DISPLACED AND HOST COMMUNITY LIVELIHOODS AND FOOD SECURITY BORNO STATE NIGERIA

HEA Urban Baseline Report

HEA Urban Baseline Report

Contents

HEA Urban Baseline Report

Acknowledgements

Partners involved in the data collection and analysis:
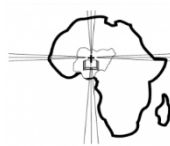
EKKLISIYAR YAN'UWA A NIGERA (EYN)

Glossary

HEA	Household Economy Approach
IDP	Internally displaced person
LIAS	Livelihoods Integrated Analysis Spreadsheet

HEA Urban Baseline Report

Introduction

Overview of the HEA Conceptual Approach

The Household Economy Approach (HEA) was developed in the early 1990s by Save the Children-UK in order to assist humanitarian practitioners in predicting short-term changes in a population's access to food. It is a livelihoods-based framework for analysing the way households gain access to the things they need to survive and prosper. This focus on access was derived from Amartya Sen's entitlement theory which suggested that famines occur not as a result of an absence of food itself, but from people's inability to obtain access to food. HEA begins with an understanding of how households gain access to income and food, and how they spend their income. Central to the methodology of HEA is the notion that without knowing how households live normally, it will not be possible to understand nor quantify how they will be impacted by a shock or hazard. In essence, HEA enables the practitioner to understand how many people will need how much assistance, where, and for how long.

The information gathered in an HEA baseline on households' food and income is converted into a 'common currency' that can be used to compare against internationally-accepted thresholds of food security. HEA uses the measure of 2100 kilocalories per person per day to determine whether households are able to survive – both in a normal period and during a shock or hazard. This is not to say that energy alone is a sufficient indicator of nutritional adequacy. However, it is the first indicator of whether or not a person will starve. HEA baselines depict a typical food habits diet for households across the wealth spectrum. Moreover, the information contained within an HEA baseline can be used to help practitioners select locally appropriate foods that meet SPHERE standards for a food basket.

The HEA conceptual framework is translated into six steps. The baseline provides a picture of how households are living normally, and has three core components: a livelihood zoning, a wealth breakdown, and an analysis of livelihood strategies. It is the analysis of livelihood strategies that quantifies household access to food and income for different wealth groups within a given livelihood zone. This quantification provides the basis for the final step: outcome analysis. Outcome analysis investigates how household food and income changes in reaction to a shock. It begins by translating the hazard into economic consequences at household level, known as the problem specification. Next, households'

capacity to cope is analysed and incorporated into the reaction to the shock. Finally, predicted access to food and income for households is to compare projected total income against two clearly defined thresholds to determine whether an intervention of some kind is required.

The final result – called the 'projected outcome' – can be compared with baseline-level access, and can provide a picture of whether households are failing to meet even their basic needs. It is intended for use by decision-makers in program planning and development.

For further reference to the HEA process, please see the *HEA Guide for Programme and Policy Makers* in the bibliography.

Children gather around the team after the community representative interview in Dala Lawanti.

HEA Urban Baseline Report

Urban Livelihood Zone Description

In the HEA framework, the first step is to define the area to be surveyed; the 'livelihood zone'. In any given country, patterns of livelihood vary clearly from one location to the next as a result of local factors including climate, geography, and market access. Prior to beginning the fieldwork, it is therefore necessary to create a 'livelihood zone map' that delineates the geographical areas in which a population shares the same access to food, markets, and has a similar geography. This is intended to allow for a robust and comparable analysis of livelihood patterns. Furthermore, a livelihood zone map can assist practitioners in planning the location for appropriate livelihoods interventions.

Urban livelihood zones differ from the typical rural HEA livelihood zones in that there is generally a far less significant dependence on agriculture as a means of existence. As a result, households are much more susceptible to fluctuations in market conditions, and to changes in the price of basic food and non-food items. Moreover, in an urban livelihood zone, the type and number of income-generating activities varies according to wealth group. Well-remunerated, formal employment tends to be the reserve of middle and better off households, whereas the poorer households tend to engage in a variety of both semi-skilled and unskilled activities within the informal economy. A technical discussion was held with Save the Children's implementing partners in Maiduguri prior to the start of the fieldwork in order to determine the main criteria for community selection.

Chief among these criteria was the areas where displaced communities and host communities overlap – this is because the pattern of livelihoods within settlement areas is likely to be different than the livelihoods of those living in IDP camps. Moreover, according to available data, over 86 per cent of IDPs within Maiduguri are living outside of camps, within the host community.

Another important criterion for community selection was the location of the community on the urban map of Maiduguri, which was directly related to the type of livelihood opportunities available within that area. More vulnerable communities tend to be found away from the urban centre.

The livelihood zoning in Maiduguri that was completed with technical stakeholders, as well as the HEA field team found the following distinct zones within Maiduguri.

1. *Periurban* – areas on the outskirts of town, along the waterways with some cereal production, livestock rearing, fishing, firewood sales, and casual labour. In periurban Maiduguri these wards include Dalori, Dusuman, Gongulong, and Auno.

2. *Lower urban* – little to no land access, poor infrastructure, poor hygiene and sanitation conditions, and a large amount of casual labour. The lower urban wards of Maiduguri include Modusulumri and Madinatu.

3. *Intermediate urban* – quarters near the centre of town close to commercial centres and socio-economic infrastructure. Higher concentration of civil servants, commerce, and salaried employment. In Maiduguri the intermediate urban wards include Kusheri, Polo, Kululori and Dala Alamderi.

4. *Urban centre* – residential areas with a high level of permanent infrastructure, and a high concentration of upper cadre civil servants, government officials, and NGOs. The urban centre of Maiduguri includes New and Old GRA, Gwange, Customs area, BoShlori, and Bama road wards.

During the urban HEA baseline in Maiduguri, the areas surveyed included communities from both the lower and
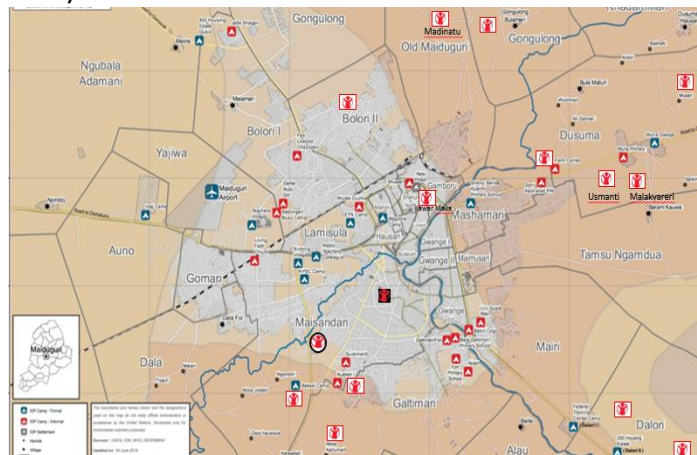
intermediate urban zones. The selection of communities was dependent on a number of factors including; overlap of IDP and host community, type of livelihood activities available, and perceived level of vulnerability. Below is a map of Save the Children's current operational area in Maiduguri. The map below includes the wards visited during the survey.

Assessment Objectives and Conceptual Approach

The primary objective of an HEA baseline is to provide decision-makers and field practitioners with a detailed picture of how households make ends meet and access their food and cash needs during a normal period.

HEA Urban Baseline Report

Urban HEA baselines differ from the typical rural baseline in their conceptual approach. In rural settings it is useful to distinguish between how better off and poorer households obtain access to food and income because within rural areas, members of a given wealth group tend to share a similar set of livelihood strategies that allow them to obtain food and income. In urban settings, however, the predominance of market access (and the higher level of market dependence) means that access to multiple income-generating activities is higher, and access to a variety of food sources is common. The basis of enquiry for an urban baseline therefore shifts from a focus on agriculture to a focus on cash income and expenditures. This is because although income-generating activities in urban settings tend to be heterogeneous, patterns of expenditure do not. It is typical to see poorer households spending in a similar way on similar items. Within an urban livelihood zone, the types of income-generating activities tend to be an important distinguishing factor between wealth groups.

The information gathered during an HEA baseline typically corresponds to a 'normal' year for livelihood and food security within a given livelihood zone. In an agricultural setting, a normal year could be considered to be a recent year in which harvest yields were average and rainfall was adequate. The concept of a 'normal' year is less easily applied to urban settings due to the rapidly growing and shifting nature of many urban economies in the developing world.

This is particularly true for conflict-affected settings where displacement, NGO assistance and insecurity have become the new normal. For this HEA baseline, the reference year was taken as the twelve months preceding the survey, March 2016 to February 2017. The recent reference year improved the ability of recall among household representatives during the interviews.

