The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) was established by the Norwegian Refugee Council in 1998, on the request of the Inter-Agency Standing Committee to set up a global database on internal displacement. 14 years later, IDMC remains the leading source of information and analysis on internal displacement caused by armed conflict, generalized violence and violations of human rights worldwide. Since 2009, IDMC has also monitored displacement due to disasters associated with natural hazards.

IDMC aims to support better international and national responses to situations of internal displacement and respect for the rights of internally displaced people (IDPs), many of whom are 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;
- Researching, analysing and advocating for the rights of IDPs;
- Providing training on the protection of IDPs;
- Contributing to the development of guidelines and standards on protecting and assisting IDPs.

www.internal-displacement.org
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>Ethiopia</td>
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<td>Lebanon</td>
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<td>Somalia</td>
<td>1,460,000</td>
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<td>Myanmar</td>
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<td>Russian Federation</td>
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<td>Libya</td>
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<td>Thailand (South)</td>
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- NATO: North Atlantic Treaty Organization
- OCHA: United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
- OSCE: Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe
- UNHCR: United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
- UNRWA: United Nations Relief and Works Agency
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Key to maps and symbols

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<tr>
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</table>

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Contributors

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Printing: SRO-Kundig, Geneva
Cover photo: Displaced people near the Lebanese-Syrian border, May 2011. Shelling of the Syrian border town of Tel Kelakh forced inhabitants to flee within Syria and into Lebanon. (Photo: REUTERS/Omar Ibrahim, May 2011)

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CH-1219 Châtelaine (Geneva), Switzerland
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www.internal-displacement.org
With thanks

IDMC thanks the donors who supported its work in 2011 and thereby made it possible to produce this report:

The Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA), USA’s USAID, the UK’s DFID, Australia’s AusAID, Sweden’s Sida, the Swiss FDFA, the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the Netherlands’ MFA, the Liechtenstein MFA, the Luxembourg MFA, the Canton of Geneva and other supporters.
The Norwegian Refugee Council’s Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) has monitored internal displacement since 1998.

IDMC reports annually in the Global Overview on the particular challenges faced by people internally displaced by armed conflict, generalised violence or human rights violations.

This report begins by outlining the scale and impact of internal displacement during the year, and goes on to consider measures taken to resolve situations.

Five regional summaries are followed by descriptions of internal displacement situations in countries of those regions. The regions do not correspond to continents: Algeria and Libya are covered within the Middle East and North Africa region, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan and Kyrgyzstan in Europe and Central Asia, and Afghanistan in South and South-East Asia.

Note on figures and information

To produce this report, IDMC has compiled data from 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 2011.

While all efforts have been made to present the most accurate and updated information, the extent and reliability of information on the scale of internal displacement varies widely between countries. Data may be based on reports of new displacement events or, in some countries, on exercises carried out subsequently to determine how many people need support. The availability and quality of information depends above all on the willingness and capacity of the national authorities to respond to the displacement situation. Information on IDPs’ settlement options and their post-emergency situations also remains limited.

Guide to country pages

The country pages include short summaries of the internal displacement situations in countries monitored by IDMC in 2011. A few countries mentioned in the regional annexes do not have corresponding country pages, because there has been little or no new information on their internal displacement situation since the end of 2010. More information on these countries can be found at IDMC’s website: 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. 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. A key to the maps and symbols is included on the inside of the flap on the back cover, and a glossary of frequently-used acronyms on the front cover flap.

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.

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 2011, 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 peak number and year are noted. New displacements and returns in 2011 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.

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 187 are the least-developed countries in the list. A small number of countries are not ranked.
At the end of 2011, the global number of people internally displaced by armed conflict, generalised violence or human rights violations stood at 26.4 million.

This represented a fall in the number of IDPs in the world, from 27.5 million in 2010, the most significant since 2005; there has nonetheless been a steady increase in their number over the past 15 years.

The number of IDPs in sub-Saharan Africa decreased from 11.1 million to 9.7 million, but this was still the largest regional population.

More than 3.5 million people were newly displaced in 2011, a 20 per cent increase from 2010, including up to 1 million people displaced by the post-election violence in Côte d’Ivoire and well over 800,000 people displaced by the violence accompanying the “Arab Spring” uprisings.

The country with the most internally displaced people was Colombia: some 3.9 million people were displaced, according to the government; a non-governmental observer placed the figure closer to 5.3 million.

The other four countries with more than a million IDPs, as a year before, were Iraq, Sudan, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) and Somalia; the population in Sudan was still among the biggest, even though the number no longer included IDPs in the newly independent South Sudan.

At the end of the year, over 2.4 million IDPs had reportedly returned to their areas of origin, including many in Côte d’Ivoire, DRC, Libya and South Sudan.

In at least 40 countries were IDPs living in a situation of protracted displacement; the majority of them were considered to be in a severely protracted situation, in which a generation had grown up in displacement.

Some 16 per cent of the population of Somalia were internally displaced, the largest percentage of any country.

In most countries, the majority of the displaced population were staying with host families or communities.

Only in 11 countries did the government or its partners collect data on IDP numbers, disaggregated according to sex, age and location; this limited the effectiveness of the responses which internally displaced groups could count on.

Only in 6 out of 50 countries did national policies make specific reference to older people; in 3 of those countries information on their numbers had not even been gathered.

IDPs were living in urban areas in 47 out of 50 countries, generally alongside poorer long-term residents and other migrants; research in 2011 indicated the need for a more holistic approach to understanding the vulnerabilities of IDPs in urban contexts.

Forced evictions caused internal displacement in 18 countries monitored by IDMC; they were more often than not carried out against IDPs living in precarious housing situations, resulting in these people’s secondary displacement.

In 2011, IDPs in every region faced a range of risks related to their displacement, including threats to their physical security and integrity, a lack of access to basic necessities and livelihoods, and violations of their rights relating to housing, land and property.

Discrimination against IDPs and returned IDPs continued to be among the leading challenges worldwide; people who were displaced to areas where they were a minority continued to face discrimination throughout their displacement, limiting their access to housing, jobs, education and health care.

At the end of 2011, many governments were still in the process of formulating a plan of action to protect IDPs’ rights; in several countries, the lack of an effective national policy on internal displacement led to discrepancies in the assistance provided to different displaced communities.
Key findings by region

Sub-Saharan Africa

- By the end of 2011, 33 of the 53 African Union (AU) member states had signed the AU’s Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa, also known as the Kampala Convention, the first legally-binding regional instrument of its kind.
- Drought across the Horn of Africa led to famine in southern and central regions, with reports of high rates of malnutrition and severe food insecurity in most IDP settlements.
- In Khartoum, Sudan, the protection needs of an estimated 700,000 people originating from the south should be addressed, as they have lost Sudanese citizenship with the new nationality law but may not have access to documents confirming their South Sudan citizenship.
- IDPs living in Burundi had a better prospect of securing a durable solution to their displacement thanks to a nationwide exercise gathering data on their situation and a new code simplifying land acquisition.
- Protracted conflict and displacement were identified as the main causes of food insecurity in eastern DRC.
- In Côte d’Ivoire, there was a sharp rise in the recruitment of children into armed groups; in the west, militias and self-defense groups threatened the lives of people, including IDPs who had fled to supposedly safer locations.

The Middle East and North Africa

- The vast majority of the region’s new displacement took place against the backdrop of the Arab Spring, resulting in the displacement of an estimated 500,000 people in Libya, over 156,000 in Syria and at least 175,000 in Yemen.
- This new displacement continued a decade-long increase in the number of IDPs in the region, but the country with the largest internally displaced population was still Iraq; well over 2 million people were still displaced there at the end of the year.

South and South-East Asia

- After rising steadily since 2005, the number of IDPs in South and South-East Asia fell in 2011 for the first time in 6 years.
- The majority of new displacements in the region were in Afghanistan and Pakistan, where most people were displaced by ongoing armed conflicts opposing government forces with insurgent groups.
- In many countries, displacement was caused by violence between groups mobilised according to ethnic, religious or clan affiliations competing for land, resources and political power.

The Americas

- Violence perpetrated for criminal rather than ideological ends continued to gain significance as a cause of displacement in the region, particularly in Mexico where drug cartels fought to control trafficking routes, forcing people to flee.
- In Colombia, a disproportionate number of children and young people were affected by internal displacement; 65 per cent of IDPs were under the age of 25, although this group only made up 48 per cent of the population.
- The Colombian government enacted the “Victim’s Law” which included measures to support the restitution of property to internally displaced owners.

Europe, the Caucasus and Central Asia

- Of the 2.5 million people still internally displaced in Europe, the Caucasus and Central Asia at the end of 2011, most had been living in displacement for 18 years or more.
- In 2011, the governments of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Montenegro and Serbia launched a regional initiative to support durable solutions for IDPs.
I am delighted to write the foreword to the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre’s annual publication, the *Global Overview 2011*.

As Special Rapporteur, I bear a specific mandate from the United Nations Human Rights Council to maintain and build a strengthened focus on the protection of the human rights of internally displaced persons. Internally displaced persons are often the victims of human rights violations, armed conflict, generalised violence, natural or human made disasters and, because of displacement, their lives are dramatically and often permanently adversely affected.

Through continuous dialogue with governments and representatives of internally displaced people, civil society, intergovernmental and non-governmental organisations, much of my role involves analysing the causes of displacement, identifying the specific protection and assistance needs of IDPs, proposing measures of prevention, and ways to strengthen protection and assistance as well as durable solutions for this group of persons. IDMC’s invaluable support to my work is therefore perhaps best showcased in the following publication, the *Global Overview 2011*.

From an analysis of country specific knowledge, IDMC goes further by consolidating such knowledge to a regional and then global level, identifying key themes such as the difficulties associated with IDPs in urban settings, or those in protracted situations of displacement, for example. The resulting analysis on internal displacement that this report has produced for over ten years has become an essential tool not just to my own work, but also to decision makers at the national, regional and global levels.

It is however the sheer volume of the numbers of IDPs reported by IDMC, and the often observed inadequacy between their needs and the assistance that they receive worldwide, that act as an important reminder as to why it is so important for regional, national and international actors to maintain a specific focus on the rights of IDPs.

Perhaps most importantly, IDMC’s work remains focused where others have moved on. In 2011 the international community witnessed unprecedented levels of conflict and violence throughout the world, not least relating to the Arab Spring uprisings. Yet as new situations arise and the focus moves to new emergencies, the footprints of such events remain in the lives of IDPs. The publication that follows gives voice to the millions of persons internally displaced in a world where many of them are often ignored or neglected.

Chaloka Beyani
Special Rapporteur on the human rights of internally displaced persons
Introduction

For the last 14 years, the Norwegian Refugee Council’s Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre has monitored internal displacement resulting from conflict and violence across the world. In 2011, the number of people internally displaced by these causes stood at 26.4 million.

The world in 2011 was an unsafe place for millions of people. From criminal violence including attacks by armed groups in sub-Saharan Africa or by drug cartels in Latin America, to armed clashes such as those associated with the conflict in Côte d’Ivoire or the uprisings across the Arab world: such events caused hundreds of thousands of people to flee their homes. Many risked their lives as they sought refuge in unfamiliar environments while facing a constant struggle to meet their basic needs.

The circumstances of people’s displacement and their long-term prospects were as diverse as the situations of violence or conflict which had forced them to flee. For example, while the Arab Spring uprisings resulted in short-term spikes of displacement throughout the year, in Iraq well over two million people remained locked in situations of protracted internal displacement. In Afghanistan, displacement was becoming increasingly protracted by 2011. As 60 per cent of the internally displaced population in Afghanistan are children, the prospects for this next generation are particularly bleak.

Despite these challenges, there have also been some positive developments in 2011. Although Africa was still the region with the largest number of IDPs in 2011, the total number there continued to follow a downward trend which had begun in 2004.

African countries remain at the forefront of the development of international legal standards for addressing internal displacement. Three years ago, the African Union adopted the Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa. When it comes into force, the Kampala Convention will be the first legally-binding regional instrument on internal displacement. The Convention needs to be ratified by 15 countries to come into force. In 2011, eight countries had ratified the Convention, and a further six had completed their internal preparations for ratification, making this a real prospect for 2012.

It is only through effective government action that responses can be developed which improve the long-term prospects of internally displaced people, and allow them to make their own decisions concerning their future. While Africa shows that opportunities for change lie on the horizon, governments still all too often lack the resources, the capacity or the will to enable such change. It is the role of the international community to offer consistent support to governments, to ensure they meet their responsibilities towards the internally displaced people on their territory.

Kate Halff
Head of the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre,
Norwegian Refugee Council
A group arriving in Juba, South Sudan in November 2011. They had been internally displaced to the north during Sudan’s long north-south war and returned home after South Sudan declared independence in July. (Photo: UN Photo/Isaac Billy, November 2011)

The scale and impact of internal displacement
Global figures in 2011

In 2011 as in previous years, millions of people were forced to flee their homes because of conflict or violence, often with little or no possessions. Some crossed a national border in search of refuge; others remained within their country and became internally displaced people (IDPs).

At the end of 2011, the number of people internally displaced by armed conflict, generalised violence or human rights violations stood at approximately 26.4 million worldwide. This number had fallen from a total of 27.5 million at the end of 2010, in part due to the unclear status of hundreds of thousands of people in Khartoum, Sudan, originating from the south; they had been considered IDPs until South Sudan declared independence in July 2011, situating them on the other side of the new country’s border.

The decrease in the global number of IDPs was offset by increases of new large-scale displacements in several regions, notably in Africa and the Middle East. The largest situation of new displacement was in Côte d’Ivoire, where up to a million people were displaced by fighting which followed the presidential elections of late 2010. In the violence accompanying the “Arab Spring” uprisings, well over 800,000 people were also newly displaced during the year.

As the chart below shows, the fall in the number of IDPs in the world in 2011 was the most significant since 2005. Nonetheless, the past 15 years have witnessed a steady increase in their number: the global total stood well below 20 million in the late 1990s after peaking following a wave of displacement earlier in the decade. It had risen to 27 million by 2009, due to new displacements caused by long-running internal conflicts as well as unresolved situations of protracted displacement.

At the end of 2011, sub-Saharan Africa hosted the largest number of IDPs at 9.7 million, down from 11.1 million a year earlier and continuing a downward trend since 2004. The number of IDPs in Africa was still twice the next largest regional figure, in the Americas. There, the number continued to rise, with estimates that up to 5.6 million people were living in displacement.

The number of IDPs in the Middle East and North Africa rose significantly over the year, from 3.9 million at the end of 2010 to 4.3 million in 2011. Conversely, in South and South-East Asia, the number of IDPs in the region fell for the first time in the last six years, to 4.3 million.

In Europe and Central Asia, there was no new displacement but little change in the regional total as IDPs remained trapped in situations of protracted displacement. They made up nearly ten per cent of the global internally displaced population.
New displacements

More than 3.5 million people were newly displaced over the course of 2011. This represented a 20 per cent increase from the 2.9 million newly displaced in 2010.

New displacements by region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>IDPs at end of 2011</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>1,900,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Americas</td>
<td>130,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe and Central Asia</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East and North Africa</td>
<td>840,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South and South-East Asia</td>
<td>643,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.5 million</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Large-scale new displacements in several countries in the Middle East and North Africa contributed considerably to this overall rise. There, over 840,000 people were newly displaced during the year. This signaled a dramatic shift from 2010, when the vast majority of new displacements occurred in only one country, Yemen, and totalled less than 180,000. Much of the displacement in 2011 took place against the backdrop of the Arab Spring, a wave of social upheaval across the region.

In sub-Saharan Africa, despite an overall decline in the number of IDPs, the continent witnessed large new movements, totalling over 1.9 million new IDPs. Up to a million people were displaced at the height of the crisis in Côte d’Ivoire. Some 350,000 people were newly displaced in South Sudan. Over 100,000 people had to flee their homes in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), in Sudan and in Somalia.

In the Americas, some 130,000 people were newly displaced in Colombia and in Mexico. The number of IDPs in Colombia continued to escalate during the year.

In South and South-East Asia, the number of newly displaced people decreased to 643,000 from around 800,000 in 2010 and from nearly four million in 2009. The largest reported displacements took place in Pakistan, where some 190,000 people were mostly displaced along the country’s border with Afghanistan following government operations there. In Afghanistan, 186,000 people fled their homes due to conflict and violence, an 80 per cent increase compared to 2010.

Who is an IDP?

According to the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, internally displaced people (IDPs) are “persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalised violence, violation of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognised State border”.

Causes of displacement

The causes of internal displacement are manifold and complex. People may be internally displaced by armed conflict, generalised violence and/or human rights violations. This report focuses on the people displaced by these causes. Disasters associated with natural hazards, such as floods and earthquakes, also displace millions of people every year, as reported in IDMC’s Displacement due to natural hazard-induced disasters.

In the Middle East and North Africa, an individual act of self-immolation by a Tunisian man at the end of 2010 set off popular uprisings across the region. These protests were met with violence and human rights violations by government forces, leading to large-scale displacements. Meanwhile, the main drivers of the decade-long increase in numbers of IDPs in the region were still the displacements following the invasion of Iraq in 2003 and the subsequent sectarian violence which displaced some 1.6 million people from 2006.

In sub-Saharan Africa, outstanding grievances relating to political power sharing and disputes over natural resources or land were the main causes of new displacements in most countries. While governments or armed groups associated with the government were the main agents of displacement more often than not, the role of armed opposition groups was also significant, especially in areas where government security forces had little reach or capacity to combat banditry.

In the Americas, violence perpetrated for criminal rather than ideological aims continued to gain significance as a cause of displacement, particularly in Mexico and Colombia. In Colombia, such violence took place alongside a long-running internal armed conflict which showed no signs of abating, despite some gains by government forces in 2011. In Mexico, drug cartels increasingly attacked government forces and institutions; civilians including journalists were forced to flee their places of residence as the cartels fought to control trafficking routes.

As in previous years, most new displacements in South and South-East Asia were concentrated in Afghanistan, Myanmar, Pakistan and the Philippines, where most people were displaced by ongoing armed conflicts opposing government forces with insurgent groups striving for autonomy or resisting government policies that allegedly led to their exclusion. Significant displacement also took place in Cambodia and Thailand due to a decade-long border dispute between the two countries.

Continuing or protracted displacement

At the end of 2011, there were IDPs living in protracted displacement situations in at least 40 countries monitored by IDMC. Among those, the majority were considered to be in a severely protracted displacement situation, in which one or more generation had grown up in displacement.

Across Africa, localised tensions and barriers to the recovery of land and property made it impossible for many IDPs to return to their places of origin. Meanwhile, in Khartoum, Sudan, an estimated 700,000 southerners who had been internally displaced years before were no longer within the same country following the independence of South Sudan,
Basing responses on appropriate information

Gathering information on the number, situation and needs of individuals or groups who have been internally displaced is essential if they are to enjoy appropriate protection and assistance.

The minimum required information includes the number of IDPs disaggregated by their age, sex and location. Collecting other key indicators, including the causes and patterns of displacement and the different threats IDPs face, help to ensure that the specific needs of particular groups, such as women heads of households, unaccompanied minors, older people, people with disabilities, minorities and indigenous people can be adequately addressed.

The UN Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination highlighted the importance of proper information in 2011 in its review of Georgia. In its concluding observations, the Committee noted concern over the lack of disaggregated data on, among other groups, IDPs and refugees. It recommended that, after the country’s scheduled 2012 census, Georgia provide “disaggregated information on the composition of society, including on persons belonging to numerically smaller minorities . . . as well as IDPs and refugees, as well as information regarding their access to health and in particular on infant and maternal mortality among minorities, their level of income, their representation in important State jobs and disparities with regard to education”.

Despite the importance of such information, governments and other bodies responding to internal displacement dedicated limited capacity in 2011 to gathering and analysing disaggregated data on internally displaced populations and their hosts. Only in 11 of the countries monitored by IDMC did the government or its partners collect data on IDP numbers disaggregated according to sex, age and location. The lack of information and monitoring mechanisms limited the effectiveness of the responses which internally displaced groups could count on.

One of the countries that did collect disaggregated data in 2011 was Burundi. There, with the support of the Joint IDP Profiling Service (JIPS, an inter-agency service established to assist governments in collecting data on IDPs), the Burundian government collected qualitative and quantitative information on the number, location and access to basic services of IDPs, as well as their preferred settlement options. The results of the study, which indicated that 85 per cent of IDPs preferred to integrate locally in the villages to which they were displaced, would be used by the government to inform its policy to support durable solutions.

An internally displaced woman preparing lunch with her children in Minago IDP site, Rumonge province, Burundi.
(Photo: IDMC/Barbara McClin, November 2011)
and their situation remained to be clarified. At the end of the year, they had lost Sudanese citizenship with the new nationality law, but may not have had access to documents confirming their South Sudan citizenship.

In the Middle East and North Africa, many of the people who fled fighting connected to the Arab Spring uprisings were able to return to their homes after a short period; the majority of people in the region who were internally displaced at the end of the year had been displaced years earlier by other situations of conflict or violence. They included well over two million people who were still displaced in Iraq. Large numbers of people also remained displaced in the Occupied Palestinian Territory (OPT), in Syria, and in northern Yemen.

Most of the 2.5 million IDPs in Europe and Central Asia had been living in protracted displacement for over 18 years. The protracted nature of displacement meant that IDPs’ descendants were included in the figures in some countries. Turkey still had the most IDPs of any country in the region.

In the Americas, Colombia and Mexico had situations of new displacements alongside people living in protracted displacement. In Guatemala and Peru, people were still living in displacement because of conflicts long passed.

Meanwhile, throughout South and South-East Asia, the majority of IDPs had been living in displacement for several years, unable to find a durable solution to their displacement due to a range of reasons, including unresolved land and property issues, the destruction of housing and sources of livelihoods, persistent insecurity owing to the presence of armed groups or the hostility of former neighbours. Some of the countries with the largest proportion of people in situations of protracted displacement included Bangladesh, Indonesia, Myanmar, Nepal and Sri Lanka. In Afghanistan, internal displacement had also become increasingly protracted; some 117,000 of those who fled prior to 2003 remained displaced in 2011, and it was reported that few IDPs in towns or cities had any sustainable settlement options.

Countries with the largest IDP populations
At the end of 2011, there were five countries with more than a million IDPs, which had all faced large-scale armed conflict. The largest population was in Colombia. The other four, as a year before, were in Iraq, Sudan, DRC and Somalia. The population in Sudan was still among the biggest, even though the number there no longer included IDPs in the newly independent South Sudan. Turkey and Pakistan followed closely, each with more than 900,000 IDPs living within their borders.

Countries with the largest internally displaced populations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>IDPs at end of 2011</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>3.9 – 5.3 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>2.3 – 2.6 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>2.2 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic Republic of the Congo</td>
<td>1.7 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>1.5 million</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Colombia, internal armed conflict and human rights abuses by armed groups have caused massive internal displacement for over four decades. The number of IDPs in the country continued to rise during 2011; some 3.9 million people were displaced, according to the government; a non-governmental
The scale and impact of internal displacement

In 2011, large-scale new displacement in Iraq had ended. Sporadic violence-induced displacement mostly affected members of minorities; over the last decade more than half of Iraq’s 1.4 million Christians had fled their places of origin. Past displacement had diverse causes, including the wave of sectarian violence that broke out in 2006.

Sudan was Africa’s largest country until July 2011, when it was divided in two following the independence of South Sudan. It also had, until that point, one of the largest internally displaced populations in the world – between 4.5 and 5.2 million people at the end of 2010. The UN estimated that at least 2.2 million people remained internally displaced in Sudan at the end of 2011. This figure included 1.9 million IDPs in Darfur, 200,000 in South Kordofan and 66,000 in Blue Nile. The figure for South Sudan was undetermined: only information on new internal displacement was available at the end of the year.

At the end of 2011, an estimated 1.7 million people in DRC were internally displaced because of the various conflicts which had killed several million people since the mid-1990s. The vast majority of those currently displaced had fled since the start of large-scale military operations against armed groups in eastern DRC in early 2009, or from the attacks and violence against civilians perpetrated by all parties to the conflict. Many IDPs had been displaced a number of times over the years.

In 2011, the humanitarian crisis in Somalia continued to worsen, due to a combination of generalised violence, conflict between the government, its allies and insurgent groups and drought across the Horn of Africa which led to famine in southern and central regions. High rates of malnutrition and severe food insecurity were reported in most IDP settlements. Despite this spike in the crisis, the number of IDPs in Somalia has remained stable since 2007 at between 1.4 and 1.5 million.

Countries with the largest percentages of IDPs

Several countries, including some with the highest absolute number of IDPs, also had a markedly high proportion of their population living in a situation of internal displacement. While IDPs bring skills and resources with them, their presence also presents significant demands on the capacities of the governments and host communities of these countries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries with largest share of population internally displaced</th>
<th>IDPs as percentage of total population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Azerbaijan</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central African Republic</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>8.6 – 11.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>Up to 22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>About 9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupied Palestinian Territory</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serbia</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>At least 7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reported returns and other settlement options

At the end of 2011, 2.4 million people had reportedly returned to their areas of origin during the year. Once returned, many IDPs started rebuilding their livelihoods, while others were forced to flee again if the causes of displacement remained unaddressed or new causes emerged.

Meanwhile, a number of IDPs also integrated in the place they were displaced to or settled elsewhere in the country.
Reports indicated that some 300,000 people integrated locally in Pakistan during the year. The only reports of people settling elsewhere came from Azerbaijan (10,600 people), Georgia (at least 3,000 people) and Nigeria (5,000 people).

In the absence of mechanisms to monitor IDPs’ ongoing situations, it was impossible to determine their progress towards durable solutions. Only a small minority of countries monitored by IDMC reported information on IDPs’ favoured settlement options and their progress towards securing a durable solution in different locations. In addition, in most countries and particularly those with an ongoing conflict, reported settlement preferences were still hypothetical as the return of IDPs to their places of origin was still not feasible.

Returns reported by region at end of 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Returned IDPs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>1,500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Americas</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe and Central Asia</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East and North Africa</td>
<td>571,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South and South-East Asia</td>
<td>338,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2.4 million</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Africa, almost 1.5 million people returned to their home areas during the year, with the highest numbers of returns reported in Côte d’Ivoire, DRC, South Sudan and Uganda. In DRC, some 800,000 people managed to return home between mid-2010 and mid-2011, but few returned in the second half of 2011, due in part to the climate of uncertainty which the approaching elections engendered.

In the Middle East and North Africa, some 571,000 IDPs returned home during 2011, some 400,000 of them in Libya shortly after they had been displaced. Most of the other returns were in Iraq, where about 170,000 IDPs returned.

In Europe and Central Asia, returns were more systematically monitored, but limited in number throughout the region. Returned IDPs continued to face protection issues. These often related to physical insecurity, limited access to livelihoods and lack of means to rebuild houses. In some cases, returned IDPs allegedly suffered attacks and discrimination. The sustainability of return in the region therefore remained questionable.

In South and South-East Asia, an estimated 338,000 people were reported as having returned home in 2011, half the number reported in 2010. Most of the returned IDPs had been displaced only a few days or weeks before. Governments generally continued to prioritise return over other settlement options.

In the Americas, some 400 people who had been displaced in the state of Tamaulipas, Mexico, were reported to have returned in 2011.
Risks faced by IDPs in 2011

Internally displaced people are part of broader populations and have the same protection and assistance needs as other people living in contexts of conflict or violence. However, as they have been compelled to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, IDPs often face other risks distinct from those experienced by the general population.

In 2011, IDPs in every region faced a range of risks related to their displacement, including threats to their physical security and integrity, a lack of access to basic necessities such as clean water, food, shelter and health care, and to the livelihoods which would improve their standard of living. They also faced violations of their rights relating to housing, land and property, separation from family and community members and violations of their civil and political rights. These risks frequently overlapped; for example, an IDP whose physical safety was threatened may not have been able to commute to their place of work or farmland, limiting their ability to purchase or access basic necessities.

In sub-Saharan Africa, IDPs were frequently attacked by parties to conflicts, both while the IDPs were fleeing, as was reported in Darfur during 2011, and when they sought shelter in camps, as happened in Somalia. Widespread gender-based violence was reported in Côte d’Ivoire, DRC and Somalia, among other countries.

Understanding IDPs’ diverse needs: older people

Conflict and displacement can affect individuals in different ways depending on factors such as their sex, age and ethnic, social or religious identities. Certain groups, including women, children, older people and members of minorities, are often marginalised within communities and less represented in formal decision-making structures. As a result, their specific concerns are overlooked in the planning and implementation of protection activities.

For example, only in six out of 50 countries did national policies on displacement make specific reference to older people; in three of those countries information had not been gathered on their numbers. Thus in few countries was it possible to respond effectively to the specific needs of this group.

In Burundi, information was gathered on groups at risk, including older people. Many older IDPs there were no longer able to walk for several hours to their places of origin to tend their fields and livestock. This left older people unable to produce food for themselves or to sell, further limiting their prospects of overcoming their displacement. In most countries, failures to identify such threats faced by diverse members of communities not only resulted in IDPs’ needs going unaddressed, but it often led to actions that inadvertently increased the risks they faced and further marginalised them.

Many IDPs in Africa also lacked independent access to the basic essentials they needed to survive, and continued to rely significantly on the resources of host communities or assistance provided in camp settings by humanitarian organisations. Many who could not access such resources, such as IDPs living in informal camps in Somalia, suffered severe health and nutrition problems; during the year, mortality and malnutrition rates continued to surpass previous extreme levels across the country.

People who had been displaced over longer periods in Africa often struggled to assert their rights over land and housing which had not been formally recorded. Among those most vulnerable were widows who could not recover land which the family of their deceased husband had reclaimed. IDPs’ inability to recover their land frequently prevented them from rebuilding agricultural livelihoods, as did continuing insecurity. Many gave up their attempts to recover their livelihoods after losing livestock and missing growing seasons while they were displaced, and instead moved to towns and cities.

In the Middle East and North Africa (MENA), IDPs had to cope with insecurity and intense competition for resources and services in countries shaken by conflicts. In Libya, Syria and Yemen, IDPs were forced to remain in conflict-affected areas where they risked injury or death. Those that sought to flee to safer areas faced targeted attacks if they were seen to be associated with one of the parties to conflict. In Libya, internally displaced members of communities associated with the government of Qadhafi faced arbitrary arrest and enforced disappearance.

In countries in the MENA region seeking to recover from conflict, IDPs’ access to services and employment was often limited. In several countries their greatest challenge lay in ensuring access to housing; in Iraq many people could not recover property they had fled due to sectarian violence, and the country faced a massive housing shortage. In Lebanon, Libya, OPT and Syria, the homes of many IDPs had been destroyed.

IDPs throughout South and South-East Asia faced protection risks during all stages of their displacement. Threats to physical security and integrity were particularly salient during the initial displacement phase: many people evacuated their homes in direct response to military operations or abuses by armed groups. Conditions in camps where they sought refuge were more than often inadequate, with access to basic necessities limited. In Afghanistan, internally displaced children in makeshift shelters died from exposure during the coldest periods.

IDPs in Asia who managed to find accommodation with friends or relatives relied on kinship or community solidarity networks to meet their short-term needs. However, in the absence of external assistance, the hosts’ resources typically dwindled over time, leaving both the displaced people and their hosts facing increasing hardship.

In numerous displacement situations in South and South-East Asia, disabled and older IDPs, children and female heads...
Residents of Soacha, an impoverished suburb of Bogotá, Colombia. Many of the people living in Soacha arrived there after being forcibly displaced from their homes. (Photo: UN Photo/Evan Schneider, June 2011)

of households were often made more vulnerable by traditional codes of social seclusion. Children were at risk of child labour, early marriage, sexual violence and human trafficking.

In the Americas, despite the fact that Colombia and Mexico had long ago attained high rates of development, IDPs living there continued to have more limited access to housing, livelihoods and services. In Colombia, the only country in the region where detailed information on displacement was available, IDPs’ access to adequate housing and income was extremely low in comparison to the rest of the population. Access to education and health care was somewhat better, with roughly 87 per cent of internally displaced children enjoying access to the public education system and 85 per cent of IDPs able to access public health care.

