Internal Displacement

Global Overview of Trends and Developments in 2010
Internally displaced people worldwide December 2010

- Mexico
  - About 120,000

- Serbia
  - About 225,000

- Croatia
  - 2,300

- Bosnia and Herzegovina
  - 113,400

- FYR Macedonia
  - 650

- Cyprus
  - Up to 208,000

- Israel
  - Undetermined

- Occupied Palestinian Territory
  - At least 160,000

- Algeria
  - Undetermined

- Chad
  - 171,000

- Senegal
  - 10,000–40,000

- Liberia
  - Undetermined

- Côte d’Ivoire
  - Undetermined

- Nigeria
  - Undetermined

- Niger
  - Undetermined

- Togo
  - Undetermined

- Democratic Republic of the Congo
  - Up to 7,800

- CAR
  - Undetermined

- Sudan
  - 4,500,000–5,200,000

- Republic of the Congo
  - Up to 7,800

- South Sudan
  - Undetermined

- CAR
  - Undetermined

- Angola
  - Undetermined

- Zambia
  - 570,000–1,000,000

- Zimbabwe
  - 570,000–1,000,000

- Colombia
  - 3,600,000–5,200,000

- Peru
  - About 150,000

- CAR
  - 192,000

- Eritrea
  - About 10,000

- Ethiopia
  - About

- Malawi
  - Undetermined

- Uganda
  - At least 166,000

- Kenya
  - About 250,000

- Turkey
  - 954,000–1,201,000

- Georgia
  - Up to 258,000

- Armenia
  - At least 8,000

- Azerbaijan
  - At least 595,000

- Uzbekistan
  - About

- Turkmenistan
  - Undetermined

- Afghanistan
  - At least 75,000

- Pakistan
  - At least 980,000

- Nepal
  - At least 10,000

- India
  - At least 650,000

- Bangladesh
  - Undetermined

- Lebanon
  - At least 76,000

- Somalia
  - About 1,500,000

- India
  - At least 650,000

- Sri Lanka
  - At least 327,000

- Myanmar
  - At least 446,000

- Indonesia
  - At least 200,000

- Russian Federation
  - At least 352,000

- Kyrgyzstan
  - About 75,000

- Pakistan
  - At least 980,000

- Nepal
  - At least 10,000

- India
  - At least 650,000

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  - At least 76,000

- Somalia
  - About 1,500,000
Internal Displacement

Global Overview of Trends and Developments in 2010

March 2011
Children at the displacement camp of Karehe. Displaced Burundians have been settled here by the government since 1998, but are still without a permanent solution. (Photo: IDMC/Barbara McCallin, November 2010)

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About this report

This Global Overview begins with a section on quantitative global figures and trends, followed by discussion of some themes which came to the fore in 2010. These are followed by five regional sections bringing together summaries of the internal displacement situations in the regions’ affected countries.

Note on figures and information

The findings of this report are based on IDMC’s monitoring in 2010 of internal displacement situations caused by armed conflict, generalised violence and human rights violations.

IDMC has compiled data from national governments, UN and other international organisations, national and international NGOs, human rights organisations and media reports. It has also gathered information during field missions to a number of countries in 2010.

While all efforts have been made to present the most accurate and updated information, in many countries with internal displacement there is only limited or outdated information available on the number of IDPs and their conditions. This is particularly the case in situations where there has been little or no monitoring of the conditions of IDPs, and where disaggregated data is unavailable because profiling of the internally displaced population has not been carried out. Information on IDP settlement options and their achievement of durable solutions also remains very limited.

Guide to country pages

The country pages include short summaries of the internal displacement situation in countries monitored by IDMC in 2010. A few countries mentioned in the regional annexes do not have corresponding country pages, because there is little or no new information on changes in the internal displacement situation in these countries since the end of 2009. More information on these countries can be found at the IDMC website: http://www.internal-displacement.org

The maps and tables are intended to make the essential information on a situation of internal displacement accessible at a glance. A key to the maps and symbols can be found on the inside of the flap on the back cover. On some country pages, where the maps are blank or have only one type of shading, there is too little information to be able to specify areas of origin, displacement or both.

New displacements and returns in 2010 are noted where they were specifically reported; however the actual number of new displacements or returns may well be higher. Reports of returns do not necessarily indicate that IDPs have found durable solutions to their displacement.

In the quick facts section, the estimated number of IDPs is rounded (for example, to the nearest hundred or ten thousand) according to the size of the population displaced.

Where the estimated number is given, the percentage of the country population is also included. Percentages are based on the country population figures listed in UNFPA’s State of World Population 2010 at www.unfpa.org/swp. It should be noted that there is some uncertainty over the population of several countries in this report and using other available population estimates would give significantly different percentage results.

In countries where the number of IDPs has been significantly larger in the past, the highest recorded number and year are noted.

The causes of displacement listed include armed conflict, situations of generalised violence, violations of human rights, and deliberate policies or practices of arbitrary displacement.

The UNDP’s Human Development Index ranking gives an idea of the level of development of a country based on the population’s life expectancy, literacy, educational attainment, and the gross domestic product per capita. Countries with a ranking of up to 85 are considered highly developed, and those with a ranking between 128 and 169 are the least developed countries in the list. A small number of countries facing ongoing conflict are not ranked.

Glossary

AU African Union
EU European Union
ICRC International Committee of the Red Cross
IOM International Organization for Migration
OCHA United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
OHCHR Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
RSG on IDPs Representative of the UN Secretary-General on the human rights of internally displaced persons
UNDP United Nations Development Programme
UN-HABITAT United Nations Human Settlements Programme
UNHCHR Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF United Nations Children’s Fund
UNSC United Nations Security Council
WFP United Nations World Food Programme
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<td>27.5 million</td>
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<td>Africa (11.1 million IDPs in 21 countries)</td>
</tr>
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<td>At least 18</td>
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**IDP figures**

- At the end of 2010, the number of people internally displaced across the world by armed conflict, generalised violence and human rights violations reached 27.5 million. This figure represented an increase of about 400,000 internally displaced people (IDPs) since the end of 2009.
- The global number of IDPs has steadily increased from a total of around 17 million in 1997. The number of refugees has remained fairly stable, fluctuating between 13 million and 16 million in the same period.
- Over half the world’s IDPs were in five countries. Colombia and Sudan, Iraq, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) and Somalia all had at least a million IDPs. In Pakistan there were at least 980,000 IDPs in 2010.
- At least 2.9 million people were newly displaced and at least 2.1 million returned during 2010.
- The region with the most IDPs was Africa, with 11.1 million IDPs at the end of the year, or 40 per cent of the world’s IDPs. Over 40 per cent of them were in Sudan.
- The total number of IDPs in Africa was 500,000 lower than at the end of 2009; however, large new displacements were reported in countries including Sudan (490,000), DRC (at least 400,000) and Somalia (at least 300,000).
- There were 5.4 million IDPs in the Americas, with the increase of 400,000 during 2010 primarily due to the increase in the number of IDPs in Colombia.
- In South and South-East Asia, there were 4.6 million IDPs at the end of the year, 300,000 more than in 2009. New displacements in the region were reported in countries including Afghanistan, India, Indonesia, Myanmar, Pakistan and the Philippines, where most people were displaced by ongoing armed conflicts.
- In the Middle East, there were 3.9 million IDPs at the end of 2010, approximately 100,000 more than in 2009; new displacements were reported primarily in Yemen.
- In Europe and Central Asia, there were 2.5 million IDPs, representing an increase of less than 100,000. The only new displacement was in Kyrgyzstan.
- At least 2.1 million IDPs were able to return to their home areas in 2010. The largest returns took place in DRC (500,000), Pakistan (400,000), Uganda (271,000), Kyrgyzstan (225,000), Sri Lanka (150,000), Sudan (120,000), Côte d’Ivoire and Yemen (90,000 each) and the Philippines (75,000). Together these nine countries accounted for 95 per cent of the recorded returns in 2010. No return figures were available for the Americas region.

**Protection**

- People from a minority group were at greater risk of being displaced, and they frequently experienced discrimination during their displacement. As members of minorities, IDPs have less access to formal and informal support and protection.
- Many IDPs encountered discrimination due to policies and practices which either targeted displaced communities, or failed to consider their distinct needs and so put them at a disadvantage.
- Many indigenous or pastoralist groups with a particularly strong attachment to their land were displaced in 2010, for example in Afghanistan, Colombia, Ethiopia, Kenya and Somalia. The impact of their displacement was disproportionately severe.
- Discrimination added to the vulnerability of IDPs with particular needs, such as children, members of female-headed households, disabled and older people, in many countries.
- In many countries, discrimination prevented IDPs from enjoying their rights to adequate housing, employment, education and health care. IDPs across the world had extreme difficulty in getting redress for their loss of housing and land.
- In at least 27 countries in 2010, displaced children were unable to access education because of fees, damaged infrastructure, and other displacement-related factors.
- In 2010, IDPs in many countries experienced violations of their right to physical security, as they were subjected to violence including sexual violence, abduction, forced relocation and arbitrary arrest. In many cases, IDPs who returned to areas of origin found that they still faced threats to physical security, which forced them to flee again.
- In 2010, displaced children in at least 18 countries faced threats to their physical security while exercising their right to education. Children in Afghanistan, for instance, faced the risk of physical violence and attack when travelling to and from school.
The insecurity which IDPs faced in displacement also reduced the chance of assistance reaching them, and had a drastic impact on their access to essential support. Attacks or threats against humanitarian workers continued in many situations including Darfur in Sudan, Afghanistan, Yemen, Somalia and Colombia.

In 2010, the recruitment of children into armed groups continued to cause internal displacement and also to threaten families in displacement. In at least 11 countries in 2010, children were recruited by armed groups, with internally displaced children especially at risk of recruitment. In 2010, there were reports of recruitment in or around IDP camps and settlements in Colombia, in North Kivu in eastern DRC, in Afghanistan, Chad, Somalia and elsewhere.

Urban displacement

- Significant numbers of IDPs were living in urban areas in all except a few of the countries which IDMC monitored in 2010. However humanitarian and development agencies have tended to target IDPs in rural areas, and often failed to assess or meet the protection needs of IDPs in urban areas.

- After arriving in urban areas, IDPs often became dispersed among the wider population. New methodologies are increasingly being used to identify their needs through surveys of the wider population, which avoid singling out IDPs who may wish to remain anonymous.

- Many IDPs seeking safety in urban areas continued to face discrimination, violence and exploitation. Failing to become self-reliant in urban areas, some members of marginalised internally displaced groups such as widows and children may be left with no choice but to engage in economic activities that threaten their physical security and integrity.

- Where IDPs are identified as having similar needs to other vulnerable urban groups, a community-based response should be favoured; interventions should still be targeted to respond to the specific needs of IDPs.

Durable solutions

- In 2010, situations of protracted displacement persisted in about 40 countries. The process of finding durable solutions was stalled, and/or IDPs were marginalised as a result of the lack of protection of their rights.

- IDPs were rarely in a position to make an informed and voluntary choice between return, local integration and settlement elsewhere. This was often because authorities favoured return over the other settlement options, even in where return was not possible. However, governments of some countries such as Cyprus, Georgia, Iraq, Colombia and Peru gave increasing support to local integration in 2010 and enabled IDPs to access their rights in their locations of displacement.

- Insecurity of tenure was one of the most widespread obstacles to the sustainable integration of IDPs across the world, and IDPs in several countries were evicted in 2010 from housing in processes that did not respect international norms.

- IDPs in many countries had little or no access to formal justice procedures in 2010. Many turned to customary processes, which were more accessible and also tended to facilitate reconciliation between parties. However, people from outside local communities, and displaced women and girls, faced further discrimination in customary courts. Certain elements of customary justice remained in conflict with basic principles of international human rights law.

Responses

- In all regions, some governments took significant measures to meet their responsibility to protect IDPs within their jurisdiction. Nonetheless, the agents of displacement in almost half the internal displacement situations were government forces or armed groups allied with them.

- At the end of 2010, 17 countries had national policies specifically for IDP protection. While in countries such as Burundi and Georgia, progress was being made in implementing the policies, in others such as Nepal and Sudan, they were not being implemented.

- Africa is the continent that has made the most progress in developing legal mechanisms to protect IDPs. At the end of 2010, Uganda, Sierra Leone, Chad and the Central African Republic had ratified the African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of IDPs in Africa, while several others had embarked on a ratification process.

- A regional initiative was launched in the Americas in 2010. The Brasilia Declaration included some elements relevant towards IDPs. Other regional groupings such as ASEAN did not take actions to protect IDPs.

- The humanitarian coordination mechanism known as the cluster system was introduced in Yemen and in Southern Sudan in 2010. While in some countries existing clusters strengthened response, in others they had limited success, especially when the process remained centralised.

- In 2010, the UN Security Council increasingly advocated in support of durable solutions for IDPs; it recognised that such measures should be coordinated with security sector reform and disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration in the context of a search for peace and stability.
Introduction

Since 1998 the Norwegian Refugee Council’s Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre has monitored internal displacement resulting from conflict and violence. During this period, the number of internally displaced persons has steadily risen from around 17 million to 27.5 million in 2010.

Displacement continues to rise in the Americas, Asia, Europe and the Middle East. But the good news is that this year’s Global Overview shows a steady decline in IDP numbers in Africa, dating back from 2004. This positive trend gives us hope. Indeed, the African continent remains at the forefront of policy development in support of IDP rights. In 2009, the African Union adopted the Kampala Convention – the first ever instrument for the protection and assistance of IDPs to bind countries across a whole continent. The Convention needs to be ratified by 15 African Union member states in order to enter into force, and we should all contribute to making that happen.

These positive developments aside, the exceedingly high number of IDPs globally is a reflection of perpetual conflicts and evolving patterns of armed violence which, when taken together, produce ever more displacement. Sadly, once people have been displaced by conflict and violence, the majority of them remain locked in situations of protracted displacement, often with limited prospects of rebuilding their lives or finding durable solutions.

The Global Overview outlines the particular challenges faced by internally displaced people trapped in situations of chronic conflict and violence, such as in Somalia, Yemen, Afghanistan, and Colombia. In these highly complex security environments, persons in displacement not only risk their lives in the midst of armed violence, but also struggle to meet their basic needs and access their human rights.

An important shift in the nature of contemporary conflict is that criminal armed violence is growing exponentially, and more people are killed each year as a result of generalised armed violence than in traditional armed conflicts. This, combined with a strong trend of urban displacement, means that governments and humanitarian actors alike need to develop innovative approaches to protecting IDPs.

In the international community, there is often minimal focus on IDPs beyond the acute humanitarian emergency. Protracted displacement situations, in places such as India, Colombia, Kenya, Iraq, Turkey, and the Balkan countries, require sustained commitment and engagement by governments to respond to the needs and risks faced by IDPs. Only through effective government action can responses be devised that provide effective, long term protection of IDPs, which ultimately need to enable IDPs to reach the durable solution of their own choice. In a majority of cases, governments lack the capacity, resources – and sometimes the will – to enable such choices to be made. Consistent support is therefore required to assist governments in meeting their responsibilities towards their own internally displaced populations.

We are very proud to present this year’s edition of the Global Overview, and thank all those whose support and engagement make IDMC’s work possible.

Kate Halff
Head of the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre,
Norwegian Refugee Council

Elisabeth Rasmusson
Secretary General, Norwegian Refugee Council
Global developments in 2010
Global figures and trends

At the end of 2010, the number of people internally displaced by armed conflict, generalised violence and human rights violations stood at approximately 27.5 million worldwide. Their number had risen from a total of 27.1 million at the end of 2009.

As the chart below shows, this increase over the course of 2010 reflected a longer-term upward trend over the past decade, from around 25 million in 2001. The global number of internally displaced people (IDPs) had been as high as 27 million in the mid-1990s, but subsequently well below 20 million.

From 2006, UNHCR assumed a lead role in the protection of IDPs in complex emergencies, and by 2009, UNHCR was providing protection and assistance to 15.6 million IDPs.

While the global number of IDPs has continued to rise, the number of refugees worldwide has steadily fallen over the past two decades to around 15 million. The latest available figure, for 2009, was 15.2 million.

Patterns of internal displacement

In almost all the countries monitored by IDMC, IDPs were living in both urban and rural areas. In 90 per cent of situations monitored, the presence of IDPs in urban areas was documented. There were a few exceptions such as Burundi, Ethiopia and Laos where they were more or less all in rural communities, and Algeria, Eritrea and Lebanon, where they were all in urban communities. In about half the countries, IDPs were both dispersed and in gathered settings such as camps and collective centres, while in the rest they were all in dispersed settings. The majority of IDPs in the world lived outside gathered settings.

In countries where IDPs were living in both gathered and dispersed settings, national authorities and humanitarian actors were twice as likely to provide assistance and protection to IDPs in gathered settings than to those in dispersed settings. In two-thirds of these countries, most IDPs in dispersed settings had no support beyond that of the host family or community, even though the primary duty to provide humanitarian assistance to IDPs lies with national authorities.

In over two-thirds of countries where the government or humanitarian or development actors were providing assistance to IDPs, there had been no recent exercise to profile the age, sex and location of the displaced population. In many countries in 2010, there was similarly a continuing lack of information...
on the condition of IDPs and their needs, whether during an emergency phase or in a post-conflict situation. Their needs were consistently monitored in only about 40 per cent of situations worldwide.

The displacement in most countries was caused by conflict between governments and armed groups, or by generalised violence, which had often become widespread in countries where armed conflict had formally ended.

In almost half the situations of displacement, the agents of displacement were either government forces or armed groups associated with the government. In more than a quarter of situations, the agents of displacement were armed groups opposed to the government. In the remaining situations, international or foreign armed forces were involved, or the displacement was caused by generalised violence involving ethnic groups, as in Kyrgyzstan, or armed groups such as the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA) in south Sudan and drug cartels in Mexico.

Despite people’s fundamental right not to be displaced except in very specific situations (see the box above), several governments and in some cases non-state armed groups carried out deliberate policies and practices of arbitrary displacement in 2010. Such policies and practices were most often found in the Middle East, followed by Asia and Europe. They were reported in only four countries in Africa, and none in the Americas.

Deliberate policies and practices of arbitrary displacement

The Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement bring together the rights of IDPs and the responsibilities of national authorities and non-state actors towards them. Guiding Principle 6 underlines that every human being has the right to be protected against being arbitrarily displaced from his or her home or place of habitual residence. It further notes that displacement is arbitrary in cases such as:

- When policies are aimed to alter ethnic, religious or racial composition or have this result;
- In armed conflict, unless civilian security or military necessity so demand;
- When used as a collective punishment.

Despite people’s fundamental right not to be displaced, in 2010, there were around 2.9 million people displaced across the continent in countries such as Sudan, where 490,000 people were newly displaced; in the south, due to inter-tribal fighting and attacks by the LRA, and in Darfur as a result of clashes between rebel factions and government troops, as well as conflict between anti-government forces.

At least 400,000 people were newly displaced in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) due to fighting between militia groups and the army supported by the UN, and violence against civilians by various parties to the conflict.

In Somalia, at least 300,000 people were internally displaced in 2010 during fighting between government troops, supported by AU peacekeepers, and armed groups. Smaller displacement movements were reported in countries such as Nigeria, Senegal and Côte d’Ivoire.

In the Americas, almost 400,000 people were newly displaced in 2010, 100,000 more than in the previous year. Threats from armed groups caused over half of the approximately 280,000 new displacements in Colombia, while assassinations, massacres and confrontations between combatants were other significant causes. Around 115,000 people were displaced from the Mexican states of Chihuahua and Tamaulipas, due to fighting among drug cartels which affected the civilian population.

South and South-East Asia saw a significant drop in the number of new displacements reported in 2010. This was due primarily to a fall in the number of new displacements in Pakistan after the massive displacement of three million people in 2009. Nonetheless, about 400,000 were newly displaced there in 2010, of almost 800,000 people newly displaced across the region. In central India, over 100,000 people were newly displaced by conflict between government forces and Maoist insurgents, ethnic conflicts in the country’s north-eastern states, and by communal violence. About 102,000 people were reported to have been newly displaced in Afghanistan mainly in the context of armed clashes between international military forces and insurgent groups. New displacements were also reported in Myanmar, the Philippines, Indonesia, Laos and Bangladesh.

In the Middle East, where the number of new displacements was barely lower than in 2009, the largest new movement of 176,000 people was in Yemen where there was internal armed conflict ongoing in the north, a separatist movement growing in the south, and a resurgence of armed groups. Smaller movements were also reported in the Occupied Palestinian Territory (OPT).

All the new displacement in Europe and Central Asia was due to the violence in Kyrgyzstan between ethnic Uzbek and Kyrgyz communities, which displaced an estimated 300,000 people in 2010; no new displacements had been reported in this region in 2009.

Reported returns and other movements

By the end of 2010, in 85 per cent of countries monitored by IDMC, at least some IDPs remained in protracted displacement, however, over two million people had been able to return to their areas of origin during the year. Once back at their areas of origin, many of the IDPs would start on the road to reintegration and to the eventual achievement of a durable solution to end
their displacement, while others might be forced to flee again if the causes of their displacement remained unaddressed or new causes emerged. Thus the number of reported returns or other movements may not correspond to the yearly change in estimated numbers of IDPs in countries, regions or globally.

Returns reported in 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>IDPs at end of 2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>At least 959,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Americas</td>
<td>No information available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South and South-East Asia</td>
<td>At least 660,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East</td>
<td>At least 212,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe and Central Asia</td>
<td>At least 227,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>At least 2,100,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In DRC, while some displaced people have sought to integrate locally, only return movements have been monitored; it was estimated that half a million IDPs returned in 2010. The vast majority of these returnees to North and South Kivu went back due to improvements in security in their home areas.

Improvements in security in northern Uganda since the 2006 cessation of hostilities between the government and LRA forces were also the reason for the return of 271,000 IDPs in 2010. In Southern Sudan, a major reason for people to return in 2010 was the 2011 referendum; 120,000 IDPs living in Khartoum returned to the south in November and December 2010 ahead of the January referendum. IDP returns were also reported in countries such as Cote d’Ivoire, Chad and CAR.

In South and South-East Asia, the largest returns took place in Pakistan, where 400,000 IDPs returned to Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA) and Khyber-Pukhtunkhwa (KP) Province in 2010 despite ongoing insecurity in these areas. At least 150,000 IDPs returned during the year in Sri Lanka, although the presence of landmines and unexploded ordnance in parts of the north forced some of the IDPs to remain in camps or with host families; and 75,000 people were reported to have returned to areas of origin in Mindanao region of the Philippines. Smaller return movements were also reported from countries such as Indonesia, India, Timor-Leste and Nepal.

The largest returns in the Middle East were around 92,500 in Iraq, and at least 90,000 in Yemen.

The returns in Europe and Central Asia were primarily in Kyrgyzstan where 225,000 of the 300,000 IDPs were estimated to have returned home shortly after the violence. Smaller number of returns were also reported in Kosovo and the Russian Federation.

None of the countries monitored by IDMC had reported figures on local integration of IDPs in 2010. The only numbers available related to settlement elsewhere in the country in 2010 were from Azerbaijan, where the government reportedly resettled a little over 7,000 IDPs.

Countries with the largest IDP populations

In five countries there were populations of more than a million IDPs at the end of 2010, the largest being in Colombia and Sudan. These were followed, as a year before, by Iraq, DRC and Somalia. Pakistan followed closely with at least 980,000 IDPs.

The changes in the numbers of IDPs in these six countries over the past decade reflect the evolution of the conflicts there. The decade ended with all the six countries having similar or much higher IDP figures than in 2001, with the exception of DRC. In some the conflicts continued and the levels of violence and displacement increased between 2001-2010, while in others conflict had officially ended or hostilities had waned during the decade, but another conflict had broken out or violence had continued. Sometimes people displaced by one conflict were displaced again by new conflict or violence; others never found durable solutions after conflicts ended, and their numbers joined those of people subsequently displaced by newer conflicts and violence.

In 2001, Angola and Sudan had the largest internally displaced populations, with four million IDPs or more; Colombia and DRC both had over two million. By the middle of the decade, in 2005, the estimated number had increased in Sudan and Colombia, and also in Uganda and Iraq to 1.7 million and 1.3 million respectively. The numbers in DRC had fallen a little to 1.7 million, and in Angola to a few tens of thousands.

In Sudan, at the start of the decade in 2001, there were four million IDPs from the civil war that began in 1983 between north and south Sudan. After the signature of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement in 2005, the armed conflict came to an end and people started to return to or within the south. Towards the end of the decade, the number of people who had returned from the north to the south or within the south reached two million. Nevertheless the total number of IDPs never fell below four million, because the war in Darfur, which started in 2003, displaced huge numbers of people. In 2008 there were an estimated 2.7 million IDPs in the region.

The total estimate of 4.5–5.2 million IDPs at the end of 2010 also included people displaced from the eastern states and people who were displaced again after returning, as well as people displaced more recently in the south by inter-communal and inter-tribal conflicts as well as LRA attacks.
In Colombia, the number of IDPs continued to climb through the decade. From 1999, two estimates based on different counting methods were used. According to the higher estimate, there were close to three million IDPs in 2003, about four million in 2007 and over five million by the end of 2010, reflecting continuing conflict and, increasingly, generalised violence. In 2002, when negotiations between the government and the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC) failed, the violence significantly worsened as the government scaled up its military campaign against armed groups. From 2006, armed groups which had been aligned with government forces were demobilised, but the groups which emerged in their place contributed to the continuing violence.

In Iraq, people were displaced prior to 2003 by actions of the former Ba’ath government. Their number rose significantly following the 2003 US-led invasion, but the biggest increase came during the sectarian violence that occurred in 2006 and 2007, when the total number reached two million for the first time. As of 2010, relatively few IDPs displaced by any of these causes had achieved durable solutions, and the number of IDPs stood almost two million more than at the start of the decade.

In DRC in the early years of the decade, large-scale displacement followed the fall-out between President Kabila and his former allies, Uganda and Rwanda, and the resulting conflict between government forces and rebel forces supported by those countries and Burundi in the east of the country, as well as a series of localised conflicts. The displacement peaked in 2003 when the total figure reached three million, but many people returned home after a transition government was established.

From 2004 onwards, in what is often described as the ‘post-war’ period in the country, high levels of displacement have followed military operations against armed groups and attacks by armed groups in the eastern provinces of North and South Kivu, although the displacement has never reached the same level as in the previous period.

The IDP figure in Somalia remained between 300,000 and 400,000 until 2007, when it went above a million for the first time in the decade. In December 2006, Ethiopian troops went into Somalia and fighting in Mogadishu and other areas steadily intensified. The Ethiopian troops left the country in 2009, but conflicts between armed groups and the Transitional Federal Government supported by AU peacekeepers has continued. A million more people were internally displaced in Somalia in 2010 than at the start of the decade.

Possibly the most dramatic increase during the decade was in Pakistan, where only a few thousand people were believed to be internally displaced by conflict around 2001, but at least 480,000 by 2008 and over 1.2 million by the end of 2009. Their number was estimated as at least 980,000 in 2010, with
figures from areas such as Balochistan unavailable as they were largely off-limits to humanitarian workers and the media. If figures from all parts of the country had been available, the actual number of IDPs in Pakistan may also have been over a million in 2010. While conflict and human rights violations had generated displacement, the massive increase towards the end of the decade was due to military operations which Pakistan’s security forces launched to counter the perceived threat to national security from armed groups in FATA and KP Province.

Large internally displaced populations were also identified in Turkey, India, Zimbabwe and Myanmar in 2010. In Turkey, between 954,000 and 1.2 million mostly Kurdish people were displaced between 1986 and 2005 due to the conflict between the Turkish army and Kurdish armed groups. Many were believed to still be living in displacement in 2010 without having found durable solutions.

A conservative estimate of the number of IDPs in India was at least 650,000 in 2010, but this was largely based on the number of people living in camps and registered there. The real figure was unknown as there is no central government monitoring agency and monitors have limited access to IDPs. Actual figures, however, are likely to be significantly higher than 650,000, particularly as in 2010, 310 of India’s 636 districts were experiencing some level of insurgent activity and armed conflicts, such as between the government and Maoist groups, continued after escalating during the last decade.

In Zimbabwe, the estimate in 2010 of between 570,000 and one million included people displaced due to Operation Murambatsvina in 2005, as well as farm workers and their families who had lost their homes and livelihoods since the start of the fast-track land reform programme which began in 2000 and continued through the decade. Some people may have been displaced by both these causes, and few people are likely to have found durable solutions by the end of the decade.

In rural areas of eastern Myanmar, where armed conflict has continued between government forces and ethnic armed groups, at least 446,000 people were estimated to be internally displaced in 2010. However, the actual figure may be much higher as a vast number of those displaced in past decades remain without a durable solution.

It is likely that there were other countries in 2010 where the actual number of IDPs was much higher than available figures suggested, but this could not be fully determined because many IDPs went unrecognised or were no longer considered to be displaced once they had returned to areas of origin, even if they had not achieved durable solutions.

Countries with large percentages of IDPs

Some countries, including some of those with the highest absolute numbers of IDPs, also had a markedly high proportion of their population internally displaced. Internal displacement would present significant demands on the capacities of the governments of these countries, and the host populations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>IDPs as percentage of population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Azerbaijan</td>
<td>Up to 6.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central African Republic</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>8% – 11.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>Up to 23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic Republic of the Congo</td>
<td>About 2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>About 6.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupied Palestinian Territory</td>
<td>At least 4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serbia</td>
<td>About 3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>10.5 – 13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>4.5 – 7.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An internally displaced family in Tumaco, Colombia. (Photo: NRC/ Erik Tresse, August 2010)
In two of the countries with the largest number of IDPs, Somalia and Sudan, more than one in ten people was internally displaced, while in Iraq and Colombia, almost one in every ten people was internally displaced according to some estimates.

Almost seven per cent of the population of Azerbaijan were internally displaced in 2010 due to the war with Armenia over the territory of Nagorno-Karabakh. Most had been displaced since 1994 or earlier, and this figure included children born to male IDPs since they had fled their homes. In Georgia, about six per cent of the population remained internally displaced by conflicts in the early 1990s or in 2008; and in Zimbabwe, which does not have any of the outward signs of other large displacement crises, such as camps for IDPs, as many as almost eight per cent of the total population were estimated to be internally displaced in 2010.

In the Central African Republic (CAR), over four per cent of the total population were living in displacement in 2010. Although the government of Israel does not generally recognise forced displacement in the Occupied Palestinian Territory, about four per cent of the Palestinian population in Gaza and the West Bank remained internally displaced in 2010.

Over three per cent of people in Serbia had fled Kosovo in 1999 and had remained displaced since then. Although the last wave of displacement in Cyprus was in 1974, IDPs may make up more than one-fifth of the total population. In the DRC, which was in a ‘post-war’ period and had seen lower levels of displacement in recent years as compared to a peak in 2003, 2.5 per cent of the country’s population still remained internally displaced.
Understanding the needs and concerns of IDPs

Information for IDP responses

In accordance with fundamental humanitarian principles, humanitarian aid should be based on a clear understanding of the needs of the affected population. A lack of core data, particularly related to age and sex, can lead humanitarian and development actors to face significant challenges in designing programmes that meet the needs of specific groups such as women, children, or older people. IDPs face specific protection risks, such as family separation and arbitrary deprivation of their housing, land and property; they are at a heightened risk of various forms of exploitation and often face difficulties accessing public services.

In 2010, many national authorities dedicated little effort to collecting data and it was difficult to obtain comprehensive information on the displaced population. Even in countries like Uganda, where IDP profiles were available, information on at risk groups such as older and disabled IDPs was still limited. In many instances, humanitarian and development agencies applied different methodologies to collect and analyse data, which made it difficult to compare results. Even less data was available on the conditions of IDPs in protracted displacement, and efforts to support durable solutions were generally based on incomplete, outdated or limited data.

Identifying particularly vulnerable individuals among the internally displaced population, such as people with disabilities, members of ethnic minorities, or separated family members, can enable humanitarian and development actors to provide the most targeted response. To this end, an IDP profiling exercise and a needs assessment can be conducted simultaneously to optimise resources, or one exercise can incorporate the methodologies necessary to obtain data for the other. Including other affected populations in the profiling exercise will provide an indication of whether IDPs, for example, live differently or are more vulnerable than non-IDPs. This is especially true in situations where IDPs find refuge with host communities. The findings can therefore inform policy makers on the most appropriate interventions and target groups.

Different methodologies can be combined to allow for more comprehensive analyses and to adapt to time, resources or security constraints. In Somalia, where access to IDPs is limited, data is obtained through population movement committees that track the movements of people in crisis areas, and extrapolated from logs used by health and food distribution centres. In the initial phases of an emergency, when the time available may be limited, rapid estimation methods combined with key informant interviews may be a feasible option to obtain a snapshot of the internally displaced population.

IDP profiling

An IDP profile is an overview of an internally displaced population which at a minimum shows the number of displaced persons disaggregated by age and sex and location. Additional data collected through profiling can include causes of displacement, patterns of displacement, and humanitarian and protection concerns of the IDPs.
Profiling exercises in 2010

The DRC and Yemen were two of the countries where JIPS supported profiling exercises in 2010. In North Kivu Province of the DRC, data collected from the exercises showed that residents had fled close to their place of origin or where they could live with other family members. Additionally, the majority of IDPs would go to their areas of origin during the day to engage in income-generation activities. In Sa’ada, Yemen, the profiling exercise revealed that 73% per cent of the respondents had become displaced because of armed conflict in or near their areas of origin. All the exercises showed the importance of building in-country capacity in setting up methodologically sound and context-appropriate routine monitoring and data collection systems.

In 2010, it was still common for humanitarian agencies to carry out rushed and poorly staffed profiling exercises in their geographical area of intervention or according to their mandates, and set up their own independent monitoring systems. Experience in DRC showed that data collection activities do not always yield results that are comparable, and sometimes do not provide a coherent analysis.

Compared to previous years, however, significant steps were made in 2010 towards harmonising data collection processes. A number of global initiatives were ongoing to build consensus on how to carry out common multi-sectoral assessments. Profiling data in operational settings provides much needed baseline information and contributes directly to common operational data sets.

Set up at the end of 2009, the Joint IDP Profiling Service (JIPS) has provided significant impetus to the inclusion of disaggregated data on displaced populations into inter-agency studies. The Service was born itself as an inter-agency initiative by IDMC/NRC, the Danish Refugee Council, UNFPA, UNHCR, IOM and OCHA.

JIPS was established to provide guidance to country teams or national governments on approaches and methodologies used in IDP profiling. The Service benefits from the accumulated experiences and expertise in profiling approaches and methodologies of different agencies and host country statistical institutions. Having a global coordinator has contributed to greater agreement by the majority of stakeholders on the approach to data collection.

