced child for a year	Cost of providing education support for all IDPs aged five to 17 for a year
Afghanistan	$81	$159,842,769
Colombia	$158	$163,875,164
DR Congo	$109 - 179	$209,838,046 - $344,596,425
Ethiopia	$30	$40,268,064
Iraq	$73	$27,049,840
Mozambique	$69	$20,864,562
Myanmar	$136 - $173	$20,182,973 - $25,673,929
Nigeria	$40 - $60	$44,899,526 - $67,349,289
Somalia	$120 - 150	$126,412,274 - $158,015,342
South Sudan	$67	$41,529,926
Sudan	$59	$61,274,155
Syria	$62	$104,780,497
Yemen	$47	$63,690,394

Figure 22: Estimated cost of providing education support for one internally displaced child and all school aged IDPs in 13 countries (Cazabat and Yasukawa, 2022)

Financial support after displacement

Across all eight case studies, the majority of IDPs with children did not receive financial support for their children's education (see next page for figure 23). Where financial support was received, the most common source was the government. However, support was often given based on certain determinants, such as sex, ethnicity, level of education, etc. In Nigeria, 98 per cent of IDP caregivers reported not receiving any financial support for education. The government support for IDPs with children in Somalia seemed to favour those who had received some form of education rather than those who had no form of education. Educated caregivers in Colombia also received support from a variety of sources.

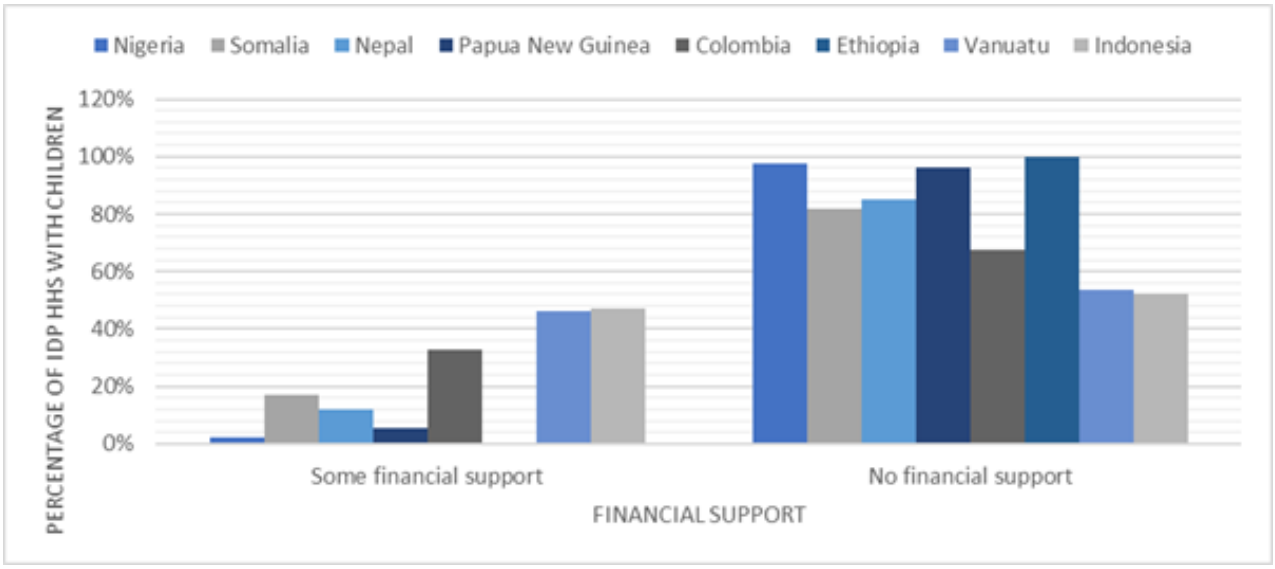

Figure 23: Percentage of IDP households with children enrolled in education by source of financial support

Conclusion

In anticipation of being reopened, the Zaid Ibn Alharith School for boys in Rabak, Sudan has been restored with the help of volunteers from the local communities and humanitarian organizations on the ground. © Ahmed Omer/ NRC, August 2022