In Europe and Central Asia, the housing conditions of IDPs living among host communities or in collective centres were still inadequate many years after people were first displaced, and their tenure of housing was often insecure. Many IDPs also struggled to access their property at their places of origin and continued to face difficulties securing personal documents, limiting their access to other basic services.

Discrimination against IDPs and returned IDPs continued to be among the leading challenges worldwide. People who were displaced to areas where they were in a minority, such as Kurdish people displaced within Turkey, continued to face discrimination throughout their displacement, limiting their access to housing, jobs, education and health care.

Urban displacement-related risks

In 2011, IDPs were living in urban areas in 47 out of 50 countries. They were often not the first place of refuge for IDPs. In Colombia, rural IDPs were typically first displaced to nearby towns where they may have received some short-term support. Subsequently, they fled onwards to larger urban centres.

While cities and towns often offer safety and anonymity, as well as better access to public services, employment opportunities and resources, IDPs there are particularly exposed to a number of risks. They generally live among other groups including poorer long-term residents and other migrants. Research in 2011 suggested that a more holistic approach to understanding vulnerability in urban contexts is required, one which includes displacement alongside other indicators.

In the Kenyan city of Nairobi, IDPs were more likely than non-displaced people to live in informal settlements, in overcrowded and inadequate housing and in unsafe areas prone to landslides and flooding. IDPs were also more likely to have less “social capital” such as support networks from community organisations to fall back on, forcing them to adopt dangerous coping strategies.

In Yei, a city in South Sudan, the shared poverty, scarcity of resources and the weakness of rule of law had a greater impact on IDPs than factors related to their displacement. Other factors such as ethnicity exposed groups to specific risks, such as communal violence and harassment by the police. The vulnerabilities of IDPs also depended on their situation before they were displaced, their age and sex and the causes of their displacement.

Across South and South-East Asia, IDPs also fled to cities in large numbers. A 2011 study in Afghanistan revealed that IDPs were more vulnerable and worse off than the non-displaced urban poor, as they were particularly affected by unemployment, lack of access to proper housing and food insecurity.
Forced evictions: a widespread cause of secondary displacement

People often flee their homes to escape violence or abuses. However, they can also be forcibly evicted by government agents or paramilitary forces associated with them. While an eviction can be considered lawful if, for example, carried out to promote the general welfare of a society, a forced eviction is defined as “the permanent or temporary removal against their will of individuals, families and/or communities from the homes and land which they occupy, without the provision of, and access to, appropriate forms of legal or other protections” (UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights General Comment No. 7).

During the year, forced evictions caused situations of internal displacement in 18 countries monitored by IDMC. In the overwhelming majority of cases, forced evictions affected people who had already been displaced, resulting in a pattern of secondary displacement. Most forced evictions took place in situations of protracted displacement and were carried out against IDPs living in precarious housing situations. Whether they were in camps or collective centres, occupying abandoned houses or informal settlements in towns or cities, these IDPs usually lacked property titles or rental contracts, making them highly vulnerable to evictions.

In half of the situations where forced evictions were reported, the responsible authorities cited development objectives as the primary justification. In towns and cities, urban planning was the main justification for the forced evictions of IDPs from informal settlements or the houses they were occupying illegally. This was the case in Iraq, Israel, Liberia and Nigeria. In the occupied West Bank, for example, it was frequently impossible for Palestinians to comply with regulations regarding their existing housing or get permits for new housing; thus their homes were demolished and they were forcibly evicted.

Forced evictions were also carried out in the name of development in rural areas, for example in Myanmar, Papua in Indonesia, and Uganda, to make way for the cultivation of profitable crops or other projects. Forced evictions carried out for environmental purposes, such as in DRC and Uganda, remained an obstacle to durable solutions for IDPs whose area of origin was declared a natural reserve in their absence, therefore preventing their return. In Papua, development-based evictions resulted in tensions and riots between evicted indigenous Papuans and the armed forces protecting development projects there, creating an additional risk of violence-induced displacement.

Not all evictions, even those carried out against the resident’s will, constitute a violation of a person’s rights. Criteria and procedures exist to ensure that adequate protection is provided to those being evicted, such as prior notice, consultation, provision of alternative solutions and legal remedies. The 2007 UN guidelines on development-based evictions and displacement provide useful guidance to help prevent or qualify forced evictions performed in the name of development.

In Georgia, for example, local authorities continued in 2011 a policy of relocating IDPs living in dilapidated collective centres or temporary shelters into new or refurbished housing. They made efforts to ensure that evictions were in line with the country’s standard operating procedures on relocation, developed jointly with the international community.
A 75-year-old woman in Eredvi IDP settlement in Georgia. After fleeing her home in Tskhinvali district prior to the 2008 South Ossetia-Georgia conflict, she was assigned to this house where she has created a shop to sell cigarettes and household items to the community. (Photo: Daron D’Souza, April 2011)

Responses to internal displacement in 2011
The particular situation of an internally displaced person may vary widely depending on the reasons for displacement, the length of time displaced, and the person’s specific needs, capacities and resources. These complex situations require equally complex responses, ranging from emergency humanitarian interventions to longer-term activities aimed at restoring rights and securing durable solutions to displacement.

Realistically, no one government agency or humanitarian organisation can protect all IDPs on its own. State, humanitarian and development actors must cooperate according to their respective capacities to resolve a situation of displacement. Nonetheless, the responsibility for protecting and assisting IDPs rests first and foremost with their national authorities; the simple fact that IDPs remain within the borders of their country means that their own government bears the primary responsibility for protecting and assisting them. This responsibility reflects the notion of national sovereignty, a fundamental operating principle of the international community which is routinely emphasised by governments themselves.

Despite this broad consensus that national responsibility is fundamental to addressing situations of internal displacement, in practice governments are often unable or unwilling to respond effectively themselves, or may have actually perpetrated the initial displacement. In such cases, these governments should facilitate access by internally displaced people or groups to humanitarian assistance and protection activities.

International organisations and a country’s own civil society, including IDPs themselves and their host communities, conduct a wide range of activities aimed at preventing rights violations and alleviating human suffering. In some ways, the activities of non-governmental actors run parallel to those of the government, but the role of NGOs and international actors is to reinforce, not replace, national responsibility.

Over the past years, national authorities and their partners have engaged in activities to respond to internal displacement and to ensure the rights of IDPs, whether these latter were facing life-threatening emergencies or longer-term neglect and impoverishment. Nonetheless, the number of IDPs worldwide has remained at high levels. Countries have been unable to resolve their internal displacement crises.

For example, from 2002 to 2007 in Côte d’Ivoire, internal armed conflict and localised communal conflicts forced hundreds of thousands of people to flee within the country. During this period, human rights violations and sexual violence were widespread and the safe movement of people was limited by harassment and checkpoints. Food insecurity spread as production was disrupted.

Following the 2007 peace accord, the Ivorian government worked with international partners to respond to these abuses and to enable IDPs to return safely. However, disputes continued over the ownership of land in the fertile western regions, where significant migrant populations had lived and worked for decades. The government passed new land legislation, but many IDPs were not present to take advantage of the law. By 2010, the overall situation had improved but an unknown number of people remained displaced.

The identification of the population and registration of voters following the peace accord remained highly sensitive, and delays in these processes caused national elections to be repeatedly delayed. When they finally took place at the end of 2010, incumbent president Laurent Gbagbo refused to accept that he had been defeated and new fighting broke out between his supporters and those of the challenger Alessane Ouattara. Four months of violence caused the new internal displacement of a million people by April 2011, perhaps more than had been displaced by the earlier five-year conflict.

The ebb and flow of violence-induced displacement in Côte d’Ivoire over the last decade makes clear that if a country is to resolve displacement instead of just reacting to it, governments and their partners must not only carry out responsive actions, to stop patterns of abuse and make the victims safe, but also genuine and effective remedial actions to restore people’s dignity and ensure redress; finally they must work to build an environment conducive to the long-term protection and promotion of people’s rights, including by ensuring that national law and policy is in line with international legal norms relating to displacement. The following chapters consider actions taken in response to internal displacement according to this tripartite “egg model” framework.

The “egg model” for the protection of rights in humanitarian situations

One widely recognised framework for facilitating the protection of rights in humanitarian situations is the so-called “egg model.” Created following a series of ICRC-led workshops that took place between 1996 and 2000, the model uses the shape of an egg to encourage strategic thinking about the different spheres of action and types of activities required to meet protection needs: responsive action, remedial action and environment-building.

The model underlines the interdependent and complementary nature of protection activities. For example, environment-building action can result in a new law that serves as a critical blueprint for protecting the rights of IDPs. However, if such a law is not implemented or enforced in a meaningful way in the remedial stage, the victim is left with no genuine recourse.
Displacement is a life-changing event. Regardless of the precise circumstances in which they fled, IDPs have faced violence and danger in the context leading to their displacement. Once displaced, IDPs are then often exposed to a range of new risks of rights violations.

Responsive action aims to halt violations of rights and alleviate the immediate effects of such violations. More specifically, activities within the responsive sphere of protection include preventing or halting abuses against IDPs, ensuring that they have access to basic necessities, recognising and analysing their situation and enabling their access to humanitarian assistance.

Preventing or halting abuses against IDPs

In 2011, civilians worldwide suffered the consequences of States’ unwillingness or inability to prevent internal displacement. Roughly 3.5 million people were newly displaced during the year, representing a sharp increase from the 2.9 million newly displaced in 2010.

IDPs, like other people at risk, developed their own strategies to reduce exposure to, and mitigate the effects of, threats to their rights. For example, in the Central African Republic (CAR), violence-affected communities tried to mitigate the absence of government forces in their areas by forming self-defence militias to protect themselves from attacks by criminal groups. In Somalia, IDPs in many camp settlements formed security committees, acting together to protect themselves from physical abuse. In the absence of government protection, however, physical and sexual assaults on IDPs continued to take place in both contexts.

Civil society organisations in many countries played a role in protecting people from and during displacement. Their activities, based on local knowledge, built upon existing capacities and resources within the displaced community, as well as the host communities. For example, in the Philippines, the Bantay Ceasefire network of community-based volunteers,
The Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement

The Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement reflect, in plain language, the rights and guarantees relevant to the protection of IDPs in all phases of displacement. In line with international human rights and humanitarian law, and with refugee law by analogy, the 30 principles outline the legal norms relevant for protecting people from arbitrary displacement, for providing protection and assistance to IDPs during their displacement and for facilitating sustainable conditions for IDPs’ return, local integration or settlement elsewhere in the country.

In 1998, Dr. Francis M. Deng, acting as the Representative of the UN Secretary-General on Internally Displaced Persons, submitted the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement to the UN Commission on Human Rights. The Principles, while not legally binding, have since gained considerable authority. In September 2005, the Heads of State and Government, assembled in New York for the World Summit, unanimously recognised the Principles as an “important international framework for the protection of internally displaced persons”.

often including IDPs themselves, continued reporting incidents of ceasefire violations in an attempt to prevent conflict and displacement. Following clashes between the Philippine army and an armed group in October 2011 which led to the displacement of more than 10,000 people, Bantay Ceasefire issued a public statement calling on both parties, and also the International Monitoring Team, to intervene to assist the displaced and to allow established ceasefire mechanisms to restore peace and security by promptly investigating the incident.

As in previous years, governments regularly fell short in their responsibility, as reflected in the Guiding Principles 5–9, to prevent and avoid conditions on their territory that might lead to displacement. For example, in CAR, civilians were attacked and displaced by foreign armed groups such as the Lord’s Resistance Army and left with no protection because the national armed forces were neither trained, equipped nor deployed to conflict areas.

The government of DRC also failed in its duty to protect the civilian population, particularly in the east, where army units withdrew from zones in North and South Kivu for training at the end of 2010. Their departure left local communities with no protection, and armed groups pounced on the opportunity to retake old positions. During this period, hundreds of women, men and children were treated for rape by Médecins Sans Frontières in the Fizi region, South Kivu. At the end of the year, over a million people were displaced in the Kivus, in part owing to such government failures to protect residents from arbitrary displacement.

International and regional peacekeeping operations continued to be tasked by the UN Security Council to protect displaced populations in addition to the general civilian populations. In June, after fighting in the Abyei region between Sudan and South Sudan led to large-scale displacement, the Security Council established the UN Interim Security Force for Abyei to monitor the border and protect civilians and humanitarian workers. In July 2011, the UN Security Council also established the UN Mission in the Republic of South Sudan on the day of independence to consolidate peace and security and help establish conditions for the government of South Sudan to govern effectively and democratically.

As with national armed forces, international forces sometimes caused additional problems for IDPs instead of providing solutions, particularly in the more complex humanitarian situations. For example, in Afghanistan, while armed opposition groups were responsible for the majority of killings, most of the documented mass displacements in fact occurred as a result of offensives by international forces operating in the country.

Providing basic necessities

Most people displaced during the year sought shelter and other basic necessities among family or friends in nearby communities so as to minimise the disruption to their normal lives. These host families and communities took in the newcomers, sharing their own, often meagre, resources before international or non-governmental organisations had even recognised that displacement had taken place. In most countries, including DRC, Kenya, Mexico, Nigeria and Yemen, the majority of the displaced population were staying with host families or communities. While many tried to work or help contribute towards the household’s livelihood, their presence nonetheless put a strain on the resources of local communities.

As reflected in Guiding Principle 18, all IDPs have the right to an adequate standard of living, including access to food, clean water, basic shelter and sanitation, appropriate clothing and essential medical services. In 2011, although a number of countries provided these basic necessities, many others remained unwilling or unable to do so.

Primary education: a basic necessity

The right to education always applies, even in conflict and emergencies. The UN Committee on the Rights of the Child has emphasised that “in situations of emergency, the child’s need to enjoy his/her right to education is reinforced by the fact that it is a protection measure, as well as a relief measure and a life-saving measure that provides physical, psychosocial and cognitive protection”. In such situations, access to education is essential to protect the children during and after the conflict, and to support the long-term recovery of the countries.

In Côte d’Ivoire’s western regions of Moyen Cavally and Dix-huit Montagnes, some 180,000 children missed out on their education in 2011, with most teachers absent. An assessment mission by the UN and partners revealed that education was also disrupted in the centre and east of the country.

In Libya, many schools were closed from March onwards due to fighting; IDPs took refuge in others. As of late September, UNICEF reported that many internally displaced children were still not able to access formal or informal education.
A relatively positive example was found in Pakistan, where the government, assisted by the international community, provided food, household items, temporary shelters and cash assistance to millions of IDPs. There were, nonetheless, significant limitations in the government’s response; assistance providers struggled to reach rural populations near conflict zones, where the humanitarian and protection needs were the greatest, and there were serious flaws reported in the selection of beneficiaries to assist.

In most contexts, regional and local government authorities had closer contact with IDPs than the central government and, thus, a better understanding of the problems they faced. In Colombia, municipalities were responsible for much of the front line assistance to new IDPs. In India, it was state governments rather than the central government which led the response. In opposition-held areas in Libya, local councils with important coordination functions were built from scratch to address the hardships caused by the absence of government.

Other governments were willing but unable to meet the needs of internally displaced people or groups. South Sudan, for example, acknowledged the existence of IDPs but was still unable to respond to their needs. At the end of 2011, it was striving to build new institutions but remained one of the poorest and least developed countries in the world. The government had no capacity in its early independence to respond effectively to internal displacement.

Where governments were unable to meet the needs of internally displaced people or groups, UN agencies and international and national humanitarian organisations supported them in delivering humanitarian assistance. Such was the case in Somalia, where enormous resources were focused on responding to needs created and compounded by conflict and drought. Organisations including the ICRC, UNHCR and WFP made life-saving interventions in Somalia during the first-half of 2011; over a million people received food assistance, and emergency health care activities reached nearly 40 per cent of the two million people in need.
Such assistance required intricate coordination. Humanitarian coordination in Afghanistan, for example, was channelled through the cluster system and the national and regional IDP task forces led by UNHCR and the government’s Ministry of Refugees and Repatriations. In 2011, efforts were made to improve field-level coordination and monitoring of IDPs and the conditions they faced, though the impact of such activities had yet to be ascertained.

Acknowledging and analysing displacement

Before a government can actually respond to IDPs’ needs, it must acknowledge that displacement has occurred. Some governments in 2011 chose not to respond to internal displacement crises, or to enable others to do so. For example, at the end of the year, the government of Mexico had yet to acknowledge the existence of displacement related to drug cartel violence. Consequently, there were no mechanisms to monitor displacement caused by organised crime, protect IDPs or enable them to find a durable solution, nor did the government seek support from international agencies such as UNHCR in setting up a response in line with international standards.

The acknowledgement of the existence of internal displacement allows for more targeted planning and response to IDPs’ needs. Credible information on the numbers, locations and conditions of IDPs is essential to designing effective policies and programmes to address their needs. For example, the government of Zimbabwe’s response to internal displacement has improved since the formation of the Government of National Unity in February 2009, as evidenced by its acknowledgement of IDPs and participation in a joint IDP assessment with the UN to determine the scope of displacement in the country. However, the results of the assessment had not been released by the end of the year, and plans for a more comprehensive nationwide survey had not moved forward.

In fact, in planning their responses, only a minority of governments took steps in 2011 to determine the overall number of people internally displaced; fewer again ensured they had representative information on the demographic characteristics of the internally displaced population. For example, in Bangladesh, restrictions on independent reporting meant that the significant number of internal displacements went largely undocumented; in 2011, there was still little information on people’s needs linked to their displacement or on their search for durable solutions.

Moreover, it is essential that data is disaggregated by age, sex, and location, as well as other indicators so that the specific needs of particular groups of IDPs, such as women heads of households, unaccompanied minors, older people, people with disabilities, members of minorities and indigenous people can be adequately addressed. Despite its importance, such information was only available in 11 countries in 2011, and in only eight of those did it cover or represent the country’s internally displaced population as a whole.

In some countries, civil society worked to help the government gather disaggregated information on IDPs. For example, NGOs in Colombia closely tracked displacement in the country during the year, including by providing alternative figures to those provided by the government.

Enabling humanitarian access

When governments do not have the capacity to provide for the security and wellbeing of their displaced populations, they should, as an exercise of responsible sovereignty, invite or accept international assistance and work together with international and regional organisations in protecting and assisting IDPs. Guiding Principle 30 stresses the importance of national authorities granting “rapid and unimpeded access” to humanitarian organisations trying to alleviate the immediate effects of displacement.

As in past years, there were multiple and varied constraints on access in 2011. These were often related to the security environment. Humanitarian agencies operating in DRC, for example, continued to struggle to respond to the emergency needs of IDPs and vulnerable people in the context of ongoing military operations and increased attacks against their staff. Over 100 security incidents involving humanitarian organisations were reported during the first half of 2011 alone.

In other cases, the access of humanitarians was blocked by deliberate efforts to limit their activities. In Sudan, the government restricted access to displaced communities in South Kordofan and Blue Nile, despite calls from the international community for unimpeded access. The Indonesian government also continued in 2011 to severely restrict access to displacement-affected areas in the central highland, making it difficult to assess IDPs’ humanitarian needs and provide assistance and protection.

Non-state armed groups also played a role in either facilitating or blocking humanitarian access. In November, Al-Shabaab announced a ban on the operations of 16 aid agencies in areas under its control in Somalia, jeopardising efforts to assist and protect the famine- and conflict-affected population there. In 2011, humanitarian agencies operating in conflict-affected areas in southern Yemen also had intermittent access to IDPs. However, in Sa’ada governorate, UN agencies were able to negotiate wider humanitarian access with one non-State armed group for the first time since 2008.
Recovering dignity and self-sufficiency

While the traumatic experience of displacement cannot be undone, at some point IDPs need to be able to resume a normal life. Guiding Principles 28-30 set out the responsibilities of national authorities, as well as the role of humanitarian and development actors, in assisting IDPs to secure a durable solution to their displacement.

Securing a truly durable solution means restoring the rights of IDPs that have been violated owing to their displacement, including their rights to security, property, housing, education, health and livelihood. Remedial action thus aims to ensure an adequate remedy to past violations, including through access to justice and reparations, in order to restore people’s dignity and put them in a situation where they can recover their self-sufficiency.

In the absence of mechanisms to monitor IDPs’ ongoing situations, it was often impossible to determine whether IDPs were on the path to achieving durable solutions. In most countries monitored by IDMC in 2011 there was not even information on the settlement choices which IDPs preferred given their circumstances. In countries with ongoing conflict, their preferences were often not practicable as return was not feasible.

The Framework on Durable Solutions for IDPs

The Framework on Durable Solutions for Internally Displaced Persons, endorsed by the Inter-Agency Standing Committee in December 2009, sets out human rights-based principles to guide the search for durable solutions. It also offers criteria for determining to what extent a durable solution has been achieved.

The Framework establishes that a durable solution has been achieved when IDPs no longer have specific assistance and protection needs linked to their displacement, and can enjoy their human rights without discrimination resulting from their displacement. It outlines that durable solutions can be achieved through three settlement options: sustainable reintegration at the place of origin (return); sustainable integration in areas where IDPs have taken refuge (local integration); or sustainable integration in another part of the country (settlement elsewhere).

Ensuring long-term safety and security

According to the Framework on Durable Solutions, IDPs must enjoy physical safety and security if they are to achieve a durable solution to their displacement. This often requires protection by national and local authorities from those threats which caused the initial displacement or may cause renewed displacement. While absolute safety and security is sometimes not achievable, IDPs must not be the subject of attacks, harassment, intimidation, persecution or any other form of punitive action upon return to their home communities, settlement elsewhere in the country or local integration.

Nonetheless, many returned or settled IDPs in 2011 continued to live in fear for their physical safety. In Afghanistan, secondary displacement patterns reflected the many obstacles IDPs faced upon return, including persistent insecurity in part due to the widespread presence of landmines or unexploded remnants of war.

Returned IDPs in Georgia also continued to face protection issues. Security had improved in most return areas, but the situation remained nonetheless unpredictable. People continued to report shootings, detention, extortion, limited freedom of movement and theft of agricultural and other products. In Abkhazia, returned ethnic Georgians were the target of some of this violence, though they were reluctant to turn to the police because they did not believe that perpetrators would be held accountable.

Securing an adequate standard of living

IDPs should enjoy, without discrimination, an adequate standard of living to progress towards a durable solution to their displacement. At the remedial stage, this involves going beyond the emergency humanitarian aid required in the responsive sphere of activities. Rather, action to secure an adequate standard of living for IDPs aims to promote self-sufficiency and restore basic rights, including those relating to housing, healthcare, food, water and sanitation and education.

Unfortunately, a stable and secure standard of living remained elusive for millions of IDPs in 2011. For example, in Nepal’s depressed post-war economy, many returned IDPs had still not found a way to meet their essential needs. Citizens in rural areas were unable to access basic services, as the government lacked the resources and presence; some returned IDPs were thus forced back to towns and cities in search of work.

Thanks to improved security in northern Uganda, most IDPs who lived in camps at the height of the conflict had returned to their area of origin or settled in new locations by the end of 2011. However, recovery and development efforts in return areas, centred on the Peace Recovery and Development Plan for Northern Uganda, had limited impact; returned IDPs faced continuing difficulties in securing basic services.

Children living in conflict- or violence-affected areas usually had their education interrupted during displacement. In many contexts such as in CAR, Côte d’Ivoire and DRC, school buildings in return areas had been destroyed or damaged during armed clashes, and returning children learned in crowded classrooms, often without pens, books or paper. In South Sudan, high numbers of displaced and returned children had limited access to education in an already overloaded and deficient education system with an acute shortage of teachers. As of July, the government of South Sudan was working closely with neighbouring countries to find solutions, such as employing Kenyan teachers to work in the country’s schools.
Returned IDPs sometimes faced the additional obstacle of discrimination, preventing them from accessing basic services on the same basis as residents. For example, 12 years after their displacement, only 4,000 out of a total of 36,000 IDPs in Kosovo had returned to their places of origin. They reportedly hesitated to return because of the problems they would face, as members of a minority group, in accessing services and livelihoods, recovering their property and ensuring their safety.

Vulnerable groups faced specific challenges in securing a stable standard of living. As a result of the armed conflict in Sri Lanka, for instance, there was a high number of widows and abandoned families among internally displaced households, and many men were either missing or detained by the government. Women living in temporary shelters, which lacked security and privacy, were particularly vulnerable to gender-based violence.

Providing access to livelihoods

According to the Framework on Durable Solutions, IDPs cannot achieve a durable solution to their displacement unless they have appropriate access to employment and livelihoods. Some IDPs in Azerbaijan, for instance, managed to recreate livelihoods over the course of their displacement. Employment opportunities for IDPs in urban areas outside of Baku, however, were still constrained by lack of access to farmland and limited informal labour openings. As a result, many IDPs remained unemployed in 2011 and relied on social benefits as their main source of income.

In some cases, government agencies or NGOs helped IDPs acquire professional skills and adapt to different livelihoods, for instance where IDPs from a rural area had integrated into an urban environment. In Senegal, the government and its development partners included the needs of IDPs in wider reconstruction and development programmes aiming to restore livelihoods. In Chiapas, Mexico, UNDP also promoted the integration of indigenous IDPs in their places of displacement through livelihoods projects.

IDPs were often seeking to reintegrate into failing economies with high unemployment affecting the entire population. However, they often faced additional obstacles that prevented them from accessing employment and livelihoods on the same basis as residents. For example, in Georgia, the near-total closure of the administrative boundary line with South Ossetia, compounded with insecurity in these areas, meant that some returned IDPs could not access their farmland, irrigation systems or markets on the other side, hampering their livelihood activities.

IDPs in the Russian Federation also reported displacement-related obstacles when looking for work: some were unable to register as temporary residents in the place of refuge, many had missed periods of schooling, while the conflicts had left others with disabilities or needing to care for children and older or sick relatives.

Recovering housing, land and property

IDPs must have access to effective mechanisms for timely restitution of their housing, land and property, regardless of whether they return to their place of origin, integrate locally or settle elsewhere in the country. The right to restitution or compensation extends to all displaced people, including men, women and children, who have lost ownership, tenancy rights or access entitlements to their housing, land and property.

In 2011, some positive steps were taken in this regard. For example, in Colombia, the government enacted a law aiming to provide redress to an estimated four million victims of the country’s long-running armed conflict. In addition to allowing damages to be paid to the relatives of those killed, the “Victim’s Law” seeks to restore millions of hectares of stolen land to the rightful owners. However, the first steps to implement this property restitution generated violence; 21 land restitution leaders were assassinated in 2011.
In many places, IDPs still had no access to mechanisms to restore their lost housing, land or property. This has proven challenging for countries affected by internal displacement because, in general, land is held customarily, without the use of property titles. Moreover, restitution mechanisms suppose the existence of functioning government institutions, which is rarely the case.

Even in countries where the use of property titles was common, there was often no effective mechanism available to restore or compensate lost property. For example, compensation continued to be issued for destroyed housing in the Russian Federation in 2011. However, the amount was still insufficient, the delivery and impact of it was limited by corruption, and only owners with completely destroyed houses were eligible to apply. In Armenia, while those who returned to border areas did not have trouble repossessing their homes, there were still no mechanisms to provide them with compensation for damage or destruction.

IDPs who want to return to houses that have been destroyed should be supported in rebuilding their homes or, where this is impossible, be provided with an alternative. In 2011, both the Serbian and Kosovarian authorities supported the construction of homes and social housing to facilitate the local integration of IDPs or their settlement elsewhere. However, in many countries, there was still no support for rebuilding homes in areas of return, and material support was scarce where IDPs had sought to integrate locally.

The resolution of disputes over land on which IDP settlements had been built was essential to programmes supporting local integration. In Burundi, 84 per cent of IDPs surveyed in 2011 wanted to carry on living where they were. The data collected by this survey paved the way for Burundian authorities to transform IDP settlements into permanent villages; however, the claims of land owners remained to be resolved.

Most legal systems grant men and women the same ownership and inheritance rights. However, in the majority of countries affected by internal displacement, land is held and transferred or transmitted according to traditional or customary rules which often limit the rights of women, girls and outsiders to own land. In South Sudan, many widows and orphaned girls had their land taken over by family members, as many had been excluded from inheriting land according to local tradition. This left many people landless and thus limited their prospects for durable solutions.

Indigenous peoples with a special attachment to their land also required particular attention. At the end of the year, most of the IDPs displaced after the Zapatista uprising in Mexico had neither received their land back nor compensation for their loss, even though most were members of indigenous groups with an acknowledged special attachment to their land.

Ensuring access to documentation

IDPs seeking to secure a durable solution to their displacement must have access to the necessary documentation to access public services, reclaim property and possessions, vote or enjoy other rights.

In 2011, many IDPs lacked essential documentation. For example, in the Philippines, many indigenous people displaced by conflict in Mindanao did not even have the most basic documentation, such as a birth certificate, and were therefore prevented from accessing jobs and basic social services. During 2011, UNHCR started distributing identification cards to indigenous people.

Most IDPs evicted from temporary hostels in Chechnya, Russian Federation, lacked a tenancy contract or residence registration at the hostel, and therefore could not legally contest their eviction. Meanwhile, many IDPs in Kyrgyzstan continued to get by on remittances and government allowances, but some struggled even to obtain these since they had been unable to replace lost or destroyed documents.
Enabling participation in public affairs

IDPs should be able to exercise their right to participate in public affairs on the same basis as the non-displaced population, without discrimination owing to their displacement. In DRC, reports indicated that IDPs were indeed able to participate in the November 2011 presidential elections in areas of displacement to the same extent as the rest of the rural population. Moreover, the government ensured that IDPs were able to vote in displacement areas and did not have to return to their area of origin, including through the local provision of election cards.

IDPs in other countries, however, had more limited access to participation in public affairs. In Nigeria, violence broke out after the presidential elections in April, leading to displacement. There was no monitoring of whether these IDPs were actually prevented from voting in the subsequent elections of state governors, but many of them were reportedly not planning to go back to the villages where they were registered to vote, for fear of further violence.

In many cases there was no information available to confirm whether IDPs were able to participate in public affairs. For example, in Liberia, there was no publicly available information on whether IDPs were able to vote in the 2011 elections. The Electoral Reform Law of 2004 empowered officials to take measures to facilitate the registration of voters who were displaced by the civil war. The text, however, indicated that these measures were limited to the 2005 elections. Some people with Muslim names were reportedly not allowed to register on grounds that they were not Liberian.

Providing effective remedies and justice

IDPs who are victims of human rights violations have a right to full and non-discriminatory access to justice, including adequate reparations and access to relevant information concerning violations.

A country’s judicial authorities, including its courts and tribunals, are responsible for ensuring that domestic, regional and international laws are properly applied and those responsible for violating these laws are brought to justice. The Constitutional Court of Colombia exemplified this role in 2011 by upholding its 2004 ruling that the government’s failure to address the precarious situation of IDPs amounted to a general violation of this group’s human rights. Adding to over 100 previous rulings and orders since 2004, the Court ordered the government to adopt a wide range of measures to resolve this problem.

In some cases, IDPs’ access to justice remained limited as a result of lack of knowledge of legal processes and lack of confidence in judicial institutions. In Indonesia, most IDPs preferred to resolve their disputes through informal mechanisms, perceived as more cost-effective and more sensitive to local customs. However, these informal conflict resolution mechanisms were not always able to deliver appropriate remedies for complex land and property disputes or other issues such as human rights violations, violent crimes or discrimination against particular groups by state representatives.

In terms of access to justice, the specific situations of some internally displaced groups, including internally displaced women and children in some contexts, were not systematically taken into account in 2011. Displaced women in Chad who had suffered sexual violence, for example, could in most cases only seek justice through customary courts whose judges were not trained to rule on these matters. Moreover, customary judges criminalised survivors of sexual violence by defining rape as adultery and thereby fining both the victim and the perpetrator.