Through missions, technical support and expert deployment, JIPS supported profiling exercises in nine countries in 2010. Responding to requests for support from the field or proactively advocating for the launch of profiling exercises in countries where data on displaced populations was crucially needed, JIPS was instrumental in improving the quality and quantity of IDP-related data throughout all phases of displacement.

In a field where there is very little existing data, it helped to develop methods to measure IDPs’ progress towards durable solutions. Using the Inter-Agency Framework on Durable Solutions for Internally Displaced Persons as a reference, a survey was conducted on a sample of the IDP population in the Achi sub-region in northern Uganda. The lack of data on the progress made by IDPs in reaching durable solutions has partly been explained by the lack of a common methodology to measure such progress. Testing the experience gained in Uganda elsewhere would help lead to a consolidated approach.

Advocacy for inclusion of profiling data in all evidence-based response to displacement will remain a central undertaking as will providing direct technical support to national authorities and country teams. To this effect, training staff involved in both decision-making and data collection and processing at the country and regional levels will prove key to ensure a certain degree of sustainability in the availability of disaggregated IDP data. Developing a network of experts drawn in from different sectors – from academia to national statistical institutions – will help mitigate the lack of experienced human resources when and where needed.

Identifying the needs of IDPs in urban areas

In 2010, more than half the world’s population was living in urban areas, and virtually all the population growth projected over the next 30 years is expected in urban areas. The global trend of urbanisation has seen migration from rural to urban areas, but also migration forced in many countries by conflicts and natural disasters. Significant numbers of people internally displaced by conflict or violence were living in urban areas in all except a few of the countries monitored by IDMC in 2010.

Thus in 2010, IDPs continued to flee from rural to urban areas in search of the services and above all the livelihood opportunities they offered. Many of them first fled conflict or human rights abuses to areas near their original homes, possibly seeking temporary shelter with hosts, and from these areas gradually moved onwards to urban areas in an ongoing search for safety and opportunity. Others fled from one urban area to another. In many situations across the world, these urban IDPs chose not to identify themselves as internally displaced or seek to differentiate themselves from other people in urban areas.

It is estimated that over 90 per cent of the internally displaced population in Colombia has been displaced to urban areas. Tens of thousands of people in rural areas of Colombia were forced to leave their homes and land in 2010, and most of them moved first to their nearest urban centre and later to larger towns and cities.

In Afghanistan, many people displaced by conflict fled into slum settlements in cities such as Kabul, Herat and Jalalabad. Returning refugees, who had already become used to living in urban environments in other countries, also continued to migrate to these cities after failing to rebuild their lives in their rural places of origin.

The longer the period of displacement, the more likely IDPs have been to remain in urban areas even when conditions have

Defining urban

The term “urban” is understood in various ways; attributes of urban areas include their population size, with proposed minimum concentrations ranging broadly from 200 to 50,000 inhabitants, the level of infrastructure, and the proportion of the labour force employed in non-agricultural activities.
allowed them to return. Many have secured new livelihoods and established new social links, while they have less and less incentive to return to rural areas. Many IDPs in cities in Nepal had no intention of going back to rural areas in 2010, although the country’s armed conflict had ended in 2006.

Unlike IDPs in camp settings who can generally be identified, the IDPs dispersed among the larger non-displaced population of urban areas are not easily identifiable. Establishing the number and specific needs of displaced urban populations, and their needs and the risks they face, has been a complex challenge for humanitarian and development agencies seeking to identify the appropriate beneficiaries of programmes within wider marginalised communities. They have instead tended to target IDPs gathered in rural areas, in camps and settlements, typically with activities designed for rural settings, and often failed to assess or meet the protection needs of IDPs in urban areas. In Uganda, tens of thousands of people who fled the conflict in the north continued to live in slum settlements around the capital, Kampala, in 2010; the IDPs were neglected by humanitarian and development organisations, who considered them economic migrants or former IDPs who had found durable solutions to their displacement.

However, new methodologies have been introduced in recent years to increase the information available on IDPs in urban settings. Between 2006 and 2008, the Feinstein International Center at Tufts University, in conjunction with IDMC/NRC, used household surveys to learn more about IDPs in the cities of Khartoum in Sudan, Abidjan in Côte d’Ivoire and Santa Marta in Colombia. People from all segments of the cities’ populations were interviewed, including voluntary migrants and long-term residents. IDPs were only identified through questions about when they had arrived in the cities and their migration history. In this way the findings gave information on the shared and specific needs and the relative merits of IDP-based and wider interventions.

A profiling exercise carried out in Nairobi in 2010 showed that migrants, including IDPs, were distributed across the city but that IDPs were more likely to live in informal settlements in areas prone to landslides and floods. Like other groups, their settlement choices were influenced by their proximity to some other form of employment or source of income such as garbage picking. The study found that experiences of IDPs and other migrants were relatively similar, but quite different from those of non-migrants. For example, a large proportion of IDPs and migrant families shared their dwellings with others.

These studies showed that the needs of urban IDPs must be addressed in the broader context of urbanisation processes; targeted assistance may lead to preferential treatment for IDPs, increasing the potential for tensions and exposing IDPs who wish to remain anonymous. There is a need to address the needs of both IDPs and the communities around them, to assist entire urban areas. However, the studies underlined that IDPs still needed specific support to resolve the challenges related to their displacement and integrate fully in their urban setting if they wish to do so.

An IDP repairs a water pipe in the city of Cucuta, Colombia. Most IDPs who live in this poor neighbourhood are not assisted by any official bodies. (Photo: UNHCR/Boris Heger, June 2010)
IDPs in many countries faced continuing threats to the enjoyment of their human rights in 2010. In far too many situations, they remained without the protection that their governments were responsible to provide.

The internal displacement situations described in the country pages of this report, and the circumstances and experiences of IDPs in different countries and regions, varied greatly in 2010 as in previous years. Having been forcibly displaced by conflict or violence, IDPs have been particularly vulnerable to protection risks and face challenges that are difficult, but not impossible, to resolve.

Discrimination

IDPs worldwide routinely experience discrimination. In 2010, IDPs in over 30 situations experienced significant discrimination in one or more stages of their displacement. Discrimination could be a significant experience of the internally displaced population, because of their membership in an already discriminated group, for example as minorities, or because of the fact that they are displaced in relation to the non-IDPs.

Members of minority groups are often at risk of displacement due to the discriminatory policies of a government which predominantly represents a majority group, or due to armed conflict between majority and minority groups in which civilians are targeted. The most common form of armed conflict has pitted government forces against insurgent armed groups. These groups often grew out of the disenfranchisement of minority groups or the neglect of the regions they lived in. Members of majorities have often failed to identify with the claims of people in these regions, and governments fighting the armed groups have often used excessive force against them, failed to distinguish between combatants and civilians, or even targeted civilians in order to weaken the insurgents’ support base. Thus minority groups are not only more likely to have lived in areas with conflict, but they are particularly likely to have been affected and displaced by it.

The principle of non-discrimination is at the core of human rights for IDPs. A vast majority of human rights violations which take place before and during displacement, and after their return, integration in the place of displacement, or settlement elsewhere, are rooted in discrimination.

The Human Rights Committee has described discrimination as “any distinction, exclusion, restriction or preference based on any ground such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status, which has the purpose or effect of nullifying or impairing the recognition, enjoyment or exercise, on an equal footing, of all human rights and fundamental freedoms”.

Discrimination could be the cause of the displacement, the effect of displacement or the reason for non-achievement of sustainable durable solutions.

IDPs may face discrimination because of their membership of an already discriminated group, for example a minority, or, in relation to non-IDPs around them, because of the fact that they are internally displaced.

Why IDPs are at risk
In Myanmar, civilians from ethnic minority groups in the east of the country, such as the Kayin/Karen and the Kayah/Karenni, continued to be attacked and forcibly displaced in 2010 by the army, due to the government’s belief that they were providing support to the ethnic forces fighting the army. The discrimination is likely to continue during people’s displacement. As members of minorities, some IDPs have less access to formal state support and informal communal protection. Their vulnerability is amplified if they have lost access to traditional support networks. For example, internally displaced women from the minority Bantu and Benadiri groups in Puntland in northern Somalia have experienced persistent sexual violence perpetrated by men from majority groups including members of the local police, army and security services. Their lack of access to judicial protection was aggravated as they had lost the support of communal structures when they were displaced.

As IDPs are often displaced into areas where they are in a local minority, discrimination can also be exercised by host communities anxious to keep their access to resources. Essential assistance to IDPs in Yemen in some cases was not provided uniformly among displaced people and host communities; rather its allocation was based on their tribal and political affiliation.

Discrimination can also be a significant hurdle in preventing minority IDPs from resolving their situations. Most IDPs in Turkey are from the Kurdish minority; after a decade or more displaced on the peripheries of cities, they continued in 2010 to face discrimination which limited their access to housing, education and health care facilities, and so prevented their full integration. Roma people displaced within Kosovo or into Serbia have remained the victims of systematic social exclusion.

Lack of documentation is often a particular barrier for IDPs from traditionally marginalised groups. Internally displaced children from Dalit communities in Nepal are less likely to possess birth certificates, and so the children may be prevented from enrolling in school. Many Roma families have avoided contact with the state for generations, and displaced and non-displaced Roma in Serbia lack the documentation they need to register for benefits or are barred from renewing them by ineffective and demanding bureaucratic procedures.

IDPs also experienced discrimination in many countries in 2010 because their distinct needs were not taken into consideration, creating inequity between IDPs and the non-displaced population. This took place whether or not they faced discrimination as members of a minority.

In some situations where the return of IDPs is not possible, governments have willingly offered assistance, but they have not provided equal access to adequate housing and services which would enable IDPs to integrate sustainably in the place of displacement. Thus these IDPs have also faced systematic discrimination, even among their own “community”.

For more than 15 years, the government of Georgia had no policy to ensure decent housing for IDPs as its focus was on return. Since 2009, while the government has recognised the need to improve living conditions of IDPs, the improvements have taken place for IDPs living in government-owned collective centres and not yet for IDPs in private accommodation. Some of these IDPs, almost all displaced by conflicts of 1990s, have reported discrimination in accessing adequate housing as landlords viewed them as a risky category of rent payers, and an increasing number of IDPs had to move to collective centres.

In Colombia, prior to the presidential election in May 2010, IDPs were given only two weeks to register to vote outside their communities of origin. This short notice period, and the lack of alternative means of identification offered to IDPs who had lost their identity documents when they were displaced, prevented many IDPs from registering and voting.

In countries with regional residence systems, IDPs often find it very difficult to obtain official residence status in the city or province they have been displaced to. This may amount to discrimination, for example in preventing their access to assistance available to other disadvantaged groups. If they cannot take up official employment or rent property without residence papers, their exclusion is likely to be perpetuated.

Discrimination often adds to the vulnerability of groups of IDPs with particular needs, such as children, members of female-headed households, older and disabled people.

In Andhra Pradesh in India, the state government did not enrol malnourished children who had been internally displaced from Chhattisgarh State in nutrition and rehabilitation centres in 2010. In Azerbaijan, many displaced children continued to be educated separately from the local children.

In Iraq, women heading internally displaced households faced major obstacles in their search for livelihoods with which to support their families in 2010, due in part to prevailing gender discrimination. Displaced widows in Nepal continued to face social discrimination and a similar lack of employment. For the most part those whose husbands were killed by Maoists, rather than security forces, were reported to have received compensation for the deaths of their husbands, and many had encountered significant barriers in recovering property or obtaining compensation.

In Bosnia and Herzegovina, the government has made only limited arrangements to transfer older IDPs from collective centres to social welfare institutions or provide them with the support that would enable them to leave the centres.

Absence of physical security

People internally displaced by conflict, human rights violations or generalised violence have almost all faced immediate threats to their physical safety. Except in situations where people have been forcibly relocated, they have taken the decision to flee from immediate insecurity or violence.

Many IDPs faced similar threats to their physical security, as well as actual attacks, during their displacement and also after they returned to their home areas. In 2010, this was the case in many countries including DRC, Somalia, Kyrgyzstan, Afghanistan, India, Indonesia, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, OPT, Iraq, Yemen and Colombia. They were threatened and attacked inside and outside camp settings, and in both rural and urban areas.

Gender-based violence, including sexual violence, continued to be a major problem during displacement. The killing and rape of IDPs and other civilians continued at a very high rate in eastern DRC in 2010, where the majority of IDPs are outside camp settings. Widespread rapes were committed.
in the context of military operations by most of the forces involved in the conflicts in DRC. Internally displaced men also faced a risk of abduction in North Kivu in 2010, as they were taken from camps by armed groups for forced labour such as transportation of looted goods.

Civilians in eastern Myanmar, many of whom had been forcibly displaced a number of times before settling in their current locations, faced forced relocations in 2010. Those defying the orders of the army to relocate from their current locations ran the risk of being attacked. The IDPs also remained at risk of abuses by some rebel groups fighting the army.

IDPs in countries such as Sudan were subject to arbitrary arrest and detention. After UNSC members visited IDP camps in North Darfur, the Sudanese National Intelligence and Security Services (NISS) arrested and interrogated IDPs who had been in contact with the UN delegation.

The insecurity which IDPs faced in displacement also reduced the chance of assistance reaching them, and had a drastic impact on their access to essential support. Attacks against humanitarian workers continued in many countries. In Darfur, the kidnapping of aid workers forced humanitarian agencies to limit operations, as did tribal fighting, political violence and repeated attacks by the LRA in Southern Sudan.

Large areas of Afghanistan remained inaccessible to humanitarian organisations. In Yemen, humanitarian convoys were in contact with the UN delegation.

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Recruitment of children and internal displacement

In 2010, the recruitment of children into armed groups continued to cause internal displacement and also to threaten families in displacement.

Recruiting children (by coercion, abduction, or other means) or using them in armed groups is expressly prohibited by international law. Nonetheless, in at least 11 countries in 2010, recruitment of children for use by armed groups took place, with internally displaced children especially vulnerable to recruitment. Ongoing recruitment stopped IDPs from progressing towards durable solutions in some places, while demobilised children sometimes found themselves subject to further displacement as they sought to reunite with their families or communities.

People’s displacement in several countries was motivated either wholly or in part by the risk of recruitment that their children faced. For instance, in 2010, recruitment by insurgents was a cause of displacement in FATA in Pakistan. In Colombia, various armed groups continued to recruit children under the age of 15, and killed or forcibly displaced children who resisted. Afro-Colombian children were particularly vulnerable to recruitment and displacement.

Recruitment remained a grave and particular risk for many internally displaced children. For some IDPs facing poverty, recruitment was seen as a form of livelihood. IDP camps and informal settlements continued to be prime recruiting grounds, as children there were relatively densely gathered, often without access to education (particularly those of secondary-level age) and unable to engage in other livelihood activities. In 2010, there were reports of recruitment in or around IDP camps and settlements in Colombia, in North Kivu in eastern DRC, in Afghanistan, Chad, Somalia and elsewhere.

Efforts continued in 2010 to end the recruitment and use of child soldiers by non-state armed groups, including in regions with high numbers of displaced children. In the Philippines, for instance, an action plan agreed upon by the UN and the Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MilF) in 2009 to end the recruitment of children below the age of 18 was extended in 2010 for another year.

Child recruitment hindered the resolution of displacement and the achievement of durable solutions in many locations in 2010. Demobilisation programmes were incomplete and underfunded in, for instance, DRC, Chad, and CAR. In other cases (as in Uganda) insufficient attention was paid to the needs of girls formerly associated with armed groups. Reintegration of demobilised children remained a challenge in communities recovering from displacement. In Uganda, some children who had been demobilised were unable to rejoin their families who had also been displaced, or were rejected by their communities because of their association with the LRA. Some children ended up living alone in camps which had been home to IDPs, while others were further displaced, sometimes to cities or towns.

Even towards the end of displacement, when families are returning home, children may still be at risk of recruitment or abduction. Families’ perception of that risk may also cause them to remain in difficult conditions in camps rather than return home.
In numerous situations in 2010, the safety of IDPs in camps was undermined by their militarisation. For example, the physical security of IDPs in camps in Darfur was compromised by the widespread availability of small arms. Clashes in Kalma camp in July resulted in the death of four people and injuries to seven others. The security situation within the camp deteriorated further, as shootings and conflict led to at least 35 fatalities and the secondary displacement of 25,000 IDPs from the camp to surrounding villages. Clashes in the Hamadiya camp led to the deaths of three people in July and another nine in September.

Fleeing to urban areas did not necessarily lead to safety and security, as IDPs in towns and cities continued to face insecurity in 2010. In Somalia, thousands of IDPs in the town of Beletweyne were repeatedly forced to flee by fighting between rival armed groups. Heavy shelling of the town’s central area forced 35,000 to 40,000 IDPs to flee to other areas.

In Colombia, displacement persisted within and also between cities. Inter-urban displacement was accentuated in 2010 as armed groups increased the level of violence in urban areas, where organised crime and gang-related violence were also threats to IDPs.

Violations of housing, land and property rights

Protection and access to housing, land and property (HLP) rights continue to be a major concern throughout the displacement cycle. Violations of HLP rights pertained to both IDPs and those who were left behind. People displaced by conflict and violence have lost their homes and land which the displacement entails; this has an enduring impact on their situation.

In some countries such as Pakistan, people have been displaced as they were caught in the midst of fighting as it passed through their home area. Some victims of conflict were often able to return relatively quickly, as the fighting moved on to other areas. However, more often, acquisition and control of the land or territory itself motivated the violence or conflict which caused their displacement. In 2010, disputes between communities over access to land and natural resources escalated to cause conflict in Kenya, Nigeria, and Somalia. In DRC, Kenya and Somalia, control of land also continued to fuel conflicts, by providing income to combatants. In Colombia, populations continued to be displaced in 2010 by armed groups acting in collusion with economic interests seeking to grab their land and use it to cultivate cash crops including palm oil and coca.

In some countries, parties to conflict or perpetrators of violence often acted to ensure that people displaced from the land could not return, for example by destroying their houses and crops. Elsewhere, such destruction was intended to weaken insurgency movements by undermining supposed civilian support bases. Thus in Myanmar and Pakistan the burning of houses and crops has been used to punish civilians suspected of collaborating with insurgent groups.

The seizure of land may be motivated by a dominant group’s intention to take land and settle on it. This has been the case in some areas of India, in north Afghanistan, and in the Chittagong Hills Tract in Bangladesh. The process may be backed up by a complex legal regime. In OPT, legal provisions related to building and repair permits have forced Palestinians to build illegal homes which in turn are subject to demolition, leading to their eviction. Additionally, access has been restricted to land systematically in East Jerusalem and other parts of West Bank under Israeli administration. Similarly in Israel, the government has systematically demolished housing and livelihood structures of Palestinian Bedouin communities in the Negev as well as some houses of Palestinian Israelis.

The impact of this loss of land and housing is severe and enduring. The first impact is on the quality of shelter which displaced people and families subsequently have access to,
Education for internally displaced children

Education is critical for displaced children. It is a fundamental right and it can be an important protection mechanism, potentially reducing exposure to recruitment and exploitation. Schools can provide safe spaces in which to raise awareness about the risks of child recruitment, landmines and other issues, and attendance can give a degree of stability and psycho-social support in an otherwise chaotic situation. Yet, in at least 27 countries in 2010, displaced children were unable to access education because of fees, damaged infrastructure, and other displacement-related factors.

In 2010, displaced children in at least 18 countries faced threats to their physical security while exercising their right to education. Children in Afghanistan, for instance, faced the risk of physical violence and attack when travelling to and from school.

As emphasised by the Committee on the Rights of the Child, displaced children’s education cannot wait until solutions to displacement are realised. However, in 2010, internally displaced children continued to struggle to obtain a meaningful education. In many displacement situations, there was some limited access to primary education, but access to secondary and tertiary education was insufficient or completely lacking. In countries such as Somalia, Chad, Sudan and Uganda, internally displaced families lacked the resources needed to pay even primary school fees or buy the required materials. Displacement takes a toll on human resources and on physical infrastructure: for instance, teachers and schools were attacked in India, among other places. The demand on infrastructure increased considerably in some places where IDPs took shelter among host communities: in Pakistan thousands of school buildings needed to be repaired after being used as IDP shelters.

In some emergencies, displaced children experienced severe lack of access to education. In Yemen’s conflict regions, for instance, IDPs faced numerous obstacles to accessing basic education, with schools reportedly being used for military purposes by both Al-Houthi rebels and government forces. In Pakistan, there were large influxes of IDPs in host communities, and schools were used to house IDPs, reducing the space for school places for internally children and those in host communities alike.

In many situations of protracted displacement, both in rural and urban settings, children remained without meaningful access to education in 2010. In Turkey, for example, the poverty of families displaced into cities combined with the systematic discrimination against Kurds meant that hundreds or thousands of displaced children could not access quality education. Many families could not afford to have children at school, so they were forced to work; and those displaced children who attended school did not get teaching in their native language.

Displaced children living in camps for long periods, as in Sudan and DRC, were often unable to attain a basic education; those who were able to enroll found themselves in schools with many students per teacher in under-resourced classrooms without basic equipment such as books, pencils, and desks.

Ensuring the right to education in displacement, local integration or settlement elsewhere is not just a matter of upholding children’s rights, it is also a part of any sustainable framework for durable solutions to displacement. Education can give children the skills needed to help the recovery of their community after displacement. In Uganda, a generation of displaced children has not had access to quality education, and there has been insufficient planning for the reopening of schools in return villages; the resulting widespread lack of education and skills threatens the sustainability of their return.
They may have a range of options: to take refuge with members of their extended family or community; to seek assistance in camp, where these exist; or to find their own solution. In any case, they face the prospect of a precarious situation in inadequate housing.

Staying with hosts is often only a temporary measure. Some displaced people in Georgia who had found accommodation with host families had to change their living place as often as once a year in cases where host families grew unable to accommodate them and asked them to leave.

Shelters in organised camps or in collective centres (for example, in disused public buildings) often lack privacy, security and adequate access to water and sanitation. This presents the risks of sexual violence and the spread of diseases.

Many IDPs join informal urban settlements in search of safety or livelihood opportunities. They may also face inadequate shelter conditions, without access to clean water, sanitation or health care services.

In Kabul, Afghanistan, the only affordable land and shelter for most IDPs was in informal settlements where they joined a growing population of migrants. In 2010 there were in Kabul 30 slum settlements hosting people displaced by conflict. Most of the land belonged to the government, which was reluctant to provide services and improve living conditions at these settlements for fear of attracting yet more people.

The impact of land loss

Where IDPs have traditionally depended on agriculture for their livelihoods, the loss of land associated with displacement threatens their access to food and an income with which to ensure their self-reliance and look after their families. When IDPs flee to other rural areas, the increased pressure on limited resources and their encroachment on land can create tensions with host communities. The lack of land or resources also stops IDPs becoming self-reliant. In countries including Niger, Nigeria and Senegal, the lack of access to arable land, water and seeds prevented IDPs from building agricultural livelihoods.

IDPs from rural farming backgrounds may lack the knowledge or skills to take up skilled employment in urban areas. They may be able to exploit the opportunities for unskilled labour which cities and towns offer, but they are at a disadvantage compared to long-term residents or voluntary migrants who were able to prepare their move. Their working in the informal sector or continuing to depend on assistance may lead to tensions with the host community.

Failing to become self-reliant in urban areas, some vulnerable and marginalised internally displaced groups such as widows and children may be left with no choice but to engage in economic activities that threaten their physical security and integrity. Many displaced children in urban areas in Nepal have continued to work as domestic servants, remaining vulnerable to exploitation and physical or psychological abuse. An increase in prostitution has been reported over the years in cities such as Kathmandu and Pokhara, the destination of many displaced women and girls.

Some indigenous or pastoralist groups have a particularly strong attachment to their land and so they are disproportionately affected when forcibly displaced, including in Afghanistan, Colombia, Ethiopia, Kenya and Somalia in 2010. Seasonal disputes over grazing rights between Kuchi nomads and Hazaras in Afghanistan displaced more than 14,000 people in 2010.
The struggle to reach durable solutions

National authorities have the responsibility to ensure that conditions are in place to enable IDPs to achieve a durable solution to their displacement, and that they have the information they need to make a voluntary choice between the settlement options to which they have a right, namely to return to their place of origin, to integrate in the place they were displaced to, or to settle elsewhere in the country.

Free choice of settlement options

In 2010, there were about 40 countries with situations of protracted displacement in which the process of finding durable solutions was stalled, and/or IDPs were marginalised as a result of a lack of protection of their rights. Return tended to be the settlement option favoured by authorities, but in many of the countries it was not possible, while in others it was not the settlement option which IDPs desired.

Governments in some countries have drawn up comprehensive strategies to support durable solutions, but even where such strategies recognise all three settlement options, there may be a bias towards return in practice. Uganda’s IDP policy acknowledges the three options, and generally the authorities have not objected to the local integration of IDPs; however their practice has been to promote return, with some politicians seeking to highlight camp closures, “homecomings”, and the “normalisation” of the situation for political gain.

Many governments lacked the will or capacity to inform IDPs about options other than return and their voluntary choice of residence. In contexts where authorities were opposed to local integration or settlement elsewhere, national and international organisations usually struggled to provide support to enable IDPs to do so.

Despite years spent in displacement, some IDPs may still retain strong ties to their home areas. In Sri Lanka, according to some reports, Muslims displaced two decades ago from the north were well integrated in the western Puttalam district by 2010. Many of the IDPs, however, continued to identify themselves as uprooted people distinct from the local community. In a survey conducted in 2010, almost half said that they would like to go back as the armed conflict was over. The most common reason they gave was that they still considered Jaffna to be their home, even though they had not seen it in almost 20 years. This response cut across generational lines: among those who wished to return were people in their twenties who had spent virtually all their lives in Puttalam.

Among the Acholi IDPs in northern Uganda the cultural pull of their places of origin, and their ties to ancestral land, have remained very strong, even among some of the children and young adults who grew up in camps. Accordingly most IDPs in Uganda have favoured return, while only very few have considered other settlement options.
In some cases IDPs have chosen to integrate locally in their place of displacement, but their intentions and the progress of their integration have usually not been tracked. Others may not have consciously chosen to integrate, but over time, they have simply continued to live and seek to improve their situation in the place they were displaced to.

The adaptation to the new environment may be a factor in influencing IDPs’ gradual choice to settle at their place of displacement. In Burundi, where the authorities have promoted return as the ultimate goal, 90 per cent of IDPs interviewed by IDMC in 2010 in the north-eastern provinces of Muyinga and Karuzi expressed a strong desire to remain in the settlements they lived in. Some had been living there for 17 years and had developed strong relationships with other residents. Many of these IDPs were older people or widows and depended on the social support network in their settlement.

People may prefer local integration if they were in a minority in their place of origin, but fled to a place where they were not. They may have concerns that even if return is possible, it may not be sustainable and a new cycle of discrimination, neglect and conflict could displace them again. For example, many non-Chechen people displaced from Chechnya to other areas of the Russian Federation have favoured local integration as they fear the recurrence of violence at the hands of ethnic Chechens should they return.

Supporting local integration of IDPs

While in many countries the government has only supported return, in several of these IDPs have little choice but to attempt to settle in their place of displacement, for example when the lack of resolution of conflict has left IDPs with limited freedom of movement and return is impossible.

Some governments have started to accept these realities and support the local integration of IDPs. The government of Georgia initially insisted that IDPs would return to their areas of origin in the breakaway regions of Abkhazia and South Ossetia, and the IDPs themselves hoped eventually to do so. Following the war with Russia in 2008, which started in South Ossetia but spread to Abkhazia and Georgia proper and resulted in a second wave of displacement, return became an even more distant prospect, and the government started to invest in improving IDPs’ current situation while continuing to insist on IDPs’ right to return. In 2010, the authorities in Georgia continued to take measures to improve IDPs’ housing and security of tenure, by gradually renovating collective centres and passing the ownership of spaces in some cases to IDPs.

Similarly, in Serbia, the government started after Kosovo’s declaration of independence to develop effective and sustainable measures to allow for the integration of IDPs, including by improving their access to services and livelihoods. It offered several housing options to IDPs, for example distributing building materials, buying village houses for IDPs, and accommodating particularly vulnerable IDPs in supported social housing with a “tutor family” to help residents deal with social welfare institutions. Meanwhile, the government continued to insist on the right of all IDPs to return, as part of its continuing claim to sovereignty over Kosovo.

In 2010, the Iraqi government increased its support for local integration as well as return and settlement elsewhere of IDPs. In both Peru and Colombia, the governments have progressively incorporated IDPs into social protection programmes,
and promoted better living conditions for them in their place of displacement.

In Sri Lanka, a World Bank-funded project to build homes for IDPs in Puttalam has given IDPs a permanent link to that area and made it easier for them to consider local integration as a durable solution.

A few governments have long supported the local integration of IDPs. The government of the Republic of Cyprus has for decades promoted the settlement of IDPs under its jurisdiction at their place of refuge, through access to housing, services and jobs, even though it has continued to negotiate to make their return possible.

Some governments have supported the integration of some displaced groups but not others. For example, there has been support for local integration in Croatia, but generally more so for ethnic Croats than ethnic Serbs. In Serbia, the marked difference in levels of support to the local integration of ethnic Serb and Roma IDPs has reflected a wider disparity. The local integration pattern continued to follow two tracks in 2010, with displaced ethnic Serbs gradually approaching the living standards enjoyed by their non-displaced counterparts, and displaced Roma groups continuing, like the broader Roma population, to face chronic poverty, unemployment, sub-standard housing and barriers to education.

Obstacles to sustainable local integration

To integrate in a new location takes time and both authorities and host communities may resist IDPs’ attempts to do so. Regional authorities have continued to discourage local integration in order to avoid changes to the demographic and political balance in their area. Provincial governors in Afghanistan have accepted IDPs staying temporarily if return is not possible due to insecurity, but not local integration as a permanent solution.

In the Balkans and the Caucasus, national authorities have preferred to promote return in order to reverse the demographic impact of conflict and the accompanying “ethnic cleansing”.

Sustainable integration may not be possible if host communities do not accept the presence of IDPs. In Southern Sudan, most IDPs in the city of Yei who IDMC interviewed in 2010 wished to remain there as they had long lost their original livelihoods, were no longer in contact with relatives, and had adapted to the farming lifestyle common in Yei. However, their progress towards a durable solution had repeatedly been stalled. They had an uneasy relationship with the local community and said they had been forced to move several times. Despite living in the area for over two decades, they had not learned to speak the dialect of the largest indigenous community.

The biggest obstacle to the local integration of IDPs in Southern Sudan was their insecurity of tenure over the land they had occupied; they continued to be evicted when the original owners returned and claimed it.

Insecurity of tenure was one of the most widespread continuing obstacles to the sustainable integration of IDPs across the world. Although IDPs in many countries had by 2010 been living in their current locations for a decade or more, many were still at risk of being expelled from their settlements. In Burundi, land disputes between IDPs and owners of the land on which settlements stood was threatening their local integration over 15 years after they arrived.

IDPs in slum settlements typically do not own or have any security of tenure over the land their makeshift shelters stand on, discouraging them from making gradual improvements which would increase their well-being and reinforce their self-reliance. People have the right to legal security of tenure in their home, whether it is owned or rented. However, the tenure of people in these unrecognised settings is not secure, so they are at high risk of eviction and, in the case of IDPs, secondary
displacement. IDPs in Kenya and Somalia were evicted from informal settlements in 2010.

IDPs in Georgia who have been provided shelter in collective centres have also faced eviction processes which failed to consistently meet Georgian legislation and international standards. 1,000 internally displaced families were evicted from their collective centres in 2010; the alternative accommodation they were offered was usually inadequate and in remote areas.

In Zimbabwe, authorities threatened to evict 20,000 people from Hatcliffe Extension, a settlement created to accommodate people displaced in 2005 by the government’s urban eviction operations.

Even where IDPs had gained some security of tenure, the inadequacy of their housing continued to impede their sustainable integration. In Georgia, although a minority of IDPs in collective centres had gained rights of ownership of their living spaces, the conditions in some centres remained inadequate.

IDPs’ access to legal redress

Very few countries had effective processes in place to provide remedy to IDPs for violations of their rights which they had suffered. These violations varied according to the circumstances. However, worldwide, IDPs often lacked redress for violations of their HLP rights.

Their achievement of durable solutions commonly depended on their ability to reassert ownership of their property which had been destroyed or seized. The loss or destruction of this property may be addressed through restitution, compensation or some other alternative. The restitution of property may be one of the most effective remedies when it has been occupied by others; restitution can facilitate return but also other settlement options, as beneficiaries can then sell their property and use the money to support their settlement or integration elsewhere.

Governments have rarely invested in strengthening frameworks to restitute property, in some cases because it would not be in the interest of some of their supporters. In Colombia, the new government’s introduction of a bill on land restitution gave an early positive signal of its intent to address the issue, but previous initiatives had delivered limited results. In 2010, most restitution processes remained stalled, as in Afghanistan, Côte d'Ivoire, Iraq and Uganda.

In many countries, IDPs seeking redress for violations had little or no access to justice in 2010. Weak state institutions were often unable to provide remedies, whether they were displaced or not. In some cases ongoing armed conflict and violence had caused their breakdown; in others IDPs could not access judicial mechanisms due to limits on their freedom of movement. Many areas affected by conflict or insecurity had been long neglected and never had strong and functioning institutions.

Many IDPs continued to resort to customary justice in 2010, which was the only accessible form of justice for the overwhelming majority of the population in countries where customary justice exists alongside statutory justice. Even where statutory institutions were accessible, IDPs sometimes perceived them as distant, expensive, corrupt, unfair, and non-participative, and preferred to appeal to customary systems where they knew the process, the language, and the “judges”. Customary processes are often seen as less confrontational than statutory mechanisms, as they usually favour compromise to facilitate reconciliation and communal cohesion. In DRC, Uganda and Pakistan, most IDPs with access to both forms of justice turned to the customary mechanisms.

IDPs who held their original property under informal tenure still have the right to restitution or compensation. However, in many of these cases, their claim was weakened by the absence of written documents proving their ownership or users’ rights. The longer displacement lasts, the higher the risk that the customary knowledge related to users’ rights is lost. Conflict and displacement also affected customary justice systems’ function and legitimacy in some countries. Customary leaders may have been themselves displaced or otherwise separated from their community, and if displacement lasted for a long period, their knowledge was lost. This could lead to significant challenges in identifying and attributing land and property in later disputes involving IDPs.

Customary justice systems may discriminate against outsiders from other areas, ethnicities and religions. They are rarely democratic, and tend to be based on lineage or social status, which makes them insensitive to changes or the needs of vulnerable or marginalised members of the community. Displaced women and girls face further discrimination in customary courts which are generally composed of men and often fail to take into account their particular perspectives. Customary mechanisms may particularly discriminate against women and girls on land and property issues, where they often do not recognise their right to inherit land.