However, due to the volatile nature of the security situation, as well as the rapidly changing economy that is typical of urban areas, the current baseline results are not expected to remain valid for as long as a typical rural baseline. It is likely that the results of the urban HEA baseline in Maiduguri will need to be revalidated again next year.

Due in part to the urgent need to understand and quantify livelihood strategies among vulnerable households in Maiduguri, and in part to the considerable differences between poorer and better of livelihood options, it was decided that the urban baseline in Maiduguri should focus only on the poorest households: the very poor and poor. Additionally, it was considered important to understand what differences exist between the host and the IDP community at the level of the most vulnerable households. This urban study consists of two baselines: one for the very poor and poor IDP households, and one for the very poor and poor host community households.

It is critical to note that the results of this HEA are valid only for the livelihood zone in which the HEA was conducted: Maiduguri Lower and Intermediate Urban livelihood zone. The results of this HEA cannot be extrapolated to displaced or host community households living outside of this zone.

A comparison between the livelihood options, and the level of access to food and cash income between very poor and poor host and IDP households will provide a critical understanding of what makes households vulnerable within the communities forming part of the livelihood zone. Importantly, it will also highlight whether in fact there are significant differences between the most vulnerable among the IDP and the host community.

The final section of this report will draw comparisons between the poorest among the IDP and the host community to aid practitioners in understanding the key differences and similarities between these wealth groups that can be important in targeting interventions.

Fieldwork constraints

As with any type of fieldwork, this baseline was subject to a number of both logistical and conceptual constraints. Most significantly, completing fieldwork in an urban centre affected by conflict and displacement made security considerations paramount when planning for team movement and organising community meetings.

The community representative interviews from which the wealth breakdown is derived were held at community level, and mobilisation occurred for the follow-up household representative interviews. The household representative interviews were held with community members in the Save the Children office in Maiduguri. The decision was taken not to expose either community members or enumerators in the sun in crowded communities for extended periods of time.

The remainder of this report will investigate the livelihoods and coping strategies of both the host community and the IDPs, before concluding with an analysis of coping strategies and a projected outcome.

HEA Urban Baseline Report

Host Community Livelihoods

The insecurity in the northeast continues to affect livelihoods within the host communities. Most farmlands are located on the outskirts of town and are currently inaccessible due to frequent attacks on farmers. This has largely reduced farm activity, affecting both food and cash from agricultural labour.

The presence of the displaced population within the community also resulted in increased staple food prices, renting costs, reduced labour wage, and an increase in household size as some displaced households depend on their host relatives and friends thereby increasing household expenditure.

Wealth Breakdown
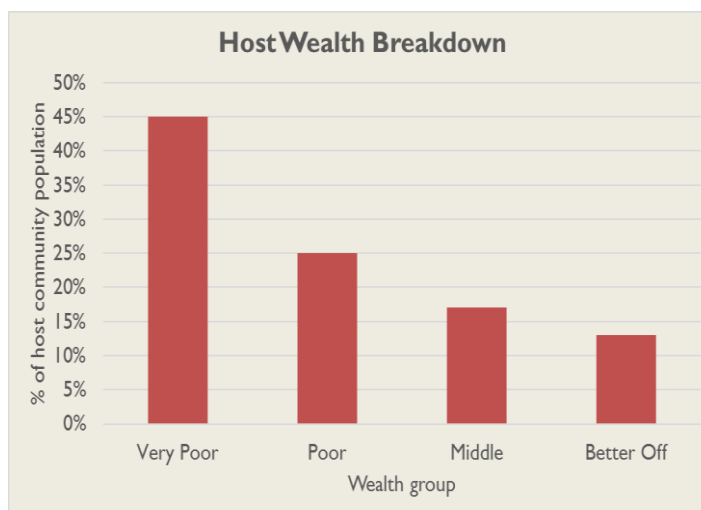
	Weallth Group Characteristics			
	Household size	Land Cultivated	Livestock	Productive assets
Very Poor	8(6-10)	0	none	hand hoe, cuttlass, cellphone
Poor	9(7-11)	0	4 hen	hand hoe, cuttlass, cellphone, bicycle
Middle	11(8-12)	2(0-5)	2cattle, 3goats, 4sheep, 6hen	hand hoe, cuttlass, cellphone, carts, wheelbarrow, rickshaw
Better Off	18(15-21)	5(1-10)	3cattle, 4goats, 7sheep, 16hen	hand hoe, cuttlass, cellphone, carts, wheelbarrow, rickshaw

The graph above presents the proportion of households within the host communities according to their wealth group. From the graph, the largest proportion of households in the host community fall within very poor (45 per cent) and poor (25 per cent) wealth groups. The table below outlines the type and number of assets a typical household within a wealth group owns.

Income Sources
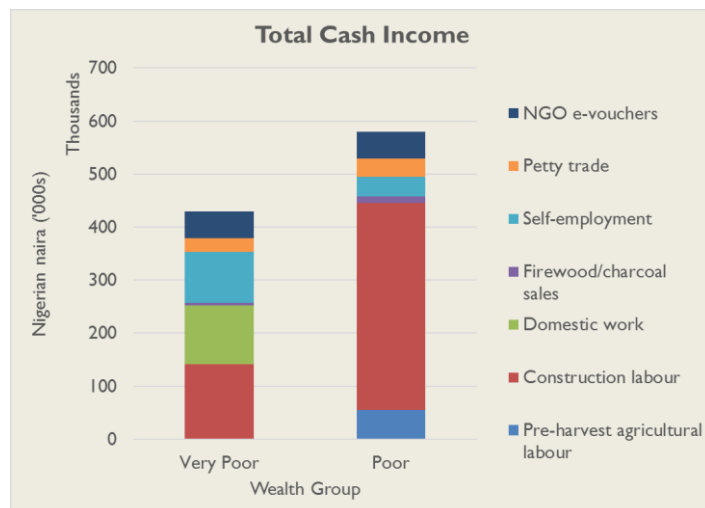
The average annual income earned by the very poor and poor households are 429885 Naira and 579975 Naira respectively. Both wealth groups have a variety of income-generating activities. For both very poor and poor there is a significant contribution from casual labour (construction), self-employment, petty trade, firewood/charcoal sales, other incomes were generated via gifts/social support which included in most instance cash transfer programs from NGOs Save the Children and ACF. Domestic labour is particular to the very poor, while a significant proportion of the poor households engage in harvest agricultural labour.

Handicrafts – most commonly, cap-making – is a common activity for both the very poor and the poor households. This activity is mostly done by the female members of the households, but is also done by the males. Both the very poor and poor household generate income from this source.

Both the very poor and the poor households engage in construction labour, a source that contributes significantly to their annual income. Poor households generate about 77 per cent of their annual income from casual labour (construction & agricultural labour), while the very poor generate about 59 per cent of their annual income from same casual labour (construction and domestic labour).

HEA Urban Baseline Report

Food needs
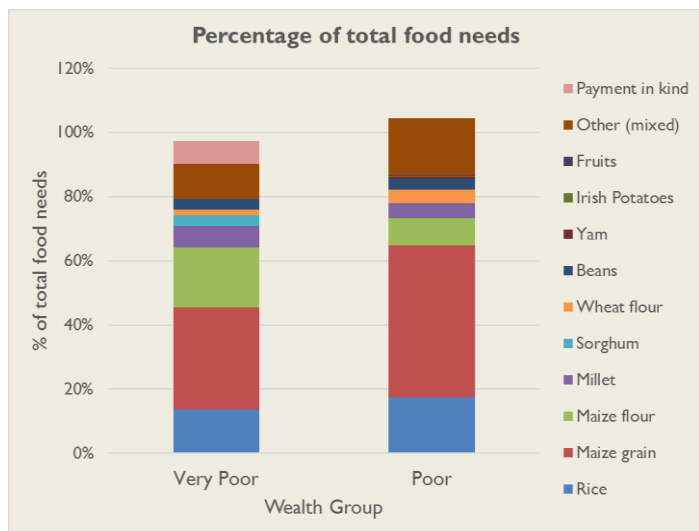
The graph above illustrates the total percentage of food needs being met by all food sources consumed by host community households during the reference year.

Poor households met 104 per cent of their food needs, with food gained from coping strategies included. More than three quarters of their food needs came from staple purchase, and almost a third from non-staple purchase (28 per cent). Very poor only met 97 per cent of their food needs (of which 68 came from staple purchase and 23 per cent from non-staple purchase), even with the application of various coping strategies.

The key staple food purchased is maize grain, which contributes 47 per cent and 32 per cent to the poor and very poor household food needs respectively; this implies that the major food purchase for these households is maize. Purchase on maize flour contributes 19 per cent and 8 per cent of the food needs for the poor and very poor respectively. Poor households purchase more maize grain than the very poor. When ground, maize grain provides both maize flour and grit, both of which can be prepared separately as meal. On the other hand, the very poor, in an attempt to reduce expenditure on grinding purchase more maize flour. The opposite trend is found among displaced households, who prefer to purchase maize grain, but only do so when they receive e-vouchers.