While national and local judicial authorities had the primary duty and responsibility to provide IDPs with effective remedies for violations suffered, UN treaty bodies, made up of independent experts mandated to monitor States parties’ compliance with their treaty obligations, continued in 2011 to report on the extent to which IDPs had effective access to justice for past violations.

For example, the Committee on the Elimination of Racial
Discrimination (CERD) and the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESCR) both reviewed the situation in Yemen in 2011. The CERD highlighted concerns regarding the plight of IDPs in various governorates, and recommended that the Yemeni government strengthen its efforts in providing humanitarian assistance and ensuring return. The CESCR also noted the efforts made by the government, but placed emphasis on concerns with regards to discrimination against marginalised individuals and groups, in particular women, and called upon the government to address discrimination through a comprehensive legal framework.

In September 2011, the CERD noted concern over reports from Kenya that some people displaced by the violence following the 2007 elections had not been able to return to their homes nor had they received compensation. It thus recommended that Kenya “give its fullest attention to the plight of internally displaced persons and ensure that they return to their land or are otherwise properly resettled and provided with adequate reparation”.

The CESCR issued its concluding observations on the Russian Federation in 2011, recommending that the State party “take urgent measures to ensure that all children living in Chechnya and the Northern Caucasus and those internally displaced pursue their schooling in conformity with the Federal Law on education and to prevent their voluntary recruitment into military units”. Similarly, the Committee on the Rights of the Child recommended that Afghanistan develop a clear policy to monitor the situation of internally displaced children and address their health and education needs.

The Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) reviewed Côte d’Ivoire in 2011. It expressed concern over reports of attacks, including sexual violence, perpetrated against internally displaced women in sites for IDPs. The CEDAW recommended that Côte d’Ivoire ensure the security of internally displaced women and allocate more resources to meet their needs, in particular their access to livelihoods, water and education, for themselves and for their children.

Whether accomplished by a national or international mechanism, ensuring accountability for crimes committed against IDPs contributes to the effective protection of their rights and the prevention of further crimes against them. In 2011 in Kenya, the ICC brought cases against six high-profile suspects who allegedly bore the greatest responsibility for the post-election violence, in order to provide justice to the victims.

Failure to secure effective remedies for rights violations relating to displacement has been shown to cause further displacement, impede reconciliation processes and create a prolonged sense of injustice or prejudice among IDPs. For example, Uzbeks living in Kyrgyzstan continued to feel insecure because perpetrators of human rights violations committed during the 2010 violence were still going largely unpunished, and the vast majority of court cases that had progressed had been against Uzbeks.
Building safe and stable environments

Rights violations, including arbitrary displacement, are typically less frequent in areas where international legal norms are respected in practice.

Environment-building activities aim to foster a culture conducive to respect for the rights of individuals and groups. For national authorities, activities to this end include creating a legal and policy framework upholding IDPs’ rights, implementing those laws and maintaining law and order to consolidate an environment favourable to the respect for those rights. Parallel activities for government officials as well as NGOs and the international community include monitoring and advocating for the respect of those rights and raising national and international awareness of the problem of displacement.

Raising awareness of the problem

Governments should take steps, including public and media pronouncements and the publication of action plans, to convey their recognition of internal displacement situations and their responsibility to address the needs of IDPs.

Progress in 2011 in this regard was limited to a small number of countries. The governments of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Montenegro and Serbia, for example, launched a regional initiative to support durable solutions. In Burundi, information campaigns on the rights of IDPs to durable solutions were delivered in the framework of an upcoming countrywide IDP profiling exercise organised by government, international and civil society actors with internally displaced and host communities, and with local and provincial authorities.

Efforts to raise national awareness can include sensitisation campaigns that reach all relevant authorities, including the military and police, and that extend into the public sphere, so that national responsibility for addressing internal displacement becomes a concept embraced and implemented by all parts of society. Humanitarian actors in Kenya continued in 2011 to employ a media-driven response to internal displacement, including highly publicised calls to provide restitution for IDPs.

Strengthening law and policy

In the context of internal displacement, clear laws and policies upholding the rights of IDPs are necessary vehicles for the fulfillment of national responsibility.

In all regions of the world, the adoption of national legislation and policies on internal displacement proved valuable in defining internal displacement, setting forth IDPs’ rights, and establishing the obligations of governments towards them. For example, the Victims’ Law in Colombia provided a comprehensive framework for reparations for victims of human rights violations perpetrated during the long-running conflict. It also created a special mechanism to restore lost land to IDPs.

In Mexico, the state of Chiapas presented a bill on internal displacement to the state’s congress. The bill, drafted with the support of various UN agencies and civil society in Chiapas, would be the first law on internal displacement in the country. With help from international partners and national organisations, the government of Kenya formulated a National IDP Draft Policy, which aims to prevent, address and find durable solutions to displacement. The final draft was before parliament at the end of the year.

Some changes to legislation in 2011 actually limited the rights of IDPs instead of building upon them. In Georgia, legislative amendments at the end of 2011 narrowed the definition of an IDP to include only those fleeing an area occupied by a foreign State. At the end of the year, three bills related to land rights which were awaiting enactment in Timor-Leste could put many former IDPs at risk of eviction, as they would not enable people who moved onto land after 1998 to gain secure ownership.

International bodies, including UN agencies, continued promoting change to bring law or policy in compliance with international standards. In October, UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon endorsed a preliminary Framework on Ending Displacement in the Aftermath of Conflict. This comprehensive preliminary framework identifies key gaps in the UN’s response to durable solutions for IDPs and returning refugees that require strengthening, and makes recommendations to improve response. It was formulated on the basis of a 2009 UN Secretary-General report on Peace-Building in the Immediate Aftermath of Conflict, which identified that further clarity and predictability was required in key areas of the UN response in the immediate post-conflict period, including in responding to IDPs’ and returning refugees’ needs.

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The Kampala Convention for the protection of African IDPs

The adoption in October 2009 of the AU’s Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (the Kampala Convention) was widely recognised as an historic achievement. By the end of 2011, 33 of the 53 AU member states had signed the Kampala Convention. Moreover, eight of the 15 ratifications required for the Kampala Convention to enter into force had been deposited with the AU, and six other countries had completed internal ratification processes.

When it enters into force, the Kampala Convention will be the first legally-binding regional instrument in the world on protecting people from arbitrary displacement, providing protection and assistance to IDPs during displacement, and seeking durable solutions for them.

It also highlights the duties and responsibilities of international humanitarian organisations and civil society, and imposes obligations on States Parties to enable access to IDPs in need of protection and assistance and to prohibit non-State armed groups from obstructing such access or violating the rights of IDPs.

Responses to internal displacement in 2011
Implementing laws through effective planning

While a strong legal and policy framework is an essential blueprint for upholding the rights of IDPs, a law on the books is limited unless the government clarifies institutional responsibilities and implements a plan of action.

At the end of 2011, many governments were still in the process of formulating a plan of action to protect IDPs’ rights. For example, the new government in Iraq that formed at the beginning of 2011 quickly launched a plan to address the displacement situation in the country. However, the plan’s implementation and coordination mechanisms were yet to be defined at the end of the year.

The repercussions of failing to provide a plan of action were illustrated in Nepal where, in 2011, the government had made no progress towards adopting guidelines for implementing its 2007 national IDP policy. As a result, many IDPs lacked access to proper information on their rights and local government representatives did not have the necessary guidance to ensure effective registration processes.

Policies addressing the needs of IDPs have proven to be the most effective if implemented at the national level. In Côte d’Ivoire, a national committee was set up to ensure the coordination of the humanitarian response at the national level, including the return of IDPs to sites elaborated by the international humanitarian community.

Conversely, in India, there was still no national policy, law or other mechanism to respond to the needs of people displaced by armed conflict or generalised violence. The central government generally devolved responsibility to state governments and district authorities, who were often unaware of IDPs’ rights or reluctant to offer support, particularly in cases where they played a role in causing the displacement. As of 2011, no national ministry was mandated with IDPs’ overall protection.

Similarly, in the absence of a national plan of action in Nigeria, the local authorities assumed the responsibility to respond to displacement. In Lebanon, the lack of an effective national policy on internal displacement also led to discrepancies in the assistance provided to different displaced communities.

Maintaining the rule of law

The government has the primary responsibility for maintaining law and order and ensuring full and equal access to justice for everyone within its jurisdiction. This includes ensuring that all institutions and agents of the government, including the courts, armed and security forces, prosecutors and prison authorities, respect and protect human rights.

In 2011, many countries, particularly those recovering from armed conflict, continued to struggle to maintain the rule of law within their borders. As humanitarian activities were replaced by development work in Iraq, for example, the country was still grappling with a system which was neither inclusive nor transparent. The rule of law remained weak, human rights violations persisted and corruption was pervasive.

In Colombia, most people were displaced from areas in which the remoteness of government institutions had allowed the rule of law to break down. On the other hand, the Constitutional Court played a consistently positive role in monitoring and evaluating the response to displacement. This judicial surveillance was evidence of a clear division of powers and of the strength of judicial institutions in Colombia despite the long-running conflict.

Kenya’s High Court was also more active in 2011 in protecting the rights of people evicted from their homes. In March 2011, it held that: “Eviction should not result in individuals being rendered homeless or vulnerable to the violation of other human rights. Where those affected are unable to provide for themselves, the State party must take all reasonable measures, to the maximum of its available resources, to ensure that adequate alternative housing, resettlement or access to productive land, as the case may be is available.”
Monitoring and advocating for IDPs’ rights

The main aim of rights-based advocacy is to give marginalised people a voice and ensure that their human rights are protected and their concerns taken into account. Assertive advocacy for the rights of IDPs can be an essential component of protection efforts. National leaders, international organisations, the media, donors and parties to conflicts must be made aware of the rights of IDPs and of their situations and needs.

At the grassroots level, legal assistance programmes in 2011 contributed to building an environment conducive to finding durable solutions. For example, programmes in Azerbaijan, Kyrgyzstan and Russia helped IDPs get the documents they needed. These mostly related to housing, IDP status, social benefits and personal identification, and in Kyrgyzstan, documentation for businesses lost during violence.

Where human rights violations occurred, UN agencies, NGOs and international organisations worked to ensure that the information was communicated to officials who were in a position to act upon it. In its 2011 report on human rights in Cyprus, OHCHR also cited several obstacles to durable solutions for IDPs, including limited freedom of movement and choice of residence and the lack of an agreed mechanism to restore property rights.

Special procedures’ mandates, established by the Human Rights Council, also continued to examine, monitor, advise and publicly report on human rights situations in specific countries or territories. For example, following one of his missions in 2011, the UN Special Rapporteur for the human rights of IDPs commended the Kenyan government for its resettlement efforts as well as its efforts to formulate an IDP policy. However, he noted gaps in the approach to securing durable solutions to displacement in some parts of the country, especially in the north.

In its report on Somalia in July 2011, the Human Rights Council’s Universal Periodic Review (UPR) process recommended that the government “improve the living conditions and safety situation of IDPs in settlements, to strengthen their protection, particularly of women and girls from sexual violence, including granting IDPs unhindered access to humanitarian assistance”.

For the reality to change for people affected, however, a government must accept and act upon such recommendations. Human rights and humanitarian organisations have long called for the issue of forced displacement in OPT to be addressed and have warned of the continuing impact of Israeli policies. Presently, however, these calls have not discouraged Israel from carrying on with these policies.
In 2011, IDMC monitored internal displacement in 21 sub-Saharan African countries. There were an estimated 9.7 million IDPs in these countries, representing over a third of the world’s total internally displaced population. Sudan, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) and Somalia continued to be the countries with the largest internally displaced populations in Africa.

The number of IDPs in Africa in 2011 was down from 11.1 million a year earlier, continuing a sustained downward trend since 2004 when there were over 13 million.

Violent struggles between groups vying for access to natural resources, land and political representation and power were among the root causes of most of these displacements. These struggles were manifested either by armed conflicts pitting governments and their armed forces against armed opposition groups, or by inter-communal violence.

While governments or associated armed groups were the main agents of displacement in the majority of situations, the role of armed opposition groups in forcing people to flee was also significant. Armed criminal groups also caused displacement, especially in areas where government security forces had little reach or capacity to combat banditry.

Internally displaced people returning to their homes following the end of fighting in Sudan’s Blue Nile state between the Sudanese army and fighters allied to Sudan People’s Liberation Movement (SPLM), the dominant force in newly independent South Sudan. (Photo: REUTERSMohamed Nureldin Abdallah, September 2011)
In 2011 as in previous years, elections were a context of new displacement. A significant number of people remained internally displaced four years after election-related violence in Kenya, while presidential elections in Côte d’Ivoire, Nigeria and DRC led to internal displacement during the year.

Although there were some huge IDP camps and settlements in different countries across the region – the huge settlement between Mogadishu and Afgooye in Somalia hosted a third of that country’s internally displaced population – the majority of IDPs were living among host communities in areas where they remained unidentified.

New movements in 2011
Despite the overall decline in IDP numbers, massive new displacements were reported in a number of countries. In Côte d’Ivoire, up to a million people were displaced by fighting which followed the presidential elections of late 2010. Some 350,000 people were newly displaced by inter-communal violence in South Sudan, and at least 168,000 by the ongoing conflicts and violence in eastern areas of DRC. More than 100,000 people had to flee their homes in DRC, Somalia and Sudan. Other countries in Africa which saw new displacement in 2011 included the Central African Republic (CAR), Kenya and Nigeria.

In West Africa, disputed elections occasioned massive displacement in 2011. In Côte d'Ivoire, after both Alessane Ouattara and Laurent Gbagbo claimed victory in December 2010, a battle for national control between their respective supporters caused a four-month wave of new displacement. In Nigeria, violence which broke out after the results of the presidential elections were released led to the displacement of some 65,000 people across the northern states. In both countries, internal displacement also followed inter-communal disputes over land and access to economic and political power, and attacks by non-state armed groups.

Sudan was Africa’s largest country until July 2011, when it divided in two with the independence of South Sudan. While the separation itself was relatively peaceful, subsequent outbreaks of violence in the southern states of Unity, Upper Nile and Jonglei, in the disputed border area of Abyei, and in Sudan’s Southern Kordofan and Blue Nile states, all led to large-scale displacement. Although the citizenship status of 700,000 southerners living in Khartoum remained to be determined, the combined internally displaced populations of the two countries still made for the largest internal displacement situation in Africa at the end of 2011.

DRC remained the country with most IDPs on the continent after Sudan. In eastern DRC, attacks by armed groups and military operations against them continued to cause the displacement of tens of thousands of people in 2011. Violence in various parts of the country, related to the elections held in November, also led to small-scale displacement at the end of the year.

The Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA) continued to displace civilians in CAR, DRC and South Sudan, despite international military efforts to combat this group. Over the years, almost 440,000 people had been displaced in the three countries as a result of their activities.

In 2011, the Horn of Africa experienced one of the most severe food crises of the past 60 years. Massive population movements across the region were linked to the ongoing drought but also to the continuing conflict in south and central Somalia. Incursions into northern Kenya by armed groups from Ethiopia and Somalia also caused new displacement, while the sub-
sequent entry of Kenyan armed forces into southern Somalia reportedly led to further displacement, as people fled in fear of fighting between the Kenyan army and Al-Shabaab forces. There was also localised displacement in Ethiopia and northern Kenya as ethnic groups fought for access to scarce resources.

Some 1.5 million people returned to their home areas during the year, with the highest numbers of returns reported in DRC, Côte d’Ivoire, South Sudan and Uganda. In DRC, some 800,000 people managed to return home between mid-2010 and mid-2011, but few returned in the second half of 2011, due in part to the climate of uncertainty which the approaching elections engendered.

At the end of 2011, the UN estimated that 360,000 southerners had returned to South Sudan from the north since October 2010. However, they returned to locations near border areas with virtually no services or economic opportunities to support their reintegration.

In eastern Chad, improved relations between Sudan and Chad contributed to greater security and enabled tens of thousands of IDPs to return to their homes in border areas.

In northern Uganda, following six years of improved security, most of the 1.8 million IDPs who had been displaced into camps at the height of the conflict between government forces and the LRA had returned to their area of origin or settled in new locations by 2011.

There was, as ever, little information on the number of IDPs who had integrated in the place they fled to, or on those who had settled elsewhere in their country. However, a survey in north-east CAR led by the Joint IDP Profiling Service (JIPS) revealed that 23 per cent of IDPs had integrated locally and shared a similar situation to host communities, which were also affected by conflict and insecurity and unable to access their fields for farming.

Protection concerns
IDPs in Africa continued to face threats to their security and dignity in 2011. In Côte d’Ivoire, DRC, Somalia, Sudan, South Sudan and elsewhere, parties to the conflict attacked and killed civilians in addition to the other human rights violations and abuses which they committed. In Somalia, combatants reportedly attacked IDP settlements and recruited children from them into their ranks. In Darfur, fighting between the Sudanese Armed Forces and armed groups, inter-tribal violence and criminal activities led to the death of more than 600 civilians, including fleeing IDPs, between January and October alone.

Gender-based violence continued to threaten the physical security and integrity of IDPs both during and after their flight. All parties to the conflict in Somalia perpetrated sexual violence against internally displaced women in settlements. In Côte d’Ivoire, women and girls fleeing the violence were subjected to sexual violence perpetrated on the basis of their political or ethnic identity; the Protection Cluster recorded nearly 660 reported cases of gender-based violence at the height of the conflict between January and May.

Protracted conflict and displacement coupled with recurring droughts contributed to high levels of food insecurity, particularly in the Horn of Africa and in the Sahel. This threatened the lives of many of Africa’s IDPs and others in displacement-affected areas. By September the famine in Somalia was threatening the lives of many of the 1.5 million people displaced within the country by conflict. Malnutrition rates among internally displaced populations in Mogadishu and Afgooye were up to three times the critical emergency threshold.

The lack of access of humanitarians to displacement-affected areas in countries including DRC, Sudan, South Sudan and Côte d’Ivoire prevented vulnerable groups from obtaining vital assistance. The situation in Somalia worsened as both the government and insurgents continued to obstruct the access of vulnerable groups including IDPs to emergency assistance, and to divert aid for their own ends.

There were also reports of certain groups of IDPs facing additional hardships on the basis of their age, sex, ethnicity or particular disabilities. In Uganda and Burundi, older people, widows and people with disabilities or ill health remained displaced in camps or settlements as they could not manage the return process on their own or had no land to go back to. Many widows and orphans continued to live under family members. Displaced members of the Batwa ethnic group in Burundi, who faced widespread discrimination, continued to endure particularly difficult conditions, apart from other IDPs.

Prospects for durable solutions
Across the region, many areas from which IDPs had fled continued to be insecure. Communal tensions and barriers to the recovery of land and property also made it impossible for many IDPs to rebuild their lives there. In Burundi, for example, some IDPs could still not return because ethnic tensions continued to simmer and their land had been occupied.

At the end of the year, both Sudan and newly independent South Sudan were facing enormous challenges, such as agreement on the distribution of oil revenues, the demarcation of their shared border and the water and grazing rights of nomadic groups who move through border areas. The uncertainty and insecurity this caused meant that durable solutions remained out of reach for shorter- and longer-term IDPs.

Insecurity also prevented many IDPs in Côte d’Ivoire and Nigeria from achieving durable solutions. The conflicts and violence in these countries and the conflict farther north in Libya severely disrupted migrant labour flows and reduced the coping capacities of many households which already faced food shortages because of increasing drought in the Sahel. The movement of fighters and militia members from Libya and Côte d’Ivoire, and also mercenaries from Liberia, further threatened the stability of countries across West Africa.

The lack of governance and government capacity presented a major barrier to durable solutions in several countries. In many displacement-affected areas of Somalia, DRC and CAR, IDPs received no assistance or protection from absent governments. A study of IDPs in Yei, South Sudan, indicated that feeble rule of law helped to perpetuate the economic and political marginalisation of people who had been displaced.

Responses to internal displacement
African states and regional organisations have actively sought to improve and standardise their responses to internal
Internal displacement in Africa

displacement. In Burundi, developments in the year including a nationwide profiling exercise and a new code simplifying land acquisition gave IDPs a better prospect of achieving a durable solution. In Chad, where IDPs believed that it would not be safe to return, the government and international partners started to promote other settlement options, and considered converting remaining IDP camps into “locally integrated communities”.

By the end of 2011 two countries, namely Angola and Liberia, had developed laws on internal displacement based on the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement.

Incorporating the Guiding Principles into domestic legislation and policies was an obligation for the 11 member states of the International Conference on the Great Lakes Region (ICGLR) as parties to the Pact on Security, Stability and Development in the Great Lakes Region and to its Protocol on the Protection and Assistance to Internally Displaced Persons.

The same obligation will be borne by states party to the AU Convention on the Protection and Assistance to Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (the Kampala Convention) once it enters into force. By the end of 2011, 33 out of the 53 AU member states had signed the Kampala Convention; eight of the 15 ratifications required for it to enter into force had been deposited with the AU, and a further six states had completed their internal processes enabling them to ratify the Convention.

The international response to internal displacement varied widely. In some countries including Nigeria, mechanisms to respond to internal displacement were limited to development cooperation, while in others the cluster system for coordinating humanitarian emergencies was fully implemented. By the end of 2011, the cluster system had been implemented in Burundi, CAR, Chad, Côte d’Ivoire, DRC, Ethiopia, Kenya, Liberia, Niger, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan and Zimbabwe.

Two new peacekeeping missions were deployed to Africa following South Sudan’s independence in 2011: UNMISS was deployed in South Sudan and UNISFA in Abyei. Other international peacekeeping missions included MONUSCO in DRC, UNAMID in Darfur, UNOCI in Côte d’Ivoire and UNMIL in Liberia.

Donor commitments to protect IDPs and also to help countries make an early transition to recovery were limited, with the protection and early recovery sectors underfunded in all the appeals issued for African countries in 2011. In Chad, the early recovery sector had received no funding by December 2011, despite the intentions of the government and the humanitarian community to shift from relief to recovery efforts.

As development agencies replaced humanitarians in countries including Burundi, Liberia and Uganda, IDPs’ specific vulnerabilities remained to be addressed by wider development programmes.

<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>Angola</td>
<td>Up to 20,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>19,566 (UN-TCU, November 2005)</td>
<td></td>
<td>UN figure referred to IDPs in Cabinda province. No recent figure is available.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>78,800</td>
<td>78,800 (December 2011)</td>
<td>78,800 (December 2011)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Most of the remaining IDPs are in the northern and central provinces.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central African Republic</td>
<td>105,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>105,206 (OCHA, December 2011)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chad</td>
<td>126,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>126,000 (OCHA, December 2011)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Côte d’Ivoire</td>
<td>At least 247,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>519,100 (UN-HCR, June 2010); 247,000 (UN-HCR, December 2011)</td>
<td>The UNHCR estimate does not refer to IDPs displaced following the 2002 conflict. It is not clear how many of those displaced in 2002 and 2003 were able to achieve durable solutions.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Democratic Republic of the Congo</td>
<td>1,710,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,710,000 (OCHA, September 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>Up to 10,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>According to the government and UN agencies, all camp-based IDPs had resettled or returned by March 2008, but UN and other sources indicated that 10,000 may still be living with hosts. There was no information on the situation of IDPs who had returned or settled elsewhere.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No comprehensive surveys of IDPs have been carried out, the exception being in March 2009, when inter-ethnic conflict between the Garre of the Somali region and the Boran of the Oromiya region displaced an estimated 160,000 people. Assessments at that time were jointly conducted by UN agencies and NGOs with the participation of the government.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Number of IDPs (rounded)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>About 250,000</td>
<td>5,000 households</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The estimate includes people still displaced by the 2007 post-election violence who remain in camps or among hosts, and those still displaced by earlier episodes of violence and new violence in northern parts of the country. The UN has carried out no country-wide assessment of the number. The government has reported that most IDPs have either returned or resettled. Its estimate refers only to people displaced by the 2007 post-election violence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td>About 23,000</td>
<td>(UNHCR, July 2007)</td>
<td></td>
<td>UNHCR estimate was of people believed still to be in former IDP camps in 2007. The government had already reported that all IDPs had achieved durable solutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td>11,000 (IRIN, December 2007)</td>
<td></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>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td>1,210,000</td>
<td>(National Commission for Refugees, September 2007); 80,000 (NCFR, June 2009); 370,000 (National Emergency Management Agency, 2011); 1,000,000 (NCFR in USDoS, April 2011)</td>
<td></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>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republic of the Congo</td>
<td>Up to 7,800</td>
<td>7,800 (2006)</td>
<td>Up to 7,800 (OCHA, October 2009)</td>
<td></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>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Un clear if people resettled in new “villages” in the early 2000s have found durable solutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>10,000–40,000</td>
<td>24,000 (UNICEF, February 2010)</td>
<td>40,000 (ICRC, March 2010); between 10,000 and 40,000 (USDoS, April 2011)</td>
<td></td>
<td>There have been no exercises to enable reliable estimates of the number of IDPs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>1,460,000</td>
<td>1,460,000</td>
<td>(OCHA/UNHCR, December 2010)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Estimate based on population movement tracking system of UNHCR and partners. Somalia has not had a functioning government since 1991.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Sudan</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td>350,000 (OCHA, 2011)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>UN estimate includes only those newly displaced in 2011. There is no information on the number remaining displaced from earlier years, including those who were still displaced in the north.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>At least 2,200,000</td>
<td>2,166,000</td>
<td>(OCHA, December 2011)</td>
<td></td>
<td>This figure includes: (1) Darfur: 1,900,000 IDPs (includes 80,000 newly displaced in 2011, 45,000 IDP returns in 2011); (2) Blue Nile: 66,000 IDPs; and (3) South Kordofan: 200,000 IDPs (includes 35,000 newly displaced in 2011 who fled to Khartoum). Sources: OCHA, 2011 Humanitarian Snapshot, 7 December 2011; OCHA, UN and Partners Work Plan 2012, 9 December 2011.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Togo</td>
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<td>10,000 (2008)</td>
<td>1,500 (OCHA, November 2006)</td>
<td></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 yet to achieve a durable solution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>About 30,000</td>
<td>30,000 (UNHCR, December 2011)</td>
<td></td>
<td></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 yet to achieve a durable solution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No comprehensive surveys of IDPs have been carried out, and a significant number have been displaced more than once.</td>
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</table>
In 2011, 78,800 IDPs were living in some 120 settlements in Burundi, most of them in the north and centre of the country. The majority of IDPs were ethnic Tutsi who had been displaced by inter-communal violence which broke out after the 1993 coup and the fighting between government forces and rebel groups which followed. There has been no new displacement since 2008, when the last rebel group laid down its arms following a peace agreement with the government.

Like the rest of the population of the third-least-developed country in the world, IDPs are often extremely poor. 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. Few of them have secure tenure of the small plots they live on in these settlements.

Many IDPs still commuted in 2011 to their places of origin to cultivate their land; the older and sick among them often struggled to do so, as the fields could be several hours walk away from their settlement. Because of the distance, it was also impossible for IDPs to raise livestock or protect their crops from theft. Many widows and orphaned girls had had their land taken over by family members. Displaced members of the Batwa ethnic group, who are widely discriminated against, generally did not own land prior to their displacement and were living in particularly difficult conditions, in huts with leaf roofing set apart from other IDPs.

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The Ministry of National Solidarity, Refugee Return and Social Reintegration is responsible for 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 on durable solutions for IDPs. The group, comprised of government ministries, international partners and a civil society representative, conducted in 2011 a comprehensive survey of IDPs in settlements to inform the government’s work on durable solutions for IDPs. The survey found that of the 78,800 IDPs who were still seeking durable solutions, 85 per cent wanted to integrate locally, whereas fewer than eight per cent wanted to return to their hills of origin and the same small percentage wanted to be resettled elsewhere in the country.

Thus the overwhelming majority of IDPs wish to remain where the authorities settled them years ago during the conflict; however the ownership of the land on which some of the IDP settlements lie was being disputed in 2011. The National Commission for Land and Other Possessions (Commission Nationale des Terres et autres Biens or CNTB), a government body set up to find solutions for people who lost their possessions due to the conflict, was working to solve land disputes on around 30 IDP settlements, following applications by people claiming to own the land.

Developments in 2011 could give IDPs a greater chance of achieving a durable solution. A new comprehensive land code enacted in August offers rural communities a more flexible and appropriate process for ensuring security of tenure, and could therefore help IDPs certify their land, regardless of whether they return, integrate locally or settle elsewhere. A national villagisation programme started in 2011, under which some of the population is expected to move into villages so that land use is rationalised and access to basic services improved. The programme could offer opportunities to IDPs as well as to repatriated refugees if it includes a stream for “vulnerable people”.

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 2011.
Six per cent of the 4.5 million citizens of the Central African Republic (CAR) were either internally displaced or living as refugees in neighbouring countries in 2011. In December, the UN estimated the number of IDPs at 105,000, including about 22,000 people who were newly displaced during the year, either in the south-east of the country by attacks by the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA) or in the north-east by fighting between rebels of the Convention of Patriots for Justice and Peace (Conseil des patriotes pour la justice et la paix or CPJP) and the Union of Democratic Forces for Unity (Union des forces démocratiques pour le rassemblement ou UFDR). At the end of the year, the LRA had displaced more than 26,000 people in CAR since 2008.

Armed conflict broke out in 2005 between the government of President François Bozizé and armed opposition groups, including the CPJP, UFDR and the People’s Army for the Restoration of Democracy (Armée populaire pour la restauration de la démocratie or APRD), who were 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 groups known as coupeurs de route who took advantage of the security vacuum left by badly equipped, badly trained and often absent government forces; these groups were still active at the end of 2011.

2011 was marked by important national and international commitments that could bring stability to CAR. President François Bozizé was elected to a third term in office in January. The government signed an agreement in June with the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), South Sudan and Uganda, to deploy a joint military force against the LRA managed by the AU, and in October the USA deployed 100 military advisors to CAR to support this objective. In June the government and the CPJP signed a ceasefire agreement.

Other events could have a positive impact on the protection of IDPs. In August the disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration of former combatants commenced; the UN signed action plans with APRD and CPJP in October and November on ending the recruitment and use of child soldiers; and in December the UN Security Council extended the mandate of the Integrated Office for Peacebuilding in CAR (BINUCA) by a year.

However, despite these developments, security in CAR remained fragile in 2011. Fighting in the north-east between CPJP and UFDR increased the risk of a resurgence of conflict, while the lack of funds to complete the DDR of former combatants and much-needed security sector reform also put the peace process at risk. Meanwhile, the government’s inability to control its territory made CAR a base for foreign armed groups including the LRA and the Chadian Popular Front for Recovery (Front populaire pour le redressement ou FPR) in the north-west.

The government was in the process of adopting a national IDP policy, but it had yet to enact national legislation to protect IDPs, despite its obligation to incorporate the Guiding Principles into domestic legislation under the Great Lakes Pact on Security, Stability and Development in the Great Lakes Region and the Pact’s Protocol on the Protection and Assistance to Internally Displaced Persons.

The humanitarian response to internal displacement remained limited in 2011 due to the absence of even the minimum funding needed to protect and assist IDPs, and because humanitarian access continued to be blocked in several conflict zones. In 2011, the humanitarian community increased its efforts to improve baseline information on IDPs, supporting a profiling exercise in the north-east while OCHA conducted a nationwide review of IDP figures. The profiling exercise found that 23 per cent of IDPs in the north-east had integrated locally and that most host communities were also affected by conflict and insecurity and unable to access their fields for farming. The OCHA study recommended the development of a displacement monitoring framework to monitor the specific needs of IDPs, and called for a nationwide collection of data disaggregated by sex and age, to be reinforced by the inclusion of IDPs in the upcoming 2013 census. Using improved baseline information, OCHA estimated that at least 66,000 people had returned to their villages of origin in the north-west of the country.