This ARP sought to fill some of the existing gaps in the knowledge and data landscapes regarding the socioeconomic impacts of internal displacement, categorically considering the driver of displacement. Through the data analysis conducted, key differences between contexts of disaster- and conflict-induced displacements and their impact on education were identified. The first difference was in the length of the disruption. In the case studies of Colombia and Nigeria, disruptions to internally displaced children's schooling ran up to two years. On the other hand, in the case studies of Ethiopia, Indonesia, Nepal, Papua New Guinea, Somalia, and Vanuatu, most disruptions were tendentially much shorter, ranging from a couple of weeks to three months maximum. Another dissimilarity identified was related to enrolment following displacement. In cases where displacement was conflict-induced, enrolment rates, especially amongst girls, dropped after displacement. On the contrary, in most cases where displacement was disaster-induced enrolment rates improved whilst maintaining pre-existing gender disparities. These differences could be explained because of the difference in disruption lengths between the two contexts. Further research would need to be conducted to confirm this correlation. While disruptions to schooling negatively impact children's well-being regardless of the length, such differences are crucial to know when planning and costing effective interventions.

Nevertheless, whether disaster- or conflict-induced, the impacts of internal displacement are a source of major disruption to people's everyday lives. The key findings of this research project revealed how internal displacement, whether caused by conflicts or disasters, have grave impacts on IDPs' income and access to education. Furthermore, the ways in which these impacts intersect and exacerbate existing disparities were also explored. This is because the relationship between displacement, education and livelihoods is a cyclical one. A sustainable and fruitful livelihood is often a precondition for accessing quality education at both the individual and household levels. Similarly, the ability to gain quality education predicates an individual's capacity to pursue a sustainable and prosperous livelihood. In contexts of displacement, however, this relationship is often disrupted at one or both ends. As addressed by this ARP's research, displacement leads to significant loss of commodities, such as income, housing, land, or other forms of property.

Most internally displaced households from both conflict- and disaster-induced displacements stated that they lacked sufficient financial resources to meet all their basic needs, and the majority of households with children did not receive any form of financial support. This in turn affects IDPs' ability to invest in their children's education. Unsurprisingly, a decrease in school enrolment due to security concerns, mobility obstacles, as well as cultural factors, was another similarity identified across all eight of the case studies analysed. The gendered disparities identified in internally displaced children's access to education were also reflected amongst the older IDPs surveyed. These economic and gendered barriers to children's access to education and the disruption caused by internal displacement to internally displaced children's schooling were witnessed across all eight case studies. These impacts risk compromising these children's future ability to acquire a sustainable livelihood, rendering them and their communities susceptible to future shocks.

This analysis drawn from the components of both drivers of displacement not only creates awareness of the severity of any kind of internal displacement but should inform best practices in both situations equally, not undermining any driver of displacement. This helps to mitigate the drastic socioeconomic impacts of internal displacement. Through our research, we have come across recommended best practices to minimise the negative impacts of internal displacement on income and education. These include the following:

- Prioritise access to education in funding targeting displacement contexts - Several displacement-related barriers to education could be minimised by increased education funding and resources. Current trends that limit the focus to 'immediate' needs such as food and shelter are detrimental to access to education in displacement contexts (Justino 2016; UNESCO 2019).
- Ensure an inclusive approach in the provision of education support to IDPs - Such an approach would ensure equitable outreach to IDPs of different social backgrounds (UNESCO 2019).
- Dedicate more efforts to aspects of social integration - Social ostracization and language barriers are major challenges faced by IDPs in accessing education. Promoting the social integration of IDPs would reduce potential tensions between IDPs and host communities, resulting in easier access to education, healthcare, and livelihood opportunities (Dryden-Peterson 2011, p4).
- Increase physical access to schools for internally displaced children - Distance from schools is among the main reasons given by IDP caregivers for not enrolling their children on school. To promote school enrolment and attendance among IDP children, there is a need to increase physical access by establishing schools in or near IDP settlements or through the provision of transport support. Such support would be especially beneficial to IDP children with mobility disabilities (IDMC 2022; Suleiman, Barde, Sabo and Shettima 2020, 591).
- Increase security in IDPs' schools - IDPs in conflict contexts are often at risk of physical harm. This is especially true for IDP girls, who are often targeted as victims of sexual violence as a weapon of war. Therefore, IDP caregivers in conflict contexts often keep their children at home for security reasons. To promote attendance, schools should guarantee the security of IDP students (Suleiman, Barde, Sabo and Shettima 2020, 591).
- Provide sufficient financial and livelihood support for displaced households - Both conflict and disaster-induced displacements are associated with diminished livelihoods and financial stability for displaced households. Thus, the cost of education was given as a major reason by IDPs for failing to enrol their children in school. IDP caregivers also pulled their children out of school to have them married or engaged in livelihood activities as a coping mechanism to poverty. As such, addressing the financial and livelihood gaps in displaced households is essential for promoting IDP access to education (Cely 2020).