Labour exchange – food received in exchange for work performed – contributes 7 per cent to very poor households' food needs. Local rice purchase for the very poor and poor contributes 14 per cent and 18 per cent respectively to these wealth groups' annual food needs.

Other items purchased include wheat flour, beans, sweet potatoes, dry fish, palm oil, vegetable oil, groundnut, sugar, and vegetable. The poor purchase yam and fruits occasionally.

Expenditure Patterns
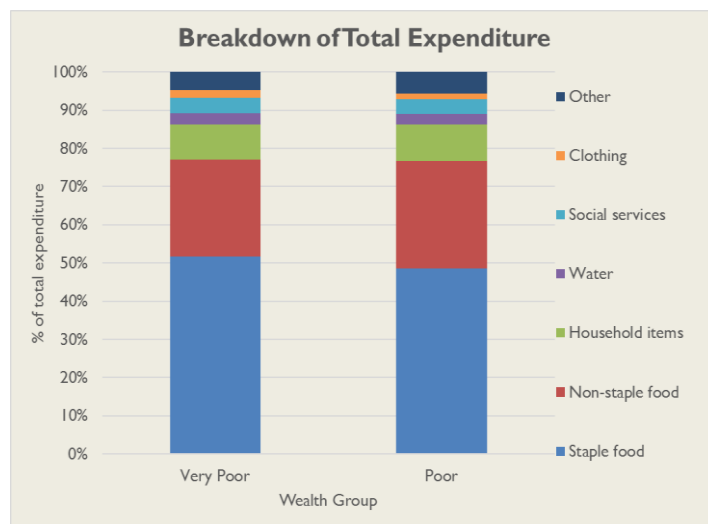
The graph above highlights the pattern of expenditure across the two wealth groups.

The major expenditures for the poor and very poor in the host community are, in descending order of importance, staple food, non-staple food, household items (tea, salt, soap, firewood and grinding), water, social services (school fees and medical bills), clothing and transport. Expenditure on tea is specific to the poor households, as the very poor do not purchase tea.

The lower annual expenditure of the very poor is largely because of the difference in total income as well as household size. Very poor households spend on average 21 per cent less than the poor on staple food, 33 per cent less on non-staple and 25 per cent less on water.

Coping Strategies

The most common coping strategy among very poor households, is the reduction in the number of meals per day. Poor households tend to cut down on the meal size. The very poor households increase the amount of domestic work to increase income. Among the very poor, women and children within the households also practise begging.

The poor and very poor households pull children out of schools to cut down expenditure. Once out of school, these children are sent to hawk in the markets.

Both wealth groups increase the amount of casual labour in order to increase their income during a bad year. This

includes carrying goods for both traders and customers at the market.

Both wealth groups cut down expenditure on rice, etc. which are more expensive to cheaper staple.

Displaced Community Livelihoods

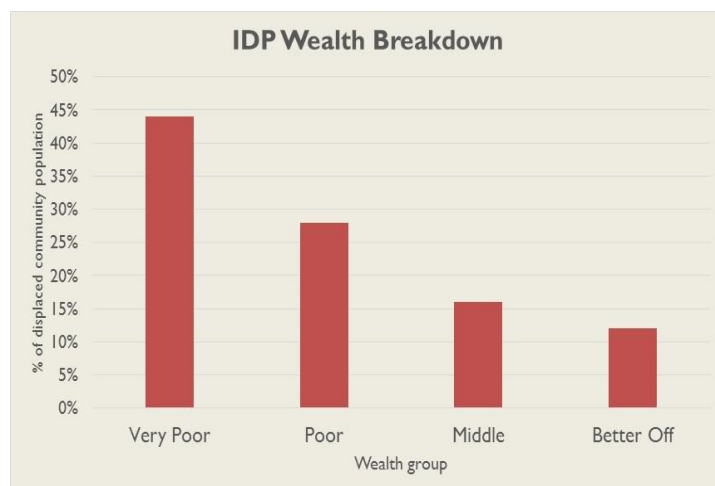Vendor stall from which beneficiary households purchase their monthly food needs.

The ongoing insurgency in the northeast of Nigeria continues to have a profound impact on the lives and livelihoods of those displaced by the violence and conflict, as well as those who host them. A significant number of those displaced have been living in Maiduguri for at least two years if not more. As such they have become a more or less permanent fixture on the landscape of the urban centre.

The majority of the IDP households interviewed by the field team during this baseline hailed from the local government areas (LGAs) most predominantly affected by the Boko Haram insurgency: the LGAs surrounding the Sambisa forest axis (Bama, Gwoza, and Konduga). Maiduguri also plays host to IDPs from Jere, Monguno, Kalabage, Ngala, Damboa, Damasak, Marte, and Guzamala.

Those who have fled the insurgency and made it into Maiduguri have come by foot, by car, and in some cases, through neighbouring countries such as Cameroon and Niger to Borno's capital city. While here, those with relatives and friends have been able to rely on their social networks to find shelter, clothing, and much-needed cash for their households' survival. Those without such social capital struggle to make ends meet, in spite of receiving a warm welcome from the host community. Indeed, it is the social, financial, and physical capital with which displaced families fled that determines their level of wealth within the host community. This section will focus on the livelihood and coping strategies of displaced

households, and will look in detail at their annual cash and food income sources, and their ability to spend what they earn.

Wealth Breakdown

The graph above summarises proportion of households within the IDP community falling into each wealth group. The table below it summarises the types and numbers of productive assets that typical households within each wealth group own and/or manage. As the graph demonstrates, the largest percentage of households fall within the very poor and poor wealth groups.

The wealth breakdown for IDP households was designed to understand the determinants of wealth among the IDP communities within Maiduguri since the displacement began. Accordingly, the vast majority of IDP households residing in Maiduguri (over two thirds) are either poor or very poor. Relative levels of wealth within one's community of origin do seem to influence one's wealth group within the settlements,

	Wealth Group Characteristics			
	Household size	Land cultivated	Livestock	Productive assets
Very Poor	6 (5-7)	0	none	hand hoe, cutlass, cellphone
Poor	8 (7-10)	0	none	hand hoe, cutlass, cellphone
Middle	9 (8-10)	0.5 Ha (0-1)	1-2 goats; 0-1 sheep	hand hoes, cutlass, cell phone, cart, rickshaw, wheelbarrow
Better Off	11 (9-15)	1 Ha (0-2)	2-3 goats, 1-2 sheep	hand hoes, cutlass, cell phone, cart, rickshaw, wheelbarrow

HEA Urban Baseline Report

however, these were not found to be a key influence on a household's level of wealth.

The main determinant of wealth among IDPs appears to be possessing the social, physical, and financial capital to support one's household in a context of displacement. Better off households typically rely on government salaries (although they are no longer working since having been displaced), and as a result they are more resilient to the type of shocks faced by households who have been displaced, including lack of shelter, transport, food, and livelihood sources. Better off and middle IDP households also tend to own productive assets such as generators, bicycles, carts, kiosks, and in some cases even shops. Both better off and middle households have the capacity to rent land and to cultivate. Some even own livestock. Both better off and middle households engage in trading and small businesses including taxi driving, key-cutting, tailoring, carpentry, and the selling of animal hides. A key distinction between better off and middle households is that the former can own the land that they live on, whereas middle households are either renting or living with relatives.

Poorer households have recourse to few if any of the types of capital available to middle and better off households. Most poor and very poor households were engaged in farming, fishing, and livestock rearing in their communities of origin and they came to Maiduguri having little capital to begin with. Poorer households tend to be engaged in both semiskilled and non-skilled casual labour, as well as agricultural labour. They do not own either land or livestock, although in their communities of origin these assets may have been their principal source of livelihood.

Household size increases with wealth among the IDPs. Better off households are generally able to take in children from poorer households, including from their own poorer relatives. For their part, very poor households can send between two to three children to be looked after by the better off.

Poor households typically send one to two children to the better off. These children help their hosts with domestic work, and in turn, the better off households pay for them to attend government schools. Very poor households are typically around 7 people, and poor households are typically around 8 people. The typical composition of a very poor or poor household includes a mother, father, and four to six children, including infants.