By December 2011, only 48 per cent of the $142 million requested in the 2011 CAP appeal for humanitarian funds had been met. This included $5 million allocated by the UN’s Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF) for underfunded emergencies. While funding for the education sector increased from 33 per cent of the requested sum in 2010 to 64 per cent in 2011, funding for the protection sector dropped from 42 to 21 per cent.
At the end of 2011, 126,000 people were still internally displaced in eastern Chad, five years after being forced to flee armed conflict between government forces and armed opposition groups, inter-ethnic violence over land and natural resources, or attacks by criminal groups known as *coupeurs de route*. Most IDPs were living in camps where they had limited access to livelihoods and continued to rely on the support of international humanitarian organisations.

While the conflict and violence had largely abated and no new internal displacement was reported in 2011, the lack of basic services and ongoing insecurity in areas of return prevented the majority of IDPs from returning to their villages of origin. Since 2008, only 30 per cent of all IDPs, or 56,000 people, had returned. For this reason, the government and the international community started to promote other settlement options besides return, including the conversion of remaining IDP camps into locally integrated communities.

Presidential elections were held in April 2011, and President Idriss Déby was re-elected for a fourth term in office, securing 89 per cent of the vote. The three main opposition candidates boycotted the election after their demands for electoral reform were not met. Despite being an oil producer, Chad ranked 183rd out of 187 countries in the 2011 Human Development Index, making it one of the least-developed countries.

The overall national response to internal displacement in Chad continued to be insufficient. In 2007, the government established a national committee to assist IDPs, the *Comité national d’assistance aux personnes déplacées* or CNAPD, and in 2008, it also set up the *Coordination nationale d’appui à la force internationale au Tchad* or CONAFIT to coordinate humanitarian activities with UN peacekeeping troops and humanitarian organisations. The impact of these bodies has been limited as neither has had the staff or resources that would allow them to provide assistance and facilitate durable solutions for IDPs.

However, the government has since undertaken a number of initiatives which could have a positive impact on the protection of IDPs if they are properly implemented and monitored. In 2010, the improvement of relations between Chad and Sudan enabled the deployment of a joint border security force and the establishment of a security office to facilitate humanitarian operations after UN peacekeeping troops known as MINURCAT withdrew from the country. The government also signed the N’Djamena Declaration to end the recruitment and use of children by armed forces and groups.

In 2011, the government ratified the Kampala Convention, signed an action plan with the UN to end the recruitment and use of children by the country’s security forces, and signed a joint agreement with the governments of the Central African Republic (CAR) and Sudan to strengthen economic ties by deregulating trade, building roads and establishing new flight routes. However, despite these welcome developments, by December 2011 the government of Chad had yet to enact national legislation to protect IDPs.

The response to the 2011 emergencies and the protracted situation of Chadian IDPs and refugees from Darfur and CAR has also been limited by a lack of international commitment, particularly in areas related to Chad’s recovery from conflict. The CAP appeal for humanitarian funds for 2011 requested $535 million, but by December only 57 per cent of this sum had been funded. Several sectors of assistance remained seriously underfunded, including the education and protection sectors which were only funded at nine and ten per cent, respectively. The early recovery sector had not received any funding by December 2011, despite the intentions of the government and the humanitarian community to shift from relief efforts to recovery.

The UN’s Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF) allocated $25.5 million to respond to the problems of food insecurity, cholera and polio outbreaks, and the return of Chadians from Libya, making Chad the largest recipient of CERF funds in West and Central Africa in 2011.
Violence following the disputed presidential election of late 2010 caused major new displacement in 2011 in Côte d’Ivoire. Violent clashes followed the second round of voting in November 2010 after both candidates, Alassane Ouattara and incumbent president Laurent Gbagbo, claimed victory. The elections were supposed to conclude the long-drawn-out peace process following the armed conflict that broke out in 2002.

There were no consolidated estimates on the number of people internally displaced by either conflict at the end of 2011. Estimates of the number still displaced following the post-election violence ranged between 186,000 and 247,000. Meanwhile, it was not clear how many of the million or more people displaced by the earlier conflict or by localised communal conflicts over the last decade had found a durable solution.

Following the second round of the election, both candidates claimed victory after the provisional results showed a victory for Ouattara. Fighting between the two camps was reported in the west of the country and in the largest city Abidjan until April, when Gbagbo was captured and arrested and Ouattara took office. Most members of the newly formed Forces Républiques de Côte d’Ivoire (FRCI) fighting in support of Ouattara had been in the former New Forces (Forces Nouvelles) armed opposition. At the height of the crisis in March, UNHCR reported that up to a million people were thought to be displaced, including over 700,000 within or from Abidjan, and 150,000 in the west of the country. More than 200,000 people fled to neighbouring countries.

By the end of 2011, security had largely improved. In the west, however, criminal activities as well as the cross-border movement of armed groups and inter-communal clashes continued, while clashes were ongoing in Abidjan between FRCI factions and between them and pro-Gbagbo groups. In September, a truth and reconciliation commission following the conflict that broke out in 2002 was at the end of 2011 reviewing a strategic plan drafted by the international community to facilitate the return of those displaced.

Most of the IDPs found refuge with family and friends; at the end of the year, there had been no survey of their number but international humanitarian agencies estimated that some 170,000 remained in this situation. More information was available on IDPs who had gathered in public or privately owned sites including churches and schools. In October, some 16,000 IDPs were still living in such sites in the west and in Abidjan. Those on private property were under increasing pressure to leave as the owners tried to reclaim it, but they could not return to their homes as they feared reprisal attacks.

Both sides reportedly committed serious violations of human rights and international humanitarian law. Pro-Gbagbo forces were reportedly responsible for killings and massacres of civilians in the west as well as indiscriminate shelling and ethnically-motivated killings and rapes in Abidjan. In July, the UN reported 26 extrajudicial executions and 85 cases of arbitrary arrest and illegal detention in just one month, most committed by supporters of Ouattara, while eight mass graves were uncovered. Sexual violence was perpetrated by both sides on the basis of victims’ political or ethnic identity, sometimes publicly or in front of family members. There was also a sharp rise in the recruitment of children into militia groups. In the west, militias and self-defence groups threatened the lives of people including IDPs who had fled to supposedly safer locations, while armed robberies and racketeering were also common.

Following the arrest of Gbagbo, most people displaced since the election reportedly returned without assistance to their places of origin or habitual residence. However, inter-community tensions and land disputes continued in areas of return and also caused further displacements. Land disputes, between Ivorians considered native to communities in western regions and migrants originating from other regions or from other West African countries were among the triggers of Côte d’Ivoire’s conflicts, with “natives” contesting migrants’ right to land. In 2011 as in previous years, many IDPs returned to find the plots they had planted either sold or leased by others.

The Ministry of Employment, Social Affairs and Solidarity was charged with ensuring the coordination of the humanitarian response. The national committee it set up in October was at the end of 2011 reviewing a strategic plan drafted by the international community to facilitate the return of those IDPs who were still in sites.

The cluster system for humanitarian coordination was reactivated in January 2011, after international agencies had shifted their focus towards development activities in 2010. Ten clusters were activated including a protection cluster which included child protection, gender-based violence and social cohesion sub-clusters. Initially, continued fighting stopped humanitarian agencies reaching the populations in need; as the security improved, access increased but lack of funding increasingly limited the response, especially in the west.
Democratic Republic of the Congo

Quick facts

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Number of IDPs</th>
<th>1,710,000</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>Causes of displacement</td>
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<td>Human development index</td>
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</table>

At the end of 2011, an estimated 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. The vast majority of those currently displaced had fled since the start of large-scale military operations against armed groups in eastern DRC in early 2009, or from the attacks and violence against civilians perpetrated by all parties to the conflicts.

In 2011, many areas of the country, particularly in the east, were outside government control, and the army had limited success in defeating various armed groups. Members of both the army and rebel groups continued to commit human rights violations and abuses, including killings, sexual exploitation, abduction, forced conscription of children, looting, plundering of crops, illegal taxation and widespread harassment. The perpetrators of abuses continued to enjoy general impunity; while millions of civilians have suffered as a result of the violence, only a handful of perpetrators have ever been brought to justice.

In 2011, army units were withdrawn from zones in North and South Kivu, to be trained before their redeployment. This left local communities with less protection, including many in areas which were already prone to insecurity; armed groups were accordingly able to retake old positions and attack civilians. At the end of the year, an estimated 540,000 people were displaced within North Kivu and 520,000 in South Kivu. South Kivu villagers also found refuge in neighbouring Maniema and Katanga, which hosted around 55,000 and 74,000 IDPs respectively at the end of the year.

There were also significant displacements in Orientale Province in 2011. Attacks in Lower Uele and Upper Uele Districts by the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA), land conflicts between different ethnic groups in Ituri District, and military operations against the ADF/NALU armed group in neighbouring North Kivu brought the number of IDPs in the province to over 340,000.

While some 800,000 people managed to return home between mid-2010 and mid-2011, few did so in the second half of 2011 because of heightened insecurity and the climate of uncertainty due to the impending elections.

Ethnic tensions and the occupation of IDPs’ land also prevented their safe return. Many IDPs have sought to integrate in their place of displacement or settle elsewhere, following the destruction or occupation of their villages. However, there progress has not been monitored, with humanitarian organisations only following some return movements.

IDPs are dispersed in rural and urban areas, where they have either supported themselves or relied on the limited resources of host communities. As these communities have been increasingly unable to cope with the influx, IDPs in North Kivu have also been forced to take refuge either in informal camps or in formal camps managed by international NGOs and coordinated by UNHCR. Estimates of the number of IDPs outside camps have remained very approximate.

Most IDPs and returning IDPs have lacked access to basic services such as health care, education, water and sanitation and transportation infrastructure, and are in need of food, seeds, tools, clothes and building materials, in what was by 2011 the least developed country in the world. 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.

A major challenge is that those with the most urgent need of assistance are increasingly dispersed and unreachable in remote and insecure areas.

Measures adopted by the central government and provincial authorities have not met the needs of IDPs. While the Ministry for Solidarity and Humanitarian Affairs is responsible for IDPs, there is no policy or legislation in place to guide its work, and it has rarely provided direct assistance to IDPs. Nonetheless, DRC has signed, but not ratified, the Kampala Convention, and has ratified the Great Lakes Pact.

The protection cluster led by UNHCR monitors the protection needs of conflict-affected populations including IDPs in the eastern provinces, and has called for better protection by military and civilian authorities, as well as the UN peacekeeping mission MONUSCO.

While humanitarian funding in DRC grew six-fold between 2002 and 2010, from $98 million to $585 million, yearly humanitarian appeals have remained under-funded. In addition to emergency assistance, the government and the UN and its partners continued to implement their stabilisation plans for eastern DRC, which include the facilitation of the return and reintegration of IDPs and refugees.
Several waves of conflict have caused large-scale internal displacement in Ethiopia. From 1977 to 1978, the country was at war with Somalia in which the United States and the former Soviet Union were involved. 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.

Ethiopia has also experienced decades of violence between ethnic groups over resources, and fighting between government forces and insurgent movements seeking autonomy. In 2011 as in previous years, displacement was caused by localised violence in regions including Gambella and Benishangul-Gumuz, and by ongoing protracted armed struggles for self-determination in Oromiya and Somali regions. In Somali region in the south-east of the country, fighting between the Ogaden National Liberation Front and government forces had been ongoing for over three decades.

In all these contexts, information on the scale of the displacement and the ongoing situation of IDPs has remained difficult to obtain due to restrictions on access. As of December 2011, humanitarian organisations 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 safety in the bush, rather than gathering in organised camps.

In displacement-affected regions including Somali, southern Oromiya and Gambella, the food security, health, nutrition and access to water of communities were all of major concern. The government and its international partners provided humanitarian assistance to communities in these areas, not primarily because they had been displaced but because they were affected by natural disasters.

The government has sought to resolve conflicts and violence through regional authorities, but their impact has remained limited. Ethiopia was one of the first countries to sign the Kampala Convention, but had not ratified it by the end of 2011.
Kenya

Quick facts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Generalised violence, human rights violations</td>
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<tr>
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</table>

There have been several distinct situations of internal displacement in Kenya, each varying in terms of its cause, duration and the number of people affected.

The largest displacement in recent years followed the disputed presidential election of December 2007. When the results were contested, widespread politically motivated violence displaced over 660,000 people. Many of them were still displaced at the end of 2011, with large numbers still unable to return home or rebuild their lives in the place they were displaced to or elsewhere. Despite government efforts to return and resettle the majority of those displaced, a number of IDPs still remained displaced, either among host communities or in the few remaining camps, settlements and transit sites.

In 2008, the government of Kenya, through “Operation Rudi Nyumbani”, resettled a large number of IDPs in so-called “transit sites” near their places of origin. However, some have remained trapped in the camps they first sought shelter in, and efforts to resettle them have been hindered by corruption and resistance from communities on whose land the government wanted to relocate IDPs. For example, Masai politicians have opposed the resettlement of Kikuyu IDPs on what they claim is their ancestral lands.

A 2011 study comparing the situation of IDPs in Nairobi with that of longer-term residents and also people who had migrated there voluntarily found that IDPs were worse off in several respects. Long-term residents were in the best situation, and in some aspects IDPs and migrants shared similar experiences. However, IDPs were most likely to live in inadequate housing in high-risk areas, with worse access to essentials such as drinking water. IDPs were also less securely employed than others.

In 2011, most new displacement was a result of localised violence and incursions into northern Kenya by armed groups from Somalia and Ethiopia. In March, over 20,000 people were displaced from the town of Mandera by fighting between the Kenyan armed forces and members of the Somali Al-Shabaab group who had crossed the border from Somalia to engage in criminal activities in Kenya. The Ethiopian army crossed into Mandera to support the Kenyan forces, but its intervention caused further displacement as civilians fled the area for fear of reprisal attacks.

In Isiolo in central Kenya and in the northern town of Moyale, inter-ethnic violence over scarce water and pasture resources caused the death of over 50 people and displaced thousands of families. The Oromo Liberation Front (OLF), an Ethiopian armed group that has been fighting the Ethiopian government for the independence of Ethiopia’s Oromiya Region, reportedly also took part in the fighting in northern Kenya. The OLF operates in southern Ethiopia and at times seek refuge in northern Kenya.

There was no national data on IDPs available in 2011; the government has not carried out an exercise to profile their number and locations in most parts of the country. A report published in February 2011 by the Kenya Human Rights Commission and the National IDP Network found that the profiling that had taken place was flawed and affected by corruption; many IDPs, in particular the so-called “integrated IDPs”, had been excluded from the figures and thus the assistance due to them.

The government and its partners made progress in 2011 towards implementing a national IDP policy. After the government and the Protection Working Group presented a draft policy in March 2010, the Parliamentary Select Committee on the Resettlement of IDPs prepared a bill for its adoption, to go before parliament in 2012. Incorporating the Guiding Principles into domestic legislation and policies was an obligation under the Protection and Assistance to Internally Displaced Persons. The government and its partners made progress in 2011 towards implementing a national IDP policy. After the government and the Protection Working Group presented a draft policy in March 2010, the Parliamentary Select Committee on the Resettlement of IDPs prepared a bill for its adoption, to go before parliament in 2012. Incorporating the Guiding Principles into domestic legislation and policies was an obligation under the Protection and Assistance to Internally Displaced Persons.

An outstanding barrier to the resolution of displacement in Kenya is that its perpetrators have long enjoyed impunity. The government has not repealed the 1972 Indemnity Act which shields security forces from prosecution for human rights violations, including killings of nomadic Kenyan Somalis in the 1960s which caused massive displacement. Nor have the instigators of the violence that led to displacements in the 1990s in the Rift Valley and other parts of the country been brought to justice.

In 2011, however, in a landmark in the fight against impunity, the ICC brought cases against six high-profile figures who allegedly bore the greatest responsibility for the post-election violence, including charges of instigating and financing violence.
Liberia

Quick facts

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Up to 500,000 people were internally displaced in Liberia during the 14-year civil war which ended in 2003 with the Accra Comprehensive Peace Agreement. In 2011, the number of remaining IDPs was unknown. There had been little or no follow-up on the few thousand people who remained in former camps after the return process came to an end in 2007, or on those who found refuge in Monrovia.

At the height of the conflict, the population of Monrovia nearly tripled as waves of IDPs arrived from conflict-affected rural areas. It is likely that the majority of slum dwellers in the city in 2011 had been IDPs.

By the end of 2011, the Liberian government and its international counterparts considered that the internal displacement situation had ended. Nonetheless, it is unclear how many IDPs have found durable solutions. In urban areas, they have remained at risk of eviction because their tenure of slum dwellings is not protected; in rural areas, continuing disputes over the use and ownership of land in return areas have prevented their return becoming sustainable.

The failure to resolve these issues has stood in the way of long-term security. Gender-based violence against women and girls has remained widespread and people’s access to justice has remained limited.

In October 2010, Liberia’s Land Commission convened a conference to formulate guidelines for the development of an urban land policy, as a first step to address the land issues in the country. At the end of 2011, the policy was yet to be developed.

In October 2011, President Ellen Johnson Sirleaf was re-elected to a second term in office. 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.

Niger

Quick facts

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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 borders with Mali and Burkina Faso. Estimates of their numbers have been scarce as no monitoring mechanisms are in place. In 2007, some 11,000 people were reported displaced by clashes between the army and a new Tuareg militant group, the Niger Movement for Justice (MNJ); at the end of 2011, it was unknown how many were still displaced.

The Tuareg insurgency broke out in 1990, driven by economic and political grievances. A 1995 agreement between the government and the different Tuareg factions put a halt to the violence, but the MNJ emerged in 2007 as Tuareg demands had not been met. The armed conflict abated in 2009 following talks between the government and the MNJ.

According to the ICRC, inter-communal violence has increased since 2009 in some areas including Tillabéry in north-west Niger. In 2011, Al-Qa’eda in the Islamic Maghreb extended its insurgent activities over the border from northern Mali. Levels of poverty and food insecurity also grew during the year; droughts and floods led to further displacement and the continuing degradation of rural land, while instability in neighbouring countries including Côte d’Ivoire, Libya and Nigeria meant that households could not rely on remittances from migrant workers there.

The government of Mamadou Tandja was overthrown in a military coup in 2010 and defeated by the opposition of Mahamadou Issoufou in presidential elections in March 2011. The humanitarian community has focused its efforts on responding to the increasing food insecurity in the country, by targeting vulnerable groups including people internally displaced by drought and flooding in 2010.
Nigeria

Quick facts

<table>
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</tr>
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<td>Human development index</td>
<td>142</td>
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</table>

During 2011, thousands of people were displaced by post-election violence, clashes between the Boko Haram sect and security forces in the north and continuing inter-communal clashes across Nigeria. The country has experienced recurring conflicts since its return to democracy in 1999 after military rule, which have led to fluctuating but consistently large numbers of IDPs. Among recent examples, violence in Plateau State in 2010 and clashes between government forces and militants in the Niger Delta in 2009 each displaced thousands of people.

Following a year-long survey between October 2010 and October 2011, the National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) reported that there were some 370,000 IDPs in the country, including some 74,000 in camps. Further details were not available as the full survey results were not made public. Previous estimates by government and other agencies only included people who had sought shelter at temporary IDP camps, and did not reflect the many who had taken refuge with family and friends. Numbers were not usually disaggregated by age and sex and only referred to localised displacement situations. In the absence of mechanisms to monitor IDPs’ ongoing situations, it has been impossible to determine how many may have recovered and achieved a durable solution.

In April 2011, Nigeria held presidential elections won by incumbent Goodluck Jonathan of the ruling People’s Democratic Party. Widespread protests by supporters of the main opposition candidate broke out after the official results were released, which quickly degenerated into violent riots and sectarian killings and led to the displacement of some 65,000 people across the northern states. There was no monitoring of whether these IDPs were prevented from voting in the subsequent elections of state governors, but many of them were reportedly not planning to go back to the villages where they were registered to vote, for fear of further violence.

In northern Nigeria, civilians were killed and others displaced and their property destroyed in increasingly violent attacks which were reportedly linked to members of the Boko Haram or other armed groups. According to Amnesty International, the security forces were also responsible for indiscriminate and excessive use of force in response to the attacks. Ongoing sporadic bombings, killings and violent threats by Boko Haram members prevented many of the people displaced from returning to their homes in the year.

Meanwhile, inter-communal violence fuelled by widespread poverty and disputes over resources continued across the country. After the violence which displaced thousands of people in early 2010 in Plateau State, new clashes broke out in the state’s capital Jos, killing 20 people and causing the displacement of a further 4,000 according to the Nigerian Red Cross Society. A resettlement programme was initiated by NEMA and the Bauchi State government in 2010 for the IDPs who were unwilling to return to Jos; by January 2011, NEMA reported that about 5,000 IDPs had been resettled in Bauchi.

Elsewhere in Bauchi and Akwa Ibom States, long-standing land disputes degenerated at the beginning of 2011 into inter-communal clashes, forcing many residents, especially women and children, to flee.

Natural disasters such as flooding have also regularly caused internal displacement in Nigeria. In conflict-affected states, these natural disasters have complicated displacement and return patterns.

In 2011, Nigeria ratified the Kampala Convention, but the instruments of ratification were not deposited at the AU before the end of the year. Meanwhile, the government still had not formally adopted the national IDP policy which it had drafted in 2003 and revised in 2009.

The response to internal displacement, including both assistance and protection measures, has been generally included under disaster management mechanisms. In the absence of national policy and legal frameworks, local authorities have taken responsibility to respond to displacement. Some states have state emergency management agencies, 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. The National Commission for Refugees has taken on the role of providing longer-term support measures enabling durable solutions for IDPs and refugees. However, the Commission lacks resources and its role and mandate to assist IDPs is unclear. There has been no consistent drive to promote durable solutions for IDPs.

The UN Country Team has established the Emergency Preparedness and Response Working Group to implement inter-agency disaster preparedness and response activities more effectively. Responses to internal displacement follow roles and responsibilities under the cluster system, even though this has not been formally adopted.
Successive peace agreements have failed to put an end to conflict in Senegal’s Casamance region, where government forces and the separatist Movement of Democratic Forces in the Casamance (MFDC) have been fighting intermittently since 1982. The ongoing conflict has been caused by factors including cultural discrimination, a lack of livelihood opportunities and an influx of people from other regions following a land reform programme imposed by the government.

There was no reliable data on the overall number of IDPs. Many people had returned since security improved in 2008, but the number whose return had proved sustainable was unknown, as was the number who had successfully integrated in their place of displacement or settled elsewhere. Estimates ranged from 10,000 to 40,000 IDPs in 2011, including some 20,000 to 30,000 in Ziguinchor, the largest city in Casamance.

IDPs stayed with family and friends in areas they deemed to be safe. Their limited access to land meant they had few livelihood opportunities, but the presence of landmines and the continuing insecurity prevented many from returning to farm in their villages of origin. Infrastructure and basic services also remained poor in areas of return.

Senegal

Quick facts

| Number of IDPs | 10,000–40,000 |
| Percentage of total population | 0.1–0.3% |
| Start of current displacement situation | 1982 |
| Peak number of IDPs (Year) | 70,000 (2007) |
| New displacement | Undetermined |
| Causes of displacement | Armed conflict |

Anecdotal evidence has indicated that older IDPs wish to return while younger generations are more interested in integrating locally, especially in urban centres.

Senegal has signed but not ratified the Kampala Convention, and it has not created national bodies or implemented legislation or policies in support of IDPs. Instead, IDPs have been included in wider reconstruction, peacebuilding and development activities, such as the Programme for Revival of Economic and Social Activities. International agencies have also targeted wider populations with programmes on food security, education, demobilisation and reintegration of combatants, and reconstruction in areas of return. Demining operations continued in 2011.

Somalia

Quick facts

| Number of IDPs | 1,460,000 |
| Percentage of total population | 16% |
| Start of current displacement situation | 1988 |
| Peak number of IDPs (Year) | 1,500,000 (2007) |
| New displacement | 100,000 |
| Causes of displacement | Armed conflict, deliberate policy or practice of arbitrary displacement, generalised violence, human rights violations |

In 2011 the humanitarian crisis in Somalia continued to worsen due to a combination of generalised violence, conflict between the government and its allies and insurgent groups, and drought across the Horn of Africa that contributed to famine conditions in south and central Somalia.

The famine threatened the lives of many of the 1.5 million people displaced within Somalia by the conflict, and forced many more to flee again in search of lifesaving assistance. By August, malnutrition rates among internally displaced populations in the capital Mogadishu and the nearby “Algooye corridor” were up to three times the critical emergency threshold. At the end of 2011, despite the arrival of the short rainy season, IDPs across southern and central areas still faced severe food security and protection problems.

The ongoing conflict also caused new displacement. In July, Al-Shabaab withdrew thousands of fighters from areas in and around Mogadishu. However, in October, renewed fighting forced people to flee once more from the capital. Meanwhile, conflict continued across south and central Somalia: fighting between the Al-Shabaab insurgents and the Transitional Federal Government supported by the AU Mission in Somalia forced people to flee in Lower Shabelle, Benadir, Gedo and Middle Juba. Meanwhile, alongside the conflict, fighting between different insurgent groups and factions and localised violence over water and pasture resources were continuing to cause displacement.

The number of IDPs has remained between 1.4 and 1.5 million since 2007. UNHCR and its partners have collected information on the movement of populations in Somalia through the Population Movement Tracking system. Most of the populations identified as displaced are believed to have fled their
The health situation of IDPs deteriorated in 2011 as a result of the continuing conflict and famine. The country faced outbreaks of cholera, diarhoea, malaria, measles and pneumonia, most of them in the IDP hosting areas in the south.

With the drought destroying crops, reducing livestock levels and exhausting people’s resources, and much of the food assistance allowed into the country diverted by parties to the conflict, IDPs were also the group most affected by the food crisis, as they lacked money to buy food.

Somalia has signed but not ratified the AU Convention for the Protection and Assistance to IDPs. In any case, its implementation will remain a major challenge for many years to come given the prevailing insecurity, weak government institutions and the country’s limited resources. Assistance to IDPs in south and central Somalia is mostly provided by local businesses and civil society organisations, while further north in Somaliland and Puntland there is wider access and the responses of local actors have also been mostly positive.

Somalia has long presented a challenging operating environment for aid agencies. Nonetheless, they made significant life-saving interventions during the first half of 2011: one million people received food assistance and emergency health care activities reached nearly 40 per cent of the two million people in need. In November, Al-Shabaab announced a ban on the operations of 16 aid agencies in areas under its control. Despite such barriers and the ongoing insecurity, it will continue to be necessary to seek ways of engaging with groups obstructing access to IDPs.

Upper Nile, inter-tribal violence in Jonglei, Lakes, Unity and Warrap, and attacks by the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA) in Western Bahr el-Ghazal and Western Equatoria.

This figure also included 110,000 people displaced by fighting between the Sudan Armed Forces (SAF) and the SPLA in Abyei in May. Abyei is a contested area between Sudan and South Sudan, and people displaced from Abyei sought refuge in South Sudan. After the fighting, the UN Security Council established the UN Interim Security Force for Abyei (UNISFA) to monitor the border and protect civilians and humanitarian workers. In December 2011, the Security Council extended the mandate of UNISFA until the end of May 2012. The governments of Sudan and South Sudan had yet to facilitate returns by withdrawing their respective forces from the area, which was a precondition for the withdrawal of UNISFA.

At the end of the year, the UN estimated that 360,000 southerners had returned to South Sudan from the north since October 2010. However, they returned to locations near border areas with virtually no social services or economic opportunities to support their reintegration.

The UN also estimated that there were 700,000 southerners remaining in Khartoum who had been internally displaced there.
before the secession of South Sudan and whose citizenship status had yet to be resolved. Their protection needs should also be addressed as they have lost Sudanese citizenship with the new nationality law, but may not have access to documents confirming their South Sudan citizenship. It is unclear if they have any options for durable solutions. Following the end of government-funded support for returns, thousands of others who were also displaced in Khartoum before the independence of South Sudan were stranded at departure points or in transit stations waiting to return to South Sudan. The long waiting periods and lack of services in these places remained of concern to the humanitarian community.

Both Sudan and South Sudan faced enormous challenges during the latter’s first months of statehood, including: the escalation of violence and conflict along their border; disagreements over its demarcation and over the water and grazing rights of nomadic groups who move through border areas; and unresolved disputes over the sharing of oil revenues, as oil fields are mostly in the south but the infrastructure to export oil is in the north. The inter-tribal conflicts were driven, and further displacement threatened, by widespread food insecurity. As the government worked to build new state institutions, South Sudan was one of the poorest and least developed countries in the world at the end of 2011. More than half of its population of 8.3 million people were living on less than $1 per day, and the country lacked social services and transport infrastructure.

The international response to the multiple emergencies was limited by the insecurity. Many displacement-affected areas in South Sudan remained difficult to access, preventing vulnerable groups from obtaining urgently needed assistance and making the delivery of assistance extremely expensive. Responding to the emergency needs of returnees also remained a priority for the international community.

As well as UNISFA in Abyei, the UN Security Council also established the UN Mission in the Republic of South Sudan (UNMISS) on the day of independence, to consolidate peace and security and help establish conditions for the new government to govern effectively and democratically.

The 2011 CAP appeal for humanitarian funds for South Sudan was launched shortly after the declaration of independence. By December, 56 per cent of the $620 million requested had been met. While the food security and emergency shelter sectors were funded at 85 and 77 per cent, other sectors remained seriously underfunded, including health, water and sanitation (both at 53 per cent) and protection at only 20 per cent. The UN’s Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF) allocated almost $23 million to assist people displaced by violence in Abyei and along the border with Sudan, and IDPs returning home after independence.

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**Sudan**

On 9 July 2011, after more than 50 years of civil war, the Republic of South Sudan declared independence from Sudan.

Until that point, Sudan had been the largest country in Africa and also the country with the largest number of IDPs in the world – between 4.5 and 5.2 million people at the end of 2010. While new figures for both countries were estimated by the UN at the end of the year, large information gaps remained.

The UN estimated that at least 2.2 million people remained internally displaced in Sudan at the end of 2011. This figure includes 1.9 million IDPs in Darfur, 200,000 IDPs in South Kordofan, and 66,000 IDPs in Blue Nile.

This figure does not include 110,000 people displaced by fighting between the Sudan Armed Forces (SAF) and the Sudan People’s Liberation Army (SPLA) in Abyei in May. Abyei is a contested area between Sudan and South Sudan, and people displaced from Abyei sought refuge in South Sudan. After the fighting, the UN Security Council established the UN Interim Security Force for Abyei (UNISFA) to monitor the border and protect civilians and humanitarian workers. In December, the Security Council extended the mandate of UNISFA until the end of May 2012. The governments of Sudan and South Sudan had yet to facilitate returns by withdrawing their respective forces from the area, which was a precondition for the withdrawal of UNISFA.

In the non-Arab South Kordofan State, conflict broke out between the SAF and the Sudan People’s Liberation Movement-North (SPLM-N) in June 2011, and also in Blue Nile State in September; these conflicts were ongoing at the end of the year. The fighting displaced 200,000 people in South Sudan.
Kordofan and 66,000 in Blue Nile. The UN and international NGOs had difficulty in verifying these figures because they were unable to access displaced communities. However, it is believed that IDPs remained in urgent need of assistance, as fighting took place at the height of the “hunger gap” between the two harvests and interrupted agricultural production as well as access to food markets.

The UN also estimated that there were 700,000 people remaining in Khartoum who had been internally displaced there before the independence of South Sudan and whose citizenship status had yet to be resolved. Their protection needs should also be addressed as they have lost Sudanese citizenship with the new nationality law, but may not have access to documents confirming their South Sudan citizenship. It is unclear if they have any options for a durable solution.

Following the end of government-funded support for returns, thousands of others who were also displaced in Khartoum before the independence of South Sudan were stranded at departure points or in transit stations waiting to return to South Sudan. The long waiting periods and lack of services in these places remained of concern to the humanitarian community.

Continuing fighting between the government and other armed opposition groups in North and South Darfur displaced 80,000 people in 2011. However, the UN also reported the return of 45,000 IDPs in West Darfur due to improved security conditions. In July 2011, the government signed the Doha Peace Agreement with the Liberation and Justice Movement.