- Increase coordination between the state, civil society, and humanitarian actors to facilitate durable solutions for IDPs - The study found limited coordination between state and non-state actors (civil society and humanitarian agencies) in supporting IDP access to education. Most programmes supporting IDP access to education seem to run parallelly, creating duplication in some areas while leaving some households underserved. Coordinated efforts between relevant actors are essential to a coherent durable solutions agenda, which would in turn guarantee IDP access to education (UNESCO 2019; IDMC 2022).

To conclude, when planning and costing effective responses to address the impact of internal displacement on income and education, there are still significant knowledge and data gaps that need to be addressed. Through the collection and analysis of disaggregated data by sex, age, disability status, ethnicity, and cause of displacement, the methodology put forth by IDMC and adopted in this ARP represents a step forward in closing these gaps. Nevertheless, there is room for improvement. The following section outlines some recommendations for future research on the basis of the limitations identified throughout this ARP.

Limitations and Recommendations

The following are the limitations faced in the course of this study and recommendations for future research:

- Small sample sizes and limited contexts - The sample size for each case study was of 300 respondents total: 150 IDPs and 150 Hosts. Thus, these studies are not nationally representative. This underrepresentation is especially evident when considering the diversity of the populations surveyed. As a result, while data was disaggregated by sex, age, disability status, and ethnicity/language spoken at home, the sample sizes of these disaggregated categories were not nationally representative. Similarly, the proportion of households analysed with children, the key population for our analysis on education, was very limited. As such, the report takes a cautious approach in identifying trends and making generalisations. For this ARP, this sample design provided an opportunity to investigate the socioeconomic impacts of these particular kinds of displacement on both IDPs and the host population. However, in the longer-term, larger sample sizes would be recommended as they would allow for more representative data collection. Furthermore, testing this survey instrument and framing the methodology in a variety of locations and types of IDPs across countries would help to collect more in-depth analysis on the socioeconomic impacts of IDPs in different settings.

- Compounding causes and effects of internal displacements - The triggers for internal displacement accounted for in these surveys were categorised as either conflict-related or disaster-related. Additionally, while various specific disaster types were investigated, the approach taken for contexts wherein displacement was conflict-induced was more monolithic. This binary fails to acknowledge how internal displacement may result from the compounding effects of both conflict and disaster. Furthermore, the specific impacts of different conflict and violence types (e.g., inter-communal conflict, civil war, foreign intervention, etc.) should also be considered in future research. As such, future methodologies should be framed in ways that would account for these contexts and their specific impacts on IDPs.

- Survey inconsistency - As the survey tool developed by IDMC continued to be developed as the case studies were carried out, there are inconsistencies in the survey structure for the different countries. This made it difficult to compare results across countries. As this tool continues to be renewed and improved, points of consistency must be ensured to allow for comparisons when conducting analysis.

- Incongruent sources of data for answering research questions - The research consisted of two separate questions, with one focusing on the impacts of displacement on income and the other focusing on the impacts of displacement on education. Survey data was only provided for the latter task. Therefore, the first question was answered only through desk review and could not be triangulated with survey data. The different approaches used to answer the research questions made it difficult to link findings and ensure consistency within the report. For future studies, we recommend the tool to incorporate survey questions relating specifically to the loss of income and livelihoods.

- Lack of update-to-date literature - The first research question was answered solely through the review of HNOs and HRPs. For some countries, the 2022 HNOs and HRPs had yet to be published at the time of the research. Thus, the team was unable to fully capture the most recent income-related developments in displacement contexts for some of the countries. To mitigate this challenge, we recommend the use of more varied sources of literature including other policy publications and newspaper articles. The accuracy of data from these sources should be ensured through triangulation.