In the many countries in which customary justice remained the preferred or only option for IDPs in 2010, the state is the primary duty-bearer and should lead efforts to maintain or re-establish the rule of law and access to justice. Governments should ensure that statutory and customary systems are coherent and deliver justice to all citizens.
National and international responses

National policies to protect IDPs

In all regions, there were governments which took significant measures to meet their primary responsibility to provide protection and humanitarian assistance to IDPs within their jurisdiction. To take one example, the government in Pakistan registered more than half a million internally displaced households to ensure that they had better access to aid, and gave a computerised identity card to almost 100,000 internally displaced women. The government’s cash card assistance scheme had reached close to three million IDPs in 2010.

The adoption of a national legal framework or policy to protect the rights of IDPs and provide redress when their rights have been violated is an indicator of national authorities’ commitment towards IDPs. At the end of 2010, 17 countries monitored had national policies. Several governments made progress in implementing them, with some devising and implementing action plans based on the policy.

Notable advances were made during the year in Burundi, where the government adopted a national policy on the socio-economic reintegration of people affected by conflict, and established an IDP working group to develop a strategy for durable solutions.

Some governments were in the process of developing a national IDP policy; Kenya drafted a policy in March 2010 which was awaiting government approval at the end of the year.

In other countries the government remained unwilling to implement IDP policies. In Nepal the government had done little by the end of 2010 to carry out its 2007 policy. Advocates for IDPs argued that the lack of progress was preventing the attainment of durable solutions. The government of Sudan adopted a national IDP policy in January 2009 which was intended to have effect in all areas of the country including the southern regions. The policy set out IDPs’ rights and the required responses to their needs during different phases of displacement. At the end of 2010, neither the Government of National Unity (GoNU) in Khartoum nor the Government of Southern Sudan (GoSS) had demonstrated a commitment to implementing the policy. Because it was promulgated in the name of the GoNU, it remained unclear to what extent the GoSS intended to support it.

Several governments continued to deny the access of international humanitarian agencies to IDPs. In these countries the governments were either party to the conflict which had resulted in displacement, or they were concerned that agencies would challenge or publicise their failings in protecting the human rights situation of IDPs, possibly leading to calls for regional or international interventions.

In Yemen, the government refused to allow international agencies to assist IDPs outside official camps, although only 15 per cent of IDPs were in camps in mid-2010. In Sri Lanka, the government only granted access of agencies to IDPs and returnees in northern areas for short periods, and a Presidential Task Force vetted all project proposals and rejected those that went beyond the provision of basic necessities to focus on areas such as protection, capacity-building, documentation and legal assistance. The government requested the ICRC to close its offices in the north.

In Pakistan, the government attempted to respond exclusively through its national capacity. While UN agencies provided advice, the army co-led the displacement response, and aligned it with counter-insurgency objectives. Meanwhile
Progress of regional mechanisms

Africa is the region that has made the most progress in developing regional mechanisms to provide protection to IDPs. The International Conference on the Great Lakes Region culminated in 2006 with 11 states signing the Pact on Security, Stability and Development in the Great Lakes Region (the Great Lakes Pact). The Pact, which entered into force in 2008, was the first multilateral instrument to impose legal obligations on states to protect the rights of IDPs.

October 2010 represented the first anniversary of the adoption by AU member states of the Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (the Kampala Convention). The Convention, the first instrument covering an entire continent to impose legal obligations on states to protect the rights of IDPs, addresses the prevention of internal displacement due to armed conflict and violence, natural disasters, and development projects; protection and assistance during displacement; and the provision of durable solutions to end displacement. Its adoption after five years of drafting, negotiations and consultations was widely hailed as a historic achievement. By the end of 2010, the Convention had been signed by 29 countries, more than half of the 53 AU member states. However, it will only come into force once 15 countries have also ratified it; at the end of 2010 four countries – Uganda, Sierra Leone, Chad and CAR – had ratified the Convention, while several others had embarked on the ratification process.

A regional initiative was also launched in the Americas in November 2010, when 18 Latin American countries adopted the Brasilia Declaration on the Protection of Refugees and Stateless Persons in the Americas, which included some elements relevant to IDPs. Among these, the Declaration reiterated the importance of implementing measures leading to durable solutions for the displaced, and of incorporating age, gender and diversity considerations in domestic legislation on IDPs.

In Europe, the representatives of the governments of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Montenegro, and Serbia met in Belgrade in March 2010 for a conference on durable solutions. They agreed to work towards shared statistics on forcibly displaced populations, and to address the situation of the most vulnerable IDPs, including by addressing the accommodation problems of those in collective centres.

Other regional groupings failed to take any action in relation to IDPs. The Inter-Governmental Commission on Human Rights set up in 2009 by the Association of Southeast Asian Nations was criticised for lacking the resources it needed to carry out its mandate. The Commission was due to prepare thematic studies on 11 issues, including migration, but at the end of 2010 it was still discussing the terms of reference of the
studies. Meanwhile, the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation had no inter-governmental human rights mechanism and continued to emphasise the principle of sovereignty and non-interference in the internal affairs of member states.

Coordinating international humanitarian support

The international community continued to review its mechanisms to coordinate responses to complex emergencies in which the government lacked the capacity to meet its responsibilities alone. In 2010, the cluster system continued to be rolled out in emergency situations; and clusters were being implemented in 27 complex emergencies and evaluated in some of the countries in which they had first been implemented.

In some countries evaluations suggested that clusters had strengthened the response, while in others they had limited impact, especially where the process remained centralised. According to an evaluation of the clusters in DRC, their introduction in 2006 led the humanitarian response in the east of the country to improve, but decision-making and the coordination of resources continued to be focused in the capital Kinshasa. An evaluation of the approach in Uganda, where clusters were also established in 2006, revealed achievements including clearer roles and responsibilities of different agencies and better protection of women and children, but the process was seen as having been delivered with little consultation with the government or NGOs.

In the Philippines, the implementation of clusters was only beginning to have an impact on people displaced by conflict. They were first rolled out in 2006, in response to a natural disaster and then expanded to Mindanao when fighting erupted there in 2008. Following typhoons Ketsana and Parma in 2009 the government asked UNHCR to lead the protection cluster, but with a mandate limited to typhoon-related issues. UNHCR’s mandate was only extended in April 2010 to cover the conflict, but by June the agency had established a presence in Mindanao.

In Burundi, the cluster system was introduced in 2008, but as of 2010 had made little difference to IDPs. Clusters were introduced in Chad in 2007, but their impact on the situation of vulnerable groups such as internally displaced women and girls who had survived violence was still limited in 2010.

In Southern Sudan, the cluster system was formally introduced in April 2010 in seven emergency sectors. Each cluster was jointly led by a UN agency and an NGO; the protection cluster co-led by UNHCR and NRC was set up in July 2010. Previously, the protection of civilians had been a responsibility of the UN Missions in Sudan (UNMIS). The separation of humanitarian protection activities and UNMIS’ role in ensuring physical security became clearer following the establishment of the protection cluster.

In other countries with UN integrated missions or peacekeeping missions with multiple roles, there continued to be the risk that the integration of mandates could undermine the perceived neutrality of humanitarian workers. UN agencies’ access to beneficiaries in remote areas of DRC remained limited by their obligation to use military escorts outside main localities. The UN Organization Stabilization Mission in the DRC (MONUSCO) force was mandated to both protect civilians and support military operations against armed groups, and it has not always been possible for UN humanitarians to access IDPs in zones where militias of the Forces démocratiques de libération du Rwanda (FDLR) were active, since they would have to travel with escorts of MONUSCO, which is also mandated to hunt down the FDLR.

International human rights mechanisms

Human rights treaty bodies and the Human Rights Council’s Universal Periodic Review (UPR) mechanisms and special procedures continued to draw attention to IDPs’ rights in 2010. The Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women expressed alarm at the unmet health needs of displaced women in Gujarat state in India. It recommended that
the government take all necessary measures to ensure that internally displaced families in Gujarat have access to public services and create a plan to guarantee the right to health, education, and employment for the displaced women and children in all “relief colonies”.

In its review of Colombia, the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights recommended that the government take measures to protect women in situations of forced displacement; adopt an effective national food policy to combat hunger and malnutrition in populations such as IDPs; take measures to ensure access to adequate housing for disadvantaged and marginalised groups including IDPs; and increase resources allocated to sexual and reproductive health services, in particular in rural areas and among IDPs.

Regarding Sri Lanka, the Committee on the Rights of the Child expressed concern that internally displaced children who had experienced multiple forced displacements and been separated from their families were being prevented from receiving assistance due to inadequate state support and restrictions on the activities of humanitarian organisations.

During the UPR of Iraq in February 2010, it was recommended that the government seek international cooperation to ensure measures for the return and resettlement of IDPs, develop a national policy to provide assistance and compensation, and pay special attention to women who had been affected by armed conflict and displacement. In the UPR of Kenya in May 2010, it was recommended that the country sustain its efforts to resettle IDPs and ensure that policies aimed at assisting displaced persons take into account the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement.

Walter Kälin, the former RSG on IDPs, concluded his term in 2010. In his final report to the Human Rights Council, he urged governments and humanitarian and development actors to recognise, protect and assist all IDPs in accordance with the Guiding Principles; called on governments to incorporate the Guiding Principles into domestic law and protect their own population from arbitrary displacement; and advocated for more support from donors and development actors for durable solutions, particularly in the early recovery phase. In 2010, the RSG on IDPs conducted visits to countries including Azerbaijan, CAR, Iraq and Yemen.

Following Walter Kälin’s term, the mandate was changed from Representative of the Secretary General to Special Rapporteur on the human rights of IDPs. The Human Rights Council appointed Chaloka Beyani, who took up his post in November 2010.

Wider responses to internal displacement

Until a few years ago the response towards people displaced by conflict in many countries had focused primarily on the provision of humanitarian assistance and protection. There was a gap between the end of humanitarian assistance to IDPs, and the recovery and development processes needed to ensure that they could achieve durable solutions.

In 2010, the UNSC highlighted the issue of internal displacement particularly as part of the debate on how best to protect civilians in armed conflict. It further urged regional and sub-regional bodies to develop and implement policies, activities and advocacy for the benefit of IDPs, and stressed the importance of achieving dignified and durable solutions for them.

The UNSC also considered internal displacement in the context of post-conflict peacebuilding in 2010, and it recognised that measures towards durable solutions for IDPs should be coordinated with security sector reform and disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration measures in the context of a broader search for peace, stability and the revival of economic activities.

In countries with the cluster system in place, UNDP as the lead for the early recovery cluster has played an increasing role in enabling IDPs to enjoy their rights following the humanitarian response phase. The agency has provided technical support to help governments support durable solutions, with initiatives such as schemes to refer legal cases from traditional to formal justice systems, and dispute resolution through mediation and arbitration in communities affected by internal displacement. The agency’s role continues to evolve and can be strengthened through adoption of more strategic approaches in relation to durable solutions for IDPs.

The World Bank has also emerged as an important facilitator of durable solutions. Recent initiatives such as the Transition Solutions Initiative have started to explore the inclusion of forced displacement within development considerations and the promotion of collaboration between humanitarian and development agencies.
In 2010, IDMC monitored internal displacement in 21 African countries. All but two of these fell in the category of countries of low human development; the only exceptions were the Republic of the Congo (medium human development) and Algeria (high human development), while Eritrea and Somalia were not ranked at all due to a lack of data.

In these 21 countries, 11.1 million people were internally displaced by conflict and violence at the end of 2010, down from 11.6 million a year earlier. The fall marked a continuation of a sustained downward trend since 2004, when there were 13.2 million IDPs on the continent. Africa was the only region in which the number of IDPs decreased in 2010. Despite the overall downwards trend, the region also saw large forced population movements in the course of the year.

40 per cent of the world’s IDPs were in Africa. Sudan accounted for more than 40 per cent of the African total, with around five million people displaced in various regions. Along with Colombia, it was one of the two countries most affected by internal displacement in the world. Darfur alone, with between 1.9 and 2.7 million IDPs, had more IDPs than the two next biggest situations in Africa, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (1.7 million IDPs) and Somalia (1.5 million). IDPs
in Sudan, DRC and Somalia together represented more than 70 per cent of all IDPs in Africa.

The gradual decline in IDP numbers masked large new movements in individual countries. The first ten months of 2010 saw 220,000 people newly displaced in Southern Sudan, and 270,000 in Darfur. In DRC, the total went down from 1.9 million IDPs in 2009 to 1.7 million in 2010, but several hundred thousand people were newly displaced in 2010, while between mid-2009 and the end of 2010 an estimated million IDPs returned to their villages. Similarly, while the total number of IDPs in Somalia was steady in 2010 at 1.5 million, in the course of 2010 at least 300,000 people had to flee from their homes.

Other countries in Africa which saw new displacement in 2010 were the Central African Republic (CAR), Côte d’Ivoire, Ethiopia, Kenya, Nigeria, Senegal and Zimbabwe.

Causes of displacement
In most countries, displacement was caused primarily by conflict between the government and armed opposition groups, or by inter-ethnic violence. Important exceptions in 2010 included CAR, where armed bandits have been the main cause of displacement since 2008, and Zimbabwe, where almost all displacement was due to unlawful evictions carried out by, or condoned by, the state.

Elections were a major factor behind some of the new displacement in Africa in 2010. In Côte d’Ivoire, disputed presidential elections in November led to violence and displacement. About 3,000 people had been displaced by the end of the year and their number was growing; the UN made contingency plans for up to 450,000 IDPs in 2011. In Nigeria, clashes between supporters of rival candidates broke out in 2010, months ahead of presidential and legislative elections scheduled for 2011, leading to localised short-term displacement. In Sudan, nationwide elections took place in April 2010 after many delays, followed by a referendum on independence in Southern Sudan in January 2011.

Protection concerns of IDPs
IDPs in many African countries faced insecurity and violence, including attacks by armed groups against civilians. Violent attacks by the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA) continued to cause significant displacement in a number of countries. The LRA originated in Uganda, but since the signing of the Cessation of Hostilities Agreement between the LRA and the Ugandan government in 2006, it has been more active in neighbouring countries, notably DRC, Sudan and CAR.

Sexual violence, including rape, continued to be a particular problem, notably in eastern DRC. The forced recruitment of children, including internally displaced children, was reported in countries including Chad, DRC and Somalia.

IDPs in many conflict situations in Africa had more difficulty than non-displaced people around them in accessing basic necessities including food and clean water. In Somalia, food security deteriorated in IDP camps across the country in the course of the year as a direct result of violence. Even in more stable situations where food distribution programmes were not hampered by insecurity, many IDPs were unable to provide for themselves as they could not establish livelihoods.

Lack of access to justice, whether in relation to cases of sexual violence as for example in DRC, or in relation to land disputes in the aftermath of conflict, continued to be a major issue for IDPs across the continent.

There were reports of certain groups of IDPs facing additional hardships on the basis of their ethnicity. In parts of central Africa, the Batwa were particularly discriminated against: in both Burundi and DRC they were living in more
difficult conditions than other IDPs. Pastoralist groups such as the Peuhl in CAR lost their means of supporting themselves and also faced discrimination when displaced into sedentary communities.

Limited monitoring or information on IDPs

In some countries most IDPs had gathered in informal or organised camps. The large camps in Darfur hosted many tens of thousands of IDPs. The informal camp near Algooye in Somalia, hosting close to 500,000 people who had fled nearby Mogadishu, was thought to be the biggest settlement of IDPs in the world. However, in DRC, Nigeria and elsewhere, the majority of IDPs had dispersed among hosts who had given them shelter, and in countries across the region from Kenya to Liberia, Nigeria and Algeria, large numbers of people had been displaced to cities where they remained unidentified.

In almost all countries monitored by IDMC, limited capacity was dedicated to gathering and analysing data on internally displaced populations, and so there was a persistent scarcity of information on their numbers, location and demographic make-up, the conditions in which they lived and the assistance they required. In some countries, such as Ethiopia, government restrictions on humanitarian and human rights organisations prevented even basic monitoring of displacement.

Even in countries such as Uganda where good data was generally available, there was little information about groups of IDPs with specific needs, such as older IDPs and those with long-term health problems. In these countries there was also little information on people displaced into urban areas. Elsewhere, it was difficult to put together the analysis of different agencies: in DRC, a study found that agencies used different procedures for monitoring IDPs and different methods for analysing their data, making it difficult to compare information.

However, some countries took positive steps to gather better data: in Nigeria, where monitoring generally focused on people who sought shelter in temporary camps, to the exclusion of those who stayed with relatives or friends, the government appealed to the UN to support a wider profiling exercise.

Information on the conditions in which long-term IDPs in post-conflict situations lived remained extremely limited in 2010. Even in countries where fairly detailed statistics were available about return movements, it was rare to have information about the extent to which IDPs were achieving durable solutions. In some countries, such as Algeria, governments insisted that there were no longer any IDPs, when in fact there had been no exercise to verify whether IDPs had managed to settle permanently or what assistance they might still need.

The lack of monitoring was particularly acute in relation to IDPs who remained in their place of displacement: it was often not clear whether there were particular obstacles to their return, or they had chosen to settle permanently there. People displaced into cities had often gradually adapted to urban lifestyles, and did not intend to return to their rural homes even when security permitted. Their settlement choices formed part of the general rural-to-urban migration trend in Africa. In Darfur, forced displacement had contributed to rapid urbanisation: many IDP camps had become semi-permanent urban centres, despite the government’s insistence on eventual return. Displacement also contributed to the urbanisation of Southern Sudan, where there were no IDP camps and many IDPs settled in the towns instead.

National responses

In a number of countries the government took positive steps to respond to internal displacement. The government of Burundi adopted a reintegration strategy for people affected by the conflict and set up a technical IDP working group. The government of CAR was in the process of developing a national legal and institutional framework to address internal displacement. In Kenya the government finalised a draft national IDP policy, although by the end of the year it had yet to be adopted.

A number of other governments struggled to mobilise the will or resources needed to develop and implement IDP response strategies. In CAR, Chad, DRC and Nigeria, the ministries and government bodies put in charge of the response did not have sufficient capacity to have a real impact on the lives of IDPs. In Côte d’Ivoire, elements of a national legal framework to protect the rights of IDPs were still awaiting signature, years after being drafted. The Ministry for Reconstruction and Reinsertion, which had been supporting IDP return movements in 2009, was abolished in 2010. Overall responsibility for IDPs was moved from the Ministry of Solidarity and War Victims to a new secretariat, which further put into doubt the government’s commitment to signing the draft legal framework protecting IDP rights.

Some governments were criticised during the year for failing to address internal displacement. Seven independent UN human rights experts reported that the government of DRC had neglected its responsibilities to protect and assist IDPs, while UNHCR recommended that the government of Niger do more to protect the rights of IDPs.

In some countries insecurity prevented a response to internal displacement. For example, in DRC, 120 security incidents involving humanitarian staff were recorded in the first six months of 2010, twice as many as a year before.

In 2010, CAR, Chad, Sierra Leone and Uganda became the first four countries to ratify the African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of IDPs in Africa (the Kampala Convention), which had been adopted by the AU in October 2009. By the end of the year a total of 31 countries had signed the Convention. It will come into force once it has been ratified by 15 of the 53 AU member states.

International responses

Two UN peacekeeping forces saw significant changes in 2010. In DRC, the UN Mission in the DRC (MONUC) was replaced with UN Organization Stabilization Mission in the DRC (MONUSCO), while in Chad and CAR the UN Mission in the CAR and Chad (MINURCAT) forces were withdrawn altogether at the request of the government of Chad. Both UN and AU peacekeeping forces came in for criticism: the forces in DRC were accused of failing to protect IDPs and other civilians, while the AU force in Somalia reportedly caused new displacement, with the force being accused of deliberately shelling civilian areas in retaliation for insurgent attacks.
The cluster approach for coordinating assistance and protection was applied in 14 African countries in 2010. Not in all countries were the clusters able to make their impact felt: in Burundi, for example, the cluster system made little difference for IDPs. A positive example was the protection cluster in Southern Sudan, which was activated in July 2010. The International Council of Voluntary Agencies described it as “pro-active, dedicated and cooperative… one of the stronger examples of a well-functioning and well-led field-based” cluster.

Uganda, which had been one of the three pilot countries for the introduction of the cluster system in 2006, also became the first country where the clusters came to an end, as the situation in northern Uganda by now demanded a recovery and development response. Responsibility for all remaining humanitarian coordination was handed over to the government by the end of 2010.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number of IDPs (rounded)</th>
<th>Government figures</th>
<th>UN figures</th>
<th>Other figures</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,000,000 (EU, 2002)</td>
<td>No recent figures available.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td>19,566 (UN-TCU, November 2005)</td>
<td>UN figure referred to IDPs in Cabinda Region. No recent figure is available.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>Up to 100,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>117,000 (OCHA, April 2005)</td>
<td>The remaining IDPs are in settlements in the north and centre of the country.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central African Republic</td>
<td>192,000</td>
<td>192,000 (UNHCR and OCHA, November 2010)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chad</td>
<td>171,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>170,531 (OCHA, November 2010)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Côte d’Ivoire</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td>519,100 (UNHCR, June 2010); around 2,700 after elections (OCHA, 30 December 2010)</td>
<td>There are no comprehensive monitoring mechanisms. More reliable figures are only available on populations displaced in the west.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic Republic of the Congo</td>
<td>About 1,700,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,680,000 (OCHA, January 2011)</td>
<td>The largest numbers of IDPs were in the eastern provinces of North and South Kivu. Estimates were approximate, as most IDPs were with host families and not registered, many in areas difficult to reach.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eritrea</td>
<td>About 10,000</td>
<td>Not available</td>
<td>Not available</td>
<td>According to the government and UN agencies, all camp-based IDPs had resettled or returned by March 2008, but UN and human rights sources indicated that 10,000 may still be living with hosts.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>About 300,000</td>
<td>Not available</td>
<td>Not available</td>
<td>Estimate based on IDMC interviews with UN and INGOs. Monitoring of conflict displacement has been a major challenge.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>About 250,000</td>
<td>Not available</td>
<td></td>
<td>Estimates include people still displaced by the 2007 post-election violence, and by localised violence including since the 1990s.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td>About 23,000 (UNHCR, July 2007)</td>
<td></td>
<td>UNHCR estimate was of people believed still to be in former IDP camps in 2007. According to the government all IDPs have achieved durable solutions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td>11,000 (IRIN, December 2007)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td>1,210,000 (National Commission for Refugees, September 2007); 80,000 (NCFR, June 2009); 1,600,000 (Refugees United, July 2010)</td>
<td>80,000 IDPs at the end of 2009 (USDoS, March 2010)</td>
<td>No comprehensive survey on internal displacement has been conducted and there are no mechanisms to monitor durable solutions. Most estimates only include people who have sought shelter at temporary IDP camps.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republic of the Congo</td>
<td>Up to 7,800</td>
<td>7,800 (2006)</td>
<td>0–7,800 (OCHA, October 2009)</td>
<td>There has been no assessment of the number of IDPs since 2006, and the UN reported no change to the government figures in its Displaced Populations Report of October 2009.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Unclear if people resettled in new “villages” in the early 2000s have found durable solutions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
a significant number of IDPs there had not achieved durable solutions by 2010.

Al Qa'eda in the Islamic Maghreb (AQIM) extended its insurgent activities in 2010 from the north and the regions of Aurès and Jijel to southern areas on the Saharan borders with Mali, Niger, and Mauritania, but there have been no reports of resulting displacement.

The national state of emergency in place since 1992 caused protests from the opposition in 2010. Nonetheless, a steady overall improvement in security emboldened President Abdelaziz Bouteflika to begin a third term in 2009 after modifying the constitution to allow for re-election. Algeria was not among the countries that signed the Kampala Convention in 2010.

## Quick facts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>10,000 – 40,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>24,000 (UNICEF, February 2010)</td>
<td>40,000 (ICRC, 4 March 2010); about 10,000 at the end of 2009 (USDoS, 11 March 2010)</td>
<td>There have been no reliable estimates of the number of IDPs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>About 1,500,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,460,000 (OCHA/UNHCR, December 2010)</td>
<td>Estimate based on population movement tracking system of UNHCR and partners.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>4,500,000 – 5,200,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>621,667 in Khartoum (GoS, April 2010)</td>
<td>4,270,000 (figure used by UNHCR for Global Appeal, December 2010)</td>
<td>4.9 million (IDMC, January 2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Togo</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td>10,000 (2008)</td>
<td>1,500 (OCHA, November 2006)</td>
<td>The UNHCR figure is not broken down by area. The IDMC total includes 1,900,000 - 2,700,000 for Darfur; 1,500,000 in Greater Khartoum area; 220,000 newly displaced in South Sudan in 2010; 420,000 in Eastern States; and 80,000 in the three Protocol Areas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>At least 166,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>166,000 (UNHCR, November 2010)</td>
<td>The UNHCR figure does not include IDPs in urban areas, or in Uganda's Karamoja region. In addition, many of the hundreds of thousands of former IDPs who have now returned to their home areas are still in the process of finding a durable solution.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>570,000 – 1,000,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>570,000 victims of Operation Murambatsvina: (UN, July 2005); 1,000,000 former farm workers and their families (UNDP, Sept. 2008)</td>
<td>880,000 - 960,000 (Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee (ZimVAC), June 2007)</td>
<td>No comprehensive surveys of IDPs have been carried out, and a significant number have been displaced more than once. UNDP's 2008 estimate was based on the finding that over 200,000 farm workers plus their families had lost their homes and livelihoods as a result of the fast-track land reform programme. The ZimVAC survey found that about 8% of people had been asked to move in the past five years.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conflict between insurgent groups and the government, which broke out in 1992 after the results of a general election were annulled, left between 500,000 and 1.5 million people internally displaced. In particular, large-scale massacres of civilians between 1996 and 1998 by the Armed Islamic Group (GIA) forced many Algerians to flee affected areas.

Since the conflict waned, there have been no surveys of the number of IDPs or assessments of their situation. Media sources including the El Watan newspaper suggested there were 500,000 IDPs in 2004, but since then estimates have not been forthcoming.

The government has consistently reported that internal displacement has ended. Its figures on urban growth rates show that the expansion of cities has slowed, but these reports do not take into account the many people living in slums around cities without legal residence. These informal settlements have grown significantly in Algiers, Blida, Médéa, Chlef, Tiaret, Sidi Bel Abbès, Relizane and Oran, and host many of those that were displaced. It is likely that
Up to 100,000 IDPs were living in 2010 in settlements in the north and centre of Burundi, the majority of them ethnic Tutsi. They had been displaced by inter-ethnic and inter-communal violence which broke out after the 1993 coup and the fighting between government forces and rebel groups which followed. The security situation improved after the last rebel group laid down its arms in 2008, and there has been no new conflict-induced displacement since then. The relatively peaceful presidential elections of June 2010, which gave a second mandate to Pierre Nkurunziza, indicated the improvement in security; nonetheless, the main opposition parties withdrew their candidates following allegations of fraud during local elections. No specific problems were reported regarding IDPs’ right to vote during the elections.

While many of the difficulties facing IDPs are shared by the rest of the population of the fourth least-developed country in the world, they lack security of tenure in the settlements they live in, and many are far from the land on which they depend for survival.

Burundi is the least urbanised country in the world, and the homes and land of most Burundians are scattered across the hilly countryside; IDPs also live in rural areas, but in more concentrated settlements numbering from a few hundred to several thousand people. Due to the crowded arrangement of settlements, young couples have difficulty in finding space to build a home for themselves.

Reflecting the wider discrimination against their ethnic group, internally displaced Batwa people are marginalised and live in particularly difficult conditions, in huts with leaf roofing set apart from other IDPs.

As land plots in the settlements are small, IDPs generally live from farming the land they originally owned. While the majority still have access to their original fields, the land can be several hours walk away from their settlement, and so IDPs and particularly the older and sick people among them, often struggle to cultivate it. The distance to their fields also means that they cannot raise livestock or protect their crops from theft. Many widows and orphaned girls cannot access their land, because it has been taken over by family members.

The last comprehensive survey of the settlements, conducted by OCHA in 2005, found that over 50 per cent of IDPs had no intention of returning to their places of origin. Since then, few have returned, mostly because better basic services are available around the settlements, but also because they have increasingly established ties with other IDPs and surrounding communities. Older people also remember with fear their displacement and the former neighbours who caused it. The country has experienced widespread violence and banditry over the years, and living closer together rather than in traditional scattered upland homes has made IDPs feel safer.

Large IDP settlements have attracted people from surrounding communities. IDPs report good relationships with their non-displaced neighbours and participate in community affairs and social events. Their children generally attend primary schools in neighbouring communities without fear of discrimination. While the health centres outside the settlements are generally overcrowded, poorly stocked, and unaffordable for poor Burundians, IDPs do at least have equal access to them.

The sustainability of many IDPs’ situations is threatened by their insecure tenure in the settlements and the outstanding claims on the land. Many IDPs were settled by the government on privately-owned land, and many owners are now trying to take possession again. In 2006, the government established the National Commission for Land and Other Possessions (CNTB) to resolve land and other property disputes involving people affected by the conflict. Some people claiming to own the land of IDP settlements have turned to the Commission, but IDPs have generally used mediation by traditional chiefs and local authorities to settle disputes, as they find them more accessible and quicker to issue decisions.

The Ministry of National Solidarity, Refugee Return and Social Reintegration is in charge of supporting the reintegration of IDPs and returnees. In March 2010, the government adopted a “socio-economic reintegration strategy for people affected by the conflict” and set up a technical working group to develop a policy for durable solutions. The group convened for the first time in October. The participation of UNHCR in this new working group signalled an increased engagement of the UN in the search for durable solutions. The UN had introduced the cluster system in Burundi in 2008 but it had made little difference to IDPs.

Burundi has ratified the Great Lakes Pact and signed the Kampala Convention in 2009; however it had not ratified the Convention by the end of 2010.
Nearly eight per cent of the 4.5 million citizens of the Central African Republic (CAR) are either internally displaced or living as refugees outside the country. In November 2010, the UN estimated the number of IDPs at over 192,000, including about 25,000 people who had been newly displaced during the year.

Armed conflict broke out in 2005 between the government of President François Bozizé and armed opposition groups seeking greater political representation and a share of power. The fighting lasted until mid-2008, causing the displacement of 300,000 people, either within CAR or across the border into neighbouring Cameroon and Chad. Displacement was also caused by criminal gangs who were attacking the civilian population. The gangs acted with impunity, taking advantage of government forces overstretched in the wake of the conflict. In 2008, the UN estimated that a third of all people displaced in CAR had been displaced by criminal gangs. The state’s inability to control its territory had also made CAR a base for foreign armed groups such as the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA) which had originally been in northern Uganda. The LRA had displaced more than 20,000 people in eastern CAR since 2008, including 12,000 people in April and May 2010.

UN peacekeeping troops of the MINURCAT force stationed in CAR and Chad were withdrawn in 2010 at the request of the government of Chad; President Bozizé asked for international help to ensure security following their departure. Despite peace talks and various peace agreements in 2008 and 2009 between the government and armed opposition groups, a splinter rebel group remained active in the north of the country and carried out attacks from June to October 2010, highlighting the fragility of the peace process and the lack of stability in the run-up to the presidential election, that took place in January 2011.

IDPs in CAR have suffered from a range of human rights violations and abuses, including unlawful killings, sexual violence, and the abduction and recruitment of internally displaced children. Their villages and fields have been looted and destroyed, causing them to lose their livelihoods. Most IDPs were living in 2010 among host communities in remote rural towns while others were still in the bush. IDPs living with host communities relied almost entirely on them for support; those living in the bush received no assistance because of problems of access. While IDPs had not received support to return to their homes, sporadic ad-hoc returns were reported in 2010.

Until 2009, the government had charged the Ministry of Social Affairs with coordinating assistance to IDPs. However, it had neither the funds nor the capacity to respond to their needs. In 2009, CAR’s High Commissioner for Human Rights and Good Governance created a national standing committee to coordinate a national response to internal displacement. Despite these efforts, the government had been unable to assist IDPs by 2010. However, it made several regional and international commitments during the year which could have a positive impact on the protection of IDPs. It signed the N’Djamena Declaration to end the recruitment and use of children by armed forces and groups, the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflict, and the Kinshasa Convention to limit the spread of small and light-calibre weapons. CAR has signed the Great Lakes Pact and took steps in 2010 towards ratification of the Kampala Convention.

In 2010, ministers from CAR, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Sudan, and Uganda met in CAR’s capital Bangui to set up a joint military task force under the supervision of the AU to pursue the LRA across the region’s vast and porous borders. With the help of the UN, the government was developing a national legal and institutional framework to address internal displacement.

UN agencies and international NGOs have provided some limited protection and assistance to conflict-affected communities in CAR. The cluster system was introduced in 2007 and there were by 2010 ten clusters in operation, including a protection cluster led by UNHCR. However, humanitarian projects remained under-funded. By year’s end, only 43 per cent of the $149 million requested in the revised 2010 Consolidated Appeals Process had been funded. The UN Peacebuilding Commission allocated $20 million to support security sector reform, economic revitalisation and rule of law programmes, while the Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF) gave UN agencies $3 million to assist 500,000 people affected by the ongoing conflict.
**Chad**

**Quick facts**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of IDPs</td>
<td>171,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement</td>
<td>2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
<td>185,000 (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At the end of 2010, 171,000 people were still internally displaced in eastern Chad, four years after being forced to flee because of armed conflict, inter-ethnic violence over land and natural resources, and attacks by bandits. This number had fallen slightly from a 2007 high of 185,000, or about one fifth of the population of eastern Chad.

While the causes of internal displacement had largely ended and no new internal displacement was reported during the year, ongoing insecurity from attacks by criminal gangs and the lack of basic services in areas of return continued to stand in the way of durable solutions for most IDPs. Only 43,000 IDPs were able to return to their villages of origin in 2009 and 2010. The government estimated that another 30,000 were ready to return, but many of the IDPs maintained that conditions were not in place to make their returns sustainable.

In 2010, most IDPs were still living in 38 camps; the majority had little or no means of sustaining themselves and they suffered from the lack of livelihood opportunities, particularly as they had no access to farming land. At the camps the IDPs were able to access some level of international protection and assistance.

The insecurity they faced was increased by the widespread circulation of small arms. Violence against women and girls, including sexual violence, domestic violence, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation were also reported in 2010, and the violence was being perpetrated by members of their own communities, inside IDP camps. There was a lack of any effective referral system for survivors of sexual violence, to enable them to access justice as well as psycho-social care.

Displaced children also faced a range of violations of their rights. Government armed forces continued to recruit displaced children, despite a 2007 agreement with UNICEF to demobilise children from the army and integrated rebel groups. In IDP camps they had limited access to primary education and no chance of further schooling.

In 2010, a worsening food and malnutrition crisis compounded these problems. Two million Chadians, including IDPs, faced severe food shortages. A serious drought reduced agricultural production by 34 per cent and caused the loss of 780,000 cattle. The drought was followed by the heaviest rains to hit Chad in 40 years, which affected close to 150,000 people including 70,000 whose homes were destroyed by floods. The destruction of roads and bridges made the delivery of food and medicines extremely difficult, and despite the efforts of relief agencies, high rates of malnutrition resulted among children under the age of five and a cholera epidemic broke out.