UNAMID, the joint AU/UN peacekeeping mission in Darfur, has struggled to protect civilians, given the scale of violence and displacement, its lack of critical resources, and interference from the Sudanese government that has stalled deployment of troops at various stages. In July 2011, its mandate was extended for one year, to ensure humanitarian access, protect civilians, and support the implementation of the Doha Peace Agreement.

In 2009, the government of Sudan adopted a national IDP policy intended to cover all of Sudan, including the southern regions. However by the end of 2011 it had taken few steps to implement the policy. Sudan has ratified the Great Lakes Pact but had yet to sign the Kampala Convention by 2011.

In October 2010, the UN Human Rights Council renewed the mandate of the independent expert on the situation of human rights in Sudan, the only mechanism providing a comprehensive overview of human rights there. The mandate of the UN Mission in Sudan (UNMIS) expired in July 2011 with the independence of South Sudan.

The 2011 CAP appeal for humanitarian funds for Sudan was the largest in the world. By December 2011, $750 million or 68 per cent of the requested $1.1 billion had been met. This included $18.3 million allocated by the UN’s Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF) for rapid response programmes for new IDPs and to support the return to South Sudan of southerners living in Sudan.

Uganda

Quick facts

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</tr>
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</table>

The conflict in northern Uganda between the government and the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA) began in 1988, but large-scale displacement dated from 1996, when the government forced people in the Acholi region in the north to move into camps under its “protected villages” policy. An unknown number of people fled to towns and cities in other parts of Uganda.

The government and the LRA signed the Cessation of Hostilities Agreement in 2006. By the end of 2011, thanks to improved security, most of the 1.8 million IDPs in camps at the height of the conflict had returned to their area of origin or settled in new locations. However, recovery and development efforts in return areas have not been sufficient, and returned IDPs have endured continuing difficulties in the face of inadequate basic services and limited support to rebuild their livelihoods.

The majority of the 30,000 IDPs remaining in dismantled camps either cannot manage the return process on their own due to their age, illness or disability, or they have no land to go back to. This is the case of many widows and orphans who cannot recover the land of their deceased husbands and fathers.

By the end of 2010, all humanitarian coordination functions had been taken over by the national authorities. Responsibility for the protection of IDPs was then transferred to the Uganda Human Rights Commission.

Uganda adopted the National IDP Policy in 2004 and started to implement the Peace, Recovery and Development Plan for Northern Uganda in 2008. However their impact in enabling durable solutions for IDPs has been limited given the considerable investment. The country is a party to the Great Lakes Pact, and in January 2010 Uganda became the first country to ratify the Kampala Convention.
In 2011, the situation of IDPs in Zimbabwe varied widely, depending on the reasons for their displacement and the length of time they had been displaced. Accordingly, their needs ranged from emergency humanitarian assistance to interventions aimed at securing a durable solution. For a significant proportion of them, insecure tenure over either land or housing presented a major obstacle to their integration in the place they had been displaced to. Information on the number of people internally displaced in the country was not available as of the end of the year.

People in Zimbabwe have been internally displaced as a result of different government policies and actions. Groups of IDPs include former farm workers and their families who were either evicted from their homes on farms which were affected by the fast-track land reform programme, or forced to leave after losing their jobs on those farms. Others were displaced as a result of arbitrary evictions in Zimbabwe’s towns and cities, and still others by government campaigns against informal mine workers, or by politically motivated violence. Of the last group, most have been able to return home since the 2008 elections.

The response to internal displacement in Zimbabwe improved significantly in recent years. The new government started to acknowledge the existence of internal displacement in the country and in 2009 it participated with the UN in a rapid IDP assessment to determine the scope of displacement in the country. However, the findings of the assessment had not been released by the end of 2011, and plans for a more comprehensive and nationwide quantitative survey had not moved forward. Publication of the report would help the government and its partners provide appropriate assistance to IDPs, and support their achievement of durable solutions.

Humanitarian clusters were introduced in Zimbabwe in 2008. A feature in Zimbabwe is the IOM-led IDP sub-cluster under the protection cluster coordinated by UNHCR. A number of line ministries participated in cluster coordination mechanisms and they gradually allowed greater access of humanitarians to vulnerable groups including IDPs.

Increasingly in 2011, the government and its development and humanitarian partners were using community-based planning to respond to the needs of internally displaced groups and host communities together. All groups within a certain community, including IDPs, were invited to work together to identify a durable solution for IDPs and a common development plan.

The humanitarian agencies, working with national and local authorities, applied this approach in developing a framework for the voluntary resettlement of IDPs in new locations in line with the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, the IASC Framework for Durable Solutions and the AU Convention for the Protection and Assistance of IDPs in Africa (the Kampala Convention). The framework, formally endorsed by the protection cluster and the IDP sub-cluster in 2011, places emphasis on ensuring that resettled IDPs have security of tenure and livelihood opportunities. Work on similar frameworks on supporting IDPs with other settlement preferences started in 2011.

In October 2009, President Robert Mugabe was the second head of state to sign the Kampala Convention. The government, however, had not ratified the Convention by the end of 2011.
At the end of 2011, up to 5.6 million people were internally displaced in the Americas due to armed conflict, criminal violence or human rights violations. This total was some 400,000 higher than a year before. As in 2010, the rise reflected increases in the number of IDPs in Colombia and in Mexico. Colombia’s was the world’s largest internally displaced population.

The number of IDPs in Colombia continued to rise, with the number registered by the government as of September reaching 3.9 million and a reliable non-governmental observer, the Observatory on Human Rights and Displacement (Consultoría para los Derechos Humanos y el Desplazamiento or CODHES) estimating that the total was as high as 5.3 million by June 2011. Both figures were cumulative, and neither of them accounted for IDPs who may have found durable solutions.

In Mexico, the total of over 160,000 IDPs included people displaced by drug-cartel violence since 2007 and people living in protracted displacement in the state of Chiapas since the late 1990s.

In Guatemala and Peru, people remained internally displaced long after the conflicts which they had fled had ended. In Guatemala, little was known about the number or situation of people displaced by the conflict which had ended 13 years before.

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, Huánuco, Ica, Junín and Lima, where they continued to wait for forms of reparation.
New movements in 2011
In Colombia and Mexico, people were newly displaced in 2011 while others continued to live in protracted displacement. Violence perpetrated for criminal rather than ideological ends remained a primary cause of displacement. In Mexico, drug cartels continued to attack government forces, public sector workers, civilians and journalists as they fought to control trafficking routes, forcing people to flee their place of residence. Locations close to the border with the United States were particularly affected. The violence declined from 2010 levels in certain localities, but overall it continued with a similar intensity.

Much of the resulting displacement was not reported, but civil society organisations made increasing efforts in 2011 to document it. The number of people newly displaced by drug-cartel violence was only systematically tracked in Ciudad Juárez, where a survey by an academic institution revealed that almost 27,000 people fled the city and surrounding areas as a result of the violence in 2011. In Michoacán, up to 2,000 people were uprooted in one reported mass displacement event following confrontations between cartels.

In Colombia, displacement caused by former paramilitary groups, which now operated as drug-trafficking gangs with some remnants of the extreme-right ideology which initially opposed them to left-wing armed guerrilla groups, reached its highest point in 2011. Countless such groups, the most notorious being Las Águilas Negras, Los Rastrojos and Los Machos, were operating in all the country’s departments. In 2011, they were, for the first time, responsible for the highest number of mass displacements (defined as displacements of ten families or around 40 people or more). Meanwhile, the long-running internal armed conflict showed no signs of abating, despite some gains by government armed forces in 2011.

Overall in Colombia, displacement continued at a similar rate in 2011 as in the previous years. CODHES reported that some 89,000 people were displaced during the first half of 2011 (when its latest information was available). According to the government, 103,000 people were newly displaced by September 2011.

The Pacific coast departments of Antioquia, Nariño, Cauca, Valle del Cauca and Córdoba produced the highest numbers of IDPs in 2011, according to both the government and CODHES. Antioquia was the department with the highest arrival rate, and its main city, Medellín, received some 15,000 IDPs, significantly more than the capital Bogotá, which received 11,000.

Protection concerns
Threats to physical security and integrity were the biggest cause of displacement in the two countries that experienced new displacements in 2011, Mexico and Colombia. In the latter, displacement to urban areas mostly provided IDPs with the physical security they sought. In Mexico in some cases, people fleeing threats and violence from cartels reportedly did not find security in their places of displacement because they received threats from other cartels there.

Despite the fact that Colombia and Mexico had by 2011 attained high human development and income levels for decades, the access of IDPs in those countries to the basic necessities of life continued to be limited. Where data was available, it showed that IDPs had a lower access to social services than the rest of the population.
Prospects for durable solutions

Processes to provide redress for IDPs and other victims of violence moved forward in 2011 in Colombia and Peru. In Colombia, the government took steps towards implementing the “Victim’s Law” which was passed in 2010 to provide remedies to victims of the ongoing internal armed conflict. The Law includes elements to support the restitution of property to internally displaced owners. However, the early attempts to implement restitution met with resistance: the assassination of 21 proponents of land restitution during the year showed the ongoing barriers in the way of justice for IDPs.

In Peru, IDPs were included in a registry for reparations for victims of violence. However, these measures still only addressed the outstanding needs of IDPs through anti-poverty measures aimed at wider conflict-affected populations.

Long-term IDPs in all the countries monitored continued to face specific difficulties, even where the conflict they had fled had long ended. The lack of sustainable livelihoods was one critical barrier. In Guatemala there was little information, but the country’s widespread poverty – it still had the lowest level of human development in the region except for Haiti – and the lack of a focused response by the government suggested that many people had been unable to overcome the impact of their displacement.

Responses to internal displacement

In Colombia, despite continuing improvements in the government’s response, which was by far the most sophisticated in the region, programmes for IDPs continued to be insufficient. As a result, in October the Constitutional Court upheld its 2004 ruling that the government’s failure to address internal displacement, combined with the precarious situation of IDPs, amounted to a generalised violation of their human rights. Adding to over 100 previous rulings and orders since 2004, the Court ordered the government to adopt a wide range of measures to resolve this problem. Within the government’s response to this order, legislation to implement the Victim’s Law was passed at the end of 2011, and budgets allocated to fund reparations and restitution of property.

In Mexico, the government, while making no response to the situation of people displaced by drug cartel violence, presented a bill on internal displacement to the congress of Chiapas state in 2011. The bill was drafted with the support of various UN agencies and civil society organisations in Chiapas. If passed, it will be the first legislation on displacement in the country.

In Colombia, the only country covered in the region to have implemented the cluster system, international humanitarian actors continued to coordinate their activities through seven clusters in nine of the country’s departments. In 2011, they made progress towards shared frameworks for assessing needs and providing assistance.

In Mexico, international agencies were increasingly concerned in 2011 about the impacts of drug-cartel violence on the civilian population, but this did not lead to requests from the government for their intervention or to agreements to set up a response.

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<th>UN figures</th>
<th>Other figures</th>
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<td>3,876,000 – 5,281,000</td>
<td>3,473,967 (up to September 2011)</td>
<td>5,281,360 (CODHES, up to June 2011)</td>
<td>The CODHES figure is cumulative since 1985, while the government’s is cumulative since 1997. The government does not count intra-urban displacement, displacement caused by new paramilitary groups, or displacement due to crop fumigations. It includes only those registered in the national IDP registry.</td>
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<td>It is unknown whether IDPs displaced in 1980s and early 1990s have reached durable solutions.</td>
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<td>Mexico</td>
<td>About 160,000</td>
<td>About 20,000 in protracted displacement in Chiapas (Government of Chiapas)</td>
<td>141,900 (Univer- sidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez, 2011)</td>
<td>Figures include protracted displacement from the Zapatista uprising in 1994, and displacement due to drug-cartel violence since 2007.</td>
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</table>
Internal armed conflict and human rights abuses by armed groups have caused massive internal displacement in Colombia for over four decades. Parties to the conflict which continued to perpetrate displacement in 2011 included the guerrilla Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC) and National Liberation Army (ELN); the new paramilitary groups which emerged following the demobilisation of the paramilitary United Self-Defense Forces of Colombia (AUC) between 2003 and 2006; and the Colombian security forces.

According to the independent Observatory on Human Rights and Displacement (CODHES), 89,000 people were newly displaced in the first six months of 2011. According to the government, 103,000 people were displaced between January and September 2011, when the registry was last updated. These new figures show a significant increase in displacement in 2011 despite certain improvements in security.

Accordingly, in 2011, around 3.9 million people were internally displaced according to the government, and around 5.3 million according to CODHES. Both figures were cumulative and did not take into consideration that some IDPs may have found a durable solution. However, they used different counting methodologies: the government counted each registered individual, and CODHES estimated their number based on a wide array of sources. The government’s registry was set up after the CODHES count began, and has since not registered all IDPs.

A disproportionate number of women and, in particular, young people under the age of 25 have been displaced: 65 per cent of IDPs are under this age, although this group only makes up 48 per cent of the Colombian population.

Likewise, minority ethnic groups, including indigenous people and Afro-Colombians, continue to make up a significant proportion of IDPs. Six per cent of IDPs are indigenous people and 23 per cent are Afro-Colombians. These groups make up three and seven per cent of the Colombian population, respectively. They are specifically targeted by criminal groups, and their territories are located in rural areas where most confrontations between armed opposition groups and government forces take place.

The Pacific coast departments of Antioquia, Nariño, Cauca, Valle del Cauca and Córdoba produced the highest numbers of IDPs in 2011. Antioquia was the department with the highest arrival rates, and its main city, Medellín, received some 15,000 IDPs, more than Bogotá, the capital, which received 11,000.

Mass displacements (affecting 40 or more people) continued to be widespread in 2011, they followed armed clashes between all parties to the conflict and threats and attacks against Afro-Colombian and indigenous groups. New paramilitary groups were in 2011, for the first time, responsible for the highest number of these displacements. The government, OCHA and CODHES between them estimated that between 13,000 and 18,000 people were displaced in between 36 and 54 mass displacements in 2011.

IDPs continued to have only limited enjoyment of the basic necessities of life and, overall, a more limited access to basic social services than the population as a whole. Their access to housing, income generation and emergency humanitarian support remained extremely low. Only 11 per cent of IDPs had access to adequate housing; fewer than five per cent had opportunities to generate income, fewer than five per cent received humanitarian assistance, and about half experienced food insecurity. Access to education and health care was better: some 87 per cent of internally displaced children could access public education, while 85 per cent of IDPs had access to the public health care system.

Despite improvements, government programmes for IDPs continued to be insufficient. In October 2011, the Constitutional Court upheld its 2004 ruling that the precarious situation of IDPs and the government’s failure to address it amounted to a generalised violation of their human rights. The Court ordered the government to adopt a range of measures, including reporting on progress in IDPs’ access to housing, income generation opportunities and emergency humanitarian support. The Court also ordered it to make public its spending on support to IDPs.

In 2011, the government took steps towards implementing the 2010 “Victim’s Law”, which includes a number of measures for the restitution of land to IDPs. In December, it adopted secondary legislation to implement the law and allocated $3.4 billion to its forthcoming implementation. However, attempts to restitute property to IDPs met with violent resistance, as no fewer than 21 proponents of land restitution were assassinated.

In 2011, international humanitarian actors continued to coordinate their activities through seven clusters in nine of the country’s departments. In 2011, they made progress in developing shared frameworks for assessing needs and providing assistance to IDPs.
Guatemala

Quick facts

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<tbody>
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<td>Number of IDPs</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Armed conflict, human rights violations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 2011, little was known about the number and situation of people displaced by the long conflict between the government and insurgents grouped under the Guatemalan National Revolutionary Unity (Unidad Revolucionaria Nacional Guatemalteca). During the conflict, the armed forces conducted a campaign of repression and terror against the Mayan indigenous population while fighting the insurgents. The conflict ended in 1996 and left between 500,000 and 1.5 million people, most of them indigenous, internally displaced across Guatemala, with many in the shanty towns of the capital Guatemala City.

No mechanisms were set up to monitor and facilitate access to durable solutions for IDPs, but in a context of widespread poverty and scarce economic opportunity, it is unlikely that IDPs have been able to rebuild their lives and livelihoods.

Since 2007, following a crackdown by the Mexican government against drug cartels there, the cartels have reportedly increased their operations and levels of violence in Guatemala. In May 2011, the Zetas cartel killed 27 cattle ranch workers there. Drug cartel and gang violence have reportedly caused displacement, but no new information or figures were available in 2011. The new president of Guatemala, Otto Pérez Molina, has stated that the government will tackle illegal drug gangs head on. Meanwhile, as in previous years, it is believed that people have been forced to flee from poor urban neighbourhoods controlled by gangs, who extort money from families.

Violence has increased in the context of the government’s inability to build strong institutions since the transition to peace in 1996. The UN International Commission Against Impunity in Guatemala, established in 2007 to help the country fight crime, corruption and impunity, continued implementing its mandate in 2011. The possibility that Efraín Ríos Montt, the dictator under whose leadership the worst atrocities were committed, would be prosecuted after his parliamentary immunity runs out in 2012 gave indigenous communities hope of progress in addressing the prevailing impunity.

Mexico

Quick facts

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<table>
<thead>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of IDPs</td>
<td>About 160,000</td>
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<td>Percentage of total population</td>
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<td>Start of current displacement situation</td>
<td>1994</td>
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<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>At least 26,500</td>
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<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Generalised violence, human rights violations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>57</td>
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</table>

In 2011, there were several ongoing situations of internal displacement in Mexico. Possibly the largest but least-acknowledged cause of displacement was violence by drug cartels, which increased after the government sought to quash the cartels by military means from 2007. This violence has displaced tens of thousands of people, mostly in the states of Chihuahua, Tamaulipas and Nuevo León on the northern border with the USA, and also in Durango, Guerrero, Sinaloa and Michoacán.

The longest-running situation of displacement was caused in the 1990s by the uprising of the Zapatista Army of National Liberation (Ejército Zapatista de Liberación Nacional or EZLN) in Chiapas, and the group’s subsequent confrontations with government forces.

Finally, violence between and within indigenous communities in the Chiapas, Guerrero and Oaxaca, based often on religious affiliation, has also caused displacement.

In 2011 there were around 160,000 IDPs in the country, including some 140,000 people displaced by drug-cartel violence since 2007. Officials in Chiapas estimated that 20,000 people displaced during the Zapatista uprising were still living in displacement. The scale of displacement due to religious and communal violence was unknown.

During the year, tens of thousands of people were newly displaced by drug-cartel violence: confrontations between cartels in Michoacán displaced some 2,000 people, and the rest fled within a continuing flow of smaller displacements. Ciudad Juárez in Chihuahua was one of the places most affected by this gradual displacement: the Autonomous University of Ciudad Juárez (Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez) estimated that 24,500 people were
newly displaced from the city in 2011, adding to some 115,000 already displaced from there since 2007.

There are no IDP camps in Mexico, but indigenous IDPs in Chiapas live together in tightly knit communities and receive some support from the state government and international agencies. Because many have lost access to their land and their livelihoods, they have reportedly become poorer as a result of their displacement.

People fleeing threats to their physical security by drug cartels have not necessarily found the safety they sought, and have continued in some cases to face criminal violence. In 2011, people who fled from Valle de Juárez to the southeastern part of Ciudad Juárez continued to face high levels of armed violence. Small business owners fleeing to the state of Veracruz from Chihuahua and Michoacán were also attacked by cartels there.

Most of the IDPs displaced during the Zapatista uprising have not achieved a durable solution. They have neither received their land back nor have they been compensated for their loss, even though most were members of indigenous groups with an acknowledged special attachment to their land. According to recent assessments by UNDP, these IDPs now rely on low-paying jobs in the informal market in towns. Not much is known about the situation of people displaced by religious and communal tensions as these issues are dealt with within the communities.

IDPs have struggled to protect their houses, land and other property left behind. Homes abandoned by IDPs, particularly in Chihuahua, have been destroyed or vandalised by cartels and local gangs. Beyond general property laws, there are no specific mechanisms to ensure physical or legal protection of this property. Some people have reportedly lost their personal documentation as a result of their sudden displacement, threatening their access to social benefits provided by local authorities.

The government has yet to acknowledge the displacement related to drug-cartel violence. In 2011, there were no mechanisms to monitor displacement, to protect IDPs, to support their efforts to find a durable solution, or to provide assistance in the interim. The government has not sought the support of international agencies such as UNHCR to help establish a response in line with international standards.

In Chiapas, the government’s response to internal displacement has remained insufficient. In October 2011, however, the state government presented a bill on internal displacement to the state’s congress. The bill, drafted with the support of various UN agencies and civil society in Chiapas, was expected to be adopted by early 2012. As the first law on internal displacement in the country, it is intended to implement the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement in the state.

Development agencies have provided support to IDPs: in Chiapas, for example, UNDP has promoted the integration of indigenous IDPs in their places of displacement, through livelihoods projects within its wider development strategy for indigenous people.

In 2011, ten years after the authoritarian government of Alberto Fujimori had defeated the revolutionary groups Shining Path and Túpac Amaru Revolutionary Movement, most of the million people displaced during the 20-year conflict had returned to their places of origin or settled elsewhere in the country.

The government estimated in 2007 that 150,000 people remained internally displaced, mostly in urban centres including Ayacucho, Lima, Junín, Ica and Huánuco. However there was no data as of 2011 evaluating the situation of IDPs or comparing it to that of the non-displaced population.

A law on internal displacement passed in 2004 helped to protect IDPs’ rights; it incorporated the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement and assigned the responsibility to coordinate the response to the Ministry of Women and Social Development (now the Ministry for Women and Vulnerable Populations or MIMDES). The Ministry began to register IDPs so that they could qualify for eventual reparations alongside other victims of the conflicts.

Despite the advocacy of the IDP umbrella organisation CONDECO-REP, the process to include IDPs in the registry hardly advanced in 2011.

In October, 500 people were included in the registry, but this had more symbolic value than actual impact on their access to benefits and reparations. No IDPs had received reparations by the end of 2011, despite a stated commitment from the government to support the indigenous IDPs among them.

Collective reparations, both for IDPs and other victims of human rights abuses by insurgent groups and government forces, have been framed as development or anti-poverty measures rather than the protection of fundamental rights. In this context, MIMDES has also implemented some livelihood support programmes; however none were reported in 2011.

In 2011, violence associated with the cultivation and export of coca posed an ongoing threat, but there were no reports of resulting displacement.
Internal displacement in Europe, the Caucasus and Central Asia

Up to 2.5 million people were displaced at the end of 2011 in Europe, the Caucasus and Central Asia due to conflict, human rights violations or generalised violence. They made up nearly ten per cent of the global internally displaced population.

Most of Europe’s IDPs had been living in protracted displacement for 18 years or more by 2011. The majority had been displaced by conflict in the 1990s during the break-up of the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia, or by conflict between Turkish government forces and the Kurdistan Workers’ Party (Parti Karkerani Kurdistan or PKK). Turkey had the highest number of IDPs, while Azerbaijan, Cyprus, Georgia and Serbia had the highest percentage relative to their populations.

New movements in 2011

In the ten years to 2011, the number of IDPs gradually decreased in Armenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Kosovo, the Russian Federation and Serbia. The annual falls remained modest as most IDPs who did not return relatively soon after the displacement became trapped in protracted displacement; in Azerbaijan, Cyprus, Georgia, Turkey, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan their numbers stayed more or less the same.

According to this pattern, the number of IDPs remained the same or decreased slightly in countries throughout the region in 2011. Only in Kyrgyzstan was there a significant
Protection concerns

The majority of IDPs in the region were dispersed among relatives or friends, or in housing that they rented, owned or occupied informally. Isolated surveys of IDPs in such situations in Azerbaijan, Turkey, Georgia and the Russian Federation showed that their living spaces tended to be crowded and in poor condition, and their security of tenure limited. The exception was Cyprus, where most IDPs enjoyed adequate housing conditions.

Other IDPs continued to live in gathered settings, including in collective centres in disused public buildings. These centres were never intended for long-term residence, and many were dilapidated, crowded and unhygienic. Georgia and Azerbaijan continued to have the highest number of IDPs in collective centres.

In the Balkans over 10,000 IDPs were still living in collective centres. By 2011, IDPs able to leave these centres had done so, and many of the remaining residents were older people or people with vulnerabilities who were unable to rebuild their lives or livelihoods elsewhere.

IDPs in collective centres, and others occupying other people’s housing or land, continued to risk eviction. Some residents of collective centres in the Russian Federation and Georgia were forcibly evicted in 2011.

Many IDPs continued to struggle to access and assert their ownership of the property they had been displaced from. IDPs in Armenia, Azerbaijan and Georgia who had fled from areas to which they could still not return had no access to remedies for their loss of property. In the Russian Federation and Turkey some received compensation, but it was not enough to enable them to recover from the loss.

Significant numbers of IDPs in Azerbaijan, Kosovo, Kyrgyzstan, Serbia and the Russian Federation still struggled in 2011 to secure personal documentation. As a result their access to jobs, housing, health care, education, pensions and government assistance was limited.

Across the region, all these challenges meant that IDPs and returned IDPs had few opportunities to become self-sufficient, and many who could access pensions and social benefits continued to depend on them as their main sources of income.

Discrimination faced by displaced members of minorities, and by displaced people who had returned to areas in which they were in a minority, continued to underlie the most stubborn barriers to the resolution of their displacement. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, in Serbia, Croatia, Kosovo, the Russian Federation and Turkey, such discrimination limited their access to housing, jobs, education and health care. Internally displaced Roma, Ashkali and Egyptian (RAE) people were still among the most vulnerable groups in the Balkans in 2011.

In most countries the government had ascribed an official IDP status on which it based access to support. In some countries, IDPs who had not been registered were denied assistance: in Serbia, for example, significant numbers of RAE people were still unregistered and thus unable to access the support to which they were entitled.

Countries with registration systems took different approaches to the children of IDPs: women in Azerbaijan continued to be unable to pass the status to their children, but in Cyprus a similar discrimination was partially ended in 2011, so that children of internally displaced women with “refugee status” could also access some of the benefits which went with the status. However, they were still not accorded the status or counted as IDPs, unlike the children of men with the status.

While some internally displaced children were effectively excluded from education by prevailing discrimination, others in Azerbaijan, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kosovo and Georgia continued to be educated in segregated schools. Though these may have been originally established to ensure continuity of education in the immediate aftermath of displacement, their continuing separation was increasingly limiting the prospects of students.

There was little notable new information on the breakdown of internally displaced populations by sex: where information was published, women made up about 50 per cent of IDPs. Nor was there new information on the incidence of gender-based violence within internally displaced communities.

Prospects for durable solutions

Since the conflicts of the 1990s, the return of IDPs to their places of origin has been consistently promoted. The number of returning IDPs has been monitored in several countries, but not their ongoing situation in their places of origin. Meanwhile there have been no processes to indicate the number of IDPs who have managed to integrate in the place they were displaced to, or to settle sustainably elsewhere.

The sustainability of some returns continued to be in doubt in 2011, with returned members of local minorities facing attacks, discrimination and restrictions on their freedom of movement. Some returned IDPs in Croatia, Kosovo and the Russian Federation struggled to recover possession of their property. Some IDPs’ areas of origin were still insecure, due in part to the continuing presence of mines, the lack of local reconciliation and the impunity enjoyed by perpetrators of the original violence. Others could not return because they would not be able to access social services, livelihoods, or pensions and other entitlements.

IDPs’ efforts to find a durable solution situation remained blocked in several countries in 2011, particularly if they had fled from inaccessible areas where conflict had still not been resolved. In Armenia, Azerbaijan, Cyprus, Georgia, the Russian Federation and Turkey, some or all IDPs could not return; in Azerbaijan, Cyprus and Georgia, the governments had taken steps to support their local integration or settlement elsewhere, but they still pushed for eventual return by proclaiming an intention to restore the situation which had prevailed before the conflict.

However, support for IDPs who wished to integrate in their area of displacement continued slowly to gain ground, as it became clear that those still displaced were unlikely to return. However, positive steps in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Georgia, Kosovo, the Russian Federation, Serbia and Turkey were not yet sufficient to resolve their situations fully.
Responses to internal displacement

Governments throughout the region have made efforts to improve conditions in collective centres, and also to reduce the number of IDPs living in them. In 2011 the governments in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo and Serbia improved the housing conditions of some IDPs living in collective centres by refurbishing spaces or by transferring ownership to residents; and they settled other residents in new housing or gave cash payments in lieu of new housing.

In 2011, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Montenegro and Serbia joined international partners to launch a regional initiative to support the voluntary return and reintegration or local integration of refugees and also IDPs. UNHCR appointed a Personal Envoy for the Resolution of the Protracted Displacement in the Western Balkans to lend support to the initiative.

Throughout the region, the monitoring of the situation of IDPs and returned IDPs remained limited, and the resources allocated inadequate to properly address their situation. Many IDPs across the region did not receive assistance, and there was often limited information on whether they had benefited from any government support. Criticisms of governments’ responses to internal displacement during 2011 often centred on their lack of transparency and failure to consult with IDPs.

The EU, CoE and OSCE also continued to support efforts to resolve protracted displacement. The EU encouraged the steps taken by Bosnia and Herzegovina to implement its strategy, particularly in support of IDPs in collective centres, and encouraged Turkey to press on with its national strategy. The EU and CoE’s Commissioner for Human Rights commended Serbia’s progress but called on the government to better address the needs of vulnerable IDPs including displaced RAE people.

UN human rights mechanisms reviewed the situation of IDPs in several countries. They urged the Russian Federation to address the education needs of internally displaced children and take steps to prevent their military recruitment, and noted the persistent discrimination in Serbia despite government efforts to counter it. They voiced concerns over evictions of IDPs in Georgia and their security of tenure, and the access of IDPs there to public services including education.

As donor attention has shifted to new emergencies elsewhere, and with access still difficult in conflict-affected areas in Azerbaijan, Georgia and the Russian Federation, international humanitarian agencies have gradually left the region. However, with significant numbers of people still marginalised in situations of protracted displacement, governments and donors should invest further in enabling durable solutions so that IDPs can fully participate in their country’s development.

<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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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Armenia</td>
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<td>8,399 (NRC, 2004)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Azerbaijan</td>
<td>Up to 599,000</td>
<td>599,192</td>
<td>(December 2011)</td>
<td>The figure includes around 200,000 children born to males with IDP status.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bosnia and Herzegovina</td>
<td>113,000</td>
<td>113,000</td>
<td>(UNHCR, December 2011)</td>
<td>UNHCR figure based on information from its monitoring and the government’s.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>2,100</td>
<td>2,059</td>
<td>(UNHCR, December 2011)</td>
<td>UNHCR figure based on information from its monitoring and the government’s.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>Up to 208,000</td>
<td>207,994</td>
<td>(Government of the Republic of Cyprus, December 2011)</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 born to males with IDP status. The “Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus” considers that displacement ended with the 1975 Vienna III agreement.</td>
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<tr>
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<th>Number of IDPs (rounded)</th>
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<th>UN figures</th>
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<tr>
<td>Armenia</td>
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<td>8,399 (NRC, 2004)</td>
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</table>
It was unknown how many people remained internally displaced due to armed conflict in Armenia at the end of 2011. Neither IDPs nor returned IDPs were persons of concern to UNHCR during the year. The last study to estimate the number of IDPs was undertaken in 2004. At that time, the Norwegian Refugee Council and Armenia’s State Migration Service found some 8,400 people still internally displaced as a result of the 1988-1994 war with Azerbaijan over Nagorno-Karabakh. During the war, at least 65,000 people had fled from Artsvashen, an Armenian exclave inside Azerbaijani territory, and from areas bordering Azerbaijan.

Most IDPs returned to their homes following the conflict, but the 2004 survey reported that some still had not returned to border areas because of the insecurity and the poor economic conditions, or to Artsvashen because the area had been taken over by Azerbaijani forces.