Appendices

In the Killi IDP camp in Syria, two young girls walk four kilometres every day to reach their school. One of the girls relies on a crutch to go to school after losing her leg in a missile attack on Aleppo. © Abdul Aziz Qitaz/OCHA, September 2022.

Appendix I: Impacts of Internal Displacement on Income

Country	% of IDPs who lost income as a result of internal displacement / % of IDPs who are unemployed/do not earn money from work	Additional information
Afghanistan	89% of IDPs reported diminished loss of sources of income affected by conflict.	IDPs had an average monthly negative net income at (-2,119 AFN) and average monthly expenditures at 9,742 AFN for IDP households.
	54% of IDPs reported exacerbating socioeconomic vulnerabilities.	2% of IDP households reported no members owning a valid ID/Tazkira, 87% reported that some members were missing or had never had their identification documents. The absence of a Tazkira limits the types of jobs people can do.
Burkina Faso	49.72% of IDPs have no source of income currently compared to 60.49% of IDPs who had no source of income in 2020.	Only 3% of IDPs have access to cultivable land compared to the 28% of non-displaced households who have access to cultivable land. 90% of IDP households reported difficulty in accessing land as the main barrier to farming, which was their main source of livelihood prior to their displacement.
	22.26% of IDPs practice survival agricultural activities	
Burundi	46% of displaced households reported having no source of income after their displacement.	41% of IDPs report eating only one meal a day because of income and financial constraints
Cameroon	93% of IDP households reported having less access to financial resources at the time of assessment than they had before the start of the crisis.	More than 89% of IDP households said that their financial resources were not sufficient to satisfy their families' basic needs at time of survey.
	56% of IDP and host men and women practised agriculture (main source of income) before the crisis as their main source of livelihood but now 88% of IDPs do not currently have access to land for agriculture.	About 40% of the IDPs in the Northwest and nearly a quarter of the IDPs in the South West engage in coping-mechanism activities such as selling land, livestock and houses.
		In the North West, almost 40% of IDP households adopt potentially irreversible emergency food-based coping strategies, compromising their productivity and future ability to cope with shocks.
Central African Republic	6% of IDPs from managed sites and 15% from unofficial sites received assistance in the form of income-generating activities.	42% of IDPs need to work in exchange for food, as their main source of food.
		Currently, only 7% of IDP families live in a permanent shelter and more than half live in inadequate shelters.
Chad	40% of IDPs reported loss of work and difficulty in finding new work as a result of displacement.	54% of IDPs report having less money to purchase quality food than in previous years as among the main challenges they encounter.

Colombia	76% of IDP respondents identified employment as their top priority.	Most IDPs work informally, which makes their socio-economic situation very unstable. These have seen a decrease in income due to the loss of jobs and businesses.
	51% of IDP had to borrow income (bank, lenders) in the last 30 days.	61% of the IDP respondents said that in the past 30 days at some point there was no food to eat due to lack of income and resources.
Democratic Republic of Congo		2.6 million out of the total 5.5 million IDP population are in need of humanitarian assistance
Ethiopia	Only 16.7% of IDPs have access to income generation activities. The remaining 83.3% of IDPs do not have access to such opportunities.	7% of IDP children are engaged in child labour whilst 6 in 10 IDP women have been forced to exchange sexual favours for domestic or field work to support themselves.
Iraq	The unemployment rate amongst IDPs in 2020 was 19%.	72% of IDPs are reported to describe 'employment opportunities' as their main need in all types of location. 7% of in-camp IDPs and 19% of out-camp IDPs need emergency livelihoods.
	84% of IDP households living in camps compared to 68% of out-of-camp IDP populations have income-related vulnerabilities, with a monthly income from employment and pension lower than 480,000 IQD/month (equivalent of $400/month).	50% of all out-of-camp IDP households report that all working adults are in unstable employment.
	29% of in-camp IDPs and 2% of out-of-camp IDPs are reliant on humanitarian assistance as a primary source of income.	For 62% of IDPs, the lack of employment opportunities was an obstacle to return to their original residences
Libya	58% of IDPs and 59% of migrants in the migration pulse reported that their income had been affected negatively since the start of the pandemic, particularly among daily wage workers.	Financial vulnerabilities and the loss of income-generating opportunities coupled with the high rate of food prices, led to negative and severe coping mechanisms, with 87% IDP households lacking money to buy food.
	20% of IDP households with working household members reported negative changes in their work situation due to COVID-19, while 27% of IDP households reported being unable to financially cover all health needs	132,000 (62%) out of 213,000 displaced people need assistance due inability to afford rent and/or basic needs, increased protection and/or health risks due to living in substandard shelters or are at risk of eviction
		25% of 52,000 IDP households are food insecure. 26% of IDP households prioritise food as their top most need.
Mali	0.64% of IDPs need employment assistance whilst 15.46% need cash as their priority.	Nearly 3 out of 4 IDPs intend to return to their place of origin. 66% condition their return on an improvement in the security situation, 28% demand a better food situation as a condition, while 6% demand a better economic situation.
	49% of IDPs live on humanitarian assistance and 30% on third-party donations and community solidarity.	27% of IDPs want local integration to cover their food needs, decent shelter, and income-generating activities
Mozambique		More than 957,300 people (52% women) received regular food assistance, although underfunding has forced humanitarians to distribute half rations.