In early 2010, President Déby called for the withdrawal of all UN peacekeeping troops of the MINURCAT force from Chad. The president argued that MINURCAT had been slow to deploy and had failed to protect civilians or build promised infrastructure projects. The UNSC approved the request and the withdrawal of troops was completed by the end of the year.

While the Security Council acknowledged the government’s commitment to take full responsibility for the protection of civilians, other UN officials warned that Chad’s security forces lacked the training, leadership and technical capacity to ensure security and called for continued international support.

In 2007 the government established a national committee to assist IDPs and in 2008 a national mechanism to coordinate humanitarian activities with international peacekeeping troops. However the impact of these bodies has been limited as neither has had the staff and resources, or the permanent presence in areas of displacement, that would allow them to provide assistance and facilitate durable solutions for IDPs.

In 2010 the government undertook a number of initiatives which could have a positive impact on the protection of IDPs, including the improvement of relations between Chad and Sudan marked by the deployment of a joint border security force, the signing of the N’Djamena Declaration to end the recruitment and use of children by armed forces and groups, and the ratification of the Kampala Convention. However, the government had yet to enact national legislation to protect IDPs and to respond to violence against internally displaced women.

The UN’s humanitarian response was led by a Resident Coordinator / Humanitarian Coordinator. More than 70 international organisations provided assistance to displaced communities including IDPs and refugees from Darfur. The cluster system was introduced in 2007 and 13 clusters were operational by 2010, including the protection cluster led by UNHCR. By year’s end, 69 per cent of the $544 million requested in the 2010 Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP) had been funded. The UN’s Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF) allocated $15 million to the 2010 CAP to respond to the food and malnutrition crisis.
Reliable and up-to-date data on the number of people displaced in Côte d’Ivoire remained scarce in 2010, as a large number of the people internally displaced as a result of the civil war that ran between 2002 and 2007 had sought refuge with friends and family. Mechanisms to monitor their situation were only set up in the western regions of Moyen Cavally and Dix-huit Montagnes. In June 2010, UNCHR estimated that almost 520,000 people remained internally displaced, of whom 52 per cent were women and girls.

Up until November, localised communal conflicts had been the main causes of internal displacement in the country in 2010. However, violent clashes followed the second round of voting in the Ivorian presidential election at the end of November, after both the candidates, incumbent president Laurent Gbagbo and Alassane Ouattara, claimed victory. The violence caused new displacement within and from the country. On 30 December, OCHA estimated that almost 1,600 people had been newly displaced in Duekoué in Moyen Cavally, and almost 1,200 in Danané (Dix-huit Montagnes). OCHA also estimated that more than 16,500 people had fled the country. There was no further information available on the patterns of internal displacement or the number of people displaced in the rest of the country.

During 2010, the majority of IDPs who returned to their places of origin or habitual residence did so mostly without support, as humanitarian and government agencies organised returns and distributed aid packages on an ad-hoc basis. According to UN sources, close to 90,000 IDPs made their way home between 2007 and mid-2010. The peaceful return of IDPs and their inclusion into local decision-making processes was facilitated by peace committees in some villages. However, land conflicts, rampant criminality, human rights abuses and the prevalent impunity of their perpetrators all remained considerable obstacles to the sustainability of returns.

Land disputes between migrants (originating from other regions of Côte d’Ivoire or from other West African countries) and Ivorians considered native to communities in western regions were among the triggers to the conflict, with natives contesting migrants’ right to land. In many cases, while people were displaced, the plots they had planted were either sold or leased by others. As IDPs returned in 2010, land disputes multiplied over the customary rights to the land.

In the absence of a restitution or compensation process, the 1998 Rural Land Law has been the only statutory framework for resolving land disputes. The law was designed to clarify customary rights over land and transform them into formal property rights. However, there was still very little awareness of the law in 2010, and it was seldom implemented. In order to promote consistent practice in preventing and settling land disputes, humanitarian agencies and national institutions set up a local mechanism in Moyen Cavally through which they could share problems and find coordinated solutions.

In 2010, the government continued to call for the return of all IDPs to their original homes. Yet the Ministry of Reconstruction and Reinsertion, which had been supporting IDP return movements in the course of 2009, was abolished in a government reshuffle in February 2010. In the same reshuffle, the IDP focal point role was passed from the Ministry of Solidarity and War Victims to the new National Secretariat for Solidarity and War Victims, further delaying the finalisation of a national legal framework upholding the rights of IDPs as well as the ratification of the Kampala Convention.

At the beginning of 2010, Côte d’Ivoire’s humanitarian emergency appeared to have ended, and so international agencies started to shift their focus towards development activities. No humanitarian appeal was launched for 2010, and Côte d’Ivoire was not among the countries to benefit from the Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF) in 2010. OCHA’s activities were also substantially reduced.

By the end of the year, however, as the humanitarian situation deteriorated as a result of the post-election violence, the international community made changes to the 2011 Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP) for West Africa, which had been launched in November. The updated UN contingency plan envisaged that two million people could be affected by the post-election violence and up to 450,000 internally displaced in 2011.
As of the end of 2010, 1.7 million people were internally displaced in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) by various conflicts which had killed several million people since the mid-1990s. Several hundred thousand people abandoned their homes in 2010, adding to the estimated million who were forced to flee during 2009. Meanwhile, a million people reportedly returned home between mid-2009 and the end of 2010.

The new displacement in 2010 was caused by fighting between militia groups and Congolese armed forces supported by the UN, as well as by attacks and violence against civilians by all the parties to these conflicts.

An estimated 510,000 people were displaced in North Kivu and 750,000 in South Kivu at the end of 2010. The army conducted operations against the Hutu Democratic Liberation Forces of Rwanda (FDLR) in North and South Kivu, sometimes with the support of UN peacekeeping troops. However, FDLR fighters operating with other armed groups such as the Mai Mai reoccupied several areas of North Kivu and stepped up attacks on civilians in both provinces. Hundreds of thousands of people were displaced, and tens of thousands of people also fled from South Kivu to Katanga Province.

In North Kivu, army operations against the Allied Democratic Forces – National Army for the Liberation of Uganda (ADF-NALU) resulted in the displacement of up to 100,000 civilians, most of whom had returned by the end of the year. The return of ethnic Tutsi refugees from Rwanda to areas of North Kivu also continued to lead to tensions with other ethnic groups over resources.

In Orientale Province, attacks in Lower Uele and Upper Uele Districts by the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA), and in Ituri District by local militias, also led to significant displacement in 2010. Almost 400,000 people were internally displaced in the province at the end of the year. In addition, in the western Equateur Province, over 47,000 people remained displaced after fleeing inter-communal clashes at the end of 2009.

Across eastern DRC, many members of the minority Batwa group were displaced from the forests by rebels hiding from government troops. They have been particularly vulnerable as they face widespread discrimination by other ethnic groups.

IDPs are dispersed in rural and urban areas, where they have either supported themselves or relied on the limited resources of hosts. However, with communities increasingly unable to cope with the influx of people, IDPs in North Kivu have also been forced to take refuge in dilapidated buildings or in camps managed by international NGOs under the co-ordination of UNHCR. Some 72,000 IDPs were in 31 camps in North Kivu at the end of 2010.

The killing and rape of IDPs and other civilians continued at a horrifying rate in eastern DRC in 2010. The UN reported 15,000 rapes in DRC in 2009, but many more have gone unreported. Both rebel groups and poorly trained and barely-paid government forces attacked civilians, to defeat historic enemies and also to secure territory in order to benefit from agricultural land and the extraction of natural resources. Women and children remained at great risk of sexual violence. Displacement and the breakdown of communities have also made children more vulnerable, leaving them easy targets for forced recruitment.

The justice system has seldom provided justice; in 2010, OHCHR highlighted that the vast majority of perpetrators of the most serious violations of human rights and international humanitarian law committed in DRC between 1993 and 2003, including forced displacement, had not been brought to justice.

Most IDPs and returnees have lacked access to basic services such as health centres, schools and roads, and to clean water, food, seeds, tools, clothes and materials to build houses. The protracted conflict and displacement have been identified as the main causes of food insecurity in eastern DRC. The conflict has also led to the disruption of education for many children.

Many IDPs have sought to integrate in their place of displacement or settle elsewhere. Tens of thousands are believed to have resettled, particularly in towns, following the destruction or occupation of their villages. However, only return movements have been formally monitored. Return has not always proved sustainable, as renewed clashes have often forced people to flee again. However, in a 2010 survey, most returning IDPs in North and South Kivu reported that better security had

### Quick facts

| Number of IDPs | About 1,700,000 |
| Percentage of total population | About 2.5% |
| Start of current displacement situation | 1996 |
| Peak number of IDPs (Year) | 3,400,000 (2003) |
| New displacement | At least 400,000 |
| Causes of displacement | Armed conflict, deliberate policy or practice of arbitrary displacement, human rights violations |
| Human development index | 168 |
prompted their return, and that they had been able to recover their former homes.

DRC has ratified the Great Lakes Pact and signed, but not ratified, the Kampala Convention. The government has made the Ministry for Solidarity and Humanitarian Affairs responsible for IDPs, but it has had no impact and there has been no legislation to support their protection. A report submitted by seven UN experts to the Human Rights Council in 2010 found that the government had neglected its responsibilities to protect and assist IDPs and returnees.

In May 2010, MONUSCO replaced MONUC, the largest UN peacekeeping mission in the world, with a mandate directed more towards post-conflict stabilisation. Both MONUSCO and MONUC have been criticised, particularly by international NGOs and the media, for failing to protect IDPs and other civilians. Following a mass rape in the Walikale region of North Kivu, MONUSCO undertook to review the way it protects civilians. While the conflict continues unresolved, the UN and the government launched in 2010 two transition plans for eastern DRC, focusing on security, stabilisation and reconstruction.

Humanitarian agencies and local NGOs have struggled to respond to the needs of IDPs and other vulnerable people in a context of ongoing military operations and increased attacks against humanitarian workers. Some 120 security incidents involving humanitarian organisations were reported during the first half of 2010, twice the number reported during the same period in 2009. International agencies have increasingly delivered assistance through local NGOs and particularly the Catholic Church and its network. Most local organisations work with almost no money in incredibly dangerous conditions.

The size of the country, the absence of roads and the wide dispersal of IDPs have hampered the delivery of support. Unicef and OCHA share a system to provide needs-based emergency assistance to IDPs and their host communities, returnees and populations affected by sudden-onset disasters. International organisations including UN-HABITAT and NRC have carried out emergency mediation and reconciliation activities to support returns. Local NGOs have offered counseling and assistance to IDPs and other vulnerable people.

The UN introduced the cluster system in 2006. The protection cluster (led by UNHCR) and the reintegration and community recovery cluster (led by UNHCR and UNDP) are particularly relevant to IDPs. An April 2010 evaluation found that clusters had led to improved coordination of humanitarian activities in the east, but that decision-making and coordination were still focused in Kinshasa. The DRC Humanitarian Action Plan received $358 million in 2010, significantly below the $694 million donated in 2009, despite the continuing humanitarian needs in the east.

In September 2010, an OCHA/JIPS study of IDPs living outside camps in North Kivu found that organisations dedicated only very limited resources to gathering data on IDPs, and that they had no common methods of surveying or analysis. OCHA also carried out a comprehensive profiling exercise in Lubero territory, home of the majority of North Kivu’s IDPs, which led to a lower estimate of the number of IDPs there.

### Eritrea

In 1993, in a referendum supported by Ethiopia, Eritreans voted almost unanimously for independence from Ethiopia. However, in 1998, disputes over the status of the border town of Badme erupted into open hostilities between the two countries. This conflict ended with a peace deal in June 2000, but before both sides had lost hundreds of lives and over a million Eritreans had been internally displaced.

Immediately after the cessation of hostilities, the government of Eritrea embarked on a programme to return or resettle IDPs. According to UN agencies, there were no IDP camps remaining in 2010 and all IDPs had either returned or resettled. However, other sources reported that a small number of people remained displaced in cities such as Asmara and Massawa. There was little information on the welfare of the many people who had returned or resettled.

Eritrea had not by 2010 signed the Kampala Convention, the 1951 Refugee Convention or its 1967 Protocol, or the 1969 African Union Convention Governing the Specific Aspect of the Refugee Problem in Africa. Partly as a result, humanitarian assistance and monitoring were extremely restricted, and the government did not permit the distribution of food aid. In 2010, UNHCR maintained an office but did not have any protection programmes in the country. There were no independent national human rights groups, and only four international humanitarian NGOs carried out operations, which were severely restricted.

Nonetheless, human rights organisations such as Human Rights Watch and Amnesty International, as well as the Eritrean diaspora community, accused the Eritrean state of serious violations of human rights. Meanwhile, the continuing impasse over the demarcation of the border and the status of Badme presented an ongoing risk of renewed instability in the Horn of Africa.
For decades, Ethiopia has faced international, internal and regional conflicts, and episodes of localised violence between communities and ethnic groups driven by the struggle for political power and control of resources.

From 1977 to 1978, Ethiopia waged a war with Somalia in which the United States and the former Soviet Union were involved. The war against Eritrea from 1998 to 2000, the ongoing protracted armed struggles for self-determination in Oromiya and Somali Regions, and localised violence in regions including Gambella and Benishangul-Gumuz, have led more recently to large-scale loss of life and internal displacement.

The Ethiopia-Eritrea War, fought between 1998 and 2000 over a disputed border area, claimed the lives of tens of thousands of people and displaced over 350,000 on the Ethiopian side alone. Even though most of the IDPs have returned to their places of origin, some of them, and in particular Ethiopians of Eritrean origin, have faced a situation similar to statelessness (they are considered as refugees by Ethiopia), and have remained in camps under the protection of UNHCR.

Since then, internal armed conflicts and localised episodes of violence have caused displacement in various areas. Government forces have continued to fight insurgency groups including the Ogaden National Liberation Front in Somali Region and the Oromo Liberation Front in the south of the country. In Somali Region, fighting continued in 2010 despite the government’s peacemaking efforts; at the end of December, it signed a peace agreement with a splinter group of the Ogaden National Liberation Front (ONLF). While the text of the agreement was not made public, issues related to internal displacement were reportedly not discussed. Despite this initiative, attacks in December 2010 by Ethiopian security forces on villages in Somali Region reportedly led to the death of about 20 civilians and the displacement of hundreds of families.

Ethnic clashes and inter-communal violence were also ongoing in various parts of the country in 2010. Major causes of conflict included political disputes, territorial claims, struggles for control over natural resources, government “villagisation” resettlement programmes and other issues related to culture and identity. In April 2010, clashes among ethnic Nuer clans drove thousands of people from their homes in Gambella region. Local leaders accused the government of not doing enough to facilitate reconciliation or provide protection and livelihoods opportunities to members of their communities, and of leaving IDPs and the host community to suffer the consequences.

As of December 2010, it was estimated that about 300,000 people remained internally displaced by all these events. Nearly all of these IDPs had reportedly sought shelter with relatives or fled into the bush for safety. There were no organised camps for people internally displaced by conflict or violence in the country. Restrictions by the government have made it difficult for humanitarian and human rights agencies to collect reliable information on their numbers or their situation.

In displacement-affected regions such as Somali, southern Oromiya and Gambella, the food security, health, nutrition, and access to water of communities were all of major concern. In Gambella and Somali, local authorities and humanitarian organisations reported that thousands of vulnerable people were living in destitution as a result of their displacement.

Despite the presumed levels of humanitarian need in displacement areas, the government restricted the access to conflict areas of international humanitarian agencies and human rights monitors. It also introduced laws in January 2009 that severely restricted their activities; thus it was not possible for international agencies to assess the profile and needs of people displaced by conflict, violence or human rights violations.

Ethiopia does not have a national legal framework for the protection of IDPs. It was one of the first countries to sign the Kampala Convention but had not ratified it as of the end of 2010. The national response to conflict-induced displacement was criticised by national and international agencies operating in the country, and human rights organisations and opposition leaders also accused the government of restricting the provision of food and other assistance to regions which it perceived as opposition strongholds.
There have been a number of situations of internal displacement in Kenya over many years; they have varied widely in terms of the number of people affected and the duration of the displacement. People have been displaced by politically-motivated ethnic violence, conflict over natural resources which in some cases followed changes in weather patterns and disasters including drought and floods, government disarmament and counter-insurgency campaigns, and the insecurity which continued after all these events. In 2010, localised violence and operations by security forces led to displacement.

Most of these conflicts have featured long-running land disputes, and national and local leaders have often used these grievances to mobilise people to resort to violence. Meanwhile, recurrent droughts have forced pastoralists to move away from traditional grazing lands, leading to clashes with sedentary communities that have repeatedly caused internal displacement. The resulting loss of livelihoods has inhibited the social and economic development of large areas, and led to chronic vulnerability which has lasted for decades.

The large-scale post-election violence in 2007 and 2008 brought internal displacement in Kenya to the attention of the international community. The declared outcome of the presidential election of 2007 was widely disputed, and the widespread inter-communal violence which broke out led to the displacement of over 650,000 people in 2008. In order to end the violence, Kenya initiated a dialogue and reconciliation process with help from the international community, which led to a power-sharing arrangement and a national accord. The accord provided a plan to deal with immediate humanitarian issues and prevent future violence, including by ending the impunity of perpetrators of violence and human rights abuses and promoting broader accountability of government and institutions.

Most of the people displaced by the violence fled to urban areas and areas where their ethnic group was in the majority. A large number took refuge in camps. In 2008, the government launched Operation Rudi Nyumbani (“return home”), to encourage IDPs to return to their places of origin. Many went back though they did not feel safe there, while a large number moved to transit sites where they often faced worse conditions than in the main camps. However, according to the protection cluster in Kenya, some IDPs were in 2010 still in transit camps and other camps like Pipeline IDP camp in the Rift Valley, which hosted over 1,000 families. Efforts to resettle them had been beset by corruption and at times resistance from the proposed host communities. For example, Maasai politicians resisted the resettlement of Kikuyu IDPs to areas they claimed were their ancestral lands.

The perpetrators of the post-election violence included members of Kenya’s commercial and political elites. Human rights organisations have reported that perpetrators of violence have routinely avoided prosecution. Kenya has yet to repeal the 1972 Indemnity Act, which was enacted to shield members of the security forces from prosecution for human rights violations perpetrated in the 1960s against ethnic Somalis and other nomadic peoples of northern Kenya, which caused massive displacement. However, in December 2010, the International Criminal Court named six Kenyans whom it intended to investigate for organising the violence, including three government ministers.

The government provided some assistance to those internally displaced by the post-election violence, but has done little to assist other groups of IDPs. For example, people displaced as a result of state disarmament programmes, as in Mount Elgon in 2008, have had no access to justice.

In the absence of consistent reporting of displacement, there were no reliable figures available on the number of IDPs in 2010. However, several new displacements resulting from conflict over natural resources and from human rights violations were reported. In May, families were forced to flee their homes in Isiolo, Samburu, Turkana and Marsabit districts as a result of human rights violations committed by government armed forces engaged in a programme to disarm pastoralists. In October, inter-ethnic violence over land led to the displacement of hundreds of people in Garissa District of North Eastern Province. In November and December, army operations to expel Ethiopian rebels of the Oromo Liberation Front (OLF) from northern border areas reportedly caused the internal displacement of civilians. The OLF caused further displacement by attacking people they believed to be reporting their presence.

A positive development in 2010 was the formulation by the government of a draft national IDP policy. The policy, designed to prevent displacement, ensure assistance to IDPs, and promote durable solutions, was expected to be submitted for ratification by the government in 2011.
Liberia

Quick facts

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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>162</td>
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Following the end of a 14-year civil war in 2003, the number of IDPs in Liberia dwindled from an estimated 500,000 to only a few thousand by 2010. With the support of UNHCR, IOM and WFP, IDPs began to return in large numbers from 2004 to 2006, by which point all 35 camps which had hosted almost 330,000 IDPs were officially closed.

By the end of 2010, the Liberian government and its international counterparts considered the internal displacement situation over. Nonetheless, the situation of an unknown number of displaced people, who had sought refuge in public buildings in the capital Monrovia and who had never returned to their homes in late 2008 and early 2009. The number of people remaining displaced in 2010 was unknown.

Disputes over the use and ownership of land in return areas have continued; the failure to resolve these issues has stood in the way of the re-establishment of long-term security. Recurrent outbursts of violence between rival ethnic groups, such as those between Muslims and Christians in Lofa County in February 2010, have demonstrated the fragility of the situation. Violence against women and girls has remained widespread.

At the same time, displacement and migration into urban areas has put great pressure on urban facilities, and in October, the National Land Commission convened a conference to formulate guidelines for the development of an urban land policy as a step to address the land issues in the country.

General and presidential elections are due to be held in October 2011, and the effectiveness of the electoral process will serve as an indicator of the level of peace and stability. Liberia adopted the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement into national legislation in 2004, and was among the first countries to sign the Kampala Convention in October 2009. However, better governance and wider access to justice are needed if people are to achieve truly durable solutions.

Niger

Quick facts

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<th>Number of IDPs</th>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
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<td>Armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations</td>
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<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>167</td>
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</table>

In Niger, people have been internally displaced by armed conflict between government forces and Tuareg factions in the northern region of Agadez, and by clashes between sedentary farmers and nomadic pastoralists across the country and especially along the western border with Mali.

The Tuareg insurgency broke out in 1990, driven by economic and political grievances. A 1995 peace agreement between the government and the different Tuareg factions put a halt to the violence, but in 2007 a new militant group, the Niger Movement for Justice (MNJ) reignited the conflict and an estimated 11,000 people were newly displaced. The conflict abated as the government and MNJ held talks, and an estimated 4,500 IDPs returned to their homes in late 2008 and early 2009. The number of people remaining displaced in 2010 was unknown.

According to the ICRC, in some areas such as Tillabéry in north-west Niger, inter-communal violence has increased since the armed conflict ended in 2009. However very little information is available on resulting displacement.

In October 2010, voters accepted a new constitution, marking an important step toward the return to civilian rule after a military coup led by Lieutenant-General Salou Djibo ousted President Mamadou Tandja from power in February 2010. Presidential and parliamentary elections have been scheduled for January 2011.

Niger had not signed the Kampala Convention by the end of 2010. In July 2010, the UN Country Team accused the government of ignoring the situation of IDPs.

UNHCR called on the government to do more to protect IDPs’ rights, and specifically those rights relating to a voluntary and safe return and the recovery of lost property.
Nigeria has experienced recurring conflicts along regional, religious, linguistic and ethnic lines since the country’s return from military rule to democracy in 1999. These conflicts have led to fluctuating but consistently large numbers of IDPs.

There is a lack of reliable data on the number of IDPs in the country and no comprehensive survey on internal displacement has been conducted. Generally, the estimates provided by government and non-governmental agencies have only included people who have sought shelter at temporary IDP camps, and do not reflect the many who have taken refuge with family and friends. Furthermore, data is usually not disaggregated by age and sex and only refers to localised displacement situations. Due to the absence of mechanisms to monitor IDPs’ ongoing situations, it is impossible to determine whether IDPs may have achieved durable solutions.

In May 2010, following the death of the president Umaru Yar’Adua, vice-president Goodluck Jonathan assumed the interim presidency until presidential elections planned for April 2011. There were clashes between supporters of the opposing candidates in some of the northern states in 2010, and more are likely as the competition for the presidency intensifies; such clashes may lead to internal displacement as they have during past elections.

In early 2010, inter-ethnic violence, fuelled by widespread poverty and disputes over resources, erupted in the city of Jos in Plateau State, resulting in the displacement of at least 5,000 people. Some of the people who were displaced sought shelter in police barracks, mosques and churches, and others with family and friends in the city. Some fled to neighbouring Bauchi State, where they found refuge in camps set up by the National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA). Humanitarian aid was slow to reach the camps and many IDPs reported suffering from lack of food and other basic items in the aftermath of the violence. As of October 2010, some IDPs were still trying to return to their villages and rebuild their homes. A resettlement programme was initiated by NEMA and the Bauchi State government for the IDPs who were unwilling to return to Jos.

In the southern Niger Delta region, around 8,000 residents of the villages of Oporosa and Okorokoro were still displaced in 2010 following clashes between government troops and militants of the Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta (MEND) in May 2009. Most were reportedly staying with friends and relatives in neighbouring villages in Delta State, while waiting for the reconstruction of their villages to start. In December 2010, hundreds of families were displaced in the region following an attack on the village of Ayakoromor by the armed forces’ Joint Task Force.

Natural disasters such as flooding and soil erosion have also regularly caused internal displacement in Nigeria. In conflict-affected states, these natural disasters have complicated displacement and return patterns. In some cases, it has also been difficult to distinguish between people displaced by conflict and disaster.

The government drafted a national IDP policy in 2004, but the policy was never formally adopted. However, in 2010, it appealed to the UN to support a profiling exercise to obtain more precise data on internal displacement, indicating its recognition of the need to take a more comprehensive approach to the problem. Nigeria has signed but not yet ratified the Kampala Convention.

In the absence of policy and legal frameworks, the responsibility to respond to displacement lies with local authorities. There are State Emergency Management Agencies in some states, which step in where local authorities are unable to respond. At the federal level, NEMA coordinates emergency relief operations and victim assistance and may intervene upon the president’s decision.

As NEMA only has resources to respond to short-term emergencies, the National Commission for Refugees (NCFR) has taken effective responsibility for longer-term support measures enabling durable solutions for IDPs and refugees. However, it too lacks resources, and other government agencies have been brought in on a case-by-case basis in an effort to respond to crises.

International aid for Nigeria and the UN’s interventions have not focused on IDPs, but rather on development activities designed to encourage democratic processes and respect for the rule of law and human rights.
### Senegal

<table>
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<th>Quick facts</th>
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<td>10,000–40,000</td>
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<td>0.1–0.3%</td>
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<td>Start of current displacement situation</td>
<td>1982</td>
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<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
<td>70,000 (2007)</td>
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<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>About 4,000</td>
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<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Armed conflict, human rights violations</td>
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<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>144</td>
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</table>

Successive peace agreements have failed to put an end to low-intensity conflict in Senegal’s Casamance Region, where government forces and the separatist Movement of Democratic Forces in the Casamance (MFDC) have been fighting since 1982. Cultural discrimination, a lack of livelihood opportunities and an influx of people from other regions following a land reform imposed by the government all helped to cause the conflict. During 2009 and at the beginning of 2010, clashes between government forces and the MFDC grew more frequent and intense in southern Casamance, and reportedly led to the new displacement of approximately 4,000 people.

There has been no reliable data on the overall number of IDPs. Since 2008, many people have returned but the number of people whose return has been sustainable is unknown, as is the number who have successfully integrated in their place of displacement or settled elsewhere. There were between 10,000 to 40,000 IDPs in 2010, many of them in Ziguinchor, the largest city of Casamance.

Limited access to land has stopped many IDPs developing sustainable livelihoods, due in part to the many landmines in the areas they fled from. In these areas crime has been rampant and infrastructure and basic services have remained poor. Women and children remain most at risk: displaced children have often struggled in integrated classes in areas of displacement, and others have been abandoned by families facing poverty. Many women have been forced to turn to begging or prostitution to support themselves and their families.

Senegal has not signed the Kampala Convention and has no national bodies, legislation or policies in support of IDPs. The government’s response has instead included IDPs in wider reconstruction, peacebuilding and development activities, such as the Programme for Revival of Economic and Social activities (PRAESC).

International programmes have also targeted wider populations; some of benefit to IDPs have focused on food security, education, demobilisation and reintegration of combatants, and reconstruction in areas of return.

Internally displaced women and children in Mogadishu, Somalia. In 2010 about 1.5 million Somalis were internally displaced.

(Photo: UNHCR/M. Sheikh Nor, March 2010)
Violent armed conflict has continued unabated in Somalia for almost two decades, and particularly since late 2006. It has caused an ongoing humanitarian crisis, with one in six Somalis internally displaced in 2010. Fighting was intense, particularly in and around the capital Mogadishu, during the intervention of Ethiopian forces from December 2006 and after Ethiopia withdrew its forces in early 2009. After a brief lull, fighting has continued since erupting again in May 2009. By the end of 2010, over 1,000 people had been killed during the year due to shelling of civilian areas; there was no prospect of an end to the violence and all efforts at peace-making had been unsuccessful.

The almost daily fighting between forces of the Transitional Federal Government (TFG) and its partners and insurgent groups led to continuing massive displacement. According to the population movement tracking system of the international humanitarian agencies in Somalia, almost 170,000 people were newly internally displaced in the first half of 2010 by fighting between, on the one hand, government troops and their allies of the African Union Mission in Somalia (AMISOM, made up mostly of Ugandan soldiers), and on the other, insurgent groups. A further 105,000 people were displaced from July to October. In June alone, some 30,000 people were forced from their homes in the central regions of Hiiraan and Galgadud. Another 60,000 people fled their homes in Gedo region near the borders with Kenya and Ethiopia, as a result of fierce fighting between two armed groups. Apart from conflict, the poor rains in much of the country also led to massive displacement of people and their livestock in 2010. This further reduced the food security of people already displaced by the fighting, given that most of them depended on host communities for food.

Most IDPs had taken refuge in makeshift camps across the country and the ongoing clashes made it difficult for them to return to their homes. The informal camp around Afgooye, outside Mogadishu, hosted close to 500,000 IDPs and was probably the largest settlement of IDPs in the world. IDPs in these camps faced severe health and nutrition problems due to the lack of access to adequate shelter, food, clean water or sanitation. Food security and nutritional surveys carried out towards the end of 2010 by the UN’s Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Unit showed that the situation in IDP camps across the country was deteriorating.

Fighting sometimes took place very close to IDP camps, affecting the delivery of assistance as well as the security of camp residents. In May 2010, an insurgent group took over a clinic for IDPs in Afgooye camp, thereby depriving them of the already limited health care service. Internally displaced children continued to be recruited by some parties to the conflict, putting their lives at risk.

The fighting, and the ideological stance of insurgent groups who controlled most of south and central Somalia, continued to prevent the access of humanitarian organisations to vulnerable populations such as IDPs in 2010. IDPs in Mogadishu, Afgooye and Kismayu reportedly lacked food and other life-saving interventions as a result of these restrictions, increasing malnutrition and impacting on the health of mothers.

In 2010, insurgents in south and central Somalia imposed bans on eight humanitarian organisations, and these and other agencies increasingly resorted to delivering services through national staff and local implementing partners. Many activities were by 2010 planned and managed in Nairobi.

The actions of government troops and especially those of AMISOM also reportedly led to displacement in 2010. AMISOM was criticised for deliberately shelling civilian areas in retaliation for insurgent attacks. The TFG also reportedly interfered in the activities of aid organisations: in December 2010, it asked a number of international organisations to leave Mogadishu for failing to engage with it, but the directive was later reversed by the prime minister.

The UN and its partners adopted the cluster system in January 2006 to ensure greater predictability and accountability in the humanitarian response in Somalia. Nine clusters were active as of December 2010. However, their effectiveness continued to be limited by the insecurity in the country.

The Somali government was among the first to sign the Kampala Convention. However, it did not have any positive impact in preventing displacement or in providing protection for internally displaced Somalis in 2010.
Sudan

Sudan’s numerous situations of internal displacement have been caused by deep-rooted tensions between the central and peripheral regions, a highly inequitable division of power and wealth, and a government unwilling to acknowledge the country’s ethnic, linguistic and religious diversity. Estimates of the numbers of IDPs have remained inexact. In December 2010, a total of between 4.5 and 5.2 million IDPs were believed to be displaced in areas where estimates had been made: in the western region of Darfur, in and around Khartoum, in the state of Southern Kordofan, and in Southern Sudan. In addition, there were unknown numbers of IDPs in the other northern and eastern states.

In 1995, the long-running grievances of people in the eastern region over their perceived exclusion and marginalisation fuelled an uprising by a coalition known as the Eastern Front. In October 2006, the Eastern Front and the government signed the Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement; but its implementation has been extremely slow and the east remained relatively underdeveloped in 2010.

At the end of 2008 there were reportedly still up to 420,000 IDPs in the region, including 68,000 in the city of Kassala. However, restrictions on access have since made it impossible to determine the number of people still internally displaced. Although the access to the region of humanitarian organisations and particularly UN agencies improved in 2010, the government in Khartoum continued to impose severe restrictions on access to Red Sea State. Humanitarian assistance has also been limited and just over 50 per cent of camp-based IDPs were reported to be receiving food rations in September 2010.

Estimates of the number of IDPs in the greater Khartoum area varied in 2010 between 1.3 and 1.7 million; people were still displaced after fleeing from the south, from Darfur or from the east. Most IDPs in Khartoum lived outside officially-designated camps and resettlement areas, with some 300,000 to 400,000 living in camps where they had been allocated plots, and some squatting on private land.

Although Khartoum had enjoyed strong economic growth in recent years driven by the country’s greatly increased income from oil, the impact of the growth had been uneven and areas with internally displaced populations generally offered poor living conditions and few sustainable livelihood opportunities or basic services.

Southern Sudan

In Southern Sudan, civil war resumed in 1983 after the Southern Sudan People’s Liberation Army (SPLA) took up arms against the Khartoum government in protest at the imposition of sha’ria law. The war ended in January 2005 with the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA). The CPA set out detailed transitional arrangements concerning the sharing of power and wealth and the status of the “three areas” claimed by both the north and the south: Abyei, Southern Kordofan and Blue Nile. It also provided for nationwide elections, which finally took place in April 2010 after many delays, and a Southern Sudanese referendum on self-determination in January 2011.

A number of issues outlined in the CPA remained unresolved by Khartoum and the Government of Southern Sudan (GoSS) by 2010, including the demarcation of the shared border, including around the oil-rich area of Abyei, control of oil fields, water and grazing rights and the citizenship of southern residents in the north and northern residents in the south.

The total number of IDPs in Southern Sudan in 2010 was difficult to determine due to the large and complex population movements underway. More than 220,000 people were newly displaced in the first ten months of the year. Most of them were displaced in the states of Jonglei and Lakes by inter-tribal fighting, and in Western Equatoria by attacks by the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA). Inter-tribal violence decreased in 2010, primarily because good rains reduced disputes over water and grazing and led to a fall in the number of cattle raids. However, flooding caused the displacement of 50,000 people in Jonglei, Upper Nile, Unity and Northern Bahr el Ghazal States in September and October. In the last two months of 2010, several air raids by Khartoum forces were reported along the border between South Darfur and Northern Bahr el Ghazal States.