Income Sources
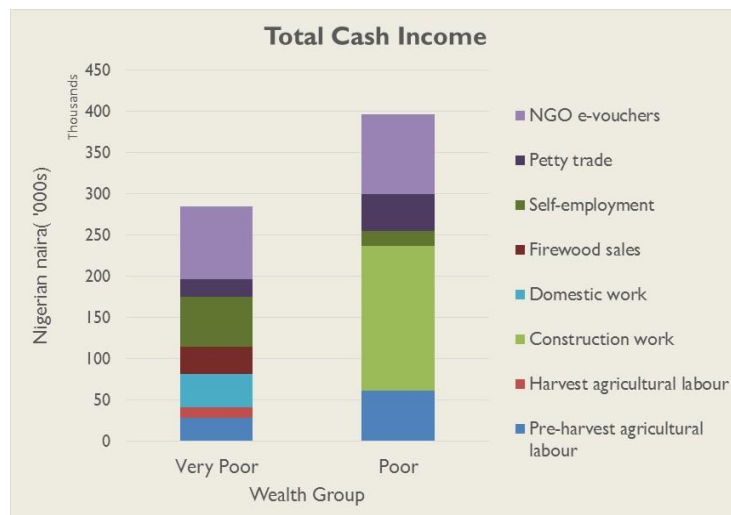
The graph above illustrates the total cash income for very poor and poor IDP households during the reference year. Very poor households earned on average 285,670 Naira throughout the year, and poor households earned 396,650 Naira. The legend on the right indicates the different income-generating sources – some of which are shared by both very poor and poor households (such as pre-harvest agricultural labour, and NGO e-vouchers/cash transfers), and some of which are exclusive to a particular wealth group, such as water vending.

Although poor and very poor households both tend to engage in semiskilled and unskilled labour, the types of income-generating activities performed by each wealth group are an important indicator of their status within the community.

Very poor households, with little to no social, physical, or financial capital tend to perform domestic work such as laundry and housekeeping for the better off within their communities. Very poor households are also more typically engaged in self-employment activities such as water vending and charcoal sales, as they lack the skills to perform the semiskilled labour activities such as carpentry and construction that are done by the poor households.

Domestic work is the domain of women, as is cap-making, which is an important income-generating activity for women in both very poor and poor households. The ability to learn a skill such as handicraft-making is a lifeline, particularly to female-headed households, who often depend almost exclusively on the income they receive from cap-making to sustain themselves and their children throughout the year. Women from very poor and poor households are also engaged in small-scale petty trade such as selling sundry items

HEA Urban Baseline Report

from a small table outside their homes. Approximately forty-one per cent of very poor households' annual income is generated through self-employment activities.

Men in very poor households are typically engaged in agricultural labour (both pre- and post-harvest), and water vending. Within very poor households, it is typically only the man (father) who can go to engage in agricultural labour. Poor households have access to more human capital, and the father typically goes to work with an older child from within the household. To do their water vending, very poor households rent carts and jerry cans from middle and better off households within the host community. They pay the borehole owners within their communities to fill up their jerry cans, and then push the jerry cans around the community selling water on a daily basis, during the dry season. These activities are included under 'self-employment'.

Poor households make the bulk of their annual cash income (sixty per cent) from casual employment activities such as house construction, brick production, and carpentry. They are not as skilled carpenters as the middle households, and typically make chairs and furniture to sell within the communities. However, although poor households have more stable sources of income, construction-related work tends to dip during the rainy season

E-vouchers and cash transfers from NGOs, most prominently Save the Children's e-transfer system, constitute a significant proportion of both very poor and poor households' annual income. For very poor households, NGO assistance makes up a third of their income. Poor households are receiving just under a quarter of their income from NGO assistance. On average, IDP households were receiving this assistance for five months of the reference year.

Because households could receive transfers from NGOs both as cash or as vouchers, the decision was made to show this under total income, for the purpose of comparing the proportion of household income coming from this source. A later section on the Impact of NGO Transfers draws a comparison between total monthly food expenditure and e-vouchers, and compares this with the total income received per household in each wealth group.

The difference between the total cash income (minus NGO assistance) of the very poor and poor households can be attributed to the fact that poor households, due to their higher physical and social capital, have access to more stable income-generating activities. Casual employment guarantees a certain daily level of cash-in-hand, and moreover occurs at regular intervals during the year. Overall, poor households are earning twice as much from casual employment (their

main source of income), as the very poor are earning from self-employment (their main source of income).

Food needs
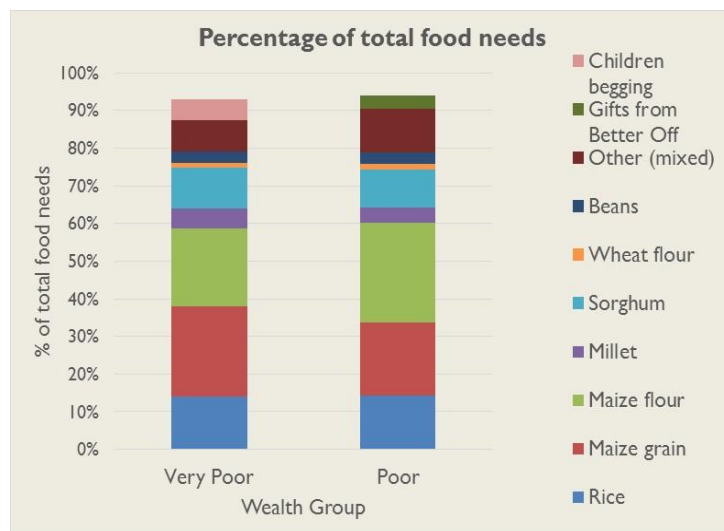
The graph above illustrates the total percentage of food needs being met by all food sources consumed by IDP households during the reference year. Neither very poor nor poor IDP households were meeting 100% of their food needs during the reference year. More than sixty per cent of both very poor and poor household kilocalorie needs were met by staple purchase alone. Maize grain contributes the greatest percentage of kilocalorie needs (24 per cent) to very poor households. Poor households receive the largest proportion of their food needs from maize flour (27 per cent). Both very poor and poor households prefer to purchase maize – either in flour or as grain – rather than rice. Indeed, it is interesting to note that household expenditure patterns on key staple food items changed quite considerably since they began receiving e-vouchers and cash assistance. Prior to receiving assistance, many households limited their purchase of staple foods to maize flour and, very occasionally, local rice. With the e-vouchers, however, many households are purchasing imported rice – the preferred type of rice due to its higher quality – and maize grain instead of maize flour. According to the beneficiaries, maize grain bought in mudus and then ground yields a higher volume of flour than purchasing maize flour directly from the vendor. This method has the additional advantage of producing maize grit, which is both consumed and sold by the household. Poor and very poor households are also buying maize grit.

'Other' items include vegetables, oil, beans, sweet potatoes, dried fish, pasta, and groundnut. These items are critical in providing a balanced diet to all IDP households, including beneficiaries. However, given the low frequency with which

HEA Urban Baseline Report

households are purchasing these items, it is unlikely that their diet – which comprises over sixty per cent of staple foods – is sufficiently varied to meet their micronutrient needs.

The e-vouchers households receive from Save the Children can only be used to purchase food, from a specific food basket including a number of grains, pulses, salt, and oil. However, across the communities surveyed, households were receiving assistance from multiple NGOs, although at different periods of the year. This was taken into account under their income sources, and the amounts shown below represent the average amount received by households from all NGOs[1]. Very poor households received about 88,210 Naira, and poor households about 96,750 Naira in e-vouchers throughout the course of the reference year. These comparisons are discussed further in the section on the Impact of NGO Transfers. Some households received in-kind assistance during the reference year from organisations such as Oxfam and Dangote. However, the amount received was often small and rarely contributed more than a small percentage of annual kilocalorie needs for households.

As mentioned, household purchasing patterns changed quite substantially after they began receiving e-vouchers – for example, households increased their consumption of both local and imported rice. Households also began to buy in larger quantities upon receiving e-vouchers. Indeed, a WFP report produced in 2016 indicates that over two thirds of IDPs had either poor or borderline food consumption during the previous year[2].

The graph above makes clear, however, that without resorting to coping strategies such as begging and asking for handouts from better off households, neither poor nor very poor IDP households would be meeting even ninety per cent of their needs. Households consuming below this threshold for extended periods of time are most likely beginning to starve. Given the precariousness of their livelihoods, it is expected that the most vulnerable IDP households will engage in coping strategies in order to meet their needs.

However, resorting to negative and damaging coping strategies, such as sending children to beg in the markets and at night at the houses of the better off, risks further degrading IDPs' livelihoods below a level which is sustainable.

These strategies are discussed in a later section of this report.