Myanmar	21.7% IDPs (130,000 IDPs of total 600,000 in Rohingya) face discriminatory restrictions on accessing citizenship and legal status, making it difficult to access livelihoods and basic services.	Delays in humanitarian service provision, including cash distributions due to access constraints, are negatively affecting food security in some locations so IDPs are resorting to harmful coping strategies (including eating less food or buying lower quality food)
Niger	57% of IDPs earn income from casual/daily labour, 35% earn from a business or commerce, 34% earn from the household's agricultural produce.	34% of IDP households fall under category 4, 23% fall under category 5, and 4% fall under category 6 of the living standard gap, meaning their needs are not being met
	Among IDPs in host communities, a similar majority (55%) reported income from casual daily labour, followed by petty trade (30%) and daily labour (28%).	65% of IDP household have a living standard gap in food security
	88% of IDP households do not earn enough for their monthly consumption and 4% of IDP households report resorting to begging as a coping mechanism	
Nigeria	6% of IDPs earn income from salaried work, 57% earn from casual/daily labour, 35% earn from business/commerce and 34% earn from household's agricultural activities.	30% of the IDP households prioritised cash income as their main need.
	2% of IDPs earn no income	4% of IDP households report resorting to begging as a coping mechanism (for income), which erodes their dignity
	88% of IDP households have reported that they do not earn enough for their monthly consumption	93% of IDPs in North-East Nigeria indicate food as their top priority whilst 68% indicated livelihoods and income generation opportunities as their top-most need.
Somalia	Over 73% of IDPs are productive, but poor. Only 26% of IDPs are self-reliant. Over three in four live on less than $1.90 per day	1.1 million out of the total 2.9 million IDPs in Somalia face risk of emergency-level food insecurity as a result of limited livelihood assets and few income earning opportunities
	Child labour was reported among 55.5% of households in IDP Camps	Over 667,000 displaced children are not able to access education services, with financial issues reported as the key barrier to education for IDPs.
South Sudan	91% of displaced people live under the international poverty line of US$1.90 per person per day	Food assistance is the main priority needed for 87% of households.
Sudan	96.7% of IDPs (2.9 million of the total 3 million IDPs) are in need of humanitarian assistance.	
Syria	97% of IDP households cite lack of income as their main challenge in meeting basic needs.	IDPs reported an income that is up to 33% lower than the national average, in part due to challenges with finding work and re-establishing livelihoods in arrival destinations.
	There is an income deficit of 33% reported by IDP population living in camps. IDP households outside of sites/camps have the largest relative income deficit of 58%.	65% of IDPs in camps expressed livelihood assistance as their top priority. 54% of IDPs living outside of camps expressed livelihood assistance as their top priority.