Of the approximately four million IDPs displaced by the civil war, IOM estimated that over two million returned to Southern Sudan, Abyei and Southern Kordofan between the signing of the CPA in January 2005 and the end of 2009. However, the organisation estimated that ten per cent of these returnees were eventually displaced once more.
In November and December, 120,000 IDPs returned from Khartoum ahead of the referendum. The majority of these returnees were reportedly without formal or long-term employment in the north, although the southerners who had decided to remain in the north might have had more stable jobs. There were reportedly a significant number of unaccompanied children, and families headed by women and children, among the returnees.

The achievement of durable solutions by returnees remains difficult in a region still affected by insecurity and limited access to water, health care, education and livelihood opportunities. In addition to IDPs arriving from the north, large numbers of people have been living in protracted displacement for years and sometimes decades within Southern Sudan. The GoSS has exclusively promoted the return of all Southern Sudanese IDPs and refugees to their home villages; however, many returnees who have lived in Khartoum for years and have acquired urban livelihood skills are reportedly not planning to return to their villages but instead to settle in Juba and other urban settlements in Southern Sudan.

Many returning IDPs have not only developed new livelihoods, but they have also grown accustomed to urban lifestyles, established new community affiliations, often changed their diets and become used to having access to education and medical services. Some face additional barriers to return, including a lack of access to the land, services or opportunities they need to establish their livelihoods. For this group, the only potentially durable settlement options are to integrate where they are or to resettle elsewhere, often in Southern Sudan’s rapidly expanding towns.

The UNSC established the UN Mission in Sudan (UNMIS) in 2005, to support the implementation of the CPA. UNMIS has a Chapter VII mandate which authorises the use of force to protect civilians. Its mandate is set to expire in July 2011, the termination date of the CPA process, and its future remains unclear and will be subject to discussions between Khartoum, GoSS and the UNSC.

In April 2010 the UN formally introduced the cluster system to coordinate humanitarian activities in Southern Sudan. UNHCR and NRC have co-led the protection cluster since July 2010.

**Darfur**

The Darfur conflict began in early 2003 when two loosely-allied rebel groups, the Sudan Liberation Movement/Army (SLM/A) and the Justice and Equality Movement (JEM), took up arms against the government in Khartoum. After protracted negotiations, and under pressure from the international community, the government in Khartoum and a faction of the SLM/A under the rebel leader Minni Minnawi signed the Darfur Peace Agreement (DPA) in May 2006. However, the DPA failed to bring peace and stability, instead triggering new waves of violence and displacement as rebel groups splintered into many factions.

Following heavy fighting between JEM and the Sudan Armed Forces (SAF), the government in Khartoum and JEM signed a joint commitment to find a peaceful solution to the conflict in January 2009. However, JEM pulled out in March 2009 following the International Criminal Court’s issue of an arrest warrant for President el-Bashir and the subsequent government decision to expel 13 international NGOs and dissolve three national NGOs.

The number of IDPs in Darfur is estimated at between 1.9 million and 2.7 million. Almost 270,000 people were displaced in the first nine months of 2010 due to violent clashes between rebel factions and government troops, and conflicts between anti-government forces which were often triggered by inter-tribal rivalries.

In peace negotiations brokered by the government of Qatar, Darfuri representatives failed to adopt a common position, provoking tensions between internally displaced communities. From late July to September 2010 there was conflict among the 44,000 residents of the Hamediya camp in West Darfur and also among the 82,000 IDPs in the Kalma camp in South Darfur. After the outbreak of violence in Kalma camp, the government in Khartoum moved forward with its plan to close the camp. Observers warned that the closure of the camp and resettlement of IDPs might include some degree of forced movement.

The protracted nature and massive scale of displacement have meant that many IDP camps have developed into urban centres, dramatically accelerating the process of urbanisation across Darfur. Many IDPs would prefer to settle permanently in these camps. Other IDPs have spent prolonged periods in cities in Darfur and elsewhere in Sudan, and many of them would choose to integrate in the place of displacement. However, a new strategy document released by the government in Khartoum in September 2010 focused solely on the return of IDPs to their original homes, without allowing for them to decide between settlement options.

UNAMID, a joint African Union/UN peacekeeping mission established in 2007, reports both to the UNSC and to the AU Peace and Security Council. UNAMID has currently been authorised until July 2011 to support the implementation of the DPA between the government in Khartoum and the faction of the SLM/A loyal to Minni Minnawi.

**National and international responses**

In January 2009, the government in Khartoum adopted a national IDP policy intended to cover all of Sudan, including the southern regions. However by the end of 2010 it had taken few steps to implement the policy.

Sudan has ratified the Pact on Security, Stability and Development in Africa’s Great Lakes Region, including the Pact’s protocols on the protection and assistance of IDPs and on the property rights of returnees. However, its implementation has remained stalled. Sudan has not yet signed the Kampala Convention.

In October 2010, the UN Human Rights Council renewed the mandate of the Independent Expert on the situation of human rights in Sudan. This was a crucial decision as no other mechanism provides a comprehensive overview of the human rights situation in Sudan.

The overall humanitarian operation in Sudan continues to be the largest in the world. The inter-agency 2010 Work Plan for Sudan was 64 per cent funded as of November 2010, with $1.1 billion of funds offered out of estimated needs totalling $1.84 billion.
Uganda

Quick facts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of IDPs</th>
<th>At least 166,000</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>At least 0.5%</td>
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<td>Start of current displacement situation</td>
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<td>Causes of displacement</td>
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<td>Human development index</td>
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The conflict in northern Uganda between the government and the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA) began in 1988, but large-scale displacement only began in 1996, when the government forced people to move into camps under its “protected villages” policy. More people were forced into camps in 2002 and 2004, during two large-scale military operations against the LRA. At the height of the crisis, 1.8 million people in the north were living in camps. In addition, an unknown number of people fled to towns and cities in other parts of Uganda.

The leaders of the LRA were indicted by the International Criminal Court in 2005, but no arrests have been effected. There have been no LRA attacks in Uganda since 2006, when the government and the LRA signed the Cessation of Hostilities Agreement (CHA). However, the LRA never signed the Final Peace Agreement, but instead moved its area of operation to other countries.

As a result of the improved security in northern Uganda, by the end of 2010 the vast majority of IDPs had returned to their home areas. 271,000 people returned in 2010; during the year 96 camps were closed, bringing the total number of camps officially closed to 237, with only 14 camps remaining. However, by the end of the year 166,000 people were still living in camps and transit sites, 80,000 of them in camps which had officially been closed.

For most IDPs, return to their home areas has always been the preferred settlement option. But pressure from the local authorities, at times accompanied by threats to close the camps at set dates, has contributed to the fast pace of return. In some cases the owners of the land on which the camps were situated have also exerted pressure on IDPs to leave the camps; in a few instances in the years following the signing of the CHA, landlords burned down IDPs’ huts.

The remaining camp population consists of two groups. Some IDPs have decided to settle in the camp locations permanently, often because of livelihood opportunities they have been able to seize. But a significant proportion of the residual population are vulnerable individuals, for whom no durable solutions strategy was put in place when the process for phasing out camps was implemented. Food aid for vulnerable households was terminated in June 2010; by the end of 2010 preparations were being made to assess how these households were coping without food aid.

Among the obstacles to return are disputes over land in return areas, which affect widows and orphans in particular. Some children have chosen to stay behind in the camps, even when their relatives returned to their home areas, because of the better access to education there. Many people dependent on health services, including chronically ill people and people suffering from HIV/AIDS, have been unable to return because the nearest functioning clinic is too far away from their village. For elderly people without close relatives, the work involved in building a hut and clearing the land in their home village has often posed insurmountable obstacles to their return. Many urban IDPs have been unable to cover the cost of transport home.

Returnees have faced significant problems too, as the planning and implementation of recovery and development efforts in the return areas has lagged behind the rate at which the camps have been closed. Recovery programmes in northern Uganda were delayed for long periods, with confusion about funding between the government and development partners, and there was a lack of coordination between the government, donors and the UN. As a result, returnees have been confronted with the absence or inadequacy of basic services, including clean water, sanitation, health care and education; and limited opportunities to rebuild livelihoods. However, food security has improved since 2008, with the population of the northern Acholi region moving from emergency to non-emergency conditions in 2010.

An inter-agency durable solutions assessment was carried out at the end of the year to inform the planning of recovery activities; the results were expected in early 2011. There is increasing recognition of the need for reconciliation and peace building activities to be incorporated in recovery plans, to ensure that the peace in northern Uganda is sustainable.

Uganda adopted a National IDP Policy in 2004. It is party to the Great Lakes Pact, and in January 2010 became the first country to ratify the Kampala Convention. However, the implementation of these instruments remains a challenge.

Funding for the consolidated humanitarian appeal in Uganda decreased from 86 per cent in 2006 to 49 per cent in 2010. The cluster system for coordinating humanitarian action, established in the Acholi region in 2006, was phased out by the end of 2010, and all humanitarian coordination functions were handed over to the government. Responsibility for IDP protection coordination was transferred from the protection cluster to the Uganda Human Rights Commission.
Several hundreds of thousands of Zimbabweans have been internally displaced, often more than once, but no official estimates of their numbers are available. By the end of 2010, the government had still not released the results of a small-scale assessment of the situation and number of IDPs which it had conducted with UN agencies in August 2009. This delay raised concerns about how to proceed with a comprehensive IDP assessment in 2011, even though some parts of the government had agreed on its necessity to guide humanitarian interventions and plan for durable solutions.

Government actions have been the main drivers of displacement. For example, in the ten years since the start of the fast-track land reform programme in 2000, hundreds of commercial farms have been taken over in illegal farm invasions. UNDP estimated in 2008 that the farm invasions had led a million people (200,000 farm workers and their families) to lose their homes as well as their livelihoods on the farms. In 2005 the government destroyed tens of thousands of urban dwellings in Operation Murambatsvina (“clear the filth”), stating that the structures did not comply with urban building regulations. The UN estimated that 570,000 people were made homeless by the demolitions, and condemned the evictions as unlawful since the victims had received insufficient or no notice, had not been consulted, and had not been provided with alternative accommodation. A government programme to construct new homes proved wholly inadequate, providing accommodation to no more than a few thousand people; in many instances the new occupants of these homes were not in fact victims of Operation Murambatsvina but beneficiaries of political patronage.

In 2006 and 2007 the government destroyed the homes of thousands of informal mine workers in Operation Chikorokoza Chapera (“stop the gold panning”). Since then, ill-regulated mining operations in the Marange diamond fields have continued to cause arbitrary displacement, affecting both mine workers and local communities.

Following the elections of 2008, supporters of the ZANU-PF party resorted to violence in an effort to prevent opposition supporters from voting. Estimates of the number of people internally displaced by this political violence ranged from 36,000 to 200,000.

In 2010, new instances of displacement followed a variety of events. Political violence, though on a smaller scale than in 2008, forced some political activists into displacement, but also affected people without political affiliations. In November, violence connected to the nationwide consultations on the draft constitution left 43 families homeless in Mhangura in Mashonaland West Province, when their homes were burnt down by ZANU-PF supporters.

Farm invasions continued to have an impact on farm workers, with unknown numbers of workers and their families losing their homes on commercial farms. The government also continued to subject people to arbitrary evictions. In August, officers from the Zimbabwe Republic Police raided and destroyed an informal settlement at Borrowdale Race Course in Harare, leaving at least 55 people homeless. Insecurity of tenure continued to pose serious problems to many victims of Operation Murambatsvina, including in settlements which the government had set up for victims, such as Hatcliffe Extension near Harare.

Following years of decline, Zimbabwe had in 2010 the lowest score of all countries included in the Human Development Index. The collapse of the Zimbabwean economy had affected almost the entire population, but IDPs were among the worst affected and most vulnerable groups, because displacement had eroded their livelihoods and coping capacity. Their access to social services, including health and education, had often been severely disrupted. Between ten and 15 per cent of children in Zimbabwe are believed to have never attended primary school, with children from displaced communities reportedly among the groups most affected.

Few of Zimbabwe’s IDPs have found a durable solution. Some have joined relatives in rural areas, adding further pressure on limited services and livelihood opportunities there. Many displaced farm workers and mine workers have moved to the towns, only to be affected once more by forced evictions. Many IDPs still lack security of tenure and access to permanent shelter or sustainable livelihoods. In the absence of durable solutions, it is crucial to establish the number and whereabouts of IDPs who still need humanitarian assistance, including food aid and access to sanitation, clean water, and basic health care.

Humanitarian clusters were introduced in Zimbabwe in 2008. A distinguishing feature of the cluster system in Zimbabwe is the IDP sub-cluster under the protection cluster. The clusters have planned to assist 115,000 IDPs in 2011.
Around 2.5 million people were still displaced in Europe and Central Asia at the end of 2010 as a result of conflict arising from rejected independence claims and territorial disputes. Other causes of displacement included human rights violations and generalised violence.

Large-scale displacement had resulted from the conflict in Cyprus in 1974, and from the armed conflict in south-eastern Turkey between government forces and the Kurdistan Workers’ Party (PKK) in the 1980s and 1990s. In the early 1990s, in the break-up of Yugoslavia, armed conflict and inter-ethnic violence displaced large numbers of people. Similarly, as republics in the Soviet Union declared independence, hundreds of thousands of people were displaced by armed conflict and ethnic violence. In the Russian Federation, Chechen separatists sought self-determination, and Ingush militias and North Ossetian security forces battled for control of Prigorodny district. In the south Caucasus, Abkhaz and South Ossetian minorities bid for independence from Georgia, and Armenia and Azerbaijan fought over the territory of Nagorno-Karabakh.

Many of the people displaced from these conflicts have continued to live in protracted displacement for over 17 years. The only country in the region with new displacement was Kyrgyzstan, where violence displaced 300,000 people. Turkey still had the most IDPs of any country in the region, while

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**Internal displacement in Europe and Central Asia**

Armenia p.61; Azerbaijan p.61; Bosnia and Herzegovina p.62; Croatia p.63; Cyprus p.63; Georgia p.64; Kosovo p.65; Kyrgyzstan p.65; Russian Federation p.66; Serbia p.67; Turkey p.68
Cyprus still had the highest percentage of its population internally displaced.

Since 2001, the number of IDPs had gradually decreased in Armenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia and the Russian Federation. This was often due to their return, their receipt of reconstruction assistance or their IDP status terminating, which did not always mean they had achieved a durable solution. The number of IDPs in Azerbaijan, Cyprus, Georgia, Serbia, Turkey, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan has remained at the same level since 2001. In Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan this was due to the lack of updated information, while in the other countries there was no resolution of conflicts and occupation of territory.

In all countries in the region, most people were displaced on account of their ethnicity or nationality. People who were displaced to areas where they were a minority continued to endure discrimination throughout displacement. This was the case for Roma, Ashkali and Egyptian communities in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kosovo and Serbia, internally displaced Kurds in Turkey and Chechens displaced outside of the North Caucasus in the Russian Federation.

The most significant political development in the region during 2010 related to Kosovo. The International Court of Justice (ICJ) issued an advisory opinion affirming that Kosovo’s unilateral declaration of independence was “in accordance with international law.” Serbia still did not recognise Kosovo as an independent state and continues to regard it as a United Nations-governed entity within its sovereign territory. As had been the case following Kosovo’s 2008 declaration of independence, no significant displacement followed the ICJ’s announcement.

IDPs’ access to housing
The majority of IDPs in the region lived dispersed with relatives or friends, or in housing that they rented, owned or were occupying informally. Isolated surveys of IDPs living in private housing in Azerbaijan, Georgia and the Russian Federation have showed that they tended to be overcrowded and in poor condition, and IDPs’ security of tenure was often limited. Over time, some IDPs have managed to secure rented or owned housing with their own funds. Safe connections to electricity and sewerage were often absent. The exception is Cyprus, where most IDPs living in private accommodation appeared to enjoy adequate housing conditions.

Other IDPs continued to be gathered in “collective centres”, many of them former public buildings where they had been sheltered after being displaced. These centres were never intended for long-term residence and most of them were dilapidated, crowded and unhygienic after being occupied but not renovated for some 20 years. The remaining residents were often the most vulnerable IDPs, who had not been able to secure better housing. Georgia had the highest number of IDPs – over 100,000 – living in collective centres.

Governments throughout the region have made efforts to improve conditions in collective centres, and to reduce the number of IDPs living in them. In 2010, the governments in Azerbaijan, Georgia and the Russian Federation improved the housing conditions of some IDPs living in collective centres through refurbishment, transfer of ownership, settlement to new housing or cash payments in lieu of housing. However, only small numbers benefited and the majority of IDPs still live in sub-standard conditions.

During 2010, some residents were evicted from collective centres in Georgia and the Russian Federation. In Georgia, this was part of a larger strategy to provide housing solutions to IDPs; in the Russian Federation evictions were carried out in support of the rights of the owners of the buildings. IDPs were not always adequately consulted or notified and sometimes they ended up facing worse living conditions. In Azerbaijan, IDPs’ security of tenure became more precarious as the courts increasingly supported the rights of owners of buildings in line with successive European Court of Human Rights judgements on the issue.

Meanwhile, IDPs in several countries were still living in very poor conditions in makeshift shelters which presented additional health problems due to the lack of adequate sanitation and protection from the elements, and the access of animals carrying infections. Among them were many displaced Ashkali, Egyptian and Roma people in the Balkans who struggled to access assistance without civil documentation, and in the face of persistent discrimination.

Access to livelihoods, services and schools
IDPs in Azerbaijan, Kosovo, Kyrgyzstan, Serbia and the Russian Federation also continued to face difficulties securing documents. The result was limited access to jobs, housing, health care, education, pensions and government assistance. This problem was most acute for displaced Ashkali, Egyptian and Roma people in Kosovo and Serbia, who continued to be one of the most vulnerable groups of IDPs in the region.

IDPs in all countries in the region – except Cyprus – had great difficulty in building livelihoods. Most still depended on meagre pensions and social benefits as their main source of income. Their lack of income has also led IDPs’ health problems to go untreated, as many cannot afford to see a doctor, buy medication or have surgeries they need. It has also limited children’s access to education as some families have been unable to pay for school materials and fees.

Separate education of some internally displaced children continued in Azerbaijan, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia and Kosovo. A similar system was established in 2010 in Kyrgyzstan, where some schools in conflict areas were organised according to ethnicity. While separate education in Bosnia and Herzegovina and Kosovo is also based on ethnicity, the separate education of internally displaced children in Azerbaijan and Georgia is based rather on maintaining schools from occupied areas in exile.

Prospects for durable solutions
Most governments in the region have long favoured the return of IDPs to their place of origin over local integration and settlement elsewhere in the country. This has been the case even when return was impossible due to the lack of resolution to the conflicts, as in Armenia, Azerbaijan, Cyprus, Georgia, the Russian Federation and Turkey, which was still the case in 2010. However, in recent years government support for IDPs who
wish to settle in their area of displacement (local integration) has been gaining ground in Bosnia and Herzegovina (although limited to extremely vulnerable individuals), Georgia, Kosovo, Serbia and Turkey; nonetheless, they failed to support local integration in a comprehensive and systematic manner.

Few IDPs returned to their places of origin in 2010, except in Kyrgyzstan where most of the people displaced returned shortly after the violence. The sustainability of return in the region remained in question. Many perpetrators of the violence which IDPs had fled remained at large, and smouldering insecurity and landmines reduced their freedom of movement. Essential social services and infrastructure often remained inadequate, and given the difficulties in establishing livelihoods or receiving benefits, some IDPs continued to commute between their places of origin and displacement. Rebuilding livelihoods in areas of origin was doubly hard for returnees who faced the same discrimination that had forced them to flee, as in Kyrgyzstan and the Balkans.

Many IDPs continued to struggle to recover and repair their original property. There were still no remedies for destroyed property in Armenia, Azerbaijan, Cyprus or Georgia, and while some compensation was available in Kyrgyzstan, the Russian Federation and Turkey, it was generally insufficient to buy or build another home. Meanwhile, there were reports from Croatia, Kosovo and the Russian Federation of IDPs struggling to take possession of their property when it had been occupied by others.

National and international responses
Most governments in the region took concrete steps in favour of IDPs during 2010. Armenia agreed to update data on IDPs to support the durable solutions process, Croatia exhibited resolve to address the tenancy rights of all war-affected communities and Turkey continued to develop provincial action plans. The foreign ministers of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Montenegro and Serbia met and agreed to cooperate further on improving the processes of return and integration, resolving the situation of people living in collective centres, and putting the needs of the most vulnerable first.

Nonetheless, many IDPs in Armenia, the Russian Federation, Turkey and other countries remained without assistance. There was also no monitoring of the progress towards durable solutions except for a joint UNHCR-Government of Serbia survey which found that a significant number of IDPs were vulnerable and in need of assistance. There was also little information on whether IDPs in Abkhazia, South Ossetia, Nagorno-Karabakh, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan benefited from assistance. Humanitarian access continues to be difficult in Azerbaijan (Nagorno-Karabakh), Georgia (Abkhazia and South Ossetia), the Russian Federation (Chechnya and North Ossetia), Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan due to unresolved conflicts, insecurity and (in the last two countries) difficulty securing government approval.

European regional bodies continued to engage on internal
displacement. The European Commission underlined to the Turkish government the need to address the situation of IDPs in cities and resolve obstacles to their return. The Commission also committed additional funding for IDPs in the North Caucasus and continued to give significant funding for IDPs in Georgia. The Council of Europe (CoE) published relevant reports on the property issues of IDPs and the inclusion of women in peace processes. The CoE’s Commissioner for Human Rights visited and reviewed the situation of IDPs in Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Georgia in 2010 and urged the governments to take all possible measures to resolve the remaining issues facing IDPs.

The UN human rights mechanisms reviewed the situation of IDPs in several countries in the region during 2010. Their committees noted a lack of information on internally displaced women and girls in the Russian Federation, persistent discrimination against internally displaced children (including Roma children) in Serbia, and the challenges facing minority returnees in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The Human Rights Council’s review of Armenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia and Turkey focused on IDP return. The RSG on IDPs visited Azerbaijan and Georgia during the year. The Representative commented that displacement has lasted too long and highlighted the necessity of peace agreements and more action to improve livelihood and job opportunities for IDPs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number of IDPs (rounded)</th>
<th>Government figures</th>
<th>UN figures</th>
<th>Other figures</th>
<th>Comments</th>
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<td>Armenia</td>
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<td>No more recent figures available.</td>
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<td>Azerbaijan</td>
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<td>The figure includes around 200,000 children born to male IDPs.</td>
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<td>Bosnia and Herzegovina</td>
<td>113,400 (December 2009)</td>
<td>113,642 (UNHCR, December 2010)</td>
<td>UN agencies use government figures.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>2,300 (December 2009)</td>
<td>2,285 (UNHCR, December 2010)</td>
<td>UN agencies use government figures. Reports indicate that there are also some unregistered IDPs.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>Up to 208,000 (Government of the Republic of Cyprus, December 2010)</td>
<td>208,304</td>
<td>0 (”Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus”, October 2007)</td>
<td>The figure reported by the Government of the Republic of Cyprus includes those displaced to areas under its control since 1974, and children since born to male IDPs. The “Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus” considers that displacement ended with the 1975 Vienna III agreement.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>Up to 258,000 (December 2010)</td>
<td>257,726</td>
<td>The figure includes people displaced in 2008 and in the 1990s as well as their children born since.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Kosovo</td>
<td>18,300 (December 2010)</td>
<td>18,258 (UNHCR, December 2010)</td>
<td>Estimates based on UNHCR informal survey of IDPs in Kosovo undertaken in 2010.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Kyrgyzstan</td>
<td>About 75,000</td>
<td>75,000 (July 2010)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Russian Federation</td>
<td>6,500–78,000 (December 2010)</td>
<td>6,489</td>
<td>78,036 (Humanitarian organisations, December 2010)</td>
<td>The figure from humanitarian organisations only includes IDPs in the North Caucasus.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Serbia</td>
<td>About 225,000 (December 2010)</td>
<td>210,146 (UNHCR, December 2010)</td>
<td>Includes an estimated 15,000 unregistered Roma IDPs.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia</td>
<td>650</td>
<td>644 (December 2009)</td>
<td>UN agencies use government figures.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>954,000–1,201,000 (Hacettepe University, December 2006)</td>
<td>953,680–1,201,200 (Hacettepe University, December 2006)</td>
<td>Over 1,000,000 (NGOs, August 2005)</td>
<td>Hacettepe University survey was commissioned by the government. A government estimate that 150,000 people had returned to their places of origin as of July 2009 has not been confirmed.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkmenistan</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td>No estimates available.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uzbekistan</td>
<td>About 3,400</td>
<td>3,400 (IOM, May 2005)</td>
<td>No more recent figures available.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Armenia

Quick facts
Number of IDPs: At least 8,000
Percentage of total population: Up to 0.2%
Start of current displacement situation: 1988
Peak number of IDPs (Year): 72,000 (1992)
New displacement: 0
Causes of displacement: Armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations
Human development index: 76

In 2004, the Norwegian Refugee Council and Armenia’s Migration Agency found some 8,400 people still internally displaced as a result of the 1988-1994 war with Azerbaijan over Nagorno-Karabakh. At least 65,000 people had fled the area bordering Azerbaijan during the war. There has been no further conflict-induced displacement since 1994.

Most IDPs returned to their homes following the conflict, but some could not as their villages were surrounded by Azerbaijani forces, or because of the insecurity and the poor economic conditions there. Those remaining are believed to be dispersed in rural and urban areas; a new survey of IDPs is due in 2011.

The situation of IDPs did not change in 2010. Their main concerns remained the lack of adequate housing and economic opportunities, and the lack of decent education and subsequent prospects for young people. In 2010 IDPs received no targeted government or international assistance.

Internal displacement in Azerbaijan followed armed conflict with Armenia over the territory of Nagorno-Karabakh between 1988 and 1994, and related generalised violence and human rights violations. In 2010 the conflict had still not been resolved, and most of Nagorno-Karabakh and the surrounding territory remained under the effective control of Armenia. While border skirmishes continued into 2010, there was no new displacement due to the conflict during the year.

Over 590,000 people remained internally displaced at the end of 2010. About 50 per cent of IDPs were female and ten per cent were older people. The figure included around 197,000 children born since their parents had fled their homes. The government is the only collector of comprehensive figures of IDPs and no profiling exercise has been carried out.

IDPs were in 2010 living in rural and urban areas throughout the country. Many were still living in dilapidated and overcrowded collective centres and makeshift accommodation, while the remainder were living in housing which they, the government, or international organisations had built, with relatives, or in vacant accommodation they had occupied. Overall, IDPs reportedly lived in housing that was more crowded and with more limited access to electricity and sewerage than the non-displaced population.

IDPs’ security of tenure became more precarious in 2010, particularly in the main cities of Baku and Sumgait. This was due to the continuing privatisation of property, increased public construction, and European Court of Human Rights decisions giving precedence to the rights of owners of property where IDPs were living.

By late 2010, the government had resettled some
90,000 IDPs into 67 purpose-built settlements. While these offered better housing conditions, they were often far from neighbouring towns and offered limited access to services, jobs or livelihoods. The government has stated that this resettlement is a temporary measure pending the return of IDPs to their original place of residence.

IDPs were more often unemployed than their non-displaced neighbours, and the majority continued to depend on government benefits as their main source of income. The government paid a monthly food allowance of $18 to over 540,000 IDPs in 2010; however more extensive measures are required to improve their self-reliance.

People who have moved to find jobs in Baku, including IDPs, have struggled to register their new residence. This limits their access to employment, housing, health care, education and pensions, and they are unable to vote or stand for election. IDPs also cannot receive government assistance they are entitled to. Regulations and practices that prevent IDPs from registering their current residence should be amended.

Some IDPs have not been able to afford health care, and some internally displaced children have had to work in order to supplement family income or else they have married early; their school attendance has often suffered as a result. The quality of education remains an issue as premises are in need of repair, and there is a lack of supplies, furniture and teachers. Some internally displaced children continue to be educated separately.

IDPs continued to suffer mental health problems related to their displacement and experiences during the conflict. Despite measures to improve the health care system, in 2010 there was still little appropriate and affordable support for people with mental health conditions.

As the government’s capacity to protect IDPs has increased and negotiation on the status of Nagorno-Karabakh has become deadlocked, donor support has waned. However, organisations including UNHCR, ICRC, Oxfam and World Vision have continued to assist IDPs. The European Union, the OSCE Minsk Group and the RSG on IDPs visited the country during the year and called for the resolution of the conflict as well as improved support for IDPs.

Durable solutions are stalled for IDPs in Azerbaijan since IDPs do not have a meaningful choice between return, local integration and settlement elsewhere. IDPs will not be able to achieve durable solutions until return is possible, which depends on a resolution to the conflict. The government should muster the will to resolve the conflict and work to ensure that IDPs can enjoy their rights at their current residence.

The 1992-1995 war in Bosnia and Herzegovina led to the internal displacement of over a million people and the creation of ethnically homogeneous areas within the newly independent state. Estimates of the number of people remaining internally displaced fell following successive registration exercises. At the end of 2010, 113,400 IDPs remained, many of them older or vulnerable people who needed specific assistance. 7,000 IDPs were still living in decrepit collective centres.

By 2010, 580,000 IDPs had returned to their places of origin, but the rate of return had considerably slowed. Violence in return areas had declined, but discrimination continued to limit returnees’ access to livelihoods and public services.

Many IDPs and returnees continued to live in precarious situations, with no adequate housing, economic opportunities or support. In December, flash floods in the north and east led to the evacuation of 40,000 people, including about 10,000 IDPs, from their damaged or destroyed properties.

Social services were provided in different areas by the two governing entities, the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina and Republika Srpska; as a result pensions and other social benefits were lower in certain areas.

From the end of the war, the government and international agencies promoted return to the exclusion of other settlement options, so as not to cement the “ethnic cleansing” which motivated the displacement. However, in June 2010, the government adopted a new strategy recognising the need to compensate people for lost property and to assist IDPs who cannot or do not want to return.

Only a few international organisations were still working to support IDPs, among them OSCE, UNHCR and UNDP. The EU also continued to influence government policy in favour of IDPs through the process of Bosnia’s candidacy.
Croatia

Quick facts

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<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of IDPs</td>
<td>2,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement</td>
<td>1991</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
<td>250,000 (1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At the end of the 1991-1995 war, 250,000 people were internally displaced within Croatia, including 32,000 ethnic Serbs. Since then almost all the ethnic Croat IDPs have returned to their homes, while most of the ethnic Serbs displaced have resettled in Serbia or in the majority-Serb Danube region of Croatia. In 2010, 2,300 people remained internally displaced in the country, 1,600 of them ethnic Serbs.

The number of IDPs decreased by an average of 4,500 per year between 2002 and 2005, but only by a few hundred a year from then on. Only a few state-run collective centres for IDPs remained open in 2010.

The main obstacles to the return of the remaining ethnic Croat IDPs were the limited social services and livelihood opportunities in their places of origin, whereas ethnic Serb IDPs continued to struggle to assert their rights. It is estimated that only half of ethnic Serb returns have proved sustainable, because perpetrators of violence have not been punished, their rights over their original homes have not been recognised, or they have been unable to re-establish livelihoods or receive full pension entitlements.

Successive governments have made progress in the response to displacement. They have adopted legislation ensuring the participation of minorities, restitution of private property and reconstruction of destroyed homes. Almost 150,000 housing units have been rebuilt since 1995, while over 19,000 occupied housing units have been repossessed and returned to their owners. In 2010, a large increase in the social housing budget and a new action plan drawn up with international partners highlighted the government’s resolve to address the outstanding housing needs of all communities.

The EU, the Council of Europe and its Commissioner for Human Rights, and the RSG on IDPs have commended the government but have urged greater efforts. In March 2010, the government committed to continue this effort at a regional conference on durable solutions for refugees and IDPs.

Cyprus

Quick facts

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of IDPs</td>
<td>Up to 208,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>Up to 23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement</td>
<td>1974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
<td>210,000 (1975)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Armed conflict, deliberate policy or practice of arbitrary displacement, generalised violence, human rights violations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

People were last displaced in Cyprus as a result of conflict in 1974. Groups backed by Greece’s military junta ousted the Cypriot leader and Turkey sent troops to the island in response. The island has since been effectively divided between areas under the control of the government of the Republic of Cyprus (GRC) and the authorities of the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC), the latter recognised only by Turkey. The conflict is still unresolved and the return of IDPs to their original homes remains impossible despite continuing negotiations.

The TRNC maintains that there are no IDPs in areas under its control, on the basis that internal displacement ended with a 1975 population exchange agreement. The GRC reported at the end of 2010 that around 208,000 people had displaced person status in the area under its control, including 83,000 people born to men with the displaced status.

In areas under the control of the GRC, people with displaced person status continued to be eligible for assistance. Discrimination in access to the status continued, as the children of women with the status were not eligible. In 2010, the Supreme Court reserved judgement on the validity of constitutional amendments to rectify this discrimination. Meanwhile, displaced people living in the TRNC received no assistance.

During 2010, steps were taken to uphold the rights of people dispossessed of their property. The European Court of Human Rights confirmed the Immovable Property Commission (IPC) of the TRNC as the first instance body for claims to property in TRNC territory. By the end of 2010, the IPC had concluded and mostly implemented over 135 of some 850 applications lodged. For its part, the GRC amended the Turkish Cypriot properties law, so that Turkish Cypriot owners living outside TRNC could claim their property in areas under the control of the GRC.
People in Georgia have been displaced by several waves of conflict. Fighting erupted in the early 1990s in the autonomous areas of South Ossetia and Abkhazia, displacing some 273,000 people within Georgia. Ceasefire agreements were signed by 1994, but hostilities continued sporadically before conflict broke out again in 2008 between Georgia and the Russian Federation over South Ossetia. Around 128,000 people were internally displaced, some for a second time. While the fighting quickly ended and negotiations have continued, all of the conflicts remain unresolved.

At the end of 2010, the government reported that there were still about 236,000 IDPs displaced since the 1990s and about 22,000 IDPs displaced since 2008. Around 60 per cent of them were living with relatives or friends or in dwellings that they rented or owned, while 40 per cent were in collective centres in former hospitals, hotels, schools and other buildings offered as temporary housing upon their displacement.

Most collective centres had not been renovated for nearly 20 years and were crowded and dilapidated, with outdated water and sewerage systems. Surveys of IDPs living in private accommodation showed that many of them were also enduring crowded conditions in run-down buildings which sometimes needed major repairs and in which they had limited security of tenure.

In the aftermath of the 2008 conflict, the government showed a greater willingness to improve the situation of IDPs. It mobilised significant resources and made a serious commitment to implement its strategy on IDPs, including by coordinating activities with the international community. The Public Defender also engaged actively in monitoring the situation of IDPs and advocating for them.

During 2009 and 2010 the government continued to provide housing solutions to IDPs displaced in the 1990s and 2008. It refurbished collective centres, offered IDPs ownership of their assigned collective centre space, built new housing and offered cash in lieu of housing. It also sent contractors to new settlements built for IDPs displaced in 2008 to address reported housing defects. By late 2010, about 6,800 families displaced in the 1990s had signed purchase agreements in around 330 collective centres, and 8,000 families displaced in 2008 had received a house, apartment or cash. However, most of the progress was in 2009, and the momentum had slowed in 2010.