Expenditure Patterns
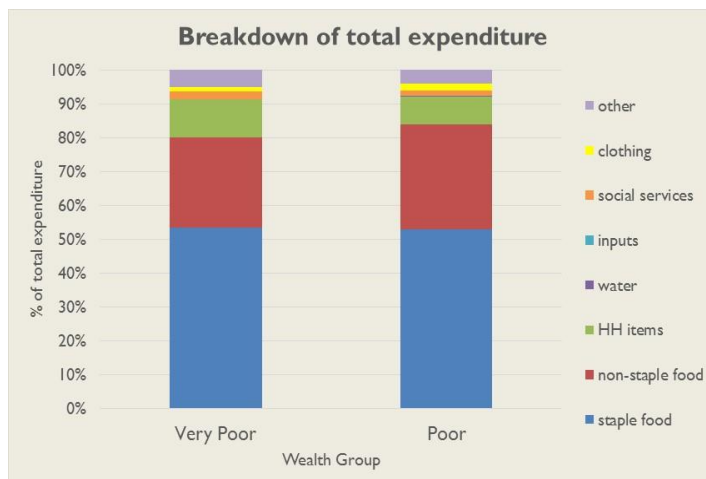
The graph above shows a breakdown of total annual expenditures for very poor and poor households. The values are shown as a percent of total expenditure, rather than as absolute expenditure, to allow for comparison across the two wealth groups. Both wealth groups spent almost exactly as much as they earned during the reference year, and were not generally able to save money.

The first thing that is clear from looking at the graph is that very poor and poor households are spending an almost equivalent proportion (approximately fifty per cent) on staple foods. When compared to the previous graph on food income, it is clear that very poor and poor households have different preferences for staple foods purchased. Very poor households have a preference for maize grain, whereas poor households prefer to buy maize flour. Maize grain requires grinding, which is an extra cost to households. The extra cash very poor households are spending on grinding grain (and other staples including sorghum and millet) is reflected under 'other' expenditure which, as can be seen on the graph, they spend more on than poor households. It is unclear why very poor households prefer to purchase maize grain, which would incur the cost of grinding. It is possible that they calculate having a higher total edible yield, rather than prioritising the overall cost of eating maize grain, which would include paying for grinding.

Poor households spent more of their total cash income on food (both staple and non-staple purchase) than very poor households. For both wealth groups, more than seventy per

[1] HEA includes only the sources of food, income, and expenditure that are 'most common' among households of a particular wealth group.

[2] See reference in bibliography.

cent of their total cash income during the reference year was spent on food.

Very poor households are spending a similar amount of their income on household items to the poor. However, because their overall income is lower than that of the poor by approximately 100,000 Naira, very poor households are consequently spending a larger proportion of their total expenditure on household items. This can also be attributed to the fact that very poor households are spending more on charcoal and firewood throughout the year[3]. On most household items, including tea, salt, soap, Vaseline, matches, and sanitary items and diapers, poor households are spending slightly more than very poor households.

Poor households are sending their children to government schools, and are paying for their school fees. Very poor households do not tend to send their children to school, and those who do prefer to send their children to Islamic schools, which are free to attend.

Coping Strategies

For very poor households, begging – for both food and money – is by far the most common coping strategy. They will typically send their children and sometimes women to markets and to the homes of the better off households to beg. When children bring home food – typically leftovers from better off households – the meal is rarely sufficient for anyone besides the children themselves. This practice contributed a small percentage to the household kilocalorie needs during the reference year. Reduction in the number of meals per day, and reducing the portion size of meals are also common coping strategies among poorer households, who tend to live hand-to-mouth and may not have the ability to purchase the food necessary to meet their needs on a daily basis[4]. Those who are able to do so rely on their relatives for food. In a number of communities, better off households give bags of rice and smaller items such as salt and Maggi to the poorer households within their community.

Some households also collect and sell more firewood during hard times. Wild food collection in the nearby bush is also a common coping strategy among the vulnerable displaced households. However, venturing far into the bush is a risk to individual security, as insurgents are known to hide out in these areas.

For households that perform casual employment, they will try to increase the number of hours per day worked during a bad year. However, this is not always possible due to a high supply but limited demand for workers. For agricultural labour, households can double the number of people per household working as well as the number of days worked.

Analysis of livelihood and coping strategies

Livelihood strategies

A comparison of host community and displaced community livelihood and coping strategies can help humanitarian practitioners to understand where the primary differences lie between the lives and livelihoods of the most vulnerable among both communities.

Both the very poor and poor host community households are earning more than their displaced counterparts. On average, very poor IDPs are earning 30 per cent less than very poor hosts, and poor IDPs are also earning thirty per cent less than poor hosts. Indeed, although both host and displaced households are earning their income from similar sources, proportionally, host communities earn more from semiskilled and skilled labour activities than the displaced households.

Both very poor and poor host community households earned the bulk of their income during the reference year from casual employment activities such as construction labour and domestic work. Construction labour accounts for 30 per cent of very poor households' annual income, and 67 per cent of poor households' annual income. Poor IDP households also earned a significant proportion of their income from construction labour.

According to information gathered during the HEA interviews, a significant number of the displaced households were engaged in farming and fishing activities before fleeing to Maiduguri. Displaced households appear to be earning more from agricultural labour activities than the host community. Among the latter, only poor households engage in harvest labour[5]. It remains unclear whether displaced households have been able to undertake any of the same income-generating activities within Maiduguri from their communities

---

[3] Very poor households live on a lower daily income than poor households and as a result they buy charcoal and firewood on a daily basis, whereas poor households prefer to buy in large bags. As a result, very poor households ultimately spend more in total on firewood/charcoal than poor households.
[4] WFP, 2016.

[5] It is possible that host community households moved more towards construction labour as a source of income as the displacement intensified. However, a further analysis would be required to determine whether or not this was the case.

of origin. Indeed, some activities such as cap-making – which is generally done by IDP women – were skills learned from neighbours within the host community and settlements. However, those women who engaged in cap-making prior to displacement were in a better position to be able to gain some small income from this activity.

It appears that social, financial, and physical capital are important not only in determining the level of wealth at which displaced households find themselves within the host community, but they are also key to a household's ability to earn a stable income. Very poor IDP households have limited physical capital, and are less able to engage in skilled or semiskilled activities such as construction work. Consequently, they earn most of their income from self-employment activities including cap-making, water vending, firewood and charcoal sales, and petty trade. While their livelihood strategies are more diversified than those of either the poor IDPs or the poorest among the host community, very poor IDP households remain more vulnerable. Their livelihood sources are less stable, and more precarious than construction labour, which supplies a reasonably regular and guaranteed amount of cash for a household.

Female IDPs in particular have limited access to income-generating activities. They generally engage in handicraft-making, domestic work, and petty trade. The income that women are able to earn from handicrafts and petty trade contributes approximately 20 per cent to very poor IDP household annual income, or about 58,000 Naira per year. Female-headed households, while not considered representative of any wealth group among the IDPs, are in a highly vulnerable position, as their ability to generate enough income for them to meet their needs on a monthly or even daily basis is uncertain. Moreover, investment in an activity such as petty trading – where buying the sundry items for re-sale can cost a significant amount of what female households earn – may not ultimately be a very profitable livelihood strategy. A more detailed analysis of the livelihood strategies available to female-headed households may be necessary to determine the impact these activities have both on household income, and childcare within the household. This is discussed in the section on Recommendations.

Based upon the HEA analysis, it is clear that among the most vulnerable households, the ability to engage in semiskilled or skilled labour is key to securing a higher level of income. Nonetheless, this is not sufficient to prevent households from engaging in negative coping strategies.

Coping strategies

Coping strategies are the strategies households employ to try and increase their food and cash income after a shock. Households at different levels of wealth will employ different coping strategies, depending on the resources and assets they have available to them. Understanding what coping strategies are available to households, and the extent to which these options can contribute to food and cash income is important in analysing the overall impact of a shock on access to food and cash. It is important to note that these are strategies that are being employed over a long period of time, during which households are already facing crisis levels of food insecurity.

Very poor and poor households from both the host and displaced communities engage in similar coping strategies to increase income such as increasing the number of days worked for casual labour. Households also try to increase their firewood/charcoal sales.

Apart from the aforementioned strategies, it appears that the poorest among the host and IDP communities generally employ negative coping strategies such as sending children to beg, reducing the number and size of meals, and pulling children out of school. Very poor IDP households generally do not send their children to school, due to the cost of purchasing the necessary items such as books and uniforms. Poor IDP households can send their children to school. Pulling children out of school was noted as a common coping strategy among the host community households.

Increased firewood sales – a common strategy, and indeed one that is employed by more than one wealth group – is considered a negative coping strategy, due to the irreversible impact it has on the environment. Moreover, there is an additional security risk to households that venture into insecure areas outside of Maiduguri to collect firewood.

That households from both the host and the displaced community are engaging in negative coping strategies is symptomatic of the impact high levels of displacement have had upon the community as a whole.

Impact of NGO transfers

NGO transfers had a very tangible impact on IDP households' ability to meet their needs during the reference year.