	33% of female-headed IDP households and 65% of male-headed IDP households reported employment.	17% of IDP households adopt child labour as a coping mechanism to generate income.
Ukraine	49% of IDPs were employed in September 2020–March 2021, compared to the 46% of IDPs' employment rate in March–July 2020	The average monthly income per IDP household member amounted to UAH 3,651, but was still lower, compared to the actual subsistence level calculated and published by the Ministry of Social Policy of Ukraine, which was UAH 4,22418 in March 2021
	8% of female-headed households with children indicated unemployment as their biggest issue.	30% of IDPs households combined their sources of income during the last 12 months using both salaries and monthly targeted assistance to IDPs.
	29% of IDPs who reside in collective centres are pensioners.	IDPs continue to rely on government support, which is the second most frequently mentioned source of their income.
	24% of IDPs reported being on unpaid or partially-paid leave during the quarantine, 26% of whom are women	50% of IDPs report that they feel integrated in their host communities with the main conditions for successful integration remaining housing, regular income and employment. (Ukraine HNO 2021,
Yemen	40% of IDPs did not have any source of income before the pandemic.	IDPs in sites are typically those that have no income to pay rent or have relatives with whom they can live and have thus settled in camp-like settings as a last resort.
	More than 300,000 IDPs lost their shelters, incomes and any form of livelihoods they had.	IDPs often experience exclusion as a result of challenges related to integration with host communities, areas of origin, education levels, and access to income and to aid.
		37% of IDPs in sites reported food as their highest priority need, 24% indicated shelter, and 8% indicated protection with only 0.2 indicating adequate multi-sectoral services as their highest priority needs.

Appendix II: Impacts of Conflict Induced Displacement on Education

Theme	Sub-theme	Nigeria	Colombia
Education of respondents	Higher levels of educational achievement among non-displaced people than IDPs	Yes	No
	IDP Respondents' ethnicity effects their level of education	Yes	Yes
School enrolment after displacement	School enrolment is higher among non-displaced children than among IDP children	Yes	No
	Larger gender disparity in school enrolment among IDPs than among non-displaced households.	Yes	No
	Reduced IDP school enrolment after displacement	Yes	Yes
	School enrolment is higher among IDP households with a level of disability than among IDP households without disability	Yes	No
	Bigger declines in IDP girls' school enrolment than boys' due to displacement	Yes	Yes
	Declining school enrolment among IDP girls as they hit puberty – security concerns, coping mechanism for financial constraints (boys' education prioritised and girls forced to stay at home to take care of younger siblings)	Yes	Yes
	Positive correlation between caregivers' education level and school enrolment among IDP children	Yes	Yes
	Main language spoken at home is a key determinant of IDP school enrolment	Yes	No
	School enrolment is higher among non-hosting host community households than those that host IDPs	Yes	No
	Number of times displaced is a key determinant of school enrolment among IDP children	Yes	No
Reasons for lack of enrolment	High cost of education is among the main reasons for lack of school enrolment among IDPs	Yes	Yes
	Need for children to work is given as among the main reasons for lack of enrolment among IDPs	Yes	No

	Distance from school is among the main reasons for lack of school enrolment among IDPs	Yes	Yes
	Security and safety concerns (physical, psychological, social) are among the main reasons for lack of enrolment among IDP girls	Yes	No
Breaks in Schooling	Most or a significant proportion of IDP children experienced breaks in schooling due to displacement	Yes	Yes
	Long breaks in schooling due to displacement (experienced by IDP children)	Yes	No
	Longer breaks in schooling experienced by children from IDP households with a level of disability than IDP households without disability	Yes	Yes
	Negative correlation between caregivers' education level and breaks in IDP children's schooling	Yes	No
	A higher proportion of IDP girls stayed out of school for longer periods, compared to out-of-school IDP boys during displacement.	Yes	No
	Main language spoken at home is a key determinant of breaks from schooling among IDP	Yes	No
	caregivers' education level is a key determinant of breaks in schooling	Yes	No
	Number of times displaced is a key determinant of breaks in schooling	Yes	No
Cost of education	Higher cost of education for IDPs following displacement	Yes	Yes
	Following displacement, higher investments are made to boys' education than girls' education than in boys' education among IDP households	Yes	No
	Expenses for school materials, tuition and other school resources are highly prioritised compared to expenses for transportation, additional classes, etc	Yes	No
	A higher proportion of IDP households with disability incur education costs than IDP households without disability	Yes	No
Financial Support for Education	A higher proportion of IDP households with disability receive financial support for their children's education that IDP households without disability	Yes	No
	The government is the main provider of financial support for education	Yes	Yes