While the living conditions of many IDPs improved, the impact of the government’s efforts differed: the quality of re-furbishment varied, the criteria to select collective centres where residents could become owners were unclear, many IDPs who signed purchase agreements had not received their ownership documents by the end of the year, and many IDPs could not make an informed choice between the options open to them since they were provided only sparse and inconsistent information. Many IDPs who had opted for cash were still waiting to receive it at the end of 2010. Meanwhile, IDPs who were renting housing or living with relatives or friends had so far been excluded from this housing support.

In the summer of 2010, over 1,000 internally displaced families were evicted from collective centres and other temporary shelters not destined for privatisation in Tbilisi. Depending on their status, some were offered alternative accommodation or cash. However, according to observers, IDPs were given insufficient notice or information on alternative accommodation, and the latter was often of a worse standard and in areas offering few livelihood opportunities. The process was soon halted so that procedures could be developed to improve the protection of IDPs’ rights; these procedures were in place at the end of the year.

The Ministry for IDPs has generally been left to implement plans without much engagement from other ministries. It has sought to meet ambitious targets, but at the expense of planning and the full participation of IDPs. Standards, which it developed with international partners, have not been comprehensively applied.

Representatives of international organisations enjoy quick and meaningful access to government officials on internal displacement issues. The Council of Europe’s Commissioner for Human Rights and the RSG on IDPs visited Georgia in 2010 and both expressed concern about how evictions were carried out, in addition to other issues facing IDPs. Meanwhile, the access of humanitarian agencies to South Ossetia has remained obstructed except in the case of the ICRC, while access to Abkhazia is increasingly challenged.

Georgia continues to enjoy significant donor support, but emergency funds will not be able to cover the full needs of IDPs. The conflicts must be resolved if IDPs are to achieve durable solutions, while the government, development organisations and donors should allocate funding for programmes to improve housing, and access to livelihoods and services.
Kosovo

Quick facts

Number of IDPs 18,300
Percentage of total population 0.9%
Start of current displacement situation 1999
Peak number of IDPs (Year) 36,000 (2000)
New displacement Undetermined
Causes of displacement Generalised violence, human rights violations
Human development index: –

At the end of 2010 there were 18,300 IDPs in Kosovo. Slightly over half were Kosovo Serbs, around 39 per cent Kosovo Albanians, and six per cent from Roma communities. Most Kosovo Serb IDPs were in enclaves in northern Kosovo, where they relied on a parallel system of education, policing, and health care supported by Serbia. Other IDPs remained in locations where their ethnic group were in a majority, but where they had limited freedom of movement and little access to land or livelihoods.

4,500 IDPs were still in collective centres and many of them were particularly vulnerable; a high proportion were older people. They were still living in very harsh conditions in 2010 and received only minimal and intermittent assistance at best.

IDPs belonging to Roma communities were the most marginalised. Those without civil documentation could not register as IDPs and so access housing assistance and other benefits. Many were still in 2010 in informal settlements without electricity, clean water or sewerage.

Ten years after their displacement, only around 18,000 IDPs had returned to their places of origin from within Kosovo, and only 22,000 people from elsewhere in the region. They continued to be put off by the risk of insecurity, the limited freedom of movement, the restricted access to services and livelihoods, and the difficulties in repossessing or rebuilding their homes.

Kosovo’s declaration of independence in 2008 created new uncertainty for IDPs in its territory. However, there has been no new displacement, and Serbia, while not recognising the independence, has supported a UN resolution calling for wider cooperation between Serbia and Kosovo. Both the Serbian and Kosovo authorities have supported the construction of homes and social housing to facilitate the local integration of IDPs. Nonetheless, the Kosovo institutions have been criticised for failing to devote the resources needed to enable durable solutions for IDPs.

Kyrgyzstan

Quick facts

Number of IDPs About 75,000
Percentage of total population About 1.0%
Start of current displacement situation 2010
Peak number of IDPs (Year) 300,000 (2010)
New displacement 300,000
Causes of displacement Generalised violence, human rights violations
Human development index 109

In June 2010, some 300,000 people were internally displaced in southern Kyrgyzstan by violence between ethnic Uzbek and Kyrgyz communities linked to domestic political developments. A further 75,000 people fled to Uzbekistan, returning soon thereafter. The violence involved armed attacks, sexual violence, kidnapping, arson and looting, and over 400 people of both ethnicities were killed. Most of the people displaced were ethnic Uzbek.

Most of the displaced returned to their places of origin shortly after the violence, but an estimated 75,000 people were still displaced at the end of 2010. They included people whose houses were damaged or who feared for their safety in their places of origin. The majority of IDPs were taking shelter with relatives and friends rather than gathering in camps; sometimes family members were staying on the grounds of their destroyed homes to safeguard the premises.

Despite the casualties, destruction of property and displacement suffered by ethnic Kyrgyz, ethnic Uzbeks bore the brunt of the violence. Ethnic Uzbeks make up at least 40 per cent of the population in affected areas, but the local governments are dominated by the ethnic Kyrgyz majority and discrimination continues to be reported.

Large clashes ended in June 2010, but the situation remained tense. The violence instilled fear and mistrust between affected communities, and IDPs continued to suffer intimidation, harassment, extortion and arbitrary detention, in some cases by police and courts. Perpetrators of human rights violations went unpunished, with investigations and court proceedings slow and international monitors reporting that most trials were not fair. As a result, people had little confidence in the rule of law and the justice system.

Many of the predominantly Uzbek neighbourhoods
were looted and burned to the ground. Some 2,000 homes were damaged; 85 per cent of these were completely destroyed. Hundreds of shops and cafes were destroyed in the violence, and most of them were owned by ethnic Uzbeks, leaving many in the minority community unemployed and without alternative sources of income.

Many IDPs and returnees struggled to replace their lost or destroyed documents which proved ownership of their homes and businesses, often because of lengthy bureaucratic procedures or because they could not pay the requested bribes. Some people had never registered their homes or businesses, or their inheritance of them had not been documented.

Two schools for ethnic Uzbek children were also destroyed in the violence, and students who previously attended multi-ethnic schools have since gone to schools for pupils of the same ethnicity in an effort to ensure their security. A nationwide shortage of teachers and textbooks, as well as displaced families’ inability to pay for uniforms, warm clothes and learning materials, has worsened the accessibility and quality of education for internally displaced children. Many of those affected by the conflict, including teachers and children, also still have a need for psycho-social support.

The government response has been compromised by its lack of funds and limited local capacity, though several initiatives have benefited IDPs. The government quickly issued decrees in support of the conflict-affected population.

It financed the refurbishment and construction of 19 multi-storey housing blocks, social and cultural facilities and roads in areas affected by violence. It paid cash transfers to families in which the breadwinner had been killed, offered financial compensation to families with damaged or destroyed homes, and exempted from tax some owners of businesses that were affected by the violence.

International organisations introduced the cluster system in July 2010, through which they attended to the most urgent needs of the affected population. The shelter and non-food items cluster had built transitional shelters for over 13,000 people before the arrival of winter and distributed winter items to 25,000 people. The food security cluster had reached 99 per cent of its target for general food distribution, and the protection cluster had provided basic protection services to 67 per cent of people affected.

The UN flash appeal outlining the overall humanitarian approach through to June 2011 reported a 40 per cent shortfall in funding at the end of 2010, with $35 million still needed. The shortfall had particularly affected progress in meeting the population’s needs for psycho-social support, water and sanitation in schools, assistance for entrepreneurs, vocational training and grants, agricultural activities and school learning materials.

Conflict, human rights violations and generalised violence in the Russian Federation republics of Chechnya and North Ossetia-Alania (NO-A) forced people to flee their homes following the collapse of the Soviet Union. Over 800,000 people were displaced by wars that broke out in Chechnya in 1994 and 1999, while between 32,000 and 64,000 people were displaced during the 1992 conflict in NO-A. None of the conflicts have been fully resolved, and the situation in the North Caucasus has reportedly deteriorated since 2009, with an insurgency ongoing in several republics and violence, insecurity and human rights abuses by insurgents and government forces increasing.

At the end of 2010, estimates of the number of people still internally displaced ranged from 6,500 to 78,000, but no authoritative figures were available. The federal migration service reported that over 4,600 people from Chechnya and about 1,800 from NO-A had “forced migrant” status. The number of IDPs may be higher since this status is only valid for five years, it is difficult to renew and only some IDPs are eligible for it. Humanitarian organisations estimated that there were still at least some 30,000 IDPs from Chechnya in Chechnya, 6,500 in Ingushetia and 3,500 in Dagestan, as well as 1,500 IDPs from NO-A in Ingushetia. There were no estimates of the number of IDPs living outside of the North Caucasus.

Estimates of the number of IDPs who had returned to their homes also varied and it was not clear how many had made their return sustainable. Humanitarian organisations reported
that around 70,000 IDPs returned to Chechnya from Ingushetia and Dagestan from 2003 to 2010, while according to federal government statistics, some 255,000 IDPs returned to Chechnya from all of Russia from 1999 to 2009. Humanitarian organisations reported that over 25,000 IDPs had returned with assistance to NO-A from Ingushetia since 2005, while the government reported it had assisted the same number to return since 1994. Return movements were negligible during 2010.

IDPs’ efforts to rebuild their lives in their home areas in Chechnya and NO-A have been complicated: many of their homes have been destroyed or occupied by others, and many of them do not have documents to prove their ownership of property. For these people, compensation to secure other housing has been inaccessible or at best insufficient, while little municipal funding has been allocated to offer them housing or land plots. The majority no longer enjoy “forced migrant” status or the housing support the status confers. In Chechnya, housing assistance is only available in areas where IDPs have permanent registration, while in NO-A, IDPs cannot always use housing assistance to buy or build homes at their original place of residence, as some areas have been closed to return.

Despite government and international efforts to provide land and housing to IDPs, long-term housing solutions are still needed for around 7,000 internally displaced families in the North Caucasus. Many of them have remained in temporary accommodation, moved in with relatives or ended up living in hostels in their second or third place of displacement. The temporary settlements with the worst living conditions in 2010 were in Ingushetia; they were far worse than hostels in Chechnya. In both republics most IDPs living in collective temporary accommodation did not have a tenancy contract that would protect them against eviction.

Private and government-managed temporary accommodation for IDPs continued to close in Chechnya, Ingushetia and elsewhere in the country during 2010, with the pace of closures quickening in Ingushetia. Many evictions were not carried out in accordance with international standards, and IDPs often ended up enduring worse living conditions. In 2010, IDPs living in temporary settlements in Ingushetia appealed to the republic’s ombudsman regarding their security of tenure.

The federal and republican governments continued to implement programmes of benefit to the general population of the North Caucasus, including IDPs. However, the specific needs of IDPs in these areas remained significant and, meanwhile, the situation of those outside of the North Caucasus continued to be neglected. In 2010, the national ombudsman in Moscow was developing recommendations to address the problem of counterfeit documents that has led to loss of property by IDPs from Chechnya.

Most international organisations assisting IDPs were planning in 2010 to phase out their programmes. Nonetheless, the European Commission committed additional funding for the North Caucasus in 2010, including for 45,000 displaced people. The UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women demanded in 2010 that the Russian government provide comprehensive information on the situation of internally displaced women and girls in the country.

Serbia

Quick facts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of IDPs</th>
<th>About 225,000</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>About 3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement situation</td>
<td>1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
<td>248,000 (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
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<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Armed conflict, deliberate policy or practice of arbitrary displacement, generalised violence, human rights violations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>60</td>
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</table>

In 2010, the International Court of Justice ruled that Kosovo’s 2008 declaration of independence did not violate international law, and at the end of the year, 75 countries had recognised Kosovo as an independent nation. References in this document to “Serbia” exclude Kosovo.

In 1999, 245,000 Kosovo Serbs and Roma people were displaced into Serbia proper or within Kosovo. As of December 2010, there were still about 225,000 IDPs from Kosovo in Serbia, including an estimated 15,000 unregistered Roma people.

11 years after their displacement, a significant number of IDPs were still facing hardship and limited access to services. Many continued to endure extreme poverty, poor health and no access to schools, in informal settlements without electricity, clean water or sewerage. Roma IDPs faced particularly deep-rooted discrimination and marginalisation. IDPs without documents faced extreme difficulties getting them replaced in order to register as an IDP and access assistance and services.

A 2010 survey revealed that almost half of IDPs were in need of assistance. Only around 17,000 IDPs had returned to Kosovo, and very few since the 2008 declaration of independence.

The Serbian government initially promoted return, but it has increasingly supported local integration. It has built alternative housing for vulnerable people in collective centres, and supported livelihoods programmes for IDPs. However, its efforts have not been part of a comprehensive strategy.

International organisations and NGOs have run a variety of projects of benefit to IDPs and particularly those in marginalised groups; UNHCR has continued to support the government’s response, while European and UN bodies have continued to monitor the government’s progress.
During the past 25 years, the Turkish armed forces have engaged in conflict with the Kurdistan Workers' Party (PKK) in the south-eastern provinces of the country. A policy of burning down villages to prevent them from being used as PKK bases, as well as indiscriminate attacks against civilians by both parties, led to the internal displacement of between 954,000 and 1.2 million people during the 1980s and 1990s, the majority of whom were displaced between 1991 and 1996. Though the south-east has become more secure, fighting has continued sporadically since 2004. In August 2010, the PKK declared a unilateral ceasefire which was subsequently extended until 2011; however this was the seventh such ceasefire, and the government has disregarded them all.

In 2010, most IDPs were living on the edges of cities, both within affected provinces (for example in Batman, Diyarbakir, Hakkari and Van) and elsewhere in Turkey (in Istanbul, Ankara and Izmir). They had settled among the urban poor with whom they shared limited access to housing, education and health care; for those outside the south-east this was compounded by discrimination and acute social and economic marginalisation. Problems particularly identified among forcibly displaced communities included trauma, limited access to education, and high levels of unemployment, particularly among women. Child labour and domestic violence were reported to be increasing in urban centres.

The vast majority of IDPs are Kurdish, and their displacement and current situation is tied to the government's failure to recognise the Kurdish identity. In the last few years, the government has taken a number of unprecedented steps towards a “democratic opening” to address the Kurdish issue, including steps which could have significant bearing on the response to displacement. Human rights associations have nevertheless condemned the continued discrimination and the use of existing legislation to stifle freedoms; they have called repeatedly for human rights violations against Kurds to be addressed and for state agents who have perpetrated them, many of them members of government “village guard” militias, to be punished.

Relatively few IDPs have returned to their places of origin; in July 2009, the government reported that only a little over 150,000 people had returned. Others have commuted between cities and their villages of origin. The intermittent insecurity has discouraged returns and even threatened new displacement, and people have been discouraged by the continuing presence of village guard militias and of close to a million landmines in the provinces bordering Syria and Iraq. IDPs areas of origin also have fewer economic opportunities, social services and basic infrastructure.

The government has taken significant steps to respond to the displacement, with an emphasis on support for returns. In 1994, it launched the Return to Village and Rehabilitation Project, and from 2006 it commissioned a national survey of the number and situation of IDPs, drafted a national IDP strategy, adopted a law on compensation and launched a comprehensive programme in Van Province to address rural and urban situations of displacement. It started in 2009 to draw up plans for 13 other provinces affected by displacement, based on the Van pilot plan. These provincial action plans are intended to form the basis of a comprehensive national response.

The provincial action plans being developed in 2010 included stronger measures to support settlement options other than return for IDPs in the affected governorates. However, civil society observers continued to voice concerns over the continuing situation of IDPs. They have criticised programmes for the lack of support which they offer to returnees, and for their lack of transparency, consultation, consistency, and adequate funding. The pilot action plan in Van has been criticised for failing to acknowledge the underlying Kurdish issue and the insecurity in areas of return, while the other provincial plans will not address the situation of IDPs in cities outside the south-east.

Progress for IDPs in Turkey has been influenced by regional institutions such as the EU, the European Court of Human Rights and the Council of Europe. In his most recent report in 2009, the Council of Europe's Commissioner for Human Rights underlined the need for a comprehensive plan to address the socio-economic problems faced by IDPs and to ensure “sustainable durable solutions”. This was reiterated in the EU’s annual progress report in 2010 which also highlighted the need to address the situation of urban IDPs and to resolve the obstacles to sustainable return. If IDPs are to achieve durable solutions, the international community should continue to raise these concerns, and encourage wider efforts at reconciliation.
By the end of 2010, as many as 5.4 million people were internally displaced due to armed conflict, violence, and human rights violations in the Americas. This figure was roughly 400,000 higher than a year earlier, confirming a pattern of internal displacement steadily increasing over the last decade. In 2001, there were 2.5 million IDPs in Colombia, Guatemala, Mexico and Peru.

This increase in the number of IDPs in 2010 reflected the continued new displacement in Colombia and new displacement in Mexico, and also that information on IDPs achieving durable solutions remained scarce because most IDPs were dispersed among local communities in rural and urban areas and governments had not attempted to identify those who still had outstanding needs.

The extent to which governments in the region have acknowledged and monitored internal displacement varied in the last decade. In Colombia, the government made improving efforts to register IDPs and produce disaggregated data on their age, sex, and ethnicity. This improvement resulted primarily from the advocacy of civil society bodies which had estimated the scale of displacement, and the Constitutional Court which had found the government’s response inadequate. In Peru, figures on continuing displacement following internal armed conflict remained largely educated guesses until 2004, when the government made a ministry department responsible for putting in place a registry for IDPs. In 2007, the department estimated that 150,000 IDPs remained in the country.
In other countries, particularly in Guatemala, there have been no such efforts and no figures exist on the number of people still internally displaced due to the country’s civil war that ran from the 1960s to the 1990s. In Mexico, the government has not made efforts to establish the number of people still displaced by the 1990s Zapatista uprising, by inter-communal violence or more recently by drug-cartel violence in northern states.

Causes of displacement
In 2010, new displacement in the Americas was principally caused by growing violence between groups associated with the drugs trade. The only country in the region still affected by internal armed conflict was Colombia, but there too the principal cause of the new displacement was not the conflict itself, but threats and violence by armed groups. Many of these groups evolved from former paramilitary bodies allied to government forces; despite the paramilitary demobilisation of 2006, such groups continued to operate in 25 out of 33 departments, and reportedly included up to 9,000 members.

The number of IDPs in Colombia continued to escalate, with the number registered by the government reaching 3.6 million and a reliable non-governmental observer estimating that the total was as high as 5.2 million. As in previous years, most people fled to towns and cities from the rural areas where the groups aimed to consolidate territorial control. Mass displacements were concentrated in the departments of Nariño, Antioquia, Chocó, and Valle del Cauca, and affected mostly indigenous people.

Drug-cartel and gang violence caused displacement in Mexico and Guatemala. In Mexico, violence grew sharply in areas close to the border with the United States, particularly in Chihuahua and Tamaulipas States, as drug cartels fought to control trafficking routes. The violence killed roughly 15,000 people there in 2010, including gang members, police, and civilians not related to the drug trade. The government did not compile figures of people displaced by the violence, but independent surveys put their number around 230,000. An estimated half of those displaced crossed the border into the United States, which would leave about 115,000 people internally displaced, most likely in the States of Chihuahua, Durango, Coahuila and Veracruz.

In Guatemala and other Central American countries, urban gang violence reportedly continued to produce forced displacement, but the number of people displaced was unknown. Most displacement in Guatemala was from the poor urban neighbourhoods to which IDPs had fled during the conflict, and where gangs continued to operate.

In Peru, the growth of coca plantations and associated violence posed an ongoing threat to security. The country closely followed Colombia as the largest coca exporter, and factions of former insurgent groups such as the Shining Path reportedly competed to control the trade. The groups conducted isolated acts of violence in 2010 and planted landmines, prompting fears among peasants of a return to conflict. However, no displacement was reported as a result of this violence.

IDP protection and durable solutions
In addition to these ongoing situations of violence and displacement, the region was also host to people who continued to face specific difficulties due to their displacement, even though the conflict they had fled had long ended. The lack of sustainable livelihoods for IDPs, predominantly in urban areas, was also a critical barrier to their achievement of a durable solution.
In Colombia, IDPs continued to face threats to their physical security in their areas of displacement: the government reported that in the first six months of 2010, 266 IDPs were killed, and CODHES reported that intra-urban displacement affected roughly 2,600 people in the cities of Medellín, Bogotá, Soacha, and Neiva.

Following a Constitutional Court order to measure and report the impact of its response, the government found that significant gaps remained in its provision of emergency assistance, housing, land rights, and livelihoods opportunities. In these areas IDPs were still in a significantly worse position than the rest of the poor population. In general, internally displaced indigenous people, Afro-Colombians, and women were even worse off.

In Guatemala, 13 years after the end of the conflict, little was known about the situation of IDPs, but the country’s widespread poverty – it has the lowest level of human development in the region except for Haiti – and the additional difficulties associated with forced displacement, suggest that many people had been unable to rebuild their lives and establish livelihoods.

In Peru, ten years after the end of the conflict between government forces and the insurgent Shining Path and Túpac Amaru Revolutionary Movement, most of the remaining IDPs were in urban centres including Ayacucho, Lima, Junín, Ica and Huánuco. A programme to provide reparations for victims of conflict was ongoing, but in 2010 there was no progress in enabling IDPs to benefit from the reparations.

People displaced as a result of the 1994 Zapatista uprising in Chiapas State, Mexico, continued to seek solutions to their displacement. There was no state or federal legislation to support them, but in 2010, the Green Party brought a proposal to the Senate to amend the law governing the Commission for the Development of Indigenous Peoples (CDI) to give it more power to implement programmes to support the displaced indigenous population in Chiapas.

In 2010, natural hazards combined with inadequate preparedness made the Americas the region most affected by natural disasters, with the January earthquake in Haiti leaving up to a million people still displaced at the end of the year. Colombia was hit by the worst rainy season in years, which caused floods and landslides that by the end of 2010 had affected over two million people, killed over 300, and destroyed over 5,000 homes. People who had been already displaced by conflict and violence were among those most vulnerable.

### National and international responses

In 2010, Colombia elected and instated a new President, Juan Manuel Santos. Elections will take place in Peru and Guatemala in 2011. The new Colombian administration quickly introduced measures to give IDPs back the land they have lost as a result of displacement, by proposing a land restitution programme which will be debated in 2011.

In 2010, three UN human rights treaty bodies issued recommendations for the protection of IDPs in Colombia. They highlighted that comprehensive measures were still needed to protect displaced women, children and members of minorities; that land restitution for IDPs should be accelerated and access to housing improved; and that the government should step up measures to prevent forced recruitment of children by armed groups.

In Mexico, state and federal authorities did not acknowledge or start to respond to the internal displacement caused by drug cartels. The international agencies with protection mandates already present in the country, including UNHCR and ICRC, raised concerns, but did not develop protection and assistance programmes in the absence of the government’s recognition of the crisis.

In November 2010, countries in the region including those with IDPs adopted the Brasilia Declaration on the Protection of Refugees and Stateless Persons in Americas, which included some elements relevant to IDPs. The Declaration reiterated the need for progress in the search for durable solutions, and called for age, gender and diversity considerations to be included in legislation on IDPs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number of IDPs (rounded)</th>
<th>Government figures</th>
<th>UN figures</th>
<th>Other figures</th>
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<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>3,600,000–5,200,000</td>
<td>3,622,308</td>
<td>5,195,620</td>
<td>(CODHES, December 2010) The CODHES figure is cumulative since 1985, while the government’s is cumulative since 2000. The government does not count intra-urban displacement or displacement due to crop fumigations, and includes only those registered in the national IDP registry.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>242,000</td>
<td>(UNFPA, May 1997) It is unknown whether IDPs displaced in 1980s and early 1990s have reached durable solutions.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>About 120,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>5,000–8,000</td>
<td>(Center for Human Rights Fray Bartolomé de la Casas, 2007; 115,000 (Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez, 2010) Figures include displacement from Zapatista uprising in 1994, and due to violence by drug cartels in 2010 in northern border states.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>About 150,000</td>
<td>150,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>More recent figures not available.</td>
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Internal armed conflict and human rights violations by armed groups have caused massive internal displacement in Colombia for four decades or more. At the end of 2010, 3.6 million people had been displaced in Colombia according to the government, and 5.2 million according to the independent Observatory on Human Rights and Displacement (CODHES); both figures are cumulative figures and do not account for those who may have found durable solutions.

In September 2010, the military commander of the insurgent Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC) was killed by the security forces, but the group confirmed its intention to continue its activities. Meanwhile, armed groups that emerged after the demobilisation in 2006 of paramilitaries continued to operate in 25 out of 33 departments; it was reported that they had up to 9,000 members.

In 2010, 95,000 people were newly displaced according to the government, and 280,000 according to CODHES. Direct threats by armed actors caused over half of new displacements, while assassinations of family members, massacres, and confrontations between combatants were significant causes. In 2010, thousands of Colombians also sought asylum in neighbouring Ecuador, Venezuela and Panama.

In 2010 as in previous years, most people were displaced from the countryside towards towns and cities. Mass displacements took place predominantly in the departments of Nariño, Antioquia, Chocó, and Valle del Cauca, and affected mostly indigenous peoples. Additionally, as many as 2,600 people were reportedly displaced within urban areas as a result of violence and insecurity, particularly in the cities of Medellín, Bogotá, Soacha and Neiva.

Under-registration of IDPs in the government registry (the RUPD) persisted, as IDPs did not come forward out of fear or ignorance of procedures, and because many who requested it were denied registration. In 2010, the government continued to implement the 2009 ruling by the Constitutional Court requiring it to address under-registration through information campaigns, by registering applicants rejected in previous years, by sharing information between the RUPD and other government databases, and by registering children who had been born to internally displaced parents after they registered.

Only IDPs included in the RUPD accessed special assistance. In 2010, the government and a civil society group carried out nationwide surveys to gather information about their living conditions. Both surveys found that progress had been made guaranteeing IDPs’ access to education and health care: roughly 80 per cent of internally displaced children attended school, and around 90 per cent of IDPs were registered in the subsidised health system. However, the access to housing and emergency humanitarian support was still limited in 2010: only a small minority of registered IDPs enjoyed these basic necessities, while about half of IDPs did not enjoy food security.

The lack of sustainable livelihoods was a critical obstacle to IDPs, and they remained significantly poorer than the non-displaced population. Female-headed households were particularly at risk, as 60 per cent of work for internally displaced women was in informal labour markets, and 20 per cent in domestic service, with lower pay and longer working hours. The situation of internally displaced Afro-Colombian women was even more precarious, with only about five per cent earning the minimum salary.

Colombia’s new president, Juan Manuel Santos, took office in August 2010. In contrast to the previous government, his administration has signalled an intention to support the restitution of land to IDPs. To this end, it drafted new provisions on internal displacement, including a bill that was submitted to Congress in September 2010 which included elements strengthening the position of IDPs seeking to recover their land.

After declaring in 2004 that the inadequate response to internal displacement by the Government amounted to an “unconstitutional state of affairs”, the Constitutional Court continued its oversight of the response to internal displacement in 2010. The government reported on the status of its IDP programmes and plans, but by the end of the year, the Court had yet to rule on whether the “unconstitutional state of affairs” still pertained.

The UN continued in 2010 to implement the cluster system to coordinate humanitarian action in Colombia, with positive outcomes including better information sharing and communication among international agencies. However, the need was identified for a more widespread international presence to prevent violations and better protect vulnerable groups including IDPs. Finally, the lack of a consolidated appeals process in Colombia was identified as an impediment to the quick mobilisation of international support.
Guatemala

Quick facts

<table>
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<tr>
<td>Number of IDPs</td>
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<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
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<tr>
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<td>New displacement</td>
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<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations</td>
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<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
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The long conflict between government forces and insurgents grouped under the Guatemalan National Revolutionary Unity ended in 1996 and left between 500,000 and 1.5 million people internally displaced across Guatemala, many of them in the shanty towns of the capital, Guatemala City. 14 years after the end of the conflict, little was known about the number and situation of remaining IDPs, but the country’s widespread poverty and the additional difficulties associated with forced displacement suggested that many people had been unable to rebuild their lives and livelihoods.

Drug cartel and gang violence has reportedly continued to cause displacement, but systematic figures have not been gathered. It is thought that people have been forced to flee from one poor urban neighbourhood to another. In Ciudad Quetzal, an impoverished neighbourhood of Guatemala City, it was reported that owners had abandoned their homes in 2010 to escape violence and threats from gangs. Community leaders in Villa Nueva near Guatemala City have estimated that five per cent of families there have had to re-settle after they failed to pay the illegal taxes imposed by those groups.

A growing number of Guatemalans have requested asylum in other countries in recent years, particularly in the United States, and according to UNHCR’s latest available figures, some 9,000 asylum applications were pending globally in 2009.

Guatemala has been unable to build strong institutions and provide security for its citizens, and IDPs have not received any specific support. The country faces a growing threat from organised crime and corruption, and in 2010, the UN’s International Commission Against Impunity in Guatemala, established in 2007 to help the country fight crime and corruption, had its mandate renewed by the UN General Assembly until 2013.

Mexico

Quick facts

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<tr>
<td>Number of IDPs</td>
<td>About 0.2%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>1994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement situation</td>
<td>1994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
<td>120,000 (2010)</td>
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<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>About 115,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Generalised violence, human rights violations</td>
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<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
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Drug-cartel violence in Mexico escalated dramatically in 2010, with the violence reaching the highest levels since it broke out in 2006; as many as 15,000 people were killed as a result during the year. In 2010, northern states bordering the United States, where trafficking routes were concentrated, were most affected. While the violence has caused forced displacement, the government has not systematically collected figures to indicate its scale.

In 2010, most IDPs originated from the states most affected by violence, Chihuahua and Tamaulipas. Surveys conducted by a research centre in Ciudad Juárez in Chihuahua estimated that around 230,000 people had fled their homes. According to the survey’s findings, roughly half of them had crossed the border into the United States, with an estimated 115,000 people left internally displaced, predominantly in the states of Chihuahua, Durango, Coahuila and Veracruz. There have been few attempts to define the scale of displacement in small rural towns in Tamaulipas and Chihuahua, even though the violence is believed to be even more intense in those rural areas. Furthermore, forced displacement has taken place alongside strong economic migration flows, making it harder to identify and document.

In Tamaulipas, the Cartel del Golfo and another cartel known as the Zetas fought for trafficking routes, terrorising the civilian population as a way to assert territorial control, and also targeting local authorities and journalists. The municipalities most affected were Guerrero, Mier, Miguel Alemán, Camargo and Díaz Ordaz.

In Ciudad Mier, a small locality near the border with the United States, the Zetas issued an open threat to all the inhabitants in November 2010, saying that people who remained in the town would be killed. As a result,
as many as 400 people fled to the nearby town of Ciudad Miguel Alemán.

In Chihuahua, where the Cartel de Sinaloa began to challenge the dominance of the Cartel de Juárez and its control of trafficking routes, the large industrial town of Ciudad Juárez also experienced increased violence and forced displacement. The Municipal Planning Institute reported in 2010 that there were up to 116,000 empty homes in Juárez.

In 2010, federal authorities did not acknowledge, assess or document the needs of the people displaced, instead focusing on their efforts on fighting the drug cartels. International agencies present in the country with protection mandates, including UNHCR and ICRC, followed events but, in the absence of government acquiescence, they did not establish programmes to provide protection and assistance or promote durable solutions for those forcibly displaced.

During the 1990s, up to 60,000 people were displaced in the southern state of Chiapas, during an uprising by the Zapatista Army of National Liberation (EZLN) and the group’s subsequent confrontations with government forces. Those displaced were mostly indigenous people who fled violence at the hands of the army and allied militias, or members of indigenous groups that did not align with the EZLN and so were forced to leave by the Zapatistas.

OHCHR reported that between 3,000 and as many as 60,000 people were still internally displaced in 2003; and between 5,000 and 8,000 people were reportedly still displaced in 2007 according to local NGOs. In 2010, UNDP estimated that 6,000 families remained in displacement in Chiapas as a result of the Zapatista uprising.

More recently, sectarian violence between indigenous communities in Chiapas, Guerrero and Oaxaca states, based often on religious affiliation, have also caused violence and displacement. The Commission for the Development of Indigenous Peoples (CDI), a body created by the government, reported that over 1,000 indigenous members of the Protestant minority were displaced from nine districts in 2009. In addition, indigenous people, particularly in Chiapas, were reportedly displaced by paramilitary groups aligned with landowners, but there is no information as to their numbers.

In contrast to previous years when the plight of people displaced after the Zapatista uprising was largely forgotten, initiatives to address the situation of IDPs in these states gathered momentum in 2010. The Green Party brought a proposal to the Senate to amend the law to give the CDI more power and capacity to implement programmes to support the displaced indigenous population. There had been no state or federal legislation on internal displacement since a bill proposing a general law on internal displacement was defeated in the Senate in 1998.

In April 2010, UNDP launched a programme to support peacebuilding among displaced populations in Chiapas, which also aimed to persuade the state government and the federal government to acknowledge displacement and provide targeted support to IDPs, including through mechanisms to help them recover the land and homes that they had lost.

Ten years after conflict ended between government forces and the Shining Path and Túpac Amaru Revolutionary Movement, most of the one million people internally displaced had returned to their homes or resettled by 2010. The government estimated in 2007 that 150,000 IDPs remained, mostly in urban centres including Ayacucho, Lima, Junín, Ica and Huánuco.

A law on internal displacement passed in 2004 helped to protect IDPs’ rights, as it incorporated the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement and created a division within the Ministry of Women and Social Development (MIMDES) to coordinate the response to internal displacement. This body has improved the situation of some IDPs by starting to register them for eventual reparations, and implementing some livelihoods support programmes.

However, early momentum faded and, during 2010 as in 2009, the number of people registered remained at only 5,000. There was another general registry of conflict victims, but the IDP registry remained separate.

No IDPs had received reparation by the end of 2010, and the focus on reparations for collective groups was effectively stopping individual applications. Collective reparations, both for IDPs and victims of other human rights abuses, were presented as development or anti-poverty measures rather than the realisation of fundamental rights.

There was no data in 2010 evaluating the situation of IDPs or comparing it to that of the non-displaced population. However, IDPs continued to struggle to access livelihood opportunities, education and health care.

In 2010, growth of coca plantations and associated violence posed an ongoing threat, but there were no reports of resulting displacement. Peru now closely follows Colombia as the largest coca exporter, and factions of the Shining Path have reportedly competed to control the trade. These groups conducted isolated acts of violence in 2010 and planted landmines, prompting fears among peasants of a return to conflict.
In 2010, new fighting and displacement in Yemen led the number of people internally displaced in the Middle East to increase. The figure in the Middle East reached 3.9 million at the end of the year; however the number of IDPs in the rest of the region remained stable and there was relatively little new displacement, while few IDPs achieved a durable solution as past situations remained unresolved.