As aforementioned, very poor and poor IDPS households received 88,210 Naira, and 96,750 Naira respectively in e-vouchers during the reference year. Respectively, this sum is enough to cover 60 per cent of staple food expenditure for

HEA Urban Baseline Report

the very poor, and 50 per cent of staple food expenditure for the poor. When non-staple expenditures are included, the e-voucher is sufficient to cover 41 per cent of food expenditure for the very poor, and 32 per cent of food expenditure for the poor. It is worth noting that these sums are being compared to very poor and poor IDP households' annual expenditures. Comparing the SCI e-voucher sum of 17,000 Naira per month to the monthly food expenditures will yield a slightly different result.

The graphs below for the IDP and host community households depict a comparison of monthly food expenditure with the average monthly e-voucher transfer amount of 17,000 Naira. This is based on the SCI monthly e-transfer amount, intended to cover 70 per cent of household food needs.

Overall, host community households – due in part to their larger household sizes, and their greater income levels – are spending more per month on food. Consequently, the e-vouchers they receive cover a smaller proportion of their monthly food expenditure than that of the IDPs. It is important to note that neither IDP nor host households were receiving e-vouchers for all months of the reference year (March 2016-February 2017). Moreover, for both hosts and IDPs, purchasing patterns of staple foods changed upon receiving e-vouchers. Prior to receiving vouchers, households were buying more frequently – daily or weekly – and in smaller amounts – half mudus ('shakade'). Upon receiving e-vouchers, households began to buy in bulk, in mudus, on a monthly basis. However, due to the limitations of the data collection software, the amount purchased is reflected for the whole year.

The items included as part of food expenditure are shown below.

Food purchase items

Staple	Non-staple
• Rice (imported and local)	• Yam
• Maize grain	• Sweet potato
• Maize flour	• Dried fish
• Millet	• Palm oil
• Sorghum	• Vegetable oil
• Wheat	• Pasta
• Beans	• Vegetables
	• Groundnut
	• Groundnut paste
	• Sugar
	• Fruits

Households were typically only receiving e-vouchers for around 5 months of the reference year. When IDP

households began receiving e-vouchers, the amount they received, as can be seen in the graph above, over two thirds of their monthly food expenses. These figures differ from those given above in the IDP Food Needs section because the total amount from e-vouchers received during the reference year covered slightly under half of household food needs (or 5 months).

Very Poor and Poor IDP monthly food expenditure compared with SCI e-voucher
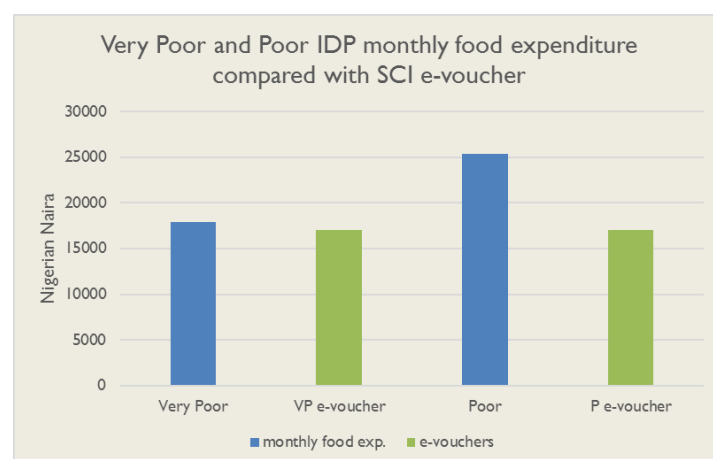
For very poor IDP households, whose average household size is six, 96 per cent of their monthly food expenditure is covered by the transfer amount. For poor IDPs, whose household size is eight, 66 per cent of their monthly food expenditure is covered by the transfer amount.

Very Poor and Poor Host monthly food expenditure compared with SCI e-voucher
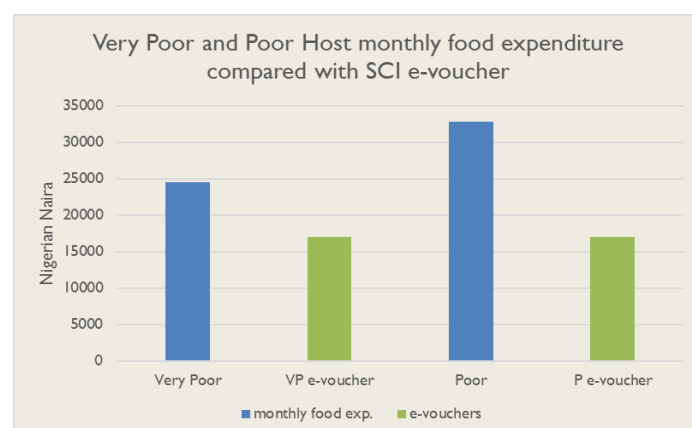
For very poor host households, whose household size is eight, 69 per cent of their monthly food expenditure is covered by the transfer amount. For poor hosts, whose household size is nine, 51 per cent of their monthly food expenditure is covered by the transfer amount.

HEA Urban Baseline Report

The poorest host community households have significantly higher income levels than the poorest IDP households, and they can secure more semiskilled labour jobs that guarantee a stable source of cash. Additionally, the e-vouchers constitute a proportionally smaller percentage of host community households' overall annual income levels than those of the IDPs. As a result, host community households are less reliant on e-vouchers to supplement their needs.

The following section will look at the outcome analysis that was prepared for the urban livelihood zone in Maiduguri, comprising lower and intermediate urban areas, as discussed in the beginning of this report.

Outcome Analysis

Background on Outcome Analysis

One of the principal uses of HEA baseline information is to investigate the effects of hazards on future access to food and income, so that decisions can be taken about the most appropriate types of intervention to implement. The output of an outcome analysis is the 'projected outcome'.

Understanding how people have coped in the past provides a good basis for projecting their survival in the future. In order to create a projected outcome, three types of information are combined for the analysis; information on baseline access, information on hazard (such as factors affecting access to food and cash income) and information on coping strategies. The approach can be summarised as follows:

Baseline + Hazard + Coping = Outcome

HEA outcome analysis provides a detailed modelling of the total food or cash requirements needed to meet the minimum food energy requirements (i.e. 2,100 kilocalories per person per day) of households in different wealth groups. In order to determine the appropriate levels of external assistance that are required to protect households' food access and livelihood assets the model is based on the assumption that households prioritize meeting their minimum food energy requirement over other expenditure and that they avoid the use of destructive coping mechanisms. By leaving coping strategies out of the projected outcome, the intention is to establish that an intervention should occur before households resort to those strategies (e.g. prostitution, child labour, begging, excess charcoal production).

As mentioned in the introduction, HEA outcome analysis models households' ability to cope with a shock, in reference to two clearly defined thresholds.

The first – survival – threshold, assesses whether households can meet their food and cash needs to cover both food and non-food items necessary for survival in the short term. In the HEA baseline, the survival threshold is the cash required to purchase the cheapest staple grain and a pulse in addition to such basic items as salt and oil that are required to prepare food. In this outcome analysis, the staple grain selected for the survival basket is maize grain. Also included under the survival threshold is the cost of grinding the grain (required to prepare the food), and water for humans (if purchased during the baseline).

The livelihoods protection threshold is the total income required to sustain a locally-acceptable standard of living. This includes cash required to cover the food and non-food items in the survival basket in addition to the cash required to maintain basic access to services, sustain livelihoods in the medium to long term, and maintain a locally acceptable standard of living. The items included in the livelihoods protection basket are generated based on the key livelihoods expenditures in the baseline. Host community households possess a wider variety of baseline livelihoods protection expenditures, and they spend more than IDP households. For this reason, the items in the livelihoods protection basket differ between these two groups, as does the total Naira amount of the basket.

The items included in the livelihoods protection basket for hosts and IDPs are shown below.

Livelihoods protection basket items

Hosts	IDPs
• Tea • Salt • Soap • Sanitary napkins • School expenses (poor HH only) • Medicine	• Tea • Salt • Soap • Sanitary napkins • School expenses • Medicine • Cosmetics • Jewellery

HEA Urban Baseline Report

Programme Implications of Outcome Analysis Modelling for Maiduguri Urban Livelihood Zone

The primary objective of the outcome analysis conducted for very poor and poor host community and IDP households in Maiduguri was to model households' ability to meet their needs without cash or food assistance, and without recourse to negative coping strategies such as begging and charcoal sales. This is not intended to be used as an early warning, as outcome analyses typically are, but rather to feed into programme planning for decision-makers. Analysing the impact of eliminating coping strategies and cash assistance from households' food and cash income demonstrates the level of need among the IDP population.