	The government’s financial support for education reaches more non-displaced households than IDP households	Yes	No
	Main language spoken at home has some effect on whether or not a HH receives financial support for its children’s education	Yes	No
	Ethnicity determines whether a HH receives financial support	No	Yes
	caregivers (both IDP and non-displaced) with no education do not receive financial support for their children’s education	Yes	No
caregivers'/ Head of HH Sex	caregivers’ sex influences the education of IDP children.		
	The sex of the HH head affects their own education levels	No	Yes
Satisfaction with quality of education	High proportion of IDPs reporting less satisfaction with the quality of their children’s education after displacement	Yes	No
	Arrival of IDPs has some effect on the education of non-displaced children		No

Appendix III: Impacts of Disaster-Induced Displacement on Education

Theme	Sub-theme	Nepal	Ethiopia	Somalia	Indonesia	Vanuatu	PNG
Education of respondents	Higher levels of educational achievement among non-displaced people than among IDPs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
School enrolment after displacement	School enrolment is higher among non-displaced children than among IDP children	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
	Larger gender disparity in school enrolment among IDPs than among non-displaced households.	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
	Reduced IDP school enrolment after displacement	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
	School enrolment is higher among IDP households with a level of disability than among IDP households without disability		Yes		Yes	No	No
	Bigger declines in IDP girls' school enrolment than boys' due to displacement	Yes	No	Yes	No		No
	Declining school enrolment among IDP girls as they hit puberty	Yes		Yes	No		
	Positive correlation between caregivers' education level and school enrolment among IDP children		Yes	Yes	No	Yes	
	Main language spoken at home is a key determinant of IDP school enrolment	Yes	Yes	Yes	No		
	School enrolment is higher among non-hosting host community households than those that host IDPs	Yes			No		
	Strong positive correlation between number of times displaced and school enrolment among IDP children				No	No	

Reasons for lack of enrolment	High cost of education is among the main reasons for lack of school enrolment among IDPs	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	
	Need for children to work is given as among the main reasons for lack of enrolment among IDPs		No		Yes	Yes	
	Security and safety concerns (physical, psychological, social) are among the main reasons for lack of enrolment among IDP girls	Yes		Yes	No	No	
Breaks in Schooling	Most or a significant proportion of IDP children experienced breaks in schooling due to displacement		Yes		No	Yes	Yes
	Long breaks in schooling due to displacement (experienced by IDP children)		Yes		No	Yes	No
	Longer breaks in schooling experienced by children from IDP households with a level of disability than IDP households without disability		Yes		No	Yes	
	Negative correlation between caregivers' education level and breaks in IDP children's schooling		Yes		No	Yes	
	A higher proportion of IDP girls stayed out of school for longer periods, compared to out-of-school IDP boys during displacement.		Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes
	Main language spoken at home is a key determinant of breaks from schooling among IDP	Yes	Yes		No		Yes
	caregivers' education level is a key determinant of breaks in schooling		Yes		No	Yes	
	Number of times displaced is a key determinant of breaks in schooling		Yes		Yes	Yes	Yes
Cost of education	Higher cost of education for IDPs following displacement		Yes	Yes	No	No	
	Following displacement, higher investments are made to boys' education than girls' education than in boys' education among IDP households		Yes	Yes	No		

	Expenses for school materials, tuition and other school resources are highly prioritised compared to expenses for transportation, additional classes, etc	Yes					
	A higher proportion of IDP households with disability incur education costs than IDP households without disability		No		No		
Financial Support for Education	A higher proportion of IDP households with disability receive financial support for their children's education that IDP households without disability		No				
	The government is the main provider of financial support for education	Yes				Yes	No
	The government's financial support for education reaches more non-displaced households than IDP households					No	Yes
	Main language spoken at home has some effect on whether a HH receives financial support for its children's education					Yes	Yes
	caregivers (both IDP and non-displaced) with no education do not receive financial support for their children's education		Yes		No	No	
caregivers'/Head of HH Sex	caregivers' sex influences the education of IDP children.	Yes		Yes			
Satisfaction with quality of education	High proportion of IDPs reporting less satisfaction with the quality of their children's education after displacement	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No
	Arrival of IDPs has some effect on the education of non-displaced children	Yes					

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