These IDPs’ prospects of a durable solution remain dim without government and international support and assistance or any resolution to this conflict.

While those who returned to border areas did not have trouble repossessing their homes, there were still no mechanisms to restore Artsvashen IDPs’ housing, land and property or provide them with compensation for damage and destruction. There were no remedies in place for violations of their rights which they had incurred in being displaced.

In 2011, IDPs received no targeted government or international assistance. In March, the UN Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination urged the authorities to provide detailed information on their situation, including on their housing. By the end of the year, however, the government had still not secured funds for an IDP survey or a return programme. Nevertheless, it passed a decree at the end of the year to provide cash grants to IDPs from Artsvashen.

<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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<td>Georgia</td>
<td>At least 257,000</td>
<td>261,397 (October 2011)</td>
<td>270,328 (UNHCR, July 2011)</td>
<td>Both figures include people displaced in the 1990s and 2008, those who have relocated or returned and their children with IDP status.</td>
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<td>Kosovo</td>
<td>18,000</td>
<td>18,069 (UNHCR, December 2011)</td>
<td>Estimate based on UNHCR’s informal survey of IDPs in Kosovo undertaken in 2010.</td>
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<td>Kyrgyzstan</td>
<td>About 67,000</td>
<td>67,000 (UNHCR, December 2011)</td>
<td>The figure includes returned IDPs with outstanding needs related to their displacement.</td>
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<td>Russian Federation</td>
<td>At least 8,500</td>
<td>8,497 (October 2011)</td>
<td>28,450 (December 2011)</td>
<td>The government figure includes IDPs from Chechnya or North Ossetia-Alania with forced migrant status living outside these republics but in the North Caucasus Federal District. The other, a compilation of NGO figures, only includes IDPs in Chechnya, Ingushetia and Dagestan.</td>
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<td>Serbia</td>
<td>225,000</td>
<td>210,146 (UNHCR, December 2011)</td>
<td>The Serbian Commissioner for Refugees and UNHCR estimated in 2011 that 97,000 IDPs need assistance to achieve a durable solution. UNHCR references government figures, which exclude at least 15,000 unregistered Roma IDPs.</td>
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<td>The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia</td>
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<td>644 (December 2009)</td>
<td>0 (UNHCR, January 2012)</td>
<td>UNHCR figures for “persons of concern” in FYRoM indicate that there were no IDPs in 2011.</td>
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<td>Turkey</td>
<td>954,000–1,201,000</td>
<td>953,680–1,201,200 (Hacettepe University, December 2006)</td>
<td>Over 1,000,000 (NGOs, August 2005)</td>
<td>The Hacettepe University survey was commissioned by the government. The government has estimated that 150,000 people had returned to their places of origin as of July 2009.</td>
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<td>Turkmenistan</td>
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<td>Uzbekistan</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td>3,400 (IOM, May 2005)</td>
<td>No more recent figures available.</td>
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</table>

**Armenia**

Quick facts

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<th>Number of IDPs</th>
<th>Up to 8,400</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Percentage of total population</td>
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<td>New displacement</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>
<td>86</td>
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Azerbaijan

Quick facts

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<th>Feature</th>
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<td>Number of IDPs</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>
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Armed conflict with Armenia over the territory of Nagorno-Karabakh between 1988 and 1994 caused large numbers of people to flee within Azerbaijan. Located within the internationally recognised borders of Azerbaijan, Nagorno-Karabakh’s independence claim has not been recognised by any state other than Armenia. Together with seven surrounding districts, the area remains outside the effective control of Azerbaijan. In 2011, the peace process slowed dramatically, while border skirmishes continued.

Almost 600,000 people were still internally displaced in Azerbaijan at the end of 2011. About 50 per cent of them were female and ten per cent were older people. The figure included around 200,000 children born to males with IDP status since they had fled their homes. There was no new displacement during the year, but the return of IDPs remained a distant prospect. IDPs were divided between those who were more or less integrated in their community and planned to stay there, and those more isolated IDPs who continued to pin their hopes on return.

Over their 20 years of displacement, IDPs have achieved various degrees of well-being. A 2011 study showed their differing needs, and indicated that they were more vulnerable than their non-displaced neighbours in some situations, and in some not. For example, some IDPs had better access to social benefits, yet many lived in worse housing conditions. Smaller internally displaced communities in remote villages with no access to land were found to be the most vulnerable, particularly in terms of their housing, and their access to livelihoods and land, health care and personal documentation.

About 50 per cent of IDPs were in 2011 still living in dilapidated and overcrowded collective centres and makeshift accommodation. Others were staying in crowded conditions with relatives, living near the frontline with landmines and enemy fire, or squatting in vacant apartments or houses. Some IDPs, however, had managed to buy and improve their housing, while by the end of 2011, the government had resettled over 100,000 IDPs into new houses or apartments, including around 10,000 during the year. Overall, housing conditions for IDPs were generally worse than the general population, especially in villages and small towns.

Around 115,000 IDPs were living in private apartments or houses owned by others. Despite executive decrees barring their eviction without alternative living arrangements, their tenure continued to be insecure in 2011, particularly in the main cities of Baku and Sumgait. The European Court of Human Rights ruled in 2007 that the government’s decrees in favour of IDPs had violated the property rights of homeowners. In 2011, the national courts ruled in about a dozen decisions that IDPs should be evicted from such dwellings, but the rulings were not enforced and no internally displaced families were evicted during the year.

IDPs were more likely to be poor and unemployed, partly because they lacked relevant skills. Some IDPs, most of them in Baku, had managed to establish livelihoods, but opportunities for IDPs in other towns and cities were limited by the lack of access to farm land and demand for informal labour. As a result, many IDPs continued to rely on benefits in 2011. Few internally displaced women earned an income and many had become more confined to the home since their displacement. As a result, the incidence of poverty remained significantly higher in 2011 among households headed by internally displaced women.

The government has made considerable and increasing efforts to improve the situation of IDPs. It has built housing and infrastructure, and provided cash transfers and subsidies. It continued to pay a monthly food allowance to IDPs in 2011, but the allowance was discontinued for about 70,000 state employees or people with only one internally displaced parent. An improved response would include collecting more accurate data on the vulnerabilities of IDPs, prioritisation of the needs of the most vulnerable among them, and more effective consultation with IDPs, especially on resettlement plans. Finally, the government should muster the will to resolve the conflict and work to ensure that IDPs can enjoy their rights at their preferred residence.

The UN High Commissioner for Refugees visited Azerbaijan during the year and, while acknowledging the government’s significant achievements, he called for increased assistance to IDPs. However, as the government’s capacity to protect IDPs has increased and negotiation on the status of Nagorno-Karabakh has become deadlocked, support for humanitarian interventions has waned. At the same time, development support has picked up, with the World Bank making a $50 million loan in 2011, which together with a significant government contribution will fund activities to ensure that 185,000 IDPs have better housing and improved self-reliance.
The 1992–1995 war in Bosnia and Herzegovina led to the displacement of over a million people and the creation of ethnically homogeneous areas within the newly independent state. By the end of 2011 an estimated 113,000 people remained internally displaced. The rate of return had continued to slow, and only about 260 displaced people returned during the year.

Many IDPs continued in 2011 to live in precarious situations, without support or economic opportunities. Many of those who faced the most hardship were older or more vulnerable people who still needed specific assistance to access adequate housing, income, psychiatric and social care and treatment for chronic diseases. Some 8,600 IDPs, including some of the most vulnerable, had lived in some form of collective centre or temporary accommodation for almost 20 years.

In the past few years the Bosnian government has increased financial support to returns and extended assistance to include income-generating activities and repair of infrastructure as well as housing.

Despite these steps, the government has more to do to create the conditions for sustainable voluntary returns, to facilitate local integration and to assist vulnerable IDPs and returned IDPs, of whom most have returned to areas in which they are members of a minority. In 2011 it had yet to implement its 2010 strategy to support IDPs’ and returned IDPs’ enjoyment of rights and access to durable solutions.

By 2011, only a few international organisations were still working to support IDPs as a group. UNHCR and the Commissioner for Human Rights of the CoE continued to monitor the situation of IDPs, while the EU continued to influence the government’s policy development through the process of its candidacy to join the Union.

In 1974 groups backed by Greece’s military junta ousted the Cypriot leader and Turkey sent troops to the island in response. The overwhelming majority of Greek Cypriots fled to the south, while most Turkish Cypriots fled to the north. 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), which is recognised only by Turkey. The conflict is still unresolved and the return of IDPs to their original homes remains largely impossible.

The TRNC maintains that there are no IDPs in areas under its control, and that internal displacement ended with a 1975 agreement resulting in significant population exchange. Meanwhile, the GRC reported at the end of 2011 that around 208,000 people in the area under its control had displaced person status, including over 86,000 people born to people with the status. Discrimination in access to the status partially ended in 2011, as the children of women with displaced person status became eligible for more of the same benefits as children of men with the status.

The Immovable Property Commission (IPC) set up in
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 at least 215,000 people within Georgia. Ceasefire agreements were signed by 1994, but hostilities continued sporadically. Conflict broke out again in 2008 between Georgia and the Russian Federation over South Ossetia, and around 157,000 people were internally displaced, the majority of whom were able to return within months. The conflicts were unresolved in 2011; South Ossetia and Abkhazia remained outside the effective control of Georgia and the return of IDPs was largely not feasible.

At the end of 2011, the government had registered, in areas under its control, about 236,000 IDPs displaced since the 1990s, about 17,000 since 2008 and about 3,000 who were displaced in the 1990s and again in 2008. The number of IDPs still displaced since 2008 was higher as some were still not registered as such. Legislative amendments at the end of 2011 narrowed its IDP definition further, to include only those fleeing an area occupied by a foreign state.

There were also an estimated 20,000 IDPs in South Ossetia from both waves of conflict. The number of IDPs in Abkhazia was unknown since their situation was never monitored; however some 30,000 people who fled Abkhazia in the 1990s had returned to their place of origin in Gali district in Abkhazia.

During 2011 the government continued to demonstrate its commitment to durable solutions and implement its strategy for IDPs, with a continued focus on their housing. Around 40 per cent of IDPs were still in collective centres, many of them in former dormitories, kindergartens or schools. The refurbishment of these centres and registration of IDPs’ ownership of their assigned spaces in them had significantly slowed, in favour of the closure of other collective centres and temporary shelters and the relocation of their residents in new or refurbished housing.

While the majority of relocated IDPs were satisfied with their new homes, there were shortcomings in the process and outcomes. Some IDPs felt rushed to make a decision with little information or legal assistance. The criteria for selecting families for new housing were unclear, the most vulnerable people were not prioritised and there was no effective mechanism for lodging complaints. The quality of housing offered to IDPs varied: some received new apartments in towns or cities, others got abandoned rural homes. Most relocated IDPs reported there were few economic opportunities near their new home.

Within this process, more than 1,600 internally displaced families were evicted between June 2010 and August 2011. Depending on their status, some were offered alternative accommodation or cash. Evictions from temporary shelters were not always in line with the legislation and adopted procedures. Many IDPs who had opted for cash were still waiting to receive it at the end of 2011.

Overall, most IDPs continued to endure inadequate living conditions. Most collective centres did not meet minimum shelter standards. Meanwhile, IDPs dispersed in other housing still did not receive housing support. Furthermore, mechanisms to restore IDPs’ housing, land and property or provide them with compensation had not been put in place.

Some return areas near the administrative boundary line with South Ossetia remained unsafe, while its near-total closure meant that returned IDPs could not access farmland, water or markets on the other side. In Gali district in Abkhazia, returned IDPs continued to endure terrible housing conditions, insecurity and limited freedom of movement. Without Abkhaz passports they were increasingly unable to access services, and the quality of education and health care remained poor.

The Georgian government has made increasing efforts to improve the situation of IDPs, especially since 2008. The ministry responsible has, however, been left to implement plans with increasingly limited resources and support. An improved response would necessitate more accurate data and prioritisation of the needs of the most vulnerable IDPs, more transparent decisions and greater compliance with adopted standards. Authorities in control of Abkhazia and South Ossetia should also ensure that the rights of IDPs and returned IDPs are protected.

UN agencies, international organisations and NGOs continued to assist IDPs in 2011, though only ICRC had access to South Ossetia while access to Abkhazia was increasingly challenged. UN human rights bodies made numerous recommendations to Georgia, including to compile disaggregated data and improve the integration and access to housing, food and livelihoods of IDPs and in particular internally displaced women. The CoE’s Committee on Migration, Refugees and Population also urged the government to improve IDPs housing and livelihoods.

Ultimately, the conflicts must be resolved if IDPs are to achieve durable solutions.
Kosovo

Quick facts

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Around 300,000 people were displaced in June 2010 by violence in southern Kyrgyzstan between the Kyrgyz majority and the Uzbek minority. In September 2011, humanitarian organisations estimated that there were around 4,000 remaining IDPs and 63,000 returned IDPs with continuing identified needs related to their displacement.

Broader national political developments led to the violence, which involved armed attacks, sexual assaults, kidnapping, arson and looting, notably in the urban centres of Osh and Jalal-Abad. Over 400 people (both Uzbeks and Kyrgyz) were killed, and some 2,000 houses were damaged or destroyed. While both communities suffered significant loss, Uzbeks bore the brunt of the violence, displacement and property damage.

Relations between the Kyrgyz and Uzbek communities were poisoned by the 2010 events and deep rifts remain. Uzbek IDPs reported in 2011 that they were subject to extortion by the police at their homes and businesses and in many community markets, and that they were reluctant to report this to the authorities as it would lead to further harassment. They said that the police appeared to be aware of who had received compensation for losses, and tended to focus their extortion efforts on those individuals or areas.

Uzbeks had been increasingly excluded from social and economic affairs, and they avoided public spaces for their own safety. Uzbeks also continued to feel insecure because perpetrators of human rights violations during the 2010 violence were still largely unpunished, and because the vast majority of court cases that had progressed had been against Uzbeks. For their part, many Kyrgyz reportedly feared Uzbek retaliation, and also limited their use of public spaces.

More than two thirds of IDPs had returned to their homes by the end of 2010. Some had received international assistance
and financial compensation from the authorities which helped
them take possession of their homes and rebuild them if ne-
cessary. However, progress was slow in 2011 and the homes
of the vast majority were still damaged or destroyed.

Registration of the homes rebuilt with aid money has been
seriously delayed in Osh, raising real concerns for their resi-
dents. The government has reportedly planned to demolish
areas in the centre of the city as part of a long-term urban plan
for Osh. Should this plan be adopted, unregistered property
could be more easily demolished or expropriated with residents
receiving little or no compensation: Observers suspect that
the Uzbek community would be disproportionately affected.

Thousands of businesses were destroyed in the 2010 vio-
ence. Most of the shops and cafes destroyed were owned by
Uzbeks. With compensation for most of these lost businesses
yet to be paid in 2011 and jobs scarce, many who lost their bus-
inesses were still unemployed and without alternative sources
of income. Others who were rebuilding their homes under
self-help assistance schemes could not find time to restart their
businesses. Uzbeks have reported that they have been unable
to resume trading in the market, because their places have
been taken, the police and criminal groups demand bribes,
and fights break out between Uzbeks and Kyrgyz. Many get
by on remittances and government allowances, but some IDPs
struggle to receive allowances since they have been unable to
replace lost or destroyed documents.

The government response has been compromised by
its lack of funds and limited local capacity, though several
initiatives have benefited IDPs. An improved response would
include a comprehensive reparations programme to provide
victims, and the IDPs among them, with adequate material
compensation for their losses and rehabilitation. The establish-
ment of a truth commission with displacement as part of its
mandate to examine the 2010 events and their causes and
consequences will be necessary for lasting peace.

More than 70 organisations have provided support to
thousands of people affected by the 2010 violence. The inter-
national community has coordinated its response using the
cluster system. The system remained in place after the most
urgent needs of the affected population were attended to, but
the clusters held few meetings in 2011. The UN appeal to fund
humanitarian activities through to June 2011 received $66
million, 70 per cent of the amount requested. The shortfall
of about $29 million particularly affected progress in support-
ting agricultural activities, education, health care, water and
sanitation and reconciliation. In late 2011, UNHCR called for
continued financial support to address the remaining needs
of affected people in southern Kyrgyzstan.

**Russian Federation**

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<tr>
<td><strong>Number of IDPs</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Percentage of total population</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</strong></td>
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| **Causes of displacement** | Armed conflict, deliberate policy or practice of arbitrary displacement, generalised violence, human rights violations |

**Armed 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. Most IDPs from Chechnya were displaced a number of times.

None of the conflicts had been fully resolved by the end of 2011. Government forces continued to perpetrate human rights violations including arbitrary detentions, enforced disappearances, torture and killings as part of their counter-insurgency campaign, and enjoyed impunity for these acts. Over 1,300 people were reported killed or wounded as a result of ongoing violence across the North Caucasus in 2011, and rights de-
defenders and journalists faced harassment and violent attacks.

At the end of 2011, estimates of the number of people still displaced ranged from 8,500 to 28,000. The Federal Migration Service reported that there were around 5,600 people from Chechnya and 2,900 people from NO-A with “forced migrant” status in the North Caucasus. The number of IDPs is higher since “forced migrant” status is only valid for five years, it is difficult to renew and only some IDPs are eligible for it. NGOs estimated that there were still some 18,000 IDPs from Chechnya in Chechnya, Ingushetia and Dagestan, and 10,500 IDPs from NO-A in Ingushetia. There were no estimates of the number of IDPs living in NO-A or outside the North Caucasus.

Only very few IDPs re-
turned to their places of ori-
gin during 2011. Around 160
returned to Chechnya and an
unknown number to NO-A.
According to government
sources, over 320,000 people
had returned to Chechnya
between 2001 and 2009, and
more than 26,000 to North Ossetia by 2010. Some of them had gone back to their former homes, while others had moved into temporary accommodation or housing provided by the government or international organisations, or were living with relatives or acquaintances. Others remained in makeshift accommodation with little means to become self-reliant.

The limited income of most IDPs has forced them to continue to depend on government benefits as their main source of income. NGOs estimated in 2011 that more than 60 per cent of IDPs in Ingushetia and Chechnya who were able to work were unemployed; this rate was higher than the official rate of unemployment in both republics. IDPs reported obstacles to finding work that were linked to their displacement: some were unable to register as temporary residents in the place of refuge, others had missed periods of schooling, while the conflicts had left others with disabilities or needing to care for children and older or sick relatives.

The lives of many IDPs had improved by 2011 as a result of efforts made by the government. However, many still did not fully enjoy their rights after some 20 years in displacement. Government support had not always been sufficient for IDPs to secure adequate housing, and many continued to live in sub-standard and in some cases dangerous conditions. The amount of compensation for destroyed property was insufficient, its delivery and impact limited by corruption, and only those with totally destroyed housing were eligible to apply.

The majority of IDPs no longer enjoyed the "forced migrant" status they needed to access some housing support.

In 1999, an estimated 245,000 Kosovo Serbs and Roma, Ashkali or Egyptian (RAE) people fled into Serbia proper or within Kosovo. In late 2011, some 225,000 people were still displaced in Serbia: 210,000 registered IDPs, according to the Serbian Commissioner for Refugees, and around 13,000 unregistered RAE people.

A significant number of IDPs still faced hardship: a survey published in 2011 by UNHCR and the Serbian government identified over 40 per cent of them as vulnerable and in need of assistance. Many continued to endure high levels of poverty, limited livelihood opportunities, and little access to social care or adequate housing. IDPs belonging to RAE communities faced social and economic marginalisation.

In October 2011, some 2,700 IDPs were still living in collective centres, or in informal settlements from which many risked being evicted. IDPs living without personal documents still faced great difficulties in registering as IDPs and so accessing assistance and services. RAE communities were particularly affected by these challenges.

The government has made increasing progress in supporting IDPs in their place of displacement. It has built alternative housing for vulnerable people in collective centres, and supported livelihoods programmes for IDPs. In March 2011, it adopted the three-year National Strategy for Resolving the Situation of Refugees and Internally Displaced Persons, but the funding for its implementation was lacking. UNHCR and NGOs have continued to support the government’s response, while European and UN bodies have continued to monitor progress.
Turkey

Quick facts

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<td>Human development index</td>
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For the past 28 years, Turkish armed forces supported by local "village guard" militias have fought against the Kurdistan Workers’ Party (Parti Karkerani Kurdistan or PKK) in the south-eastern and eastern provinces of Turkey. A state 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 displacement of between 950,000 and 1.2 million people during the 1980s and 1990s, the majority of them between 1991 and 1996.

Though security in affected regions has generally improved, violence between the armed forces and the PKK broke out sporadically after 2004. In 2011, such fighting recurred but no further displacement was reported. In addition, cross-border operations against Kurdish targets in Iraq intensified.

The vast majority of people trapped in protracted displacement in 2011 were living on the edges of cities, both within affected provinces in cities such as Batman, Diyarbakir, Hakkâri and Van, and elsewhere in cities including Istanbul, Ankara, and Izmir. They had settled among wider poor urban communities, but continued to face discrimination, acute social and economic marginalisation and limited access to housing, education and health care. Problems identified as specifically affecting displaced people included psychological trauma, lack of access to education and high levels of unemployment, particularly among women.

A little over 150,000 people had reportedly returned to their places of origin by 2009. Others were discouraged from returning by the continuing tensions and intermittent violence, the ongoing presence of village guards, and in provinces bordering Syria and Iraq by the million or so landmines deployed. Return areas also lacked livelihood opportunities, social services and basic infrastructure.

South-eastern Turkey is also vulnerable to natural disasters. In October 2011 a major earthquake struck the city of Van, which was a place of refuge for many long-term IDPs as well as a place to which IDPs had returned. It left nearly 30,000 houses destroyed or severely damaged; more than 50,000 people were displaced. The government provided shelter in tent cities, prefabricated housing and public facilities.

The vast majority of IDPs in Turkey are Kurdish, and their displacement and current situation is tied to the lack of recognition of the Kurdish identity. Though the government has pledged a “democratic opening” to Kurds, human rights associations have condemned the continuing discrimination and the use of existing legislation to stifle freedoms, and the use of mass detentions (as applied in response to demonstrations in 2011). They have called repeatedly for past human rights violations against Kurds to be addressed, and the prevalent impunity of state actors to be ended.

The government has taken significant steps to promote the return of IDPs displaced by the conflict. In 1994, it launched the Return to Village and Rehabilitation Project. From 2007 to 2011, it commissioned a national survey to determine the number and situation of IDPs; it drafted a national IDP strategy; it adopted a law to compensate those whose property had been damaged in the conflict; and it put together a pilot action plan in Van Province, to address rural and urban situations of displacement.

The government was developing similar action plans for 13 other affected provinces in the south-east in 2011. Under the coordination of the Ministry of the Interior, a working group drafted and submitted a national action plan, which the Ministry was still reviewing at the end of the year.

Nevertheless, civil society observers have criticised the slow development of these action plans. They have also voiced concerns over the continuing needs of urban IDPs outside the south-east, which the plans do not address. They have criticised programmes for the lack of support which they offer to returning IDPs, and for their lack of transparency, consistency, consultation and adequate funding. They have also criticised the strategy for failing to acknowledge the Kurdish issue.

Progress for IDPs in Turkey has been influenced by regional and international institutions such as the EU, the European Court of Human Rights and the CoE. These institutions have underlined the need for a comprehensive plan to address the socio-economic problems faced by IDPs, particularly those in urban areas, and to ensure support for those who wish to integrate where they are as well as those who want to return. If IDPs are to find sustainable solutions, the international community should continue to encourage the resolution of the pervasive obstacles and encourage wider efforts at reconciliation.
Internal displacement in the Middle East and North Africa

Iraq p.75; Lebanon p.76; Libya p.77; Occupied Palestinian Territory p.78; Syria p.79; Yemen p.80

The Middle East and North Africa were in 2011 marked by social upheaval unseen since the 1960s. An individual protest in Tunisia in late 2010 sparked a wave of uprisings across the Arab world, including revolutions in Tunisia and Egypt, a revolutionary civil war in Libya, civil uprisings in Bahrain, Syria, and Yemen and major protests in several other countries.

Although governments responded with violence and human rights violations, the uprisings led to the end of the long-term rule of Tunisia’s President Zine al-Abidine Ben Ali in January, Egypt’s Hosni Mubarak in February, Libya’s Muammar Qadhafi in August and Yemen’s Ali Abdallah Saleh in November.

The internal displacement which resulted in Libya, Syria and Yemen contributed to the tripling of the number of IDPs in the region between 2001 and the end of 2011. However the main drivers of this decade-long increase were the displacement following the invasion of Iraq in 2003 and the subsequent wave of sectarian violence which forced over 1.6 million people to flee within Iraq from 2006. Meanwhile, in northern Yemen, the number of IDPs increased by 300,000 as people were displaced by cycles of armed conflict between 2004 and 2010.

Overall, the number of IDPs in the region increased from 3.9 million to 4.3 million IDPs during 2011. They made up 16 per cent of the worldwide internally displaced population.

Though most conflict and violence has primarily caused short-term displacement, as in Libya and Syria in 2011, the majority of people displaced at the end of 2011 were in

A young internally displaced boy outside one of the shelters of a temporary camp set up along the desert road running from Ajdabiya to Tobruk in eastern Libya. (Photo: UNHCR/Phil Moore, March 2011)
Internal displacement in the Middle East and North Africa

situations of protracted displacement. Most had first been displaced decades ago: Kurds in Syria and Iraq were displaced in the 1970s, and other Syrians in 1982 following the destruction of Hama centre; Shi’ites in the south of Iraq were displaced during the Iran-Iraq war in the 1980s and again in the 1990s after an attempted insurrection. Syrians displaced from the Golan Heights since 1967 by the continuing Israeli occupation and Palestinians displaced by the expansion of Israeli settlements also remained in protracted displacement. In the West Bank, Bedouin communities in the Jordan Valley had faced repeated displacement over decades as their traditional rights over land were not recognised and essential services denied them.

New movements in 2011

In total, 840,000 or more people were newly displaced in the region in 2011, with about 410,000 of them still displaced at the end of the year. In the violence accompanying the Arab Spring uprisings, an estimated half a million people were forced to flee within Libya, with at least 154,000 still displaced at the end of the year; and at least 156,000 people were newly displaced within Syria. At least 175,000 people were newly displaced across Yemen.

Most of these IDPs were displaced only for short periods. Overall, some 600,000 IDPs returned home during 2011, over 400,000 of them in Libya. Most of the other returns were in Iraq, where about 170,000 IDPs returned.

Members of minorities continued to be particularly affected. In Iraq, most people newly displaced during the year were Christians. Fewer than half of the former 1.4 million Christian community remained in their place of origin after decades of displacement and migration, and attacks such as the bombing in October 2011 of a church in Saida al-Najat continued to drive them to flee within or from the country.

Ethnic and tribal minorities were also at the forefront of the Arab Spring unrest. Fighting between Libya’s Amazigh minority and forces loyal to Qadhafi in the Nafusa Mountains caused the displacement of about 100,000 people in June. In Syria, Kurds started to protest as early as January in the city of Hasaka.

Across the region, most IDPs were dispersed in urban areas. Most had been displaced from urban contexts, and towns and cities were their chosen destination. In Libya the overwhelming majority of IDPs were from towns and cities, and sought shelter in other neighbourhoods or in nearby villages. In Yemen, only one in eight IDPs was in one of the four camps operating in 2011, while in Iraq there were only a couple of camps in the Kurdish-controlled north, to which people fled following cross-border attacks by Iran in the summer. The vast majority of IDPs in Iraq were in and around Baghdad and other cities, sheltering with relatives, renting accommodation or squatting in public buildings or informal settlements.

Protection concerns

In situations of ongoing fighting, both those fleeing and those unable to do so found themselves at great physical risk without access to essential necessities. In Syria, the security forces’ sieges of cities including Dara’a, Hama, Homs and Idlib cut off their access to electricity, water and food. The shelling of these cities and other targets with heavy weapons threatened the lives of people trapped in these areas as well as of those who could flee. The Syrian government worsened the situation by denying access to humanitarians and imposing ever-tighter restrictions on people’s movement.

Following the fighting in Libya, the presence of landmines and other explosive remnants of war made it more difficult for people to move back to their homes safely and resume their livelihoods. The conflict left people facing shortages of clean water, fuel and medicine. It reduced access to health care, with hospitals left dependent on local volunteers after the huge exodus of migrant workers.

After the immediate aftermath of fighting, members of minorities continued to have the most pressing protection concerns. By the end of the year, most people remaining displaced in Libya were nationals of sub-Saharan countries or members
responses to internal displacement

Internal displacement has become steadily more prominent in the region. A number of governments have recognised internal displacement, but the offices they have set up have been unable to address it. In Yemen, the government established the Executive Unit on IDPs in 2009 to respond to displacement and coordinate with the international humanitarian community, but despite contributing to improvements related to the registration and verification of IDPs, the Executive Unit has lacked resources and also faced access restrictions.

In both Iraq and Lebanon, the effectiveness of ministries dedicated to displacement was hampered by a lack of capacity and by political disputes. In Lebanon a wider political deadlock left the Ministry of Displaced incapacitated in 2011, while in Iraq the division of political power made it difficult for the under-funded Ministry of Displacement and Migration to manage the massive and complex displacement situation.

The renewed sense of public participation and responsibility engendered by the Arab Spring encouraged local and regional NGOs to play an active role in 2011; for example the Arab Medical Union was among the first to respond in Libya, by sending medicine and doctors to Benghazi during the first weeks of the crisis, and the women-run Wafa Relief Charity Organisation served up to 20,000 hot meals each evening to IDPs and refugees during the Ramadan period.

International agencies sought to respond to new displacement situations from their onset, but their access remained limited by insecurity in areas of ongoing conflict in Yemen and Libya, and in many areas of Iraq.

In areas where conflicts or insecurity had ended, international agencies were able to contribute to reconstruction efforts. In Lebanon in 2011, UNRWA made headway in the rebuilding of the Nahr el-Bared camp.

The cluster system was implemented in Yemen in early 2010 and in Libya in April 2011. In Libya it was deactivated at the end of the year as the emergency response gave way to a longer-term approach. In Iraq, the UN developed a Development Assistance Framework to coordinate its delivery of assistance from 2011 to 2014.

As the focus moves towards development, there is a risk that outstanding humanitarian needs will go unaddressed. Iraq and Libya are middle-income countries, but in 2011 they lacked the technical capacity to address displacement, their political systems were not yet inclusive or transparent, and their public institutions were not yet effective. Human rights violations and endemic corruption persisted.

**Prospects for durable solutions**

Most governments continued to limit their support to IDPs’ settlement options to measures which encouraged their return. In Iraq the government continued to provide financial assistance to returning IDPs, but did not widely support other options even though about 80 per cent of IDPs reportedly wanted to rebuild their lives in the place they had been displaced to. In Yemen, a quarter of surveyed IDPs reported that they had no intention of returning.

In a number of countries the governments failed to recognise displacement, leaving no prospect of durable solutions. In Syria the authorities did not acknowledge displacement as the outcome of its repression and policies. A similar situation limited the prospects of IDPs in the Occupied Palestinian Territory (OPT). In Gaza, the Israeli blockade continued to prevent the rebuilding of houses destroyed or heavily damaged by the Israeli army’s Operation “Cast Lead” in 2008 and 2009, leaving thousands of families in inadequate shelters.