The Livelihoods Integrated Analysis Spreadsheet (LIAS) used to generate and model the projected outcome was set to model food and income levels without access to coping strategies. This is because the only quantifiable coping strategies employed by households during the reference year were negative (such as receiving food from begging). Access to income-generating activities was set at 100 per cent of baseline access. This means that households were considered to have the same level of access to these activities as during the baseline reference year (the twelve-month period prior to the HEA study). The analysis therefore excludes the percentage contribution to both cash and food income that was generated from the aforementioned negative coping strategies during the baseline.

The impact of seasonality on livelihoods activities was not a particularly important factor during this baseline, since the most vulnerable households among the host and IDPs were not typically engaged in crop production during the reference year. However, household purchasing power was certainly influenced by the seasonal fluctuations in prices, as well as the depreciation of the Naira towards the end of the reference year. It is important to note, however, that agricultural and livestock-rearing activities were an important source of livelihood both for host community households and the displaced before the insurgency began.

The data gathered in this baseline refers to a specific reference year, in an urban zone within a humanitarian emergency context. Therefore, it is critical to note that the results of the baseline and the outcome analysis are specific to this particular context. An analysis of seasonality would be appropriate for a different livelihood zone, in a context where households have not ceased to cultivate due to insecurity.

The table below highlights the amount, in Nigerian Naira per year, required to cover IDP households' survival and livelihoods protection thresholds. Poor households are regularly purchasing water during the reference year. This expense is included under the survival threshold for poor IDPs, which explains why the poor have a higher survival threshold than the very poor.

IDP households – annual per household thresholds in Nigerian Naira

	Very poor	Poor
Survival	332,451	445,358
LH protection	336,444	453,935

The figure for the livelihoods protection threshold includes the total survival threshold, plus the extra cash required to cover livelihoods protection expenditures. The livelihoods protection amount for very poor IDPs is 3,993 Naira per year. Poor IDP households' livelihoods protection amount is 8,577 Naira per year. The figure for the livelihoods protection threshold includes the total expenditure on survival (Staple and non-staple food) needs, plus the extra cash required to cover other non-survival household expenditures such as education, medicine, and basic household items. This amount is based on each wealth group's baseline spending.

The table below highlights the amount, in Nigerian Naira per year, required to cover host community households' survival and livelihoods protection thresholds. Both poor and very poor host community households are regularly purchasing water during the reference year and as a result, this expense was included in their survival basket.

Host community households – annual per household thresholds in Nigerian Naira

	Very poor	Poor
Survival	444,509	503,378
LH protection	494,188	574,577

The livelihoods protection amount for very poor hosts is 49,679 Naira per year. Poor households' livelihoods protection amount is 71,199 Naira per year.

According to the parameters introduced to the LIAS as mentioned at the beginning of this section, only very poor and

HEA Urban Baseline Report

poor IDP households are facing survival and livelihoods protection deficits. Host community households are facing neither a survival nor a livelihoods protection deficit. This means that, with baseline access and coping strategies taken into account, host community households have sufficient income to meet 100 per cent of their kilocalorie needs, as well as to cover their essential livelihoods expenditures.

Very poor and poor IDP households, as previously noted, are earning significantly below the levels of their host counterparts. Moreover, the proportion of annual income coming from NGO e-vouchers is significantly higher for IDPs than for hosts. NGO e-vouchers constitute 30 per cent of very poor IDP annual income, and 24 per cent of poor IDP annual income. Because IDP households are far more reliant on NGO vouchers than host community households, extracting this income from their total annual income results in a significant deficit.

Without access to NGO vouchers or begging, very poor households would face a survival deficit of 15 per cent while the poor IDP households would face 2 per cent survival deficit. According to IPC phase classification, very poor and poor IDP households with survival deficits under 20% would be placed under IPC phase 3. Both very poor and poor IDP households are facing livelihoods protection deficits. Among the IDP population in the LGAs of Jere and MMC, 71 per cent of the population could be considered under IPC phase 3 or higher.

It is important to consider that neither very poor nor poor IDP households were meeting 100 per cent of their kilocalorie needs during the reference year. Indeed, very poor IDP households were only able to reach above 90 per cent of their food needs during the reference year by sending children to beg for food, a negative coping strategy. As a result, without cash assistance, very poor and poor IDP households are already facing a deficit. Host community households were not receiving any kilocalories from this source, and consequently this was not factored into the analysis of their food and income access.

The graph shown below depicts the baseline and current year access to cash income for very poor IDP households, i.e., the wealth group facing the most significant deficit.
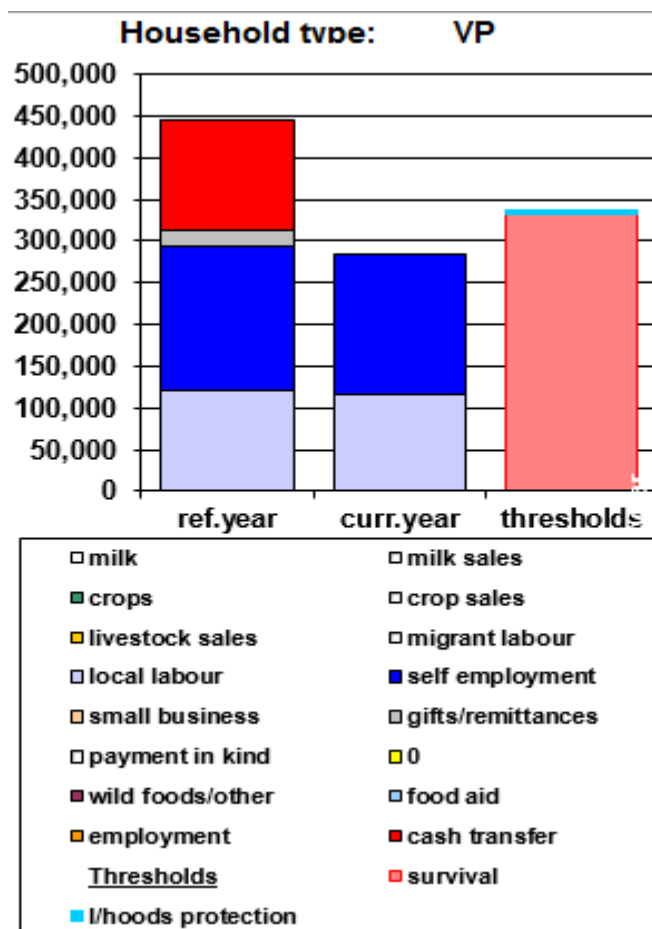
Very poor IDP baseline and current year cash income access compared with their survival and livelihoods protection thresholds.

The 'total income' shown in the left-hand column in the graph above refers to the total percentage of kilocalorie needs that are met **if all available income is used to exclusively purchase staple foods**. The calculation for 'total income' assumes that, in the event of a hazard, households will use the majority if not all of their remaining income to purchase food. As can be seen from the column in the middle – 'current year', i.e., the level of access households have without cash assistance – very poor IDP households are falling below their survival threshold. In other words, households have insufficient cash of their own to cover 100 per cent of their survival food and non-food needs.

The outcome analysis for the Maiduguri urban livelihood zone was completed using IOM displacement tracking data (Round XIV) for the total number of IDP households in MMC and Jere LGAs. The population data used for host community households is from Cadre Harmonisé 2016-2017 data.

HEA Urban Baseline Report

With 71 per cent of the IDP population of MMC and Jere at IPC phase 3 or higher, approximately 1,525 metric tonnes of staple food would be required to fill the survival deficit of households. If the survival deficit were to be filled with cash, 904,193[6] US Dollars would be required to purchase the necessary survival basket items. It is important to note that these figures are for this particular livelihood zone. Moreover, due to the difficulty in capturing accurate population data on IDPs, it is possible that the needs are indeed higher.

The final section of this report will outline programmatic recommendations based on the HEA data.

Recommendations

The results of an HEA baseline and outcome analysis can be used to support a variety of programmatic and technical objectives.

This section outlines briefly how the different elements of the HEA conducted in the Maiduguri Urban livelihood zone can be used in programme planning and implementation.

TARGETING

The HEA wealth breakdown details the factors that distinguish between poorer and better off households, according to locally-defined criteria. In an urban zone, as aforementioned, access to social, physical, and financial capital are the key determinants of household wealth. The wealth breakdown section in both the host community and IDP sections of this report contains the key characteristics that distinguish between wealth groups. Between the host and IDP communities, the main differences include the total income level, and household size. Within each of the communities, type of income-generating activity is critical to determining whether a household is poor or very poor. Incorporating the specific determinants of very poor and poor households into beneficiary selection criteria during registration at the community level permits humanitarian practitioners to target the most vulnerable households within the community.

The key criteria for targeting both IDP and host community households are shown in the table below.