Over the ten years to 2010, the number of IDPs in the Middle East more than trebled from a little over one million at the start of the decade. Most of those IDPs in 2000 had been displaced in Iraq by the persecution of Saddam Hussein’s government or by the Iran-Iraq war, in Lebanon by the country’s long-running sectarian civil war, or in Syria due to Israel’s occupation of the Golan Heights. Discriminatory government policies had also displaced Palestinians in Israel as well as in the Occupied Palestinian Territory (OPT) and Kurds in Syria.

While many of these policies and occupations have continued to cause displacement, the last ten years have also been marked by numerous “asymmetric” conflicts in which regular armed forces have carried out counter-insurgency campaigns against militant groups. These militants have often been in the midst of civilians, and their guerilla tactics and the disproportionate force used against them have caused heightened civilian casualties and often massive displacement.

From 2000, in OPT, the Israeli army engaged in continuing low-intensity conflict with Palestinian militants, involving spo-
radic large-scale military operations in West Bank towns and cities and repeated attacks on Gaza. At the end of 2010, over 20,000 people in Gaza were still displaced, two years after the massive three-week Israeli attack of 2008-2009.

The Israeli army also embarked on a massive military campaign against Hezbollah in southern Lebanon in 2006, which led to the displacement of over a quarter of the entire population. Many of them had settled in Beirut by 2010. In 2007, tens of thousands of Palestinian refugees in Lebanon were forced to flee the Nahr el-Bared camp after it was destroyed in a bombardment by Lebanese armed forces ostensibly targeting militants.

Following the invasion of Iraq in 2003, the primary cause of displacement was fighting between multinational forces and both Sunni and Shi’ite insurgents. This peaked between 2005 and 2007, and resulted in the internal displacement of well over a million people, almost all of whom remained displaced as of 2010. In Yemen’s northern governorates and in particular in Sa’ada, successive cycles of rebellion by the Al-Houthi group and counter-insurgency campaigns by the Yemeni and Saudi armies led the internally displaced population to rise to over 340,000 at the height of the conflict in 2010.

There were also smaller instances of displacement due to localized inter-communal violence. In disputed areas bordering the Kurdish northern regions of Iraq, violence caused the displacement of some returning Kurds, Arab residents and members of various minorities including Christians, Turkmen, Yezidis, and Shabaks.

Protection concerns facing IDPs
In 2010, one in every 11 Iraqis was still internally displaced. Security had improved to some extent, but IDPs continued to face threats to their physical integrity, and insecurity remained the main concern of both returnees and IDPs. In addition, the government had proven unable to provide adequate essential services to IDPs, including the most vulnerable women, children and older people among them. They struggled to access basic necessities, and found it hard to access rations through the Public Distribution System (PDS) if they did not have valid PDS cards in the governorate they had been displaced to.

In Yemen, despite the ceasefire agreement of 2010, intermittent violence and widespread mines and other unexploded ordnance continued to put IDPs at risk. They continued to go without basic services, and food rations were halved during the year. Internally displaced children and others from conflict areas were killed or injured by direct shelling and mines; there were also continuing reports of child recruitment by several parties to the conflict in Al-Houthi-controlled areas. Exposure to violence had a traumatic impact on IDP children.

Internally displaced Palestinians faced ongoing discrimination and in many cases the constant threat of secondary displacement. In Lebanon, those displaced from Nahr el-Bared due to the restrictions faced a direct threat to their livelihood and access to social services.

The nature of the region’s conflicts and counter-insurgency operations have led IDPs and the agencies seeking to assist them to face significant restrictions on their movement. In the West Bank in 2010, IDPs were unable to access their land and assistance was impeded by a system of over 550 checkpoints and barriers that limited access to many Palestinian enclaves. In Iraq, where many concrete barriers continued to mark sectarian boundaries, the insecurity and restrictions imposed by regional governments stopped IDPs from moving between regions. In Lebanon, the army severely restricted access to Nahr el-Bared camp and the adjacent areas, while in Yemen government restrictions impeded the movement of IDPs and the access of humanitarian agencies to affected areas.

The access to IDPs has been further complicated by the fact that the overwhelming majority have sought refuge in cities and towns where they have dispersed among the general population. In the absence of government or international assistance, they have had to rely on their hosts, often placing a heavy burden on them over time. In Yemen, camps provided shelter and assistance to only one in eight IDPs in 2010, while the relationship between the IDPs outside camps and their host communities became strained over limited resources.

Despite extensive efforts by international agencies, the status of internally displaced women has remained particularly difficult. In all countries, displaced women who have become heads of households have had to support their children and older members of their family without a steady income, relying on piecemeal support. Displaced women are struggling to merely provide adequate food, not to mention housing, health care and other services. In Iraq, IOM reported that nearly 40 per cent of women heading displaced households who had returned were unable to work due to health problems or social pressures. Of those who were capable of working, 71 per cent were unemployed. In Iraq and also in Yemen, where domestic violence and marital rape are not criminalised, there has also been concern that displacement has increased significantly the exposure of children and women to domestic violence and other sexual or gender-based violence.
Protracted displacement
By 2010, well over a third of IDPs in the region were trapped in protracted displacement, including in situations where the conflict which had displaced them had ended. For some, the discrimination which had led to their displacement continued. This was the case for Kurds displaced in Syria: the “Arab belt” project in which they had been forced from their homes along the Turkish border had been suspended in 1976, but there were no reports of those displaced achieving durable solutions. In the West Bank, the government of Israel’s continued planning of new settlements and infrastructure prevented durable solutions for people displaced by its earlier activities.

Political considerations also continued to prevent the achievement of durable solutions. For example, the government of Syria had officially maintained returns as the durable solution of people displaced from the Golan Heights so as not to weaken its claim over the Golan. The Israeli government had not entertained the return of IDPs within Israel, in case this paved the way for the return of Palestinian refugees from neighbouring countries.

The rate of returns in Iraq dropped from a high of 17,000 per month in July 2009 to 9,000 in June 2010, while 38 per cent of those that did return did not feel safe and about half found their homes damaged or occupied by militias or other IDPs. Many IDPs remained reluctant to return to their place of origin, with those in Yemen and Iraq still citing fear of insecurity and of reprisals among the principal concerns in 2010. In these countries and also in Lebanon, the lack of social services, infrastructure and livelihood opportunities in return areas also put them off. In Yemen a quarter of the IDPs had no intention of returning, while in Iraq the percentage of IDPs who preferred to integrate locally increased from 30 per cent in 2006 to 37 per cent in 2010.

National and international responses
In 2010, the RSG on IDPs visited Yemen in April and Iraq in September, and advocated for the development of strategies on durable solutions to displacement and raised awareness among donors of the need to provide adequate funding. In November 2010, the UN launched its second consolidated appeal in response to the situation in northern Yemen, after adopting the cluster system there in February 2010. Humanitarian agencies also managed to negotiate the resumption of their access and assistance in Sa’ada in February 2010, only to see it curtailed by further government restrictions and insecurity in the following months.

Overall, there was little evidence of the participation of IDPs in the planning and implementation of relevant policies and programmes during 2010. The impartiality of the humanitarian response also remained in question. It was still delivered by teams associated with parties to conflict, as in Lebanon where Hezbollah has been a major source of assistance, and Iraq where reconstruction has often been led by US military-led teams. The gradual departure of US forces from Iraq can pave the way for international humanitarians to reinforce their neutrality and encourage a more participatory approach.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number of IDPs (rounded)</th>
<th>Government figures</th>
<th>UN figures</th>
<th>Other figures</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>2,800,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,300,000 (UNHCR, January 2011)</td>
<td>2,170,000 (Iraqi Red Crescent Organisation, June 2008); 2,840,000 (IOM, November 2010)</td>
<td>UNHCR figures are based on the number of IDPs registered by the Iraqi authorities since 2006. IOM estimate includes people internally displaced before 2006.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>150,000 (Cohen, 2001); 420,000 (BADIL, 2006)</td>
<td>Most of those included in these estimates are the children and grandchildren of people originally displaced.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>At least 76,000</td>
<td>40,000 to 70,000 since civil war (2007)</td>
<td>27,000 from Nahr el-Bared (UNRWA, October 2010)</td>
<td>50,000–300,000 (USCRI, 2005); 600,000 prior to July 2006 (USDoS, 2006); 23,000 (Lebanon Support, February 2010)</td>
<td>Different populations are included; those displaced by the 2007 siege of Nahr el-Bared camp for Palestinian refugees, the 2006 Israel-Hezbollah conflict, and the 1975-1990 civil war and Israeli invasions. Numbers of IDPs remaining from the 2006 Israeli incursion are reportedly not significant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupied Palestinian Territory</td>
<td>At least 160,000</td>
<td>At least 20,500 (OCHA, November 2009)</td>
<td>129,000 (BADIL, December 2009); 4,700 (Harm-kod, December 2009); 24,800 homes demolished (ICAHD, July 2010)</td>
<td>OCHA refers to IDPs receiving rental allowance in Gaza or displaced due to house demolitions in West Bank. BADIL refers to people displaced from 1967 to 2008 excluding the offensive in Gaza. Harm-kod indicates the number of revoked residency permits in 2008 not included in BADIL figures. ICAHD has reported 24,800 homes demolished since 1967 to 2010.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>433,000</td>
<td>433,000 (2007)</td>
<td>At least 225,000 (OCHA, November 2010)</td>
<td>It has not been possible to verify the sustainability of returns since the number of IDPs peaked in early 2010. Other internal conflicts caused the displacement of 6,700 to 12,000 Yemenis, many of whom reportedly returned.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yemen</td>
<td>About 250,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</table>
In 2010 around 2.8 million people were internally displaced in Iraq, as a result of repression by the government prior to 2003, fighting following the invasion of Iraq in 2003, and the sectarian violence which followed the destruction of the Askari Shrine in 2006. Around one in every 11 Iraqis was internally displaced. By 2010, people from the same sectarian or religious group had been concentrated into the same locations as IDPs fled to areas where their group was dominant. About half of the total number came from the ethnically diverse governorates of Baghdad and Diyala. As a result the country was more ethnically and religiously homogenous than at any time in Iraq’s modern history. Iraqi society remained deeply divided along ethnically and religiously homogenous than at any time in Iraq’s modern history. Iraqi society remained deeply divided along ethnically and religiously homogenous than at any time in Iraq’s modern history. Iraqi society remained deeply divided along ethnically and religiously homogenous than at any time in Iraq’s modern history. Iraqi society remained deeply divided along ethnically and religiously homogenous than at any time in Iraq’s modern history. Iraqi society remained deeply divided along.

Tensions remained high in 2010 yet increasingly confined to the disputed areas of the ethnically diverse northern governorates of Kirkuk and Nineveh. While the security situation in Baghdad remained fragile, it had improved to some extent because the major political parties had renounced violence to jockey for political influence. The only identified pattern of new displacement in 2010 was that of Christians from Baghdad and Mosul: following threats and targeted bombings, an undetermined number were displaced to the three northern governorates under the authority of the Kurdistan Regional Government. Internally displaced children and women were particularly at risk, and faced widespread gender-based violence and labour exploitation. In a country that gives women fewer opportunities than men, internally displaced women and families headed by women had significantly greater needs than other displaced people in the same area.

Many of the vulnerabilities faced by IDPs were shared by non-displaced groups who all suffered from high rates of unemployment, limited access to basic food rations and clean water, and a declining standard of living. However, IDPs faced the additional challenge of the constant threat of eviction as most displaced families were living in rented or privately-owned houses, in collective settlements, or in public buildings.

As the duration of their displacement increased, IDPs in towns and cities faced increasing difficulties in registering for a range of entitlements and services, including food subsidies, schools and voting cards. As most remained unemployed their savings had been increasingly depleted by rent and other expenses.

Meanwhile the number of returnees dropped in 2010; most returns were to Baghdad and Diyala, the areas from which most people had been displaced. IDPs who expressed an interest in returning voiced concerns about political uncertainty, poor public services and their safety in places of origin where they would be in an ethnic or religious minority. Many of their homes had been destroyed, and if not, they had often been occupied by others. For many, the lack of livelihood opportunities in return areas was also a barrier. The percentage of IDPs who wished to integrate locally increased from 12 per cent in 2006 to 37 per cent by mid-2010. Until 2010, most government policies continued to favour return over other settlement options. However, at the end of the year, the new Ministry of Displacement and Migration moved to establish a four-year plan to promote durable solutions for IDPs which also recognised the need to support IDPs to integrate in their place of displacement or to resettle elsewhere in the country. The plan also envisaged a survey of IDPs’ intentions, a study of the psychological and social impacts of the violence on families, and initiatives to improve access to employment.

Though elections were held in March 2010, the results did not enable the formation of a government until December. The stalemate prevented any improvements in the delivery of public services to citizens. Meanwhile, the intense political competition left little room for reconciliation between sectarian groups or the development of effective policy, and so durable solutions remained out of the reach of the large majority of IDPs. Though hampered by its limited capacity and internal divisions, the government continued to help returnees to register and receive assistance. The government’s inter-agency support programme for rebuilding homes in Baghdad and Diyala helped to make returns sustainable in about 400 villages in 2009 and 2010.

Meanwhile, UN agencies and international organisations continued to extend their presence in the country as security levels allowed, and increasingly took the lead in addressing internal displacement. However, while the UN had access to all governorates through operational partners, its ability to provide effective humanitarian assistance continued to be impaired by its operational restrictions and the lack of security.

### Iraq

**Quick facts**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of IDPs</th>
<th>2,800,000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement situation</td>
<td>1968</td>
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<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Armed conflict, deliberate policy or practice of arbitrary displacement, generalised violence, human rights violations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
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</table>
In 2010 there was no new internal displacement in Lebanon, but the number of people remaining internally displaced was still unclear. There were at least 76,000 IDPs, with some estimates suggesting as many as several hundred thousand. Their displacement had been caused by three periods of conflict or violence: the 1975-1990 civil war and the related interventions by Israel until 2000 and by Syria until 2005; the 33-day war of 2006 between Israel and Hezbollah; and the armed conflict that led to the destruction of the Nahr el-Bared camp for Palestinian refugees in 2007. In addition, Lebanon has regularly witnessed localised sectarian violence resulting in brief displacement, as was the case in Tripoli in 2008.

After the civil war ended, the government set the end of 2002 as the date by which all IDPs should return to their homes. However, the US Committee for Refugees and Immigrants estimated in 2004 that between 50,000 and more than 500,000 people were still displaced. No common understanding was ever reached by the Lebanese on the definition and number of IDPs. The Ministry of Displacement (MoD) was established to address the situation of the people displaced due to the civil war, and it provided assistance to enable IDPs to rebuild their homes; however, the lack of effective reconciliation or remedy for past human rights violations stood in the way of durable solutions.

The UN estimated in 2007 that from 40,000 to 70,000 people were still internally displaced due to the war of 2006. In 2010 information gathered by IDMC indicated that only very few people were still displaced following the 2006 war, but no information was available on how the rest had achieved durable solutions.

In addition about 26,000 Palestinians remained displaced in 2010 by the destruction of Nahr el-Bared camp in 2007. At the end of the year, nearly 16,000 Palestinians displaced by the destruction of the camp were living in the area adjacent to the camp, with over 10,000 of these still living in temporary accommodation. Another 10,000 Palestinians displaced by the destruction of Nahr el-Bared were still living in the nearby Beddawi camp.

In 2010, IDPs in Lebanon continued to face a range of problems in a society which remained divided along sectarian lines, with an economy which had been devastated by repeated conflicts. Many continued to live in damaged houses or in temporary shelters without adequate water or electricity supplies. This was particularly true for those displaced from Nahr el-Bared: the entire camp was destroyed in the 2007 fighting between the army and members of the militant Fatah al-Islam organisation, and its reconstruction had since been relatively slow, with the first planned group of 143 buildings, intended for over 430 families, still to be completed by the end of 2010.

In 2010, IDPs and returnees were dispersed in various areas of the country, but particularly in urban areas. During the civil war, many rural communities were displaced into towns and cities, while in the 2006 war over 80 per cent of people living south of the Litani river fled north, with only those unable or unwilling to leave remaining. This area of southern Lebanon still witnessed small-scale skirmishes and remained contaminated by unexploded ordnance, both of which continued to stand in the way of sustainable returns. Many IDPs had received monetary compensation instead of assistance with the reconstruction of their pre-war homes, and a large number of these people had settled in the southern suburbs of Beirut, often in inadequate accommodation, instead of returning to the south.

The Lebanese government does not have an overall national policy on internal displacement, despite having established several mechanisms to address the recovery and reconstruction needs of IDPs and returnees, and so its responses to the different displacement crises, and the assistance which it has provided to different displaced communities, have not been consistent.

The UN and international NGOs have continued to assist reconstruction efforts. The international community established a reconstruction fund following the 2006 war, and UNDP has administered the fund; meanwhile UNRWA led the reconstruction of Nahr el-Bared.

While also receiving support from national and international organisations, the majority of IDPs sought assistance and shelter from their respective communities. Sectarian organisations including the Courant du Future and most notably Hezbollah provided significant assistance after the 2006 war, including social services and reconstruction support to affected communities, particularly in Beirut’s southern suburbs and south Lebanon.
In 2010, there were at least 160,000 IDPs within OPT, who had been forced from their homes during the preceding four decades. They had been displaced by various activities of the Israeli government and army, which indicated a continuing policy of displacing Palestinians and divesting them of ownership rights guaranteed under international law in order to acquire land and redefine demographic boundaries.

Palestinians have been displaced due to Israeli settlement construction, settler violence, Israeli military incursions and clearing operations, evictions, land appropriations and house demolitions, discriminatory denial of building permits, and the revocation of residency rights in East Jerusalem. Many people had also been displaced by violence committed by settlers.

Tens of thousands of people were still displaced within Gaza at the end of 2010, two years after an intense three-week Israeli offensive had destroyed their homes. They were enduring precarious living conditions: many were living in makeshift structures while others were sharing overcrowded facilities with hosts. Their recovery had been hindered by the Israeli government’s blockade of Gaza, in particular its refusal to allow in construction materials.

The humanitarian situation in Gaza improved slightly in 2010 as restrictions in place since 2006 were eased, however the blockade continued to stall reconstruction efforts. In 2010, 20,000 people in Gaza displaced in 2008 and 2009 were receiving rental assistance, while an undefined number were still staying with hosts. A further 2,900 families displaced due to previous incursions were still unable to rebuild their homes.

In the West Bank, people became more vulnerable as the illegal expansion of settlements and related infrastructure continued despite an Israeli moratorium on settlement growth. It was also estimated that 100,000 people remained at risk of displacement throughout the West Bank, including 60,000 in East Jerusalem alone. Communities threatened with expulsion or eviction, particularly along the Jordan Valley and south Hebron Hills in the West Bank and in the buffer zone in Gaza, faced harassment, violence and intimidation by Israeli settlers as well as Israeli authorities.

In areas of the West Bank under Israeli administration, including East Jerusalem, almost 600 people were displaced and 14,000 affected when their homes and livelihood related structures were demolished in 2010. The number of demolitions was 60 per cent higher than in 2009. There were no figures on the number of people whose residency in East Jerusalem was revoked during the year.

The Separation Wall has continued to cause restrictions on freedom of movement, and put tens of thousands of people at risk of displacement. The Wall was built beyond the “Green Line” demarcating areas administered as part of the State of Israel since 1949, and though some restrictions were removed in 2010, the continuing system of closures made life untenable for many residents of the enclaves which it had created.

There have been no exercises to profile the internally displaced population or assess their protection and humanitarian needs. IDPs are thought to be dispersed among communities in areas away from Israeli infrastructure. In Gaza, people displaced due to incursions have sought shelter with relatives, or in public buildings or schools until longer-term accommodation becomes possible. IDPs have lost livelihoods and access to social welfare, and families have been separated by displacement. Internally displaced adults and children have faced wide-ranging physical and psychological impacts.

The government of Israel has not generally recognised the internal displacement, even though it remains the primary perpetrator. It does not provide assistance or protection to IDPs. The Palestinian authorities in West Bank and Gaza, despite attempts to address displacement, have been impaired by the ongoing policies of occupation, their limited jurisdiction under the Oslo Accords, political turmoil and poor governance.

Palestinian, Israeli and international NGOs have researched and publicised the impact of house demolitions and the Wall on communities, and sought to prevent displacement, on occasion providing legal and other assistance to victims of eviction orders or demolitions. There is no international agency in OPT with an explicit IDP protection mandate, though several UN agencies have responded within their respective mandates. Nevertheless, the international community has remained largely ineffective in preventing displacement in OPT.

For the vast majority of IDPs in OPT, durable solutions remain tied to the reversal of policies of occupation, and an eventual final resolution to the conflict. Human rights agencies and humanitarian NGOs have long warned that the failure of the international community to address the underlying sources of forced displacement is increasingly rendering any two-state solution unavailable. Prioritisation of the rights of those affected is ever more pressing, in light of the demographic changes that displacement entails and the continuing consequences that these changes will have for contested areas.
Syria

Quick facts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of IDPs</th>
<th>433,000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement situation</td>
<td>1967</td>
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<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
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<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Armed conflict, generalised violence</td>
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<td>Human development index</td>
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</table>

The current internal displacement situation in Syria started during the Israeli occupation of the Golan Heights during the Six Day war in June 1967; since then IDPs have been unable to access their areas of origin in the Golan. In 1981, Israel annexed the Golan in violation of international law. Initially, over 140,000 people were displaced, but by 2010 the Syrian government estimated that the original IDPs and their descendants numbered 433,000. Most displaced families appeared to have integrated in or near Damascus, but their situations are not well documented. People from the four remaining Druze villages within the occupied Golan have been separated from their families across the demarcation line and contact has been virtually impossible since 1967 for all but the few pilgrims and students who have been allowed to cross each year.

Negotiations between the Israeli and Syrian governments have been inconclusive; while close to 20,000 Israelis have settled in 32 settlements in the Golan since 1981. IDPs have not achieved any restitution or compensation for their lost or destroyed property. In 2010, the Israeli government announced its decision to withdraw from the northern part of the Golanese village of Ghajar, which was determined by the UN to be in Lebanon. The Syrian villagers who acquired Israeli citizenship are likely to be displaced in some way.

In addition, in the 1970s, Kurds were displaced in Syria’s north-eastern provinces. The number of people affected is uncertain, but up to 60,000 families reportedly left to the urban centres of the north such as Aleppo and Hasaka, with many of them forcibly displaced following the aborted attempt to create an “Arab belt“ along the Turkish border. Many Kurds were already vulnerable as they had had their citizenship withdrawn in 1962 after failing to prove their residency. The project was suspended in 1976 but never reversed, and there were no reports of those displaced achieving durable solutions.

Family members stand in front of the remains of their demolished house in Khirbet Yanza in the Occupied Palestinian Territory. (Photo: Activestills.org/Anne Paq, November 2010)
As of December 2010, there were about 250,000 people still forcibly displaced by internal conflicts in Yemen. Lack of humanitarian access however continued to render it difficult to verify this UN estimate and sustainability of returns. In recent years the government has faced intermittent internal armed conflict in the northern governorate of Sa‘ada, a growing southern separatist movement, and the resurgence of armed groups. In Sa‘ada, a group referred to as “Al-Houthis” after the family name of the leader of the rebellion, has since early 2004 engaged in an armed conflict with the Yemeni army and government-backed tribes.

The conflict spread by late 2009 to the governorates of Al Jawf, Hajjah, and Amran, and bordering areas of Saudi Arabia. There had by 2010 been six rounds of conflict since 2004, with the latest round running from August 2009 to February 2010. All parties to the conflict, including the Saudi army, reportedly perpetrated violations of humanitarian and human rights law.

In February 2010 a ceasefire put an end to hostilities, but intermittent violence continued in affected governorates. Approximately 342,000 people were registered in August 2010 as internally displaced, and more than 800,000 people had been indirectly affected by the conflict, including communities hosting IDPs. Only about 15 per cent of IDPs were gathered in camps or identified informal settlements; for many, it was their second or third displacement.

In September, clashes in the southern province of Shabwa between government forces and suspected militants led to the internal displacement of between 6,000 and 12,000 people. More than 800,000 people had been indirectly affected by the conflict, including communities hosting IDPs. Only about 15 per cent of IDPs were gathered in camps or identified informal settlements; for many, it was their second or third displacement.

In December 2010, the UN estimated that around 225,000 people were still displaced due to the Sa‘ada conflict in the four affected governorates and in the capital Sana‘a. In Sa‘ada alone, there were an estimated 110,000 IDPs. A sample profiling exercise undertaken in August and September suggested that only over a quarter of IDPs registered in 2010 had returned to their place of origin. The extensive damage to homes and infrastructure there, the continuing insecurity and the fear of reprisals, and the lack of livelihood opportunities and basic services all discouraged further returns. A quarter of IDPs surveyed had no intention of returning.

As of late 2010, the IDP camps only provided shelter for around one in eight IDPs, with most of the rest seeking shelter with hosts. Needs assessments carried out in accessible areas in late 2009 revealed IDPs living in open shelters, or in overcrowded housing, schools and clinics. They underlined the vulnerability of single mothers and girls to increasing domestic violence among other threats, and the lack of assistance reaching people with special needs. Exposure to violence had led to high rates of trauma and anxiety, particularly among women and children.

The assessments also revealed that IDPs’ access to clean water, sanitation, and food and non-food supplies was becoming more difficult. Access to health care remained limited. Intermittent tensions between IDPs and host communities continued through 2010. The poor access of IDPs in rural areas to pasture land and water supplies – a cause and also an outcome of these tensions – limited their livelihood opportunities.

The humanitarian response in Yemen has been impeded by restrictions on the access of agencies, limited resources and inadequate funding. The government has recognised the situation of displacement and has established mechanisms to coordinate with the humanitarian community; however its response has generally remained limited. It has enabled gradually wider access to IDPs, but humanitarian agencies have continued to face restrictions, especially in Sa‘ada.

In November 2010, the UN launched its second consolidated appeal in response to the situation in northern Yemen. The cluster approach was implemented in early 2010, with UNHCR as protection cluster lead. Several international agencies and national agencies such as the Yemeni Red Crescent Society, Al Amal and the Charitable Society for Social Welfare were at the end of the year providing assistance to conflict-affected and displaced communities. In April 2010, the RSG on IDPs warned of the risk of people’s displacement becoming protracted, and appealed for wider humanitarian access, greater international funding, and the development of a national framework to address the situation of displacement.
People unload their few belongings from trucks at a transit centre in the village of Oddusuddan, northern Sri Lanka. (Photo: UK Department for International Development/Russell Watkins, March 2010)

Internal displacement in South and South-East Asia

At the end of 2010, around 4.6 million people were internally displaced in South and South-East Asia, 70 per cent more than the 2.7 million IDPs in 2005 and 300,000 more than at the start of the year. The increase noted between 2005 and 2010 could almost exclusively be attributed to a rise in the number of IDPs in Pakistan and to a lesser extent in Afghanistan.

794,000 people were newly displaced in 2010, compared to nearly four million in 2009. Most new displacements were in Pakistan, Afghanistan, the Philippines, Myanmar, India and Indonesia, where most people were displaced by ongoing armed conflicts. In other countries such as Sri Lanka, Nepal and Timor-Leste, little or no new displacement was reported, but there were still major obstacles to durable solutions. There were fewer returns than new displacements during the year, with some countries such as Pakistan and the Philippines witnessing both new displacements and returns.

Causes of displacement
The main form of conflict or violence which caused internal displacement in South and South-East Asia was fighting between government forces and insurgent groups striving for autonomy or control of the state, or else resisting government policies that were leading to their exclusion. The “war on
“terror” was used by a number of governments, sometimes supported by international forces, to justify military operations against insurgents groups. Meanwhile, competition for land and resources between groups mobilised along ethnic, religious or clan affiliations drove many incidents of armed violence.

The region experienced many large and smaller-scale natural disasters in 2010. Natural disasters often worsened the situation of people internally displaced by conflict, including those who had returned to their home areas. IDPs were among those most at risk to the impact of the flooding in Pakistan, while the land of many of those who had returned to the Swat Valley was affected by flooding. IDPs in Sri Lanka and returnees in the Philippines also became victims of natural disasters.

Patterns of displacement
By far the largest new displacement occurred in Pakistan, where an estimated 300,000 people fled Taliban human rights abuses and subsequent military operations, mainly in Orakzai Agency in the Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA). A further estimated 100,000 people fled in Balochistan Province due to military operations against separatist groups, and the separatists’ intimidation of government-sponsored settlers.

In neighbouring Afghanistan, the armed conflict between the NATO-led pro-government forces and Taliban-led insurgent groups spread into northern regions. Nonetheless, most of the 100,000 people newly displaced fled combat or attacks initiated by government or international forces in the south and west. Human rights abuses by the Taliban against Hazara people caused significant displacement in the south, as did clashes between pastoralist Kuchi and Hazara over grazing rights in the Central Highlands. Competition for land also put returning refugees at particular risk of secondary displacement.

Disputes over land and resources lay at the heart of the armed conflict in central India between Naxalite insurgents on the one hand and government security forces and militias on the other. The conflict caused the internal displacement of up to 450,000 people, mainly members of tribal groups, from 2004 to 2010, and at least 100,000 people were displaced between mid-2009 and mid-2010. Elsewhere in India, including in north-eastern states, smaller new displacements were caused by communal and ethnic violence and military operations against armed insurgents.

The Philippine government and the Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MLF) respected the ceasefire signed in 2009 but made little progress in talks to ensure sustainable peace in the island region of Mindanao. Most displacement there in 2010 was caused by clan feuds and clashes between groups competing for territory. At least 70,000 people fled their homes, but most returned quickly. Displacement caused by military operations against armed groups was also reported in south-western Mindanao, and in other regions where government forces clashed with communist rebels of the New People’s Army (NPA).

In Myanmar, government forces continued to fight armed groups in ethnic minority areas and perpetrate large-scale human rights violations against civilians suspected of supporting them. Between mid-2009 and mid-2010, at least 73,000 people fled their homes in eastern Myanmar. In November, there was significant displacement in the wake of the country’s first elections since 1990, with thousands of people fleeing across the border into Thailand, as government forces fought armed groups in Karen/Kayin state.

Displacement from rural to urban areas
In search of refuge and security, IDPs usually fled to nearby areas, in groups or on their own. In Mindanao, the Philippines, people usually fled over short distances, from their villages to the main road or town. This proximity allowed some of them to work their land at their place of origin during the day. In East Kalimantan, Indonesia, most of the estimated 32,000 who fled ethnic violence in Tarakan City sought refuge in surrounding...
areas and public buildings. However, some decided to travel back to South Sulawesi from where their group originated to ensure the safety of their family.

As in other regions, many IDPs fled from rural areas to towns and larger cities, seeking better job prospects and access to basic services. Most of them went on to stay in urban areas even when security conditions in their home areas would have enabled them to return. While some managed to successfully integrate and enjoyed higher living standards than in rural areas, many others still struggled with inadequate housing and limited access to basic social services. Most were excluded from formal assistance schemes.

In Afghanistan, an increasing number of IDPs flocked to Kabul, where they joined economic migrants and other disadvantaged groups in the capital’s slums. In Nepal, most IDPs who had attained relative economic stability in cities had no intention of returning. However, while the government had since 2007 provided assistance to people returning home, those who wished to integrate locally were not eligible for government support.

Protection concerns of IDPs
IDPs were often most at risk of physical harm during the initial phase of displacement. Civilians fleeing their homes in Pakistan were reportedly killed or injured by army shelling and aerial bombardment. In Afghanistan, most of the civilian victims of landmines were people trying to reach safer areas.

IDPs were forced into unsafe environments in several countries. Operations conducted by the Indonesian security forces in the Central Highlands region of West Papua forced several thousand indigenous Papuans to seek refuge in the jungle where they had little access to the most basic necessities. Many IDPs in Myanmar remained in hiding in the jungle. In both cases, their situation was made more severe as their governments refused to acknowledge their displacement and so refused the access of any humanitarian or protection agencies.

IDPs who reached a safer destination were not always protected from threats to their physical integrity or freedom of movement. In April, 41 IDPs were killed in a suicide bomb attack on an IDP camp in north-western Pakistan. IDPs originating from areas under insurgent control in Pakistan were also at risk of arrest and interrogation by the army.

The majority of the IDPs who had sought refuge in camps or settlements received assistance from host communities or national or international agencies; however, it was seldom sufficient to cater to their basic needs. Most residents of camps, including those who had been there for several years, lived in poor shelters with inadequate sanitation. They had limited access to clean water and few opportunities to earn an income and so become self-reliant again. In Mindanao, some camp-based IDPs had managed to diversify from farming to trading, daily labour and fishing, but their ability to ensure food security for themselves and their families was threatened by their high levels of debt. In Sri Lanka, measures taken by camp authorities to prevent IDPs from selling part of their food rations to obtain other essential items resulted in a poorer diet for the displaced.

Discrimination against IDPs on the basis of their ethnic origin or religious identity was common in the region; it worsened the situation of Madurese IDPs in Indonesia, Tamils and Muslims in Sri Lanka, indigenous groups in India’s north-eastern states, Jumma and Hindu people in Bangladesh, Myanmar’s various ethnic minorities and the Hmong in Laos. Discrimination affected IDPs’ enjoyment of a number of specific rights including the right to work (in Indonesia’s Central Kalimantan), to be free from arbitrary arrest (as in Pakistan) and the right to freedom of movement (as in Laos).

The effects of discrimination can also be cumulative, for instance in the case of internally displaced widows belonging to groups considered inferior. Many displaced Nepalese widows found it particularly difficult to reclaim their property from other family members in the absence of external support. Few widows whose husbands had been killed by the security forces received relief assistance, unlike those whose husbands had been killed by the Maoist rebels.

Returns in 2010
The largest return movements during 2010 took place in Pakistan, Sri Lanka and the Philippines. IDPs often returned willingly without assistance. However, some governments encouraged IDPs to go home despite persisting insecurity in home areas. In some cases governments closed camps without ensuring that their return or resettlement elsewhere was sustainable.

In Pakistan, where an estimated 400,000 IDPs returned, the government persuaded communities to return to Orakzai and South Waziristan agencies despite threats and suicide attacks against them, and encouraged them to form tribal militias even though this might make them targets of Taliban attacks.

In Afghanistan, the majority of the victims of landmines during 2010 were IDPs or returnees. Thirty-two IDPs were killed in an air strike in February when they were returning to their homes in Uruzgan Province.

In Sri Lanka, most of the estimated 180,000 IDPs who returned home in 2010 remained in need of protection and assistance. Unexploded ordnance and landmine clearance operations begun in 2009 were concentrated in residential areas, leaving many agricultural fields, wells and streams contaminated.

In the Philippines, most of the people who had returned to their homes in Mindanao still had significant humanitarian needs in 2010. In the areas most affected by the 2008 conflict, such as Maguindanao Province, returnees continued to be threatened by the presence of armed groups and unexploded ordnance.