<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></td>
<td>1,000,000 (EU, 2002)</td>
<td>No recent figures available.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>2,300,000 – 2,600,000</td>
<td>1,258,934 (UNHCR, August 2011)</td>
<td>2,170,000 (Iraqi Red Crescent, 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>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
International displacement in the Middle East and North Africa

<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>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>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>At least 47,000</td>
<td>40,000 to 70,000 since civil war (2007)</td>
<td>27,000 from Nahar el-Bared (UNRWA, October 2010)</td>
<td>50,000–300,000 (USCR, 2005); 600,000 (USDOS, 2006); 23,000 (Lebanon Support, February 2010)</td>
<td>Different populations are included; those displaced by the 2007 siege of Nahar el-Bared camp for Palestinian refugees, and the 1975-1990 civil war and Israeli invasions. No IDPs remained from the 2006 Israeli incursion, according to reporters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>At least 154,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>154,000 (UNHCR, December 2011)</td>
<td>129,000 (BADIL, December 2009); 4,700 (Hamoked, December 2009); 24,800 homes demolished (ICAHD, July 2010)</td>
<td>Estimates based on UNHCR and LibAid protection monitoring and registration. An unknown number of non-Libyans displaced within the country have not been included in their figures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupied Palestinian Territory</td>
<td>About 160,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>At least 20,500 (OCHA, November 2009)</td>
<td>433,000 (2007)</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; it excludes the Gaza offensive. Hamoked indicates the number of people not included in BADIL figures whose residency permits were revoked in 2008. ICAHD has reported 24,800 homes demolished from 1967 to 2010.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>At least 589,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>433,000 (2007)</td>
<td>The total includes people displaced from the Golan Heights and their children, and at least 156,000 people displaced in 2011. It does not include those displaced by the destruction of Hama in 1982 or Kurds displaced in the 1970s.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yemen</td>
<td>At least 463,500</td>
<td></td>
<td>463,500 (UNHCR, February 2012)</td>
<td>Figures are not easily verifiable due to limits in access.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Iraq

Quick facts

- Number of IDPs: 2,300,000–2,600,000
- Percentage of total population: 7.0–8.0%
- Start of current displacement situation: 1968
- Peak number of IDPs (Year): 2,842,491 (2008)
- New displacement: At least 8,000
- Causes of displacement: Armed conflict, deliberate policy or practice of arbitrary displacement, generalised violence, human rights violations
- Human development index: 132

People in Iraq were displaced up to 2003 by campaigns by the government of Saddam Hussein which considered them opponents; between 2003 and 2005 by the fighting which followed the country’s invasion; and from 2006 by sectarian violence between Sunni and Shi’a militias which led to massive civilian casualties and around 1.6 million new IDPs.

By 2011, large-scale new displacement in Iraq had ended, and new displacement was caused only by isolated outbreaks of violence. This sporadic displacement mainly affected members of minorities. Christians continued to be targeted throughout the year, and by the end of 2011, more than half of Iraq’s 1.4 million Christians had fled their places of origin.

New displacement also resulted when the armed forces of Turkey and Iran shelled targets in Iraq: up to 1,350 families fled their border villages in the provinces of Sulaymaniyah and Erbil. Although both governments claimed to have been targeting insurgents originating from within their territories, Human Rights Watch concluded that the regular bombardments by the government of Iran were intended to force civilians away from the border areas. In November, about 100 of these newly displaced families remained in the camp set up by local municipalities; the rest returned to their villages, not because the conditions had improved, but due to the lack of support in places of refuge and the extreme winter cold they faced.

People have been internally displaced in Iraq over the years by diverse causes, in a variety of locations and periods. Those displaced by the Ba’ath government of Saddam Hussein were principally from the rural Kurdish north and Shi’a south. However, the sectarian violence which broke out following the bombing of the Askari mosque in February 2006 mostly displaced people from the more urbanised centre of Iraq.
the country: about 90 per cent of this group originated from Bagh- 
dad, Diyala or Ninewa. Between 2006 and 2008 about 1.6 million Iraqis 
were displaced by the sectarian violence, which at its height caused over 2,000 civilian deaths per month. In 2008 estimates of the total number of IDPs, including those 
displaced under the Ba’ath government, ranged from 2.3 million to as high as 2.6 million.

As security improved to levels better than prior to the bomb-
ing of the mosque, IDPs started to return: nearly 200,000 IDPs did so in 2008. Nonetheless, most of those displaced in 2008 were still displaced in 2011, in areas where their own sectarian or ethnic group was dominant. This created demographically homogeneous areas in several of the country’s governorates. Members of (neither Sunni nor Shi’a) minorities were predo-
minantly seeking safety in the Kurdish-controlled northern governorates.

During 2011, following the government’s decision to quadruple the financial incentives it offered to returning IDPs, the number of IDPs returning increased to over 170,000 after having fallen in 2009 and 2010. But five years after the As-
kari bombing, violence and displacement continued to affect communities, and IDPs’ hopes for a durable solution remained dim. The sustainability of returns and the accuracy of the government’s return figures continued to be questioned, and while the government persevered in encouraging return, about 80 per cent of IDPs reported that they would prefer to integrate in the place they had fled to. This demonstrated that they had integrated to some degree in their local communities and that most were unable or unwilling to return due to legal obstacles, the destruction of their social networks there and the lack of housing.

Although the overall level of violence in Iraq has declined, Iraqis still feel insecure, and the country is still more dangerous than others in the Middle East, including those destabilised by social and political upheaval in 2011.

The new government that formed at the beginning of 2011 quickly launched a plan to address the displacement situation; however the plan’s implementation and coordination me-
chanisms were yet to be defined. It focused on incentivising re-
turns, and included little recognition of IDPs’ desire to integrate locally or settle elsewhere. Its effectiveness will depend on the development of better mechanisms to involve IDPs in the response and support their stated demands for local integration.

The UN has developed a Development Assistance Frame-
work to coordinate its delivery of assistance from 2011 to 2014. But as the response turns to development activities, there is a risk of serious gaps in protection activities and of a failure to deliver effective assistance because of funding shortfalls. Iraq is considered a middle-income country but it critically lacks technical support. This new phase also ushers in numerous po-
litical challenges, as Iraq is still struggling with a system which is neither inclusive nor transparent, and a public sector which is centralised and inefficient. The rule of law remains weak, human rights violations persist and corruption is pervasive, with Iraq the fifth most corrupt country in the world according to Transparency International.

Lebanon

In 2011 there was no new internal displacement in Lebanon, but some people remained displaced. Most of them had fled the destruction of the Palestinian refugee camp of Nahr el-Ba-
red in 2007; others had been displaced by the 1975–1990 civil war in which about a quarter of the population was displaced.

Several hundred thousand people were also internally dis-
placed during the 33-day war between Israel and Hezbollah in 2006; however, observers agreed that there were no IDPs remaining from the 2006 conflict. In 2011 Hezbollah was close to

finishing the reconstruction of the suburb of Haret Hrek in south Beirut, to provide houses to IDPs and destitute people.

In 2011, most of the 27,000 Palestinian refugees from Nahr el-Bared camp were still internally displaced. At the end of the year, UNRWA had rebuilt the first section of the camp, enabling the return of about 1,400 people. UNRWA plans to rebuild over 5,200 houses and nearly 2,000 commercial units.

NGOs had put their construction activities in the adjacent area on hold in February 2011 for lack of funds, but they managed to resume at the end of the year.

During the year, USAID estimated that a significant number of people were still displaced from the civil war, but the lack of information on their achievement of durable solutions made it hard to assess their number. IDPs remained in Beirut’s informal settlements and squats. In some villages there had been no reconciliation since the civil war, and the whereabouts of people from these villages was unknown.

State bodies, the Lebanese Red Cross, political parties, local communities and the international community have responded to the successive situations. However, the lack of a national policy on internal displacement has led to differences in the assistance provided to different displaced communities.
Following the popular uprisings in Tunisia and Egypt, anti-government protests in Libya rapidly escalated in February 2011 to an armed conflict which led to the end of the 41-year rule of Muammar Qadhafi, causing several waves of forced displacement. Overall, it is estimated that at least 500,000 people were internally displaced in 2011 as a result of the widespread clashes between pro-Qadhafi and opposition forces and the NATO-coordinated bombardment of the country. Although most of the people displaced returned to their places of origin shortly after the conflict had subsided, an estimated 154,000 people were still displaced at the end of 2011.

The frontlines moved back and forth across Libya: government forces initially controlled most of the west of the country including Tripoli, and opposition groups, who formed the National Transitional Council (NTC) in March, the east. The conflict was particularly intense in certain areas, including the western Nafusa Mountains and cities including Ajdabiya, Misrata, Bani Walid and Sirte. In these cities, sustained sieges or attacks with prolonged shelling and street-to-street fighting led to significant displacement.

Most IDPs took refuge in urban areas. They often fled to nearby towns or moved to safer neighbourhoods within the same city, as in Ajdabiya, Misrata and Tripoli. Most of them stayed with relatives or host families, or sought shelter in public buildings including schools, in coastal holiday resorts, factories or building sites. There were also reports of IDPs staying in improvised settlements in the desert, for fear of harassment from parties to the conflict. This was repeatedly the case for families from Ben Jawad and other towns along the coast to the west of Ras Lanuf.

Throughout the conflict, indiscriminate attacks put civilians including people fleeing the conflict at risk. The presence of landmines and other unexploded ordnance in conflict areas also made it harder for IDPs to return safely and re-establish their livelihoods. The conflict disrupted supply lines, damaged infrastructure and left people facing shortages of drinking water, fuel and medicine. It reduced access to education and health care: hospitals were left heavily dependent on local volunteers after the exodus of migrant workers.

As of early October, returns had increased in many areas where the fighting had subsided following advances by the opposition forces. The NTC declared the country’s liberation in late October, when the hostilities in Sirte and Bani Walid ended. Nevertheless, at the end of 2011, tens of thousands of people were still unable to return to their place of origin because their home had been destroyed, damaged or occupied by others, or because they did not think it would be safe.

Some groups faced reprisal attacks, particularly foreign nationals and others alleged to have been loyal to the Qadhafi government. An estimated 30,000 inhabitants of the city of Tawergha, south of Misrata, were prohibited from returning: they were considered loyal to Qadhafi, and continued to endure violence and human rights violations in their place of displacement, including arbitrary detention, abductions and torture.

During the conflict, IDPs in areas controlled by Qadhafi’s government, such as Tripoli, Zlitan and Gharian, were provided with assistance by the government, the Libyan Red Crescent Society and some private charities. In opposition-held areas, new local councils emerged and played a major role in assisting conflict-affected communities including the displaced population. Libyan organisations provided critical assistance; however, the capacity of civil society organisations remained constrained by their lack of resources and geographical reach. IDPs in improvised shelters in the desert were generally out of the reach of support.

International humanitarian agencies responded rapidly from the onset of the crisis. They initially gathered at the Libyan borders to support those leaving the country. Their presence gradually increased in opposition-controlled areas including Benghazi, Misrata and along the Nafusa Mountains, but their activities in government-controlled areas remained limited.

The cluster system was activated in April, to coordinate international organisations’ responses to the most urgent needs of the affected population. A revised regional flash appeal published in May called for new focus on the needs of conflict-affected communities within the country, including IDPs. However, humanitarian organisations struggled to respond to fast-moving fronts and new waves of displacement, limited access in government-controlled areas, constraints in resources and capacity and prevailing insecurity in conflict-affected areas. At the end of the year the cluster system was deactivated and humanitarian activities gave way to longer-term recovery planning. However parts of the population had continuing need of humanitarian support, and groups including remaining IDPs still faced very significant threats and barriers to their recovery.

**Libya**

| Quick facts |
|------------------|------------------|
| Number of IDPs   | At least 154,000 |
| Percentage of total population | At least 2.4% |
| Start of current displacement situation | 2011 |
| Peak number of IDPs (Year) | 243,000 (2011) |
| New displacement | At least 500,000 |
| Causes of displacement | Armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations |
| Human development index | 64 |
The Occupied Palestinian Territory (OPT) has a long history of displacement, which has resulted from the Israeli occupation of this area and its policies intended to consolidate control over it. Despite international condemnation, the Israeli government’s actions to acquire land and redefine demographic boundaries in the West Bank and East Jerusalem, and its actions to assert military control over Gaza, have continued to cause forced displacement of Palestinians. Over 160,000 people have been internally displaced over the past four decades.

Since the second intifada or uprising in 2000, the number of Palestinians displaced or facing almost certain displacement has risen sharply. Some 90,000 people were in 2011 reportedly facing displacement as a result of restrictive and discriminatory planning, the revocation of their residency rights, the expansion of settlements and the construction of the West Bank Separation Wall.

As the occupying power, Israel is responsible under international humanitarian and human rights law for the welfare of the Palestinians and the territorial integrity of the OPT. Instead its policies have violated these in favour of the construction of settlements in the West Bank and East Jerusalem. In 2011, the population of Jewish settlements in the OPT continued to increase, to over 500,000 settlers in the West Bank and almost 200,000 in East Jerusalem. The rate of construction of settlements continued to increase and the incidence of settler violence increased by 50 per cent from 2010.

Israeli authorities continued to demolish Palestinian houses in 2011 on the basis that they lacked building permits in line with Israeli domestic law. During the year, nearly 1,100 people, including over 600 children, were displaced by the demolition of their homes. The number of demolitions rose by 80 per cent from 2010, and they displaced twice the number of people.

According to OCHA, only about one per cent of the West Bank’s Area C, which is fully controlled by Israel, is allocated for construction by Palestinians. But these small zones have already largely been built on, and applications for permits by Palestinians have consistently been rejected. Thus people there, whose movement is already drastically restricted, have no means of addressing a growing housing shortage.

70 per cent of Area C has been allocated to Israeli military or civilian purposes, including the building of settlements. The activities of the Israeli authorities there have affected an increasingly large number of people, as they have targeted structures essential to the continued existence of entire communities. In particular they have destroyed 46 wells and water-storage structures, 170 animal shelters, two classrooms and two mosques. Coupled with violence by settlers and movement restrictions, these policies have severely affected the livelihoods of about 4,200 Palestinians.

In East Jerusalem, an area that was illegally annexed by Israel in 1967, displacement continued in 2011 as the authorities continued to work towards securing a Jewish majority of at least 60 per cent according to the “Jerusalem 2000” master plan. Under the plan, 13 per cent of land has been allocated for Palestinian construction and 35 per cent to settlers. Victims of demolitions were even charged the costs of the demolition and security staff, causing numerous Palestinians to end up demolishing their own houses. Finally, according to Israeli law, properties in East Jerusalem whose owners reside in the West Bank may become property of the state, since they are considered to be inside Israeli territory and the owner outside it.

Palestinian communities have no means of participating in planning decisions that directly affect them, and face prohibitively expensive and bureaucratic procedures to object to plans already established. People in Area C of the West Bank have to take any requests to the Civil Administration, which is in a military base inside the settlement of Beit Iy, and so embedded among the principal agents of displacement and violence.

In Gaza, people remained displaced and in need of humanitarian support, three years after the Israeli army’s “Cast Lead” operation of 2007 and 2008. Over 6,000 houses were completely destroyed or suffered major damage during the operation. At the end of 2011, humanitarian agencies had only been able to rebuild about 1,500 of them. They had not been able to provide shelter to more than 2,900 families whose homes had already been destroyed prior to the operation, or to over 5,600 Palestinian refugee families who were still living in inadequate shelters. After “Cast Lead”, ongoing military incursions and air strikes destroyed or damaged over 6,900 more homes in Gaza by 2011. With the population growing, an estimated 75,000 additional homes were needed.

Human rights and humanitarian organisations have long called for displacement in OPT to be addressed and have warned of the continuing impact of Israeli policies. As of 2011, the international community’s response remained limited to condemnations which had not been followed by any actions.
2011 witnessed the most profound social upheaval in Syria since the instability of the 1960s that brought the Assad family to power in 1970. The government responded to a wave of social unrest which started in March, first by proposing very limited reforms and then by perpetrating indiscriminate violence against its civilian population. Over 5,000 people were killed and 20,000 arrested.

From March onwards, people across the country were forced to flee in the face of the government’s repressive response. Overall, at least 156,000 people were displaced during the year. Most cases were temporary, with people fleeing their villages and cities before or during an attack and returning after government forces left. However, some people’s homes and property were destroyed by heavy weaponry, and they were forced into lengthier displacement. The largest waves of displacement took place between June and September when nearly 70,000 people left Ma’arat al-Numaan, 45,000 fled Homs, and 41,000 sought safety away from Jisr el-Soghour.

There are four distinct groups of IDPs in Syria. Apart from those displaced by the repression of protests in 2011, three other groups have faced protracted internal displacement. In 1982, following the seizure of Hama by the Sunni Muslim Brotherhood, the army bombarded the city, killing about 20,000 inhabitants and displacing a large number. There is little information on the whereabouts of those people whose homes were demolished or those who have remained displaced out of fear of persecution.

In the 1970s, an unknown number of Kurdish people were displaced from the north-eastern province of Al-Jazeera, after the government deprived most of them of their citizenship; they have remained in protracted displacement. Following the government’s attempt to create an “Arab belt” without Kurdish residents along the Turkish border, up to 60,000 Kurds reportedly left, voluntarily or otherwise, to cities of the north such as Aleppo and Hasaka.

The largest group of IDPs in Syria were displaced from the Golan Heights by the Israeli occupation since the Six-Day War of 1967. The government estimated in 2007 that the people originally displaced and their descendants numbered 433,000 people. They have largely integrated in their current places of residence, principally in the provinces of Al-Suwayda and Damascus in the south of the country. Israel annexed the Golan Heights in 1981, a decision not recognised by the international community, and peace talks have remained stalled.

All of the IDPs in Syria, except those from the Golan Heights, have been displaced by the government’s policies and military actions against its own people. It has accordingly been difficult to get information on their situation. It has also been impossible in most cases for the international community to access victims and provide them with emergency assistance. As for the older cases, the government has so far failed to recognise that its actions have caused displacement, and it is not foreseeable that these IDPs will achieve durable solutions.

It remained doubtful in 2011 whether the government was genuinely willing to integrate its Kurdish population and resolve the situations of those it forcibly displaced in the 1970s. After the 2011 protests began, President Bashar al-Assad announced reforms including the end of emergency laws and the single party policy. In April he announced that Syrian citizenship would be reinstated to the majority of the 300,000 stateless Kurds, but the implementation of these reforms remained unclear at the end of the year.

The determination of protesters in the face of brutal repression increasingly forced the international community to react. OHCHR established a fact-finding mission to Syria in April, but it was not granted access. In August, when the government fired on Palestinian refugees in Al-Ramel camp and forced them to flee, UNRWA condemned the bombardment and called for immediate access to the people newly displaced.

As the year progressed, Syrian citizens’ aspirations for greater freedom were increasingly being politicised as governments in the region and worldwide responded according to their divergent strategic interests. In October, China and Russia vetoed a UN Security Council Resolution on Syria. However, individual states such as Turkey denounced the repression of civilians, while Bahrain, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia and Tunisia withdrew their ambassadors. The League of Arab States did not respond until some of its Persian Gulf members, principally Qatar and Saudi Arabia, criticised the military repression. The League subsequently suspended Syria’s participation. In late December, Syria allowed the League to send a monitoring team; their conclusions acknowledged human rights violations and called for an end to the violence against the civilian population.
As of December 2011, there were at least 463,500 IDPs in Yemen, according to the UN. During the year, the fragmentation of the country continued in the wake of the wider Arab Spring. Yemen’s political crisis deepened as the country became ever more volatile and impoverished; from February, a cycle of protests and state repression spread throughout the country. In the resulting political vacuum, fighting escalated between government armed forces and rival tribal or militant groups which led to displacement across the country.

By the end of the year, at least 175,000 people had been newly displaced across northern, central and southern Yemen. In May, fighting between rival factions in the capital Sana’a displaced thousands. In Zinjibar, the capital of Abeyan governorate, clashes between pro-government factions and Islamic militants forced over 90,000 people to flee to the neighbouring governorates of Lahij and Aden. In late 2011 over 7,000 people fled the city of Taiz, Yemen’s second largest city, following weeks of heavy fighting. Conflict also caused displacement in Shabwa.

In northern Yemen, large numbers of people remained displaced due to the long-running conflict between the Al-Houthi movement and government armed forces. The conflict broke out in Sa’ada governorate in 2004. From mid-2009 until the ceasefire of February 2010, the most violent and destructive round of the conflict spread to Al-Jawf, Hajjah and Amran governorates and to areas bordering Saudi Arabia. Over 340,000 people were internally displaced, most of whom remained in protracted displacement at the end of 2011.

Intermittent violence continued despite the ceasefire and in April 2011, in the wake of the political crisis in Sana’a, the ceasefire collapsed when Al-Houthi groups took control of all of Sa’ada and the majority of Al-Jawf. Al-Houthi groups continued to fight rival tribal and Salafist groups and military forces in Sa’ada and Amran until late 2011.

Displaced and non-displaced people across the country had to contend with insecurity, the scarcity and rising cost of basic necessities, and a rapid decline in the availability of public services including health care and education. Ongoing fighting, checkpoints and landmines prevented many civilians from fleeing or seeking assistance, and also caused death and injury among those who had fled.

For IDPs and others affected by these conflicts, access to clean water, sanitation, food and essential non-food supplies was also inadequate in 2011. In the south, severe water and food shortages were reported in conflict-affected areas of Aden. In northern Yemen, the coping capacities of households in Sa’ada, Amran, Al-Jawf and Sana’a were exhausted as their displacement was prolonged, and IDPs were increasingly forced to compete with host communities for limited resources.

Most IDPs sought refuge among host communities, in rented and overcrowded housing, or in makeshift shelters, many in mosques or schools.

Few of those displaced had returned by the end of the year. In southern and central Yemen, some IDPs in urban areas were able to return soon after being displaced. However, in northern Yemen, only 27,000 registered IDPs returned to their place of origin in 2010 and a quarter of those surveyed had no intention of doing so. Extensive damage to homes and infrastructure, continuing insecurity and violence, the fear of reprisals and the lack of livelihood opportunities and basic services were all standing in their way.

In 2011, humanitarian access continued to be intermittent; however in Sa’ada governorate, UN agencies were able to negotiate wider access for the first time since 2008 after the Al-Houthi movement took control.

The Yemeni government has recognised the situation of displacement and has established mechanisms, including the Executive Unit for IDPs as focal point to coordinate with the humanitarian community and respond to displacement. However, its response has remained limited by the lack of resources and capacity, and the limited access to conflict-affected areas.

The UN has implemented the cluster system since early 2010, and has worked closely with the Executive Unit for IDPs. Several international agencies continued to assist displaced and other conflict-affected communities in 2011, alongside national partners including the Yemeni Red Crescent Society, Al Amal and local relief committees.

In November 2011, the UN launched the 2012 Humanitarian Response Plan for Yemen; it requested 54 per cent more funds than for 2011. Only 64 per cent of the funding requested in the appeal for 2011 had been provided, and the UN continued to appeal for greater international commitment, while calling upon all parties for wider humanitarian access.
Internal displacement in South and South-East Asia

After rising steadily since 2005, the number of IDPs in South and South-East Asia fell in 2011 for the first time in six years. At the end of the year, around 4.3 million people were internally displaced due to armed conflict, violence or human rights violations, compared to 4.6 million a year earlier. The decline was mainly attributable to reported falls in the number of IDPs in Pakistan and Sri Lanka.

In several countries including Afghanistan, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines and Sri Lanka, most people were displaced by armed conflicts between government forces and insurgent groups. In Afghanistan, Myanmar, Pakistan and the Philippines, conflicts were ongoing in 2011. Significant displacement also took place in Thailand and Cambodia due to a decade-long border dispute between the two countries.

In other countries including Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, the Philippines and Timor-Leste, displacement was caused by violence between groups mobilised according to ethnic, religious or clan affiliations competing for land, resources and political power.

The patterns of these displacements depended on factors including the military strategies of parties to conflict, the intensity and the duration of violence and extent of the resulting destruction. People often fled as a result of direct threats of violence, but violence was sometimes only one among many...
factors causing their displacement. Other factors included the adverse effects of conflict or violence on the local economy and on the provision of education and social services.

In many situations in different countries, the majority of IDPs did not gather in camps but dispersed to seek refuge with relatives or other hosts, often in towns and cities. Afghans fleeing from conflict, or from forced recruitment or extortion by armed opposition groups, tended to move as family units although one family member often chose to stay behind to protect property.

New movements in 2011
Some 643,000 people were newly displaced during the year; this marked a decrease from around 800,000 in 2010 and nearly four million in 2009. However, only an estimated 340,000 people were reported as having returned home during 2011, half the number reported in 2010. Most of them had been displaced only a few days or weeks before.

As in previous years, most of the new displacements were concentrated in Afghanistan, Myanmar, Pakistan and the Philippines. Elsewhere, new displacements generally remained limited, but durable solutions were still elusive for many IDPs.

The largest reported displacements took place in Pakistan, of 190,000 people, and in Afghanistan, where over 186,000 people fled their homes, 80 per cent more than in 2010. In Afghanistan, most newly-displaced people fled fighting between the army and international military forces and the Taliban and other armed opposition groups. The increase in their numbers mirrored the escalation of the conflict, which expanded during 2011 from the southern, eastern and western provinces to previously unaffected provinces in the centre, north and north-west.

During 2011, counter-insurgency campaigns still failed to sufficiently incorporate strategies to limit the civilian casualties and the displacement they caused. In Pakistan, most of the 150,000 people who fled fighting in the north-west were displaced in Kurram agency in the Federally Administered Tribal Areas when the government launched operations against militants there. While some managed to seek refuge in a camp in lower Kurram, most stayed with friends and relatives elsewhere in the area. Others joined tens of thousands of families displaced from Kurram since 2007 in neighbouring Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province, including its capital Peshawar.

In the Philippines, new displacements remained concentrated in the Muslim-majority areas of Mindanao, scene of the 2008–2009 conflict between the government and the Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MILF). However the scale and duration of displacement incidents were much reduced. In 2011, counter-insurgency operations, sporadic episodes of violence caused by clan feuds and infighting within or between rebel groups forced around 100,000 people to flee. Most IDPs sought refuge nearby in improvised camps or with friends and relatives, and returned shortly after being displaced.

Protection concerns
IDPs throughout the region faced protection concerns during all stages of their displacement. Their physical security and integrity were particularly threatened during their flight, whether they left their homes in response to military operations or abuses by armed groups. As IDPs fled, sometimes walking for days before finding safety, elderly people, pregnant women and children were often at most risk, with the weakest sometimes dying from exhaustion. In Afghanistan, IDPs were regularly victims of landmines as they fled or attempted to return to their homes.

Sometimes IDPs were unable to reach safer areas. In Pakistan, IDPs fleeing from Kurram were trapped because the main road to Peshawar had been closed due to the fighting.

As in previous years in Myanmar, many IDPs in Indonesia’s Papua province who fled into the jungle to escape counter-insurgency operations were at risk of human rights violations by government forces.
Returning IDPs did not necessarily find greater security in their areas of origin. In Pakistan and Afghanistan, IDPs who had benefited from government assistance were threatened by members of the Taliban on their return. In India, displaced members of the Bru ethnic group returning to Mizoram state were forced into temporary camps by Mizoram organisations which resented their return. In Sri Lanka, as IDPs were relocated to temporary shelters which lacked security and privacy, women and particularly those who were sole heads of households became particularly vulnerable to sexual and gender-based violence. The high number of military personnel in civilian return areas also raised protection concerns there.

Conditions in camps where displaced people sought refuge were very often inadequate, and access to basic necessities limited. The majority of IDPs in many countries did not gather in camps but managed to be taken in by friends or relatives. This enabled them to rely on family or community solidarity. However, in the absence of external assistance, prolonged displacement often led to the impoverishment of both IDPs and their hosts.

In countries where women and girls already faced discrimination, those internally displaced were often at a further disadvantage, in particular when they headed a household. Displaced women who had fled rural areas with limited skills had few options but to engage in low-paid jobs in which they often faced physical abuse. In Nepal, many ended up working as prostitutes in cities. Displaced widows throughout the region often faced discrimination in their place of displacement which restricted their movement, access to livelihoods and participation in public life. In Pakistan, the purdah (honour) system forced many internally displaced women and girls to live in near-complete seclusion with little access to their peers, to water or to sanitation facilities.

Displaced children were vulnerable to a range of threats, including forced recruitment and child labour, which put them at risk of physical abuse and sexual violence. Displaced girls were forced into early marriage and also trafficked, due to the impoverishment of their parents.

Prospects for durable solutions
As in other regions, more information was available on the number of IDPs returning to their places of origin than on the number seeking to integrate in the place they were displaced to or to settle elsewhere.

Most governments continued to prioritise return over these other settlement options. In Nepal, although the national IDP policy did propose support for all three options, only those who agreed to return received assistance. In Afghanistan, the government adopted strategies that denied IDPs access to long-term support in the place they had been displaced to, to encourage them to return. In Pakistan, the government continued to encourage returns, for example to Kurram at the end of August, claiming it was safe to return to villages cleared of militants.

Throughout the region, however, the sustainability of returns was threatened by unresolved land and property issues, the destruction of housing and sources of livelihood, the presence of landmines and unexploded ordnance and the continuing presence of armed groups. The slow pace of reconstruction and limited assistance often hampered the recovery of returning IDPs. In Mindanao in the Philippines, it was estimated that 200,000 people who had returned since 2009 were still in need of humanitarian assistance in 2011. Many were living in damaged homes in inadequate conditions, with limited access to water, sanitation and health care facilities.

Many returning IDPs had great difficulty reestablishing livelihoods. In Aceh in Indonesia, some people had lost their property, land and fisheries during the conflict, while others could not prove their ownership when they returned. Many people could not restart their livelihoods as they had been unable to look after their assets during their displacement, and so were forced to accept low-paid jobs which left them trapped in poverty.

In several countries, natural disasters made the recovery of returned IDPs more difficult. In the Philippines, most areas in Maguindanao province where the government had encouraged return since 2010 were affected by floods during the year. In Afghanistan, widespread food insecurity caused by drought forced many returned IDPs to leave again. Many of them headed for urban areas in search of protection, livelihood opportunities and access to basic services.

Often IDPs ended up staying in urban areas where they had started a new life, even when better security in their home areas enabled them to return. While some managed to integrate and enjoyed higher living standards than in rural areas, many others still struggled with inadequate housing and limited access to basic services. Most received no formal assistance.

Responses to internal displacement
The responses of governments to the protection and assistance needs of their displaced populations varied considerably, and sometimes between displaced groups within the same country. IDPs belonging to an ethnic or religious minority in conflict with the state were often more likely to be treated as potential suspects rather than victims of conflict in need of protection and assistance.

In Indonesia’s Papua, in India and southern Thailand, governments refused to acknowledge that separatist or ethnic conflicts were causing internal displacement and they continued to restrict or discourage foreign access to the displacement-affected areas. While refusing to recognise people fleeing these conflicts as IDPs, the same governments paid much more attention to the needs of other internally displaced groups. This was the case in Indonesia for people displaced by communal violence in Maluku, and in Thailand for people fleeing fighting related to the border dispute with Cambodia.

Even when governments recognised their responsibility to assist and protect their displaced citizens and collaborated with the international community, their response was often insufficient as they lacked the will to commit necessary resources.

In some countries such as Afghanistan, areas remained too dangerous to conduct humanitarian activities; however more frequently government-imposed restrictions on foreign presence limited the access of IDPs to support. In Sri Lanka the government continued to restrict the access of foreign humanitarian organisations to displacement-affected areas.

The attitudes of governments were reflected in the lack of...
progress in developing and implementing policies and legislation to protect IDPs. Efforts to develop legislation continued in the Philippines but failed to produce tangible results, while Sri Lanka’s draft IDP bill, which had been introduced in 2008, came no nearer to being enacted in 2011.

With the exception of Bangladesh, India and Thailand, the assistance and protection activities of international agencies were coordinated through the cluster system. UNHCR or OHCHR led the protection clusters, often in partnership with government counterparts. However, ensuring the active participation of governments in these clusters remained a challenge.

The international community continued to play important support roles by providing funding, in-kind assistance or technical expertise. In some countries international partners supported the often-difficult transition from conflict to peace. These efforts continued during 2011 in Nepal, the Philippines and Timor-Leste, while they had ended in Aceh in Indonesia. Some governments continued to invoke the principle of non-intervention, however, and the principle continued to guide the behaviour of the main regional body ASEAN and its members.