IDP Key targeting criteria

	Very Poor	Poor
Income	• At least 20% of income from self-employment (cap-knitting, water vending) • Earning income from firewood sales • Receiving cash from begging	• At least 40% of income from construction-related work
Food	• Receiving food from begging • At least 70% of income spent on food	• At least 70% of income spent on food

Host Key targeting criteria

	Very Poor	Poor
Income	• At least 30% of income from construction-related work • Earning income from firewood sales	• At least 70% of income from construction-related work
Food	• At least 70% of income spent on food	• At least 70% of income spent on food

OUTCOME MEASUREMENT

HEA data provides relevant and useful information on household key income sources, expenditure sources, and food preferences. These elements could be used to define outcome indicators for programme monitoring and development. However, in the context of protracted displacement in Maiduguri, where continuous population movement and a lack of community cohesion are common, using HEA data to determine outcome indicators may be difficult.

MONITORING

Key parameters, in HEA, are sources of food or cash that contribute at least 5 per cent to the total food or cash income of one wealth group, or at least 10 per cent to the total food or cash income of more than one wealth group. Determining key parameters enables practitioners to understand which factors are directly and indirectly affected

---

HEA Urban Baseline Report

by a particular shock or hazard[7]. The importance of establishing key parameters is to have an indication of how total access would change if these factors were affected. A reduction in access to any of these key parameters would disproportionately reduce a household's ability to meet their needs. This is particularly the case in a situation of conflict and displacement, where households already struggle to meet their minimum needs.

In an urban area, wage labour rates, as well as informal and self-employment rates will likely be key parameters due to the fact that households rely heavily on non-agricultural income-generating activities. In addition, firewood and charcoal prices and production levels are also likely to be key parameters. The aforementioned factors will be both directly and indirectly affected by the impact of a hazard. For example, firewood production may rise as households increasingly turn to this coping strategy to make ends meet.

The key parameters for both IDP and host community households are listed in the table below. These should be monitored to indicate potential losses or gains to local household economies, either through on-going monitoring systems or through periodic assessments. Knowing how much households can expect to earn from these activities – and whether the rates are being affected by the influx of displaced households – is critical to understanding how household purchasing power will be affected.

IDP key parameters

	Very Poor	Poor
Cash income	• Agricultural labour (cultivation & harvest) • Domestic work • Firewood/charcoal • Petty trade • Self-employment (water vending, handicrafts) • NGO e-vouchers	• Agricultural labour (cultivation) • Construction work • Petty trade • Self-employment (handicrafts) • NGO e-vouchers
'Other' food	• Food from begging	N/A

Host key parameters

	Very Poor	Poor
Cash income	• Construction work (house construction, digging latrines) • Domestic work • Petty trade • Self-employment (handicrafts, hair weaving, water vendor)	• Construction work (house construction, painting, roofing, brick production) • Petty trade • Self-employment (handicrafts) • NGO e-vouchers

Additionally, key expenditure items for each wealth group can be extracted from the baseline data. This can help to determine which are the main items that require monitoring as part of households' key food and non-food expenditures.

Key expenditure items for Host and IDP households

	Non-food
IDPs	Salt, soap, grinding, water (poor HH only), school (poor HH only), medicine, transport, radio batteries, phones, phone credit, sanitary items
Hosts	Tea, salt, soap, grinding, water, school, medicine, transport, rent, radio batteries, phone credit, festivals, electricity, sanitary items

FOOD BASKET

There are multiple elements of the HEA baseline that can be used to determine the items within the food basket. The two baskets that are typically generated in an HEA study are the survival and livelihoods protection baskets. However, the survival basket calculates only the cost of covering 100% of minimum staple and non-staple needs as defined by the HEA basket – i.e., the main staple, pulse, oil, salt, grinding costs (if appropriate), and water (if purchased). The HEA outcome analysis process allows for the inclusion of only one key staple in the survival basket. The key staple selected for this

---

survival basket is maize grain. This is because it is the cheapest staple grain, as well as the one that contributes the largest percentage of kilocalorie needs to the majority of households. It is also the staple of preference for the poorest households. Household consumption preferences can be determined using HEA baseline data.

The Naira amount for each wealth group's survival basket (indicated above in the outcome analysis section, and shown in the table below) provides an indicative yearly amount required to meet the survival needs for a typical household in each wealth group.

IDP households – annual per household survival threshold in Nigerian Naira

	Very poor	Poor
Survival	332,451	445,358

For instance, for a typical very poor IDP household of six people people, the monthly survival threshold is approximately 27,704 Naira[8]. Per person, the monthly survival amount is therefore 4,617 Naira[9]. The per person amount can be used as an indicative per capita transfer amount. However, this depends both on the items in the basket, and the person (i.e., whether they are a child, or adult[10]). If using a per capita transfer to vulnerable households, it is possible to use an average monthly HEA survival basket amount based on the average of the very poor and poor survival basket amounts.

However, it is important to note that these household sizes will differ within and across wealth groups. HEA defines what is most common among each wealth group. As such, the survival threshold amounts for each of the wealth groups should be considered indicative of household needs, rather than as set amounts upon which to base a transfer value. This is also due to the fact that the items in the HEA basket will likely differ somewhat from the items included in typical NGO food baskets.

A short guide on how to use the HEA survival basket amounts in conjunction with per capita transfer values modelled with the Cost of the Diet software will be produced by Save the Children to accompany the

harmonisation work being carried out for the emergency response in Borno.

LIVELIHOODS OPPORTUNITIES

The livelihoods of IDPs are likely to remain precarious within the context of displacement, as households are uncertain whether or when they can return home. Earning a decent wage is very challenging for female-headed households in particular, due to their limited physical capital, and their additional childcare responsibilities.

Women tend to engage in income-generating activities that require some start-up capital, such as cap-knitting, and petty trade. They do not generally earn much income from these activities on a monthly basis. For petty trade, they must purchase their sundry items from the market, and for cap-knitting they must also purchase the thread, cloth, and needle to make their caps. Moreover, due to the lower quality of the caps produced by IDPs, these women do not generate much income from their sale.

Women who are relying solely on income-generating activities such as petty trade could be provided with conditional grants to expand their business. Combined with vocational skills training that could provide the opportunity to improve and diversify their skills, would aslo empower them to negotiate for improved market prices for their products.

As skilled labour is a significant determinant of household wealth, building the skills of vulnerable males in these trades, while creating links with market actors would also significantly impact longer-term income earning opportunities.

As such, it would be advisable to analyse in greater detail the value chain of the livelihoods options of IDP households, and compare them with the feasibility of the livelihoods activities of the host community, in order to determine what livelihood strategies exist for displaced households in the medium to long term.

---

[8] 332,451 Naira per year divided by 12 months per year = 27,704 Naira per month.
[9] 27,704 Naira per month divided by six people per household = 4,617 Naira per person per month.

[10] Different household members will have different food consumption needs based on their age, weight, and level of activity.

HEA Urban Baseline Report

Female IDPs knitting caps for sale in their local community, Jiddari Polo.

Moreover, seasonality was not considered in the outcome analysis, because it did not have a significant impact on households' income-generating activities during the reference year. However, seasonal price fluctuations must be considered to determine transfer value. These fluctuations, as well as the inflation rate were taken into consideration during the outcome analysis.

Finally, HEA outcome analysis data identifies total cash and food requirements to meet household kilocalorie and cash gap for households within the defined livelihood zone, but not the total funding gap needed for a response.

Limitations of the HEA data

The HEA data presented in this report can provide a useful and informative basis for the development of program activities such as targeting, developing the food basket and transfer value, and setting monitoring items. However, there are limitations to the data itself, and the way in which it can be used.

To begin with, the HEA data is valid only for the livelihood zone in which the data collection was completed. This will likely differ from the areas of intervention targeted for each organization. Moreover, this HEA did not assess middle and better off households. However, wealth group characteristics identified during the household interviews can be used to improve targeting within communities.

HEA can inform the setting of transfer amounts, but food basket composition must incorporate nutritional assessments of individual goods, prices, and availability. The items included in the HEA survival basket are also likely different from the baskets determined per organization. The items used to calculate the survival deficit for this HEA are: maize grain, beans, salt, and oil. As such, the survival deficit amounts shown in this report should be taken as an indicative, rather than a set amount for a transfer value.

The HEA baseline includes income earned from negative coping strategies. The outcome analysis does not. Thus, the fact that a household does not face a survival deficit does not imply that they are not vulnerable; it demonstrates the extent to which they are relying on unsustainable strategies to cope with a shock. All response analysis must factor this in.

References

2007. The Food Economy Group. *The Practitioner's Guide to HEA*

2008. Save the Children Fund and The Food Economy Group. *The Household Economy Approach: A guide for programme planners and policy-makers.*

2016. World Food Programme. *Emergency Food and Nutrition Security Assessment in Maiduguri Urban Area – Borno State, Nigeria.*