National and international responses
Governments of the region provided varying levels of protection and assistance to their displaced populations. Myanmar, Laos and Indonesia (regarding Papua) denied that conflict or violence was causing internal displacement, and denied the access of foreign agencies. Other countries such as Sri Lanka severely restricted their presence.

Some of the countries most affected by displacement still failed to formalise a legal or policy framework to guide their assistance to IDPs. IDP bills which had been introduced in Sri Lanka and the Philippines in 2008 did not progress in 2010.
Some governments formulated action plans and policies in line with international standards, but then failed to implement them and so improve the situations of IDPs. In Nepal, the government failed to properly implement its 2007 IDP policy in the absence of implementing guidelines. In Afghanistan, the effectiveness of the IDP policy adopted in 2005 was hampered by a lack of sufficient funds and will by the government and its international partners.

In most countries of the region, the UN was involved in helping governments meet their assistance and protection obligations towards IDPs. However, this was not the case in India, Myanmar, Papua in Indonesia, Laos or Bangladesh. Within the cluster coordination arrangements, UNHCR was the lead agency on IDP issues in the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Afghanistan, Pakistan, and OHCHR in Nepal and Timor-Leste.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Number of IDPs (rounded)</th>
<th>Government figures</th>
<th>UN figures</th>
<th>Other figures</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>At least 352,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>352,000 (IDP Task Force, UNHCR and Ministry of Refugees and Returnees, January 2011)</td>
<td>Figures do not include IDPs scattered in urban/semi-urban locations and people displaced to inaccessible areas in the south, east and south-east by armed conflict and tribal disputes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td>500,000 (2000)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Figure includes only people internally displaced by the conflict in the Chittagong Hill Tracts.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>At least 650,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>At least 650,000 (IDMC, September 2010)</td>
<td>Compiled from various available figures.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>About 200,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>About 200,000 (IDMC, December 2010)</td>
<td>Compiled from various available figures.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lao People’s Democratic Republic</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>There was little independent access to an estimated 7,700 Hmong repatriated from Thailand and resettled in government-controlled camps since 2006.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>At least 446,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>At least 446,000 (Thailand Burma Border Consortium, October 2010)</td>
<td>Estimate relates to rural areas of eastern Myanmar and does not include IDPs in the rest of the country.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>About 50,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>50,000 (OCHA, March 2010)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>At least 980,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>120,000-140,000 internally displaced families in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (UN and NGOs, December 2010)</td>
<td>Figures include only those people internally displaced by armed conflict, human rights abuses and generalised violence in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Federally Administered Tribal Areas and Balochistan.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Philippines</td>
<td>At least 15,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>15,000 (DSWD, December 2010)</td>
<td>20,000 (IOM, December 2010)</td>
<td>Both figures only include registered IDPs in Maguindanao Province, and exclude people displaced outside of official camps, people displaced by clan feuds, counter-insurgency operations in Basilan and Sulu Provinces and the government’s fight against the communist rebels of the NPA.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>At least 327,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>26,644 IDPs in temporary camps; 71,200 with host families in districts of origin; about 1,800 in transit camps in districts of origin (UN RC/HC, 8 October 2010); 227,300 IDPs from before April 2008 (OCHA, July 2010 and October 2010)</td>
<td>300,000 IDPs from before April 2008 (Rahmeen, August 2010)</td>
<td>180,000 people displaced between April 2008 and June 2009 and 14,700 displaced before April 2008 had returned to their homes, but remained in need of protection and assistance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timor-Leste</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The last camps were closed in 2010 and the government considered that no IDPs remained, but the sustainability of some returns was uncertain.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
At least 352,000 people were internally displaced in Afghanistan in December 2010. This figure included people who had been displaced before 2003 and were unable to return home or integrate locally, but not IDPs scattered in rural locations and around cities whose status could not be verified. Since 2006, when the armed conflict intensified, the UN and ICRC have registered some 730,000 people as internally displaced by the conflict, including over 100,000 people newly displaced in 2010.

Armed conflict between NATO-led pro-government forces and Taliban-led insurgent groups in the south, south-east and west has been the principal cause of displacement, with most IDPs flying attacks or combat initiated by pro-government forces. Armed conflict, human rights abuses and land and water disputes have also caused significant displacement in other regions left vulnerable by natural disasters, poverty and lack of livelihoods.

Overall, 60 per cent of recently registered IDPs are children; men and women have been displaced in similar numbers, while fewer than two per cent are older people. Many have moved towards the larger cities where they stay with relatives – Afghans’ most important support network – or live in makeshift settlements. Wealthier people tended to seek protection further from their homes, while the most vulnerable, and widows in particular, have often lacked the resources to flee at all.

Roadside bombs, suicide attacks and sporadic clashes took a heavy toll on civilians in provinces affected by displacement in 2010. In February, air strikes by pro-government forces in Uruzgan Province killed at least 32 IDPs after they were mistaken for militants. Most landmine victims were returnees or IDPs, according to the UN Mine Action Centre for Afghanistan, and most civilian casualties were people trying to escape battle areas. Male IDPs were at particular risk of forced recruitment. Internally displaced children were also at risk of sexual violence by members of armed groups.

IDPs were particularly vulnerable to food insecurity because they often lacked support networks, or had lost their traditional livelihoods and lacked the skills they needed in new areas. According to Save the Children, 39 per cent of Afghan children were malnourished and 78 per cent had no access to safe water. The situation was worse in provinces affected by displacement, and with insecurity impeding delivery of assistance to IDPs, there were reports of IDPs in urgent need of food and shelter remaining unassisted.

At least 3,500 schools have been built across the country since 2002 and over six million students are enrolled, but the Ministry of Education estimates that in 2010 about five million children had no access to education. This right is particularly threatened in areas affected by displacement, where schools and teachers have been targeted. Up to 80 per cent of schools have been closed in some provinces, with girls’ schools particularly affected.

People recently displaced by the conflict have found it difficult to return home after fighting has ended. In Helmand and Kandahar Provinces in 2010, continuing disputes over arable land slowed return movements, while illegal occupation of land heightened ethnic tensions in the central highlands and the north. Returning IDPs and refugees whose land had been occupied or reallocated in their absence were at particular risk of secondary displacement, with their claims over land often complicated by their lack of documentation.

People displaced by conflict have the right to have their houses rebuilt or to receive compensation for damage, but a 2010 investigation by the Campaign For Innocent Victims In Conflict showed that, in the vast majority of cases, pro-government forces had not paid compensation after damaging or destroying property.

In 2005, a national policy was endorsed which emphasised the promotion of durable solutions through voluntary return and local integration in accordance with the Guiding Principles. The policy affirmed the lead role of the Afghan government; however, in 2010, the government and its international partners showed insufficient capacity and will to address the displacement crisis. Coordinated by the UNHCR and the Ministry of Refugees and Reintegration through the IDP Task Force, humanitarian agencies working to protect IDPs assisted thousands of people with food, non-food items, basic health services and clean water but did not receive enough backing to provide support to all those in need.

The Afghan government, the UN and their partners have worked together to facilitate durable solutions for IDPs since 2003, with a focus on resolving the obstacles to return. More than 500,000 people have been helped to return. There have also been successful efforts to support local integration in the south and east, but even IDPs who have integrated economically have remained excluded from political processes.
Clashes in the Chittagong Hill Tracts (CHT) displaced thousands of people during 2010, despite government pledges to resolve the long-running conflict there. The government’s relocation of Bengali settlers to CHT led to conflict between indigenous Jumma militias and army-backed settlers from 1977 to 1997, and wide-spread forced evictions and other human rights violations. At least 90,000 Jumma families and 38,000 settler families were displaced as of 2000. The settlers fled to areas around army camps for safety and assistance, while indigenous people were displaced to more remote areas or into the forests, where they had little access to food and basic services such as health care and schools.

The conflict formally ended with a 1997 agreement which acknowledged CHT as a “tribal inhabited” region, and envisaged the army’s withdrawal and an end to settlement. Indigenous refugees and IDPs were to be registered and entitled to assistance while land disputes were resolved. But the settlement of Bengalis continued, and some 10,000 repatriated Jumma refugees were forced into secondary displacement.

In 2009 the new government committed to implement the peace accord and provide assistance and reparation to IDPs. It withdrew the army from 35 of the 300 bases in CHT and announced measures to resolve land disputes. However, new clashes triggered more displacement in 2010, and several indigenous villages were reportedly burned down in February and March. ICRC provided emergency assistance to 3,500 people who were forced to flee when their homes were destroyed.

Meanwhile, across Bangladesh, up to 1.2 million Hindu families have been dispossessed of their land, with some internally displaced and others fleeing the country. The 1974 Vested Property Act by which the government could confiscate property from any “enemy of the state” was repealed in 2001, but the land grabbing has continued, and the government has not taken measures to restitute land or compensate those affected.

In 2010, there were several unrelated situations of internal displacement caused by armed conflict and ethnic or communal violence in India. Based on known numbers of IDPs living in camps and registered there, a conservative estimate of the total number of people displaced due to conflict and violence would be at least 650,000. However, the real number, including people dispersed in India’s cities and others living in displacement outside camps, is likely to be significantly higher. There is no central government agency responsible for monitoring the number of people displaced or returning, and humanitarian and human rights agencies have limited access to them.

Included in the 650,000 are people displaced since 1990 by separatist violence targeting the Hindu minority in Jammu and Kashmir; those displaced in the north-east of the country since 1947 by conflicts between government forces and armed non-state groups as well as by violence between ethnic groups; people displaced in central India by armed conflict over land and mineral resources pitting government forces and government-allied militia against Maoist insurgents; and victims of communal violence between the majority Hindu populations in Gujarat and Orissa states and the states’ respective Muslim and Christian minorities.

In 2010, people were newly displaced in several central and north-eastern states. In central India, more than 100,000 people were displaced by the Naxalite conflict between mid-
Continued and mid-2010, with the conflict and displacement continuing at the end of 2010. In April, ethnic violence displaced several hundred Nagas, mostly women and children, from Manipur state to Nagaland state. That same month and also in Manipur state, at least 1,500 villagers were forced to leave their homes because of a military operation against armed insurgents. In May, several thousand Nepali-speakers were displaced due to communal violence in the Assam-Meghalaya border region.

Many of India’s IDPs had insufficient access to basic necessities of life such as food, clean water, shelter and health care in 2010. Those in protracted situations still struggled to access education, housing and livelihoods. Tribal IDPs in camps in Chhattisgarh faced the risk of attacks by government forces and government-allied militia on the one hand and Naxalite insurgents on the other.

There is no national policy, legislation or other mechanism to respond to the needs of people displaced by these conflicts, and the national government has generally left their protection to state governments and district authorities, who are often unaware of IDPs’ rights or reluctant to offer support, particularly in cases where they played a role in causing the displacement. As a result, IDPs have struggled to assert their rights.

Their attempts to integrate in the place of displacement or settle elsewhere in India have generally not been supported. At the same time, a number of displaced groups have faced barriers to their return home. While Muslim IDPs in Gujarat continue to endure very poor living conditions, their hopes of return are dim since they are increasingly at risk of losing their original homes and land, which have been taken over by Hindu extremist groups. Christian IDPs in Orissa have been discouraged from returning, as some returnees have been forced to convert to Hinduism.

Where return of IDPs has been possible, not much is known about its sustainability. In the case of more than 30,000 Bru people displaced from Mizoram state to Tripura state in 1997 and 2009, the return process begun in May 2010, but stalled in November because the groups representing the IDPs disagreed over whether to accept the conditions for return proposed by the Mizoram state government. Some groups were concerned about their security after return.

As of 2010, no ministry was mandated with IDP protection, but some national agencies and human rights bodies advocated on behalf of people internally displaced by conflict and violence. For example, in February 2010, a delegation of the National Commission for Protection of Child Rights visited people from Chhattisgarh who had been displaced to Andhra Pradesh due to the Naxalite conflict, and made recommendations to the Andhra Pradesh state government about the assistance and protection that should be given to these IDPs.

Despite the efforts of these advocates, a national legislative framework is needed to enable the protection of conflict- and violence-induced IDPs in India.

At the same time, only a few international agencies such as Médecins sans Frontières and the ICRC have been allowed to provide protection and assistance to some IDPs.

### Indonesia

**Quick facts**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of IDPs</th>
<th>About 200,000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>About 0.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement situation</td>
<td>1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
<td>1,400,000 (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>Up to 35,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During 2010, tens of thousands of people were displaced, albeit only temporarily, by inter-ethnic violence in East Kalimantan on the island of Borneo, and in Papua Province by Indonesia’s only continuing armed conflict. In East Kalimantan, an estimated 32,000 people were forced from their homes in Tarakan city in September following violence between indigenous Dayak Tidung and Bugis who had migrated from South Sulawesi. The deployment of security forces and government mediation allowed for the quick restoration of stability and the return of most IDPs to their homes.

In Papua Province’s Central Highlands, army operations against rebels of the Free Papua Movement (OPM) continued
Acehnese rebels, and still feared for their safety should they return. Most IDPs had not received any specific assistance since the end of the conflict. In many cases, displaced people had returned, only to find their situation worsen due to the damage to infrastructure and property, and the lack of social services and economic opportunities in return areas.

Central Sulawesi remained segregated between Christians and Muslims. Between 5,000 and 20,000 IDPs had been unable to achieve durable solutions nearly ten years after their displacement. Many had chosen to integrate locally, but they often lacked sustainable livelihoods and had limited access to government services. Some of those who had managed to return were still waiting for housing assistance or were struggling to establish a sustainable livelihood. Government interventions to help IDPs recover property and rebuild livelihoods had been generally half-hearted, under-resourced and prone to significant corruption.

In West and Central Kalimantan, most of the estimated 200,000 people displaced by violence pitting indigenous Malays and Dayaks against Madurese between 1997 and 2001 had returned to their homes. However, restrictions imposed by local administrations and communities reportedly prevented some returnees from enjoying their rights to the same extent as other citizens. In West Kalimantan, some former neighbours were also reluctant to give up property they had seized from the displaced. The recovery of those still displaced was hampered by their limited access to farming land and their failure to get compensation for the property they had lost.

The Ministry of Social Affairs has nominal responsibility to assist IDPs, who are now included in the broad “Victims of Social Disasters” category. However, since 2007, central government funding has been discontinued and responsibility for IDPs has been transferred to provincial and district authorities.

In recent years, the UN has mainly addressed the needs of IDPs through reintegration and development projects seeking to improve the economic prospects of communities while ensuring that the needs of their most vulnerable members are considered. A small number of international NGOs have maintained programmes in Maluku, Central Sulawesi, Central Kalimantan and West Timor. In the last few years, the EU has been the main donor, supporting resettlement and livelihood programmes for IDPs. Under its Aid to Uprooted People programme, the EU will continue to support IDPs in 2011.

Lao People’s Democratic Republic

The Hmong people in Laos have faced repression for their role in the civil war which ran from the 1950s to the 1970s. During the Vietnam War, an estimated 60,000 Hmong fighters played a part in covert American operations to prevent the establishment of a communist regime. When Laos was taken over by communist troops in 1975, tens of thousands of Hmong fled to neighbouring Thailand. Until 2006, army operations against small groups of Hmong people continued to force people to flee inside Laos or across the border to Thailand.

From 2006, some 7,700 Hmong people were forcibly repatriated from Thailand, 4,400 of them at the end of 2009. Most of them were taken to existing villages or resettlement sites where, according to the government, their basic needs were met and they became self-reliant. However, international observers warned of a risk of persecution, and those allowed to visit the resettlement sites in 2010 were given no opportunity to assess the extent to which residents had been able to achieve durable solutions.

A smaller but undetermined number of Hmong people were still displaced in 2010, in small groups in the jungle, after seeking shelter from army operations carried out in previous years. Meanwhile, some members of religious minorities, in particular Christians, were also reportedly displaced as a result of limitations on the freedom of religion imposed by local authorities.

The government has not acknowledged the displacement and denies perpetrating any human rights violations or discriminating against the Hmong in general.

Advocates including the RSG on IDPs, Human Rights Watch and Amnesty International have highlighted the plight of displaced groups in Laos. In May 2010, the Human Rights Council’s Universal Periodic Review of Laos led to a number of recommendations on the protection of Hmong returnees and religious minorities.
There are no accurate figures available on the total number of people displaced within Myanmar by armed conflict or human rights violations. At the end of 2010, it was estimated that 446,000 people were living in internal displacement due to armed conflict in the rural areas of eastern Myanmar. An estimated 125,000 IDPs were gathered in government-run relocation sites, 115,000 were dispersed in hiding areas in the jungle, and 206,000 were living in areas administered by different ethnic non-state armed groups who had concluded a ceasefire with the government. An unknown but significant number of people remained displaced in other parts of the country, including in towns and cities.

In 2010, those IDPs in hiding were the worst off in terms of their access to basic necessities and enjoyment of a range of other rights, and they were most at risk of having to flee again. However, the situation of IDPs also grew more unstable in ceasefire areas where armed conflict resumed, while many IDPs in relocation sites suffered because they had limited access to land, had to give much of their crops to the army, and were vulnerable to diseases due to inadequate sanitation and limited access to clean water.

Displacement in Myanmar has continued since the armed conflict began in the early 1960s. In the mid-1960s, the government introduced the “four cuts” policy to cut off insurgents’ access to food, money, intelligence information, and fighting personnel. The policy has been aimed at civilians in order to separate armed groups from their support bases, and has led to civilians’ displacement, including through forced relocation.

During the 1990s, several armed groups concluded ceasefire agreements with the government. In the areas controlled by these groups, fighting came to an end as a result, but displacement continued because of human rights violations by government forces.

Since 2009, the government has put pressure on these armed groups to transform into army-led militias known as “border guard forces”, and some of them have done so. This has led to new fighting and displacement, including in ceasefire areas, where civilians had previously enjoyed relative safety. In some of these areas, the army forcibly recruited civilians into militias. At least 73,000 people fled their homes in eastern Myanmar between mid-2009 and mid-2010.

For the first time since 1990, parliamentary and regional elections were held in November 2010, but they were widely regarded as neither free nor fair. They resulted in the government’s Union Solidarity and Development Party and members of the armed forces dominating the national legislature and most regional legislatures. However, their dominance was less pronounced in the seven states in which people belonging to non-Burman ethnicities are in the majority, including the conflict and ceasefire areas in the east of the country. Importantly, some members of minorities won seats in a number of legislatures, which was expected to facilitate their political influence at least on local issues. On the other hand, some ethnic minority parties were excluded from participating in the elections, and some ethnic minorities are not represented in any of the legislatures.

Shortly after the elections, fighting in Kayin/Karen State between government forces and the Karen National Liberation Army (KNLA) forced about 20,000 people to flee across the border into Thailand. It remains unknown how many people became displaced within Myanmar as a result. Many returned to their homes after the fighting stopped. Later that month, the KNLA clashed with a newly formed border guard force, again forcing hundreds of people to flee into Thailand. In November and December, the Thai army forcibly repatriated some of them, and some continued to go back and forth between Myanmar and Thailand as the intensity of the fighting varied.

In his report of September 2010, the UN’s Special Rapporteur on the situation of human rights in Myanmar highlighted the importance of access for humanitarian assistance. In order to improve the situation of civilians in the conflict-affected areas in eastern Myanmar, the government would first have to acknowledge that people have been displaced due to armed conflict and grant humanitarian agencies access to conflict-induced IDPs. An end to the armed conflict and human rights violations can only come about if genuine reconciliation and power sharing between ethnic majority and minority communities is achieved.
At the end of 2010, more than four years after the government of Nepal and Maoist rebels ended their ten-year conflict, about 50,000 people were still displaced by the war and by inter-ethnic violence, and remained unable or unwilling to return to their homes.

The Maoists generally fulfilled their commitments to return the houses and land they had taken from people during the war, but problems were still reported in some districts. Security concerns also persisted due to threats by Maoist-affiliated groups involved in extortion or land seizures, and in the Terai region by other armed groups who had been fighting for increased political involvement since 2007. Meanwhile, the government lacked the institutions, resources and presence in rural areas to provide basic services to many citizens. In a depressed post-war economy, many returnees had still not established the means to sustain their basic needs, and some were forced back to towns and cities again in search of work.

The majority of people still displaced in 2010 were living in the cities where they had sought refuge during the war. Some people who had fled the conflict had managed to integrate and find jobs, but others, including in particular internally displaced children and women, were struggling to find proper accommodation or access basic services. They were also exposed to trafficking, sexual exploitation, discrimination and child labour.

Since 2007, the Ministry of Peace and Reconstruction has helped registered IDPs to return home, but it has done little for those hoping to integrate locally. Almost four years after being enacted, the national IDP policy has yet to be fully implemented, undermining IDPs’ chances of achieving durable solutions.

During 2010, the protection cluster led by OHCHR still struggled to involve the government. It recognised that needs remained significant and that some vulnerable groups, such as the IDPs, remained neglected, and so reviewed its strategy during 2010 to re-focus on the human rights of IDPs.

### Nepal

**Quick facts**

- **Number of IDPs**: About 50,000
- **Percentage of total population**: About 0.2%
- **Start of current displacement situation**: 1996
- **Peak number of IDPs (Year)**: 200,000 (2005)
- **New displacement**: 0
- **Causes of displacement**: Armed conflict, human rights violations
- **Human development index**: 138

### Pakistan

**Quick facts**

- **Number of IDPs**: At least 980,000
- **Percentage of total population**: At least 0.5%
- **Start of current displacement situation**: 2006
- **Peak number of IDPs (Year)**: 3,000,000 (2009)
- **New displacement**: About 400,000
- **Causes of displacement**: Armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations
- **Human development index**: 125

Human rights abuses by Taliban insurgents, counter-insurgency operations and local sectarian and tribal conflicts have displaced a total of four million people in Pashtu-dominated Khyber-Pakhtunkhwa (KPK) and the Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA) since 2008. By December 2010, according to international agencies, the number of IDPs in KPK had fallen to between 840,000 and 980,000 IDPs. Roughly half of them had been displaced during the year. The number of people internally displaced in FATA and other provinces was unknown.

In August, massive floods affected up to 18 million people living near the Indus and its tributaries. In KPK, the flooding destroyed areas where conflict-affected IDPs had sought refuge, heightening their vulnerability and forcing many to flee once more.

The 2010 estimate of numbers was based on an effort to profile the age, sex and location of the conflict-displaced population of KPK. The mapping found that men and women were equally represented among IDPs, and 60 per cent were children. Some groups were disproportionately represented, including tribal communities who had formed militias to fight the Taliban, communities affected by government bombing of Taliban-controlled areas, and Shia and Sikh minorities. 96 per cent of internally displaced households were headed by men, suggesting that most families had managed to stay together.

The profiling exercise also sought to assess IDPs’ humanitarian needs and longer-term intentions. As of the end of 2010, between 80 and 90 per cent of IDPs were living in rented ac-
Internal displacement in South and South-East Asia

The Philippines

Quick facts

- Number of IDPs: At least 15,000
- Percentage of total population: At least 0.1%
- Start of current displacement situation: 2008
- Peak number of IDPs (Year): 600,000 (2008)
- New displacement: At least 70,000
- Causes of displacement: Armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations
- Human development index: 97

Internal armed conflicts have caused internal displacement in the Philippines for at least the past 30 years. In August 2008, renewed fighting between the government and rebels of the Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MILF) in the southern region of Mindanao led to the internal displacement of at least 750,000 people, before the parties declared a ceasefire in July 2009. Most were able to return when the hostilities ceased, although often without any assistance. By the end of 2010, between 15,000 and 20,000 people remained in IDP camps in Maguindanao Province, one of the majority-Muslim provinces of the Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao (ARMM) where most of the fighting had been concentrated.

During 2010, the main cause of new displacement in Mindanao was violence linked to clan wars (rido) triggered by land disputes and political and economic rivalries. They displaced at least 70,000 people during the year, with the largest displacement taking place in June when an estimated 20,000 people fled their homes in Maguindanao and Sultan Kudarat Provinces.

Displacement was also caused in other regions of the country by armed encounters between the Armed Forces of the Philippines (AFP) and the communist rebel group of the NPA, and by AFP operations against the Abu Sayyaf group in Basilan and Sulu Provinces. Thousands of people were reportedly displaced, albeit only temporarily.

In early 2010 it was estimated that around 130,000 people in Mindanao were still unable to return because armed groups were still active in their home areas, and neither the government nor the MILF had committed to the peace
process. Most were staying in official IDP camps in Maguindanao Province where they were receiving assistance from the government and international aid agencies. During the year a campaign by the regional government and the stepping up of early recovery activities in areas of origin led more people to return, and at the end of the year a more comprehensive estimate suggested that the number of IDPs in camps had fallen sharply to between 15,000 and 20,000.

Despite improvements in the overall living conditions in the camps, IDPs' humanitarian needs remained significant; they particularly struggled to access safe water and adequate sanitation facilities. IDPs were more food-secure but continued to face high levels of debt and difficulty in securing sustainable livelihoods. Displaced children, many of whom had had their education interrupted by their displacement, were still vulnerable to trafficking and recruitment into armed groups, as well as malnutrition and health problems due to their prolonged stay in the overcrowded camps.

There were indications in early 2010 that nearly half of the returned or resettled population had failed to recover from their displacement. The majority of returnees had returned on their own without assistance and struggled to revive their agricultural livelihoods, while education, health care and water and sanitation facilities were often inadequate. Returnees in Maguindanao also had to deal with flooding and clan wars. While the government prioritised the reconstruction of physical infrastructure, it was left to communities themselves to rebuild social links and governance systems.

At the end of 2010, 19 months after the end of the armed conflict between the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE) and Sri Lankan government forces, more than 327,000 people who had been forced to flee their homes remained in displacement. Almost 195,000 IDPs had returned, but were still in need of protection and assistance. Among their numbers were people displaced before April 2008 (“old” IDPs and returnees) and people displaced between April 2008 and June 2009 (“new” IDPs and returnees).

“Old” IDPs and returnees received much less protection and assistance in 2010 than people displaced since April 2008. Among them were tens of thousands of people displaced from areas declared as High Security Zones in the Northern and Eastern Provinces, and tens of thousands of northern Muslims who the LTTE had forced to leave in 1990 and who had since been living in protracted displacement in Puttalam. More than 227,000 “old” IDPs remained in displacement in late 2010, while almost 15,000 had returned.

The government has provided significant emergency assistance since August 2008, but it has not always ensured that returns are safe or offer sustainable livelihood opportunities. It has not put together a clear and coherent return and rehabilitation strategy backed up with sufficient resources and clear allocation of responsibilities. Since 2008, the government has established several successive IDP coordinating bodies. President Arroyo’s establishment in May 2010 of the National Focal Group was followed at the end of the year by newly-elected President Aquino passing responsibility to the Office of the Presidential Adviser on the Peace Process to oversee a broader peace-building and reconstruction programme which also incorporated IDP assistance.

The Department of Social Welfare and Development has been the main agency delivering assistance to IDPs, either directly or through implementing partners. However this has been insufficient and, in Mindanao and elsewhere in the country, local NGOs, volunteers and others including IDP groups have played a critical role in assisting and advocating for the rights of IDPs, while many IDPs have relied on the humanitarian assistance provided by international NGOs and agencies.

The international presence in Mindanao, which had been limited during the conflict, grew significantly after the July 2009 ceasefire. By the end of 2010, the focus of assistance had shifted from emergency to early recovery and development. In July, UNHCR established a presence in Mindanao and took over the leadership of the Protection Working Group from IOM. Efforts were underway by UNHCR to develop a comprehensive protection strategy.

### Sri Lanka

**Quick facts**

- **Number of IDPs**: At least 327,000
- **Percentage of total population**: At least 1.6%
- **Start of current displacement situation**: 1983
- **Peak number of IDPs (Year)**: 520,000 (2006)
- **New displacement**: Undetermined
- **Causes of displacement**: Armed conflict
- **Human development index**: 91

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Access to health care services was limited, and sanitation and hygiene were poor. Access to education was also limited, as there were not enough teachers in camps.

Those who had returned to their homes remained in need of assistance and protection. The presence of landmines and unexploded ordnance was a major obstacle to return early in the year and led to secondary displacement of some. The government and demining agencies prioritised the clearance of residential areas in 2010. As a result, many surrounding fields, streams and wells remained contaminated, making farming impossible and keeping returnees dependent on assistance. It is feared that many areas will remain contaminated for years to come. There were many female-headed households among returnee families, and gender-based violence involving military personnel was reported in the return areas.

Returnees, especially those living in remote areas, had only limited access to health services. Sanitation facilities were lacking, as were shelter and housing. There was also a shortage of teachers, and some schools continued to be used to host “separatists,” with one school building shared between a “separate” site and a school.

Many returnees had great difficulty in asserting their rights over land and property, for example if they had lost documents during their displacement or relevant registry offices had been damaged in the armed conflict. Their rights were also formally threatened by Sri Lanka’s Prescription Ordinance, which holds that private ownership can only be established if land has been occupied continuously for ten years. Although the northern courts reportedly did not apply this legislation in times of conflict, the non-application has not been codified. In Sri Lanka, land disputes can only be addressed through courts, with an average land case taking from three to five years to resolve, and courts in the north have been swamped with land cases.

Sri Lanka still has no legislation to formalise support to conflict-induced IDPs. The National Protection and Durable Solutions for Internally Displaced Persons Project of the Human Rights Commission of Sri Lanka introduced a bill to codify the protection of IDPs and promotion of durable solutions to their displacement in 2008; but its enactment did not move forward in 2009 or 2010.

The government’s annual budget of October 2010 allocated little to the return of IDPs, but prioritised military spending. Meanwhile, government restrictions on the access of humanitarian agencies to certain areas hampered their attempts to meet IDPs’ and returnees’ protection and assistance needs. UN agencies and NGOs needed permission from the Ministry of Defence to access the Northern Province, and a Presidential Task Force was responsible for granting access to humanitarian personnel and for approving humanitarian projects in the areas where IDPs and returnees live. No approval was granted for projects focusing on issues central to durable solutions including protection, gender, capacity-building, documentation and legal assistance.

**Timor-Leste**

**Quick facts**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of IDPs</th>
<th>Undetermined</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement situation</td>
<td>2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
<td>150,000 (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Generalised violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An estimated 150,000 people were displaced in 2006 within Timor-Leste, as their homes and property in the capital Dili were seized or destroyed during violence between rival army and police factions and among the wider population. They sought refuge either in the city, in government buildings, schools or churches and subsequently in makeshift camps, or else with families or friends in rural districts. The causes included political rivalries and land disputes dating back to the struggle for independence from Indonesia, divisions between “easterners” and “westerners”, and also chronic poverty and the lack of prospects of the youth population.

In 2008, around 30,000 IDPs were still in the camps, and the government distributed cash compensation to people agreeing to leave. Partly due to the lack of available land, the government only supported IDPs returning home. During 2010, a last group of 1,000 IDPs received the compensation and the last transitional shelters were closed.

Most land and property disputes involving returnees were usually resolved locally, with squatters often agreeing to leave in exchange for some of the IDPs’ compensation money; but cases involving conflicting ownership claims could not be resolved in the absence of a national framework. A new land law has been drafted, but some civil society organisations have highlighted the potential of further conflict, as the law does not enable people who have moved into homes abandoned since December 1998 to gain secure ownership.

The UN introduced the cluster system in 2009, even though the humanitarian crisis was already over and most agencies had turned to development activities. In 2010, UNDP and the government conducted programmes in which both returnees and receiving communities participated to identify their shared priorities.
Internal displacement and natural disasters

Together with armed conflict, human rights violations and generalised violence, natural hazard-induced disasters are among the principal causes of forced displacement. As the global climate changes, patterns of weather-related hazards are shifting and the frequency and intensity of related events is increasing, with a disproportionate, disastrous impact on the lives of the poorest and most vulnerable populations.

Global data on internal displacement caused by natural disasters has not been systematically collected or analysed. To increase global awareness and support evidence-based decision making that effectively targets the needs of displacement affected populations, there is an urgent need to provide annual global estimates of the numbers of people displaced by different types of natural disasters. There is much to learn about patterns of displacement caused by different types of disasters, and the needs and vulnerabilities of specific groups.

Earthquakes and floods were the principal natural hazards causing new displacement in 2010. As with people internally displaced by conflict or violence, the risk of human rights violations increases the longer that people are unable to find solutions to their displacement. The Haiti earthquake in January 2010 displaced over 1.5 million people, of whom over 800,000 were still in IDP camps at the end of 2010. In countries such as Pakistan and Colombia, people already displaced by conflict or violence were among those affected, and often displaced again by floods.

The floods in Pakistan in mid-2010 inundated one-fifth of the country. The main areas to which people had been displaced by the conflict in the north-west were all moderately or severely affected by the floods. These IDPs lacked the local networks and resources to cope with the floods’ worst effects and were sometimes displaced again. In other areas, the protection of flood IDPs was also affected by insecurity: in Balochistan Province people displaced by the floods received little assistance from humanitarian organisations due to limited access to the area.

In Colombia, the access to assistance of over a million people affected by flooding was limited in areas where armed groups continued to operate. Weakened local infrastructure and response preparedness in conflict areas seriously hampered relief efforts and put already vulnerable groups at greater risk. Flood IDPs had to crowd into inadequate, improvised buildings such as schools, due to a lack of adequate shelter. The presence of members of armed groups seeking refuge in the same buildings reportedly led to violence in some cases.
The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) was established by the Norwegian Refugee Council in 1998, upon the request of the United Nations, to set up a global database on internal displacement. More than a decade later, IDMC remains the leading source of information and analysis on internal displacement caused by conflict and violence worldwide.

IDMC aims to support better international and national responses to situations of internal displacement and respect for the rights of internally displaced people (IDPs), who are often among the world’s most vulnerable people. It also aims to promote durable solutions for IDPs, through return, local integration or settlement elsewhere in the country.

IDMC’s main activities include:

- Monitoring and reporting on internal displacement caused by conflict, generalised violence and violations of human rights;
- Researching, analysing and advocating for the rights of IDPs;
- Training and strengthening capacities on the protection of IDPs;
- Contributing to the development of standards and guidance on protecting and assisting IDPs.

www.internal-displacement.org

Key to maps and symbols

Areas of origin of IDPs
Areas to which people have been displaced
Areas within which people have been displaced
New displacement reported in 2010
IDPs in situation of protracted displacement
Urban displacement
National legal framework or policy pertaining to the protection of IDPs in place at the end of 2010
IDP profiling exercise completed
National Human Rights Institution (NHRI) that is a member of the International Coordinating Committee (ICC) of NHRIs, (see www.nhri.net for more information) or is recognised by the international community without ICC accreditation.
Signatories to the African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) as of the end of 2010.
Countries that have ratified the Kampala Convention as of the end of 2010.

The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on the maps do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by IDMC.