<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>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>At least 450,000</td>
<td>450,000 (IDP Task Force, UNHCR, Ministry of Refugees and Returnees, January 2012)</td>
<td>Figures do not include IDPs scattered in urban/semi-urban locations and people displaced to inaccessible areas by armed conflict and tribal disputes.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td>600,000 (2000)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Figure includes only people internally displaced by the conflict in the Chittagong Hill Tracts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>At least 506,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Compiled by IDMC from various available figures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>Up to 180,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Compiled by IDMC from various available figures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lao People’s Democratic Republic</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></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>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>At least 450,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Estimate for end of 2011, based on estimate from January 2012 of 58,000 IDPs in Kachin State and northern Shan State and more than 400,000 in south-eastern Myanmar (NRC, 25 January 2012).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>About 50,000</td>
<td>50,000 (UN Resident and Humanitarian Coordinator, January 2011)</td>
<td>This figure does not include people displaced in the Terai region since 2007.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>At least 900,000</td>
<td>850,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Includes only people internally displaced by armed conflict, human rights abuses or generalised violence in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and Federally Administered Tribal Areas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Philippines</td>
<td>At least 46,000</td>
<td>At least 46,000 (OCHA, November 2011)</td>
<td>Includes people in government-recognised camps and relocation sites, displaced by conflict in 2008 and 2009, clan violence in 2010 and 2011 or flooding in 2011; but not IDPs living with hosts, people displaced by government operations against Abu Sayaff or the NPA, or people whose return or settlement elsewhere has not been sustainable.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>About 125,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The figure is based on local and national government data compiled by UNHCR, with additional available information integrated by IDMC. Of the 125,000, around 49,000 people were displaced between April 2008 and June 2009 (“new” IDPs) and around 75,000 prior to April 2008 (“old” IDPs). In addition, many among the almost 448,000 who had registered as returnees had not reached a durable solution by the end of 2011.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Available information suggests that up to 240,000 people may have left their homes in violence-affected southern provinces since 2004.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timor-Leste</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>In 2010 the government reported that no IDPs remained, but the sustainability of some returns was uncertain. In January 2011, some 1,000 people were evicted from a former police compound where most had settled after they were displaced in 1999. Most received compensation, but at the end of the year many remained in temporary shelters.</td>
</tr>
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Afghanistan

Quick facts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>At least 450,000</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of IDPs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>At least 1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement situation</td>
<td>2001</td>
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<tr>
<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
<td>1,200,000 (2002)</td>
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<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>About 186,000</td>
</tr>
<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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According to UNHCR and the Afghan government, at least 450,000 people remained internally displaced in Afghanistan at the end of 2011 due to continued armed conflict, widespread human rights violations and generalised violence. This figure was the highest since 2002, and almost double the estimated number of IDPs in 2008; however it was widely considered to under-represent the magnitude of forced displacement, as it excluded IDPs dispersed in many inaccessible locations and also in more accessible urban and semi-urban areas.

The primary cause of displacement was, as in previous years, the armed conflict between the Afghan National Security Forces and international military forces on the one side, and Taliban and other armed opposition groups on the other. Other causes included targeted attacks, intimidation and forced recruitment by armed groups, as well as inter-ethnic disputes and local conflicts over access to land and water.

Approximately 186,000 people were newly displaced by conflict and violence in 2011, compared to 102,000 during 2010. This increase occurred against a backdrop of decades of war, chronic poverty, frequent natural disasters and extreme weather. Few parts of the country remained immune from displacement as the conflict continued to spread from the southern, eastern, and western regions to the centre, north and north-west. Meanwhile, the ongoing closures of refugee camps in Pakistan and the insecurity there, coupled with the deportation from Iran of unregistered Afghan refugees, continued to reduce cross-border displacement options for many Afghans.

While some IDPs had sought the support of relatives and tribal networks, most of those who could be reached by humanitarian actors were living either in camps or camp-like settings or in informal settlements near urban areas. IDPs increasingly sought the relative protection of cities where shelter and livelihoods were perceived to be more accessible. A 2011 World Bank-UNHCR study revealed that urban IDPs were more vulnerable and worse-off than the non-displaced urban poor, as they were particularly affected by unemployment, lack of access to proper housing and food insecurity. Only one third surveyed had access to electricity, adequate water supplies and sanitation facilities.

IDPs facing particular threats included disabled and older people, children and female heads of households, whose resources and coping abilities were often limited by traditional codes of social seclusion. Children, who accounted for 60 per cent of the conflict-induced displaced population, were at risk of child labour, forced recruitment, sexual violence and trafficking. Internally displaced children in makeshift shelters have also died from exposure during the coldest winter periods.

Increasing numbers of IDPs have found themselves in protracted displacement as the conflict and violence persisted. 117,000 of those who fled prior to 2003 remained displaced in 2011, and reportedly few urban IDPs intended to return in the foreseeable future. Prospects of durable solutions for IDPs and refugees returning to Afghanistan after prolonged displacements were also limited by their landlessness or their inability to recover property they had left behind, and by the diminished social support mechanisms available.

A large proportion of IDPs who did try to return were subsequently forced to move again. The many obstacles which they faced upon return included persistent insecurity, damage to their property, continued disruption of livelihoods, and food insecurity. These challenges were compounded by the widespread presence of landmines and other unexploded ordnance in large areas of the country, and by the eighth year of drought in 11 years.

The government’s response to internal displacement remained inadequate, mainly because of its limited control over parts of the country, its insufficient capacity and its reluctance to recognise all IDPs. Neither the Ministry of Refugees and Repatriation (MoRR) nor the Afghanistan Natural Disaster Management Authority had the resources or political stature to effectively fulfil their mandates. Afghanistan had yet to develop a comprehensive legal or policy framework on internal displacement; its strategy for refugee returnees and IDPs described in the Afghanistan National Development Strategy for 2008–2013 promotes the return of IDPs over their local integration or their settlement elsewhere.

The response to the humanitarian needs of IDPs remained greatly impaired by limited access to IDPs and returnees, insufficient funding and the lack of timely and reliable information.

Humanitarian activities were coordinated through the cluster system and the national and regional IDP task forces co-chaired by UNHCR and MoRR. In 2011, the national IDP Task Force worked to improve coordination with the provincial departments of refugees and repatriation, and to profile and monitor IDPs. However the impact of these mechanisms had yet to be ascertained by the end of the year.
In 2011 as in previous years, there were in India several distinct ongoing situations of internal displacement caused by armed conflict and ethnic or communal violence. In Jammu and Kashmir, people remained displaced, as they had since 1990 due to separatist violence targeting the Hindu minority.

The people displaced by the fighting between Bengali settlers backed by the army and indigenous peoples seeking increased self-government were mostly of non-Bengali origin. The Accord granted cultural recognition and a degree of autonomy to indigenous groups, and foresaw the rehabilitation of IDPs, but their situation has not been resolved.

The government established a land commission to settle land disputes and the Task Force on Rehabilitation of Returnee Refugees and Internally Displaced Persons to register and support IDPs, but these institutions have not met their objectives. Meanwhile human rights violations by armed forces members and clashes between indigenous groups and settlers continued into 2011. Though largely undocumented due to reporting restrictions, these violations and clashes displaced many people during the course of the armed conflict. Settlers fled to areas around army camps for safety and assistance, and indigenous people to more remote areas or into the forests, where they had little access to food or basic services such as health care and schools.

In 2011, there was still little information on IDPs' specific needs. The UN Special Rapporteur on the rights of indigenous peoples found that people in CHT continued to face arbitrary arrests and sexual harassment at the hands of the security forces. The displaced people among them have also reported that finding shelter is their primary concern, followed by employment, education for their children and sufficient food.

The international community has provided political support but not direct assistance to IDPs in the CHT.

In India, displacement has been caused since 2005 by armed conflicts over land and mineral resources which pitted government forces and allied militias against Maoist insurgents. People had also fled communal violence between the majority Hindu populations and Muslim and Christian minorities in Gujarat in 2002, and in Orissa in 2007 and 2008.

In 2011, new displacement continued. At least 50,000 people were forced to flee their homes early in the year due to inter-ethnic violence between Rabha and Garo people in the north-eastern states of Assam and Meghalaya. In November, more than 3,000 people were forcibly evicted from floating islands on Loktak Lake in Manipur by local authorities, allegedly as a counter-insurgency measure. In central India, the armed conflict continued, probably leading to new displacement.

It is estimated that at least 506,000 people were living in displacement at the end of 2011 due to these conflicts and
violence. This is a very conservative estimate, as it includes only identified IDPs living in camps. The majority of IDPs in India, however, were believed to be living outside camps, with large numbers dispersed in India’s cities. In addition, many of those who had moved out of camps, including those who had returned, were unlikely to have found a durable solution to their displacement and should therefore still be viewed as part of India’s internally displaced population.

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

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

Where the return of IDPs has been possible, doubts have remained about its sustainability in the absence of information on their situations. In the north-east, the return of more than 35,000 Bru people displaced from Mizoram state to Tripura state in 1997 and 2009 began in May 2010 and continued in 2011. By the end of the year, up to 5,000 people had been able to go back to Mizoram, but once there, many had to settle in temporary camps as Mizo organisations associated with their original displacement strongly resented their return.

There is no national policy, legislation or other mechanism to respond to the needs of people displaced by armed conflict or generalised violence in India. The central government has generally devolved responsibility for their protection to state governments and district authorities. These bodies are often unaware of IDPs’ rights or reluctant to offer support, particularly in those cases where they have played a role in causing the displacement.

As of 2011, no ministry at the central level was mandated to ensure the protection of IDPs, and no central government agency was responsible for monitoring the number and situation of people displaced, returning, settling elsewhere in India or seeking to integrate locally. Humanitarian and human rights organisations had limited access to IDPs. Nonetheless, some national agencies and human rights bodies, including the National Commission for Protection of Child Rights, advocated on behalf of people internally displaced by conflict and violence.

Indonesia

Quick facts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of IDPs</th>
<th>Up to 180,000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>Up to 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>About 15,000</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>124</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

During 2011, thousands of people were newly displaced in Indonesia, by renewed inter-communal violence in Maluku and East Java provinces and by operations targeting rebels of the Free Papua Movement (Organisasi Papua Merdeka or OPM) in Papua province. In Maluku, as many as 500 homes in the capital Ambon were destroyed in September by fighting between Christians and Muslims; over 3,000 people were displaced, some losing their homes for the fourth time in 12 years. In East Java in December, over 300 members of a Shi’ite Muslim minority on Madura Island were driven from their homes, before being forced to return without any security guarantees.

In Papua, an unknown number of people were displaced between April and December in the central highlands region of Puncak Jaya. The largest displacement took place in mid-December in Paniai regency, where 10,000 people were reportedly forced from their homes. Many IDPs were reported to have taken refuge in the jungle to escape violence at the hands of the security forces. The limited access to the area made it difficult to assess their needs and provide assistance.

Meanwhile, in several provinces, durable solutions remained elusive for tens of thousands of IDPs. Many of them had first been displaced more than ten years before by inter-communal violence opposing different ethnic or religious groups, or by separatist struggles between rebel groups and the country’s security forces. For many, the assistance they had received had not enabled them to overcome their displacement.

They continued to face economic and social marginalisation, and they were still unable to assert their ownership or tenancy rights over land and property.
In Maluku, before violence erupted again in 2011, it was estimated that as many as 30,000 people displaced between 1999 and 2004 were still in need of assistance.

In Aceh province, five years after a 30-year armed conflict between government forces and Acehnese separatists ended, up to 146,000 people had not yet managed to return to their homes or to sustainably resettle or integrate elsewhere. Most of them were ethnic Javanese migrants who had been forced to leave by Acehnese rebels, and still feared for their safety should they return. In many cases, displaced people had returned to their home areas, only to find their situation worsen due to the damage to infrastructure and property and the lack of social services and economic opportunities there. Most IDPs had received no specific assistance since the end of the conflict.

In West Timor, the main challenges were related to lack of land ownership and livelihood opportunities. Most “new citizens” were living in resettlement sites to which they had been moved since 2003, after the state withdrew their IDP or refugee status. Many of them had bought land on credit which they were now unable to pay off, as they had not received the government assistance they expected. In addition, several thousand people were still living in emergency camps around Kupang, where they had little access to basic necessities. Few people from East Timor had returned to their homes there since 2001, although the number had increased since 2009.

Displacement was also ongoing in Central Sulawesi, almost ten years after the conflict there had ended. There were no reliable estimates as data on IDPs had not been updated since 2006, but in 2009, the National Human Rights Commission reported that “several thousand people” remained displaced in Poso regency. In 2011, provincial government officials recognised that land and property issues affecting IDPs were still largely unresolved.

Since 2004, the government had officially considered the various internal displacement situations resolved, even though corruption, poor coordination and limited local capacity have stopped a large number of IDPs receiving the assistance they needed to recover. However, the government had continued to provide assistance to both IDPs and host communities in regions where significant numbers had remained displaced.

Since 2007, central government funding had been discontinued and responsibility for IDPs had been transferred to provincial and district authorities. The National Disaster Management Agency has long-term responsibility for people displaced by natural disasters and “social conflicts”, while the Ministry of Social Affairs is responsible for providing relief during emergencies.

In recent years, the UN has mainly addressed the needs of IDPs through community-level reintegration and development projects aimed at improving livelihoods opportunities for the most vulnerable members of the population. A small number of international NGOs, most of them with funding from the EU, have maintained programmes supporting resettlement and livelihood programmes for IDPs in a number of provinces, including Maluku, Central Sulawesi and West Timor.

Myanmar

At the end of 2011, it was estimated that more than 450,000 people remained internally displaced in Myanmar. During the year, however, the country underwent a number of significant positive political changes. With prospects of a democratic future broadened, there was renewed optimism that these developments could bring about the end of armed conflicts between the government and a number of ethnic armed groups, which have caused much of the internal displacement in the country in the past decades.

In March 2011, a new nominally-civilian government under President Thein Sein took office. It had been elected in November 2010, in the first national elections since 1990. In August 2011, the president met opposition leader Aung San Suu Kyi, who had been banned from standing for office and had been under house arrest until November 2010. Her party, the National League for Democracy, was subsequently able to register to stand in by-elections scheduled for April 2012. Some political prisoners were released in May and October 2011. The government also passed legislation permitting the establishment of labour unions and the organisation of peaceful demonstrations, and it reduced censorship of the media.

In September, as a result of popular protest, President Thein Sein decided to stop construction of the Chinese-funded Myitson hydropower dam in Kachin state. Nevertheless, fighting between the Kachin Independence Army and government forces in Kachin state and the northern part of Shan state was continuing at the end of 2011, after a 17-year-old ceasefire between the two parties collapsed in June.
At least 50,000 people were thus newly displaced in Kachin state and the northern part of Shan state. There were reports of human rights violations and violations of international humanitarian law. In December, a UN team started providing assistance to some IDPs who had taken refuge in the town of Laiza, on the border with China. The Myanmar National Human Rights Commission visited some IDP camps in Kachin state and issued a statement on the humanitarian situation and the needs of the IDPs.

In the south-eastern part of the country (Shan, Kayah, Kayin, and Mon states as well as Bago and Tanintharyi regions), the humanitarian crisis continued throughout 2011. At the end of the year, more than 400,000 people were estimated to be living in internal displacement there. They had been forced to flee their homes due to armed conflicts between armed groups and government forces, and due to human rights violations related to the conflicts.

During the 1990s, the government concluded ceasefires with most armed groups, enabling them to pursue economic activities and to control territory. Some of these groups reportedly went on to heavily exploit natural resources in areas under their control, without benefit to local civilians. New tensions and fighting ensued in 2009, when the government ordered all armed groups to transform into “border guard forces” led by the Myanmar army. For those groups that refused, the government considered their ceasefires to have ended.

In the second half of 2011, the government began negotiating new ceasefires with armed groups. In September and November, initial peace agreements were signed, in Shan state with the United Wa State Army and the National Democratic Alliance Army (Mongla), and in Kayin state with the 5th Brigade of the Democratic Karen Buddhist Army. The government also started negotiating with other armed groups, including the Karen National Union/Karen National Liberation Army, which had never concluded a ceasefire agreement with the government before. A national peace conference to which all ethnic groups would be invited was also being planned.

Following the government’s steps towards political reform, several foreign officials visited in 2011, including from countries that were imposing sanctions on Myanmar. In 2012, the international community should support the government’s efforts to pursue ceasefire negotiations in order to promote genuine and lasting peace with ethnic minority groups.

The political changes in Myanmar also opened up the way not only for increased humanitarian aid from donors, but also greater foreign investment. It will be important to ensure that such investment follows ethical guidelines. Meanwhile, the humanitarian needs of IDPs and others in the border states must not be forgotten.

### 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, generalised violence, human rights violations
- Human development index: 157

At the end of 2011, more than five years after the government of Nepal and Maoist rebels ended their ten-year conflict, the number of people still internally displaced by the war and by inter-ethnic violence was unknown. However, most international agencies in Nepal agreed that they numbered about 50,000. Most IDPs were still living in the main cities such as Kathmandu. Some of them had managed to integrate and find jobs, but others, including in particular children and women, were struggling to find proper accommodation or access basic services. They were also exposed to discrimination, sexual exploitation and trafficking, and the children to child labour. Recognising these vulnerabilities, the government launched a national action plan in February to better address their specific needs.

The process of registering IDPs, which officially closed in mid-2011, was fraught with problems. Many IDPs were unaware of the process and failed to register in time.

Between 2008 and 2011, the Ministry of Peace and Reconstruction helped around 25,000 of the 78,000 people officially registered as IDPs to return home. However, in a depressed post-war economy, many returned IDPs had still not found a way to meet their essential needs in 2011. Many citizens in rural areas were unable to access basic services: the government lacked the institutions, resources and presence, and absenteeism was widespread among frontline staff.

The new government enacted a national IDP policy in 2007, but its implementation has been limited. In 2011, a number of activities planned by the protection cluster in support of the policy were blocked, as the government had still not adopted implementation guidelines.

In December, the government decided not to renew OHCHR’s mandate, leaving UNHCR as the likely candidate to take over as protection lead.
Conflict between insurgents and government armed forces, and local sectarian and tribal conflicts have displaced millions of people within the Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA) and in Pashto-dominated Khyber-Pakhtunkhwa (KPK) in north-west Pakistan since 2007. Many of the people displaced returned home between mid-2009 and mid-2011, in particular to northern and central areas of FATA, but information on the outcomes of these returns has remained limited.

According to official statistics, some 850,000 people from FATA remained internally displaced at the end of 2011; ongoing insecurity, the destruction of infrastructure and land disputes all continued to obstruct their return. More than 150,000 people were forced from their homes in 2011, most of them fleeing insecurity and fighting in Khyber, Kurram and Mohmand agencies in FATA.

According to the FATA Disaster Management Authority and the national IDP survey published in July 2011, around 90 per cent of IDPs would prefer to return to their places of origin than to integrate locally or resettle elsewhere. However, despite their stated desire to return, local integration was the only realistic settlement choice for hundreds of thousands of them. During the year, the government declared a number of areas to be “cleared” of suspected militants and informed IDPs that they could return to their homes. However, the lack of security guarantees in return areas and the difficulties in recovering abandoned property both stood in their way. Overall, poorer IDPs could not afford to remain in displacement and so returned, while better-off IDPs bought land in KPK and sought to integrate there.

10,000 registered IDPs from Mohmand agency displaced to the Nahaqai and Danishkool camps in early 2011 had returned to their areas of origin by November, as had some 23,000 households displaced from Orakzai during 2010. 6,600 of around 42,000 families displaced from South Waziristan returned. However, the government did not report on the progress of IDPs towards other durable solutions.

Government statistics showed that the displaced population was, like the general population, young and roughly equally divided between men and women. The statistics highlighted that 60 per cent of IDPs were children. The vast majority of internally displaced households were headed by men.

Nearly all displaced households were better off before they fled their homes. Those who had more resources before fleeing continued to enjoy better living conditions once displaced, while those who were poorer prior to displacement remained more marginalised in their places of refuge. While most internally displaced men could access work, with a resulting fall in wages for all workers in places of refuge, a national IDP survey suggested that most internally displaced families were highly vulnerable in economic terms. Seven out of ten were living below the national poverty line. Being able to pay rent was their greatest concern along with access to food and water.

The impact of internal displacement on women has been particularly significant. Food and other assistance including cash support have mainly been channelled through registered male heads of internally displaced households. Due to the demands which purdah (honour) places on women, internally displaced women and girls in crowded and unfamiliar environments, and women who have fled without the male head of their household, may have faced complete exclusion, particularly in camps where they have no male host family members to live with. Together, these factors have left displaced women, including older women, second wives and those seen as dependant on a male relative, with reduced access to assistance and essential services.

The government, assisted by the international community, has provided food, household items, temporary shelters and cash assistance to millions of IDPs, preventing a large-scale humanitarian crisis. However, since 2007, there have been significant limitations in the response due to access challenges for humanitarian actors. Rural populations in or near areas affected by conflict or insecurity, who may have the greatest humanitarian needs, have had limited access to assistance.

The government had yet to develop a comprehensive national policy on IDPs at the end of 2011. Since 2007, the government’s budget allocation for IDPs has not been able to meet the needs, and humanitarian assistance has largely depended on the support of local and international communities.
The Philippines

Internal armed conflicts have caused internal displacement in the Philippines for more than 30 years. In 2008 and 2009, 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, until the parties declared a ceasefire in July 2009. While the vast majority of IDPs have since been able to return to their home areas, most have done so without any assistance and recurrent flooding has severely disrupted their livelihoods and forced many to leave again.

During 2011, new displacements in Mindanao were mainly caused by violence between local clans, infighting among MILF groups and clashes between the Armed Forces of the Philippines (AFP) and the communist rebels of the New People’s Army. These events displaced around 100,000 people during the year, but most IDPs managed to return home shortly afterwards. The largest displacement took place in October, when almost 23,000 people were displaced in Zamboanga Sibugay province by an AFP operation against MILF rebel factions. Between June and September, flooding displaced close to one million people in Mindanao, half of them in Maguindanao province and in December, tropical storm Washi forced more than 220,000 people to leave their homes in northern Mindanao. Some of those displaced by these natural disasters had already been displaced by conflict or clan violence.

Before the tropical storm hit Mindanao, the government reported that 46,000 IDPs were still living in government-recognised camps and relocation sites, nearly two-thirds of them female. Almost all of them were in Maguindanao, one of the majority-Muslim provinces of the Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao, where most of the fighting had been concentrated. The camps included people displaced by clan feuds or the floods as well as those still displaced by the 2008–2009 conflict. These IDPs were unwilling to return because of their security concerns and the destruction of their homes and livelihood resources; and also because access to services remained better in camps than in return areas. Many IDPs felt safer visiting their homes during the day to farm and collect fruit or firewood, and then returning to the camps at night.

Meanwhile, according to the UN, an estimated 200,000 people who had returned home since 2009 remained in need of humanitarian assistance and support to help them rebuild their homes and lives. These returned IDPs often faced much harder conditions than those who remained displaced. Those who returned during 2011 faced similar problems to the earlier returnees: limited access to agricultural assets, education, health care services and to water and sanitation facilities. Having lost their household and productive assets and having accumulated significant debts as a result of their displacement, most of them could not afford to replace lost livestock and tools or to buy essential agricultural items. The situation of many returning IDPs was worsened by the June and September 2011 floods, which affected nearly three quarters of the 46 areas prioritised by the government for return in 2010.

The Philippine government provided significant assistance to people displaced by the 2008–2009 conflict, although most of it was short-term emergency relief. It has paid far less attention to IDPs’ long-term reintegration and recovery needs, and it has seldom sought their views on matters related to their return. Nor has it offered them support to integrate in the place they were displaced to or to settle elsewhere.

The response of local authorities has reflected their limited understanding of protection concerns related to displacement and of their responsibilities to IDPs. The authorities have had to rely for guidance on unclear national policies and mechanisms; however an IDP bill filed in 2010 made gradual progress during 2011, as both parliamentary chambers approved an amended version.

Since the end of 2010, the Office of the Presidential Adviser on the Peace Process has overseen the Programme for Communities in Conflict-Affected Areas (known by its Tagalog acronym PAMANA), a broad peace-building and reconstruction programme for Mindanao which also incorporates IDP assistance. The government announced in July 2011 that as part of the PAMANA programme it would finance the construction of 4,000 core shelters for IDPs by 2012, although five months later it reduced this number to 2,300.

The international presence in Mindanao was limited during the conflict, but it grew significantly after the 2009 ceasefire. In 2010, UNHCR was authorised to set up an office in Mindanao and took over the leadership of the Protection Cluster from IOM. By the end of 2010, the focus of the response had shifted from emergency assistance to early recovery and development support. In December 2011, the UN launched a humanitarian action plan for the second consecutive year, requesting $65 million to support its continuing operations in 2012.
At the end of 2011, over two and a half years after the defeat in May 2009 of the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE) by Sri Lankan government forces, hundreds of thousands of people were still in need of humanitarian support related to their displacement. They included around 125,000 people who remained internally displaced, either in camps, with host families or in transit situations, and large numbers of people from among the 448,000 who had registered as returned to their places of origin in the Northern and Eastern provinces, who had not yet been able to reach a durable solution.

Among “new” IDPs displaced between April 2008 and June 2009, more than 227,000 had been registered as returned at the end of the year, while some 49,000 were still living in displacement: over 6,700 in the Menik Farm camp and the remaining 42,000 with host families. In Kilinochchi and Mullaitivu Districts, 15 administrative localities remained closed to return at the end of 2011, with some among them still not tasked for humanitarian demining.

In September 2011, the government set up a “relocation” site near the village of Kombavil in Mullaitivu for the IDPs in Menik Farm. It was not clear whether the site was intended to be temporary or permanent, but the government promised that state land would be allocated to families moving there, transitional shelter and livelihood support provided, and infrastructure developed. Initially the scheme met with some resistance from the IDPs, who did not want to move to another temporary location and did not want to lose their right to return to their place of origin. In November, 72 families originating from closed areas in Mullaitivu were relocated there.

Of some 300,000 “old” IDPs and returned IDPs who had been displaced prior to April 2008, more than 220,000 had registered as returned by the end of 2011. More than 75,000 remained in protracted displacement, most of them with host families. Among them, the majority were from Jaffna and could not return as their areas of origin were still designated as High Security Zones covering 15 complete and 8 partial administrative localities. 4,000 IDPs were from the area falling under the new Special Economic Zone in Trincomalee district (which had previously been part of the Sampur High Security Zone).

Among the “old” IDPs were 75,000 Muslims who had been displaced to Puttalam in 1990 when the LTTE expelled them from their homes. Since 2009, many of them had returned to their places of origin in Jaffna, Mannar and Mullaitivu. In 2011, they were required to de-register as IDPs, but although many registered in their places of origin, large numbers remained in Puttalam at the end of the year.

A number of obstacles were preventing IDPs and returned IDPs from reaching durable solutions in 2011. Many could not access land, shelter or housing, and those who could did not enjoy security of tenure over it. Their access to livelihoods and basic services was also limited. The construction of permanent and temporary shelters was slow in 2011, leaving the vast majority living in inadequate shelters. Overcrowding and exposure to adverse weather conditions left them vulnerable to ill health and other threats.

As a result of the armed conflict, there were many widows and abandoned families among internally displaced and returned households, and many men were either missing or in rehabilitation. Women living in temporary shelters were particularly vulnerable to gender-based violence. Less able to move around safely on their own and with fewer vocational skills and fewer opportunities than men, they also had less access to livelihoods.

Over two and a half years after the end of the armed conflict, the transition to civilian administration that could have been expected had not taken place. The armed forces continued to play a significant role in controlling civilian activities and public administration in the areas which had been affected by the armed conflict, and were also engaging in commercial activities, hindering some returned IDPs’ recovery of livelihoods.

Sri Lanka still has no legislation to formalise support to conflict-induced IDPs: a bill to this end introduced in 2008 had not moved forward as of 2011. Meanwhile, humanitarian organisations faced difficulties in meeting displaced people’s outstanding needs. A requirement that UN agencies and NGOs obtain permission from the Ministry of Defence to access the Vanni region of the Northern province was lifted in August 2011. However, the Presidential Task Force for Resettlement, Development and Security was still authorised to approve or reject humanitarian projects in the Northern province, and the armed forces had a role in selecting beneficiaries and coordinating humanitarian assistance. This restricted the implementation of specific types of activity, by certain implementing organisations, in particular locations.
Thailand

Around 50,000 people were displaced in February and April 2011 by fighting between Thai and Cambodian forces related to a decade-long border dispute between the countries. Most people were able to return to their homes shortly after the fighting subsided, but some faced recovery challenges due to damage to their property, the presence of unexploded ordnance and a decline in household income due to the suspension of border trade.

Displacement was also ongoing in the southern provinces of Narathiwat, Pattani and Yala, where the government has been facing Malay Muslim separatist groups for more than a century. Violence which resumed in 2004 had by 2011 caused an estimated 5,000 deaths and 8,300 injuries. During 2011, around 1,500 people were killed or injured, most of them civilians.

The Buddhist minority in the south has been disproportionately affected by the violence, and many have fled their homes and moved to safer areas within or outside the three conflict-affected provinces. The number of people displaced since 2004 remains unknown, but available information suggests that at least 30 per cent of Buddhists and ten per cent of Malay Muslims, or up to 240,000 people in total, may have left their homes. While some have fled in direct response to the violence, many have moved because of the adverse effects of the conflict on the economy and on the provision of education and social services. Most IDPs have moved to urban areas inside the affected provinces, where like the rest of the population, they remain at risk of violence from both sides.

The government has not taken any steps to assess the extent of this displacement, through systematic monitoring of movements and needs; nor has it adopted measures to address the issue. It has mostly limited its assistance to victims of insurgent violence and their families.

Timor-Leste

The majority of Timor-Leste’s population of just over one million has experienced violent displacement at least once. In 1999, following a UN-supervised referendum on independence from Indonesia, 80 per cent of the population fled violence unleashed by pro-integration militias backed by the Indonesian security forces. In 2006, an estimated 150,000 people were displaced, as their homes and property in the capital Dili were seized or destroyed during violence. The causes included political rivalries and land disputes dating back to the struggle for independence, divisions between “easterners” and “westerners” within the new state, and also chronic poverty and the lack of job prospects.

The government reported that there were no more IDPs in 2010, after it closed the last camps and paid compensation to their remaining residents. However, it remained unclear in 2011 whether returned IDPs had managed to achieve durable solutions in a context where the majority of the population suffers from multiple deprivations including lack of access to food, livelihoods, health, education, housing and justice. There were also concerns related to the capacity of communities to reintegrate IDPs and resolve land disputes in the absence of a national framework.

In January 2011, an estimated 1,000 people were evicted from a former police compound where most of them had settled after they were displaced in 1999. Most received compensation, but it was reportedly insufficient to secure housing and land. At the end of the year, many of them remained in temporary shelters. The security of tenure of such people could be put at further risk by proposed land laws which were awaiting enactment at the end of 2011.

During 2011, the Protection Cluster led by OHCHR continued to monitor the situation of returning IDPs within its overview of protection issues facing the whole population. UNDP assisted the government on land and property issues and on peacebuilding and social cohesion.
The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) was established by the Norwegian Refugee Council in 1998, on the request of the Inter-Agency Standing Committee to set up a global database on internal displacement. 14 years later, IDMC remains the leading source of information and analysis on internal displacement caused by armed conflict, generalized violence and violations of human rights worldwide. Since 2009, IDMC has also monitored displacement due to disasters associated with natural hazards.

IDMC aims to support better international and national responses to situations of internal displacement and respect for the rights of internally displaced people (IDPs), many of whom are 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;
- Researching, analysing and advocating for the rights of IDPs;
- Providing training on the protection of IDPs;
- Contributing to the development of guidelines and standards on protecting and assisting IDPs.

www.internal-displacement.org

Global Overview 2011
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