Internal Displacement
Global Overview of Trends and Developments in 2009
Internally displaced people worldwide December 2009

Mexico
5,000–8,000

Serbia
225,000–230,000

Croatia
2,400

Bosnia & Herz.
114,000

FYR Macedonia
650

Cyprus
Up to 201,000

Israel
Undetermined

Occupied Palestinian Territory
At least 160,000

Senegal
24,000–40,000

Chad
168,000

Liberia
Undetermined

Côte d´Ivoire
Undetermined

Nigeria
Undetermined

Niger
6,500

Togo
Undetermined

Angola
Undetermined

Zimbabwe
570,000–1,000,000

Burundi
100,000

Rwanda
Undetermined

Uganda
At least 437,000

Kenya
Undetermined

Turkey
954,000–1,201,000

Georgia
At least
230,000

Armenia
8,400

Azerbaijan
586,000

Uzbekistan
3,400

Turkmenistan
Undetermined

Afghanistan
At least 297,000

Pakistan
1,230,000

Nepal
50,000–70,000

Bangladesh
60,000–500,000

Guatemala
Undetermined

Colombia
3,300,000–4,900,000

Peru
150,000

CAR
162,000

Eritrea
10,000

Ethiopia
300,000–350,000

Lebanon
90,000–390,000

Somalia
1,500,000

India
At least 500,000

Iraq
2,764,000

Syria
433,000

Yemen
At least 175,000

Sri Lanka
400,000

Myanmar
At least 470,000

Indonesia
70,000–120,000

Timor-Leste
400

The Philippines
125,000–188,000

Russian Federation
80,000

Congo
7,800

Algeria
Undetermined

Sudan
4,900,000

Kosovo
19,700
Internal Displacement

Global Overview of Trends and Developments in 2009

May 2010
Internally displaced children shell their family's monthly ten-kilogramme ration of beans inside their home at Buhimbe Camp near Goma in North Kivu, Democratic Republic of the Congo. (Photo: IRIN/Aubrey Graham, July 2009)

Contributors

Authors and contributors: Sebastián Albuja, Christophe Beau, Alice Farmer, Anne-Kathrin Glatz, Edmund Jennings, Cecilia Jimenez, Kate Halff, Karim Khalil, Frederik Kok, Kim Mancini, Barbara McCallin, Marzia Montemurro, Laura Perez, Katinka Ridderbos, Jacob Rothing, Nuur Mohamud Sheekh, Nina Sluga, Nadine Walicki, Greta Zeender

Thanks also to Simone Cosma, Véronique de Crouy and Jacqueline Shahinian at IDMC, and to the staff of the Norwegian Refugee Council for their assistance and advice.

Editors: Nina M. Birkeland, Kate Halff and Edmund Jennings
Maps and layout: Rachel Dolores
Database: Ali Anwar
Design: Laris(s)ia, laris-s-a.com
Printing: SRO-Kundig, Geneva
Cover photo: An internally displaced family leaving Jalozai camp, about 140 kilometres north-west of Pakistan’s capital Islamabad. (Photo: REUTERS/Ali Imam, July 2009)

Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre
Norwegian Refugee Council
Chemin de Balexert 7-9, CH-1219 Châteleine (Geneva), Switzerland
Tel.: +41 22 799 07 00 Fax: +41 22 799 07 01
www.internal-displacement.org
The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre

The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) was established by the Norwegian Refugee Council in 1998, upon the request of the United Nations, to set up a global database on internal displacement. A decade later, IDMC remains the leading source of information and analysis on internal displacement caused by conflict and violence worldwide.

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

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

IDMC thanks the donors who supported its work in 2009 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, Canada’s DFAIT, the Dutch MFA, Tides Foundation, the Liechtenstein MFA, the Luxembourg MFA, the European Commission’s Humanitarian Aid Office (ECHO), the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), Stichting Vluchteling, the UN’s Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) and other supporters.
Guide to country pages

The maps and tables are intended to make the most essential information on a situation of internal displacement accessible at a glance.

Afghanistan

Quick facts

Number of IDPs | 297,000
---|---
Percentage of total population | 1.1%
Start of current displacement situation | 2001
Peak number of IDPs (Year) | 1,200,000 (2002)
New displacement | 250,000
Causes of displacement | International armed conflict
Human development index | 181

Quick facts

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

Where the estimated number is given, the percentage of the country population is also included. Percentages are based on the country population figures listed in UNFPA’s State of World Population 2009 at www.unfpa.org/swp. It should be noted that there is some uncertainty over the population of several countries in this report and using other available population estimates would give significantly different percentage results.

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

New displacements and returns in 2009 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 internal, international and internationalised armed conflict, situations of generalised violence, and violations of human rights. IDMC did not in 2009 monitor situations of disaster-related internal displacement.

The 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 75 are considered highly developed, and those with a ranking between 154 and 179 are the least developed countries in the list. A small number of countries facing ongoing conflict are not ranked.

Key to maps and symbols

Areas of origin of IDPs
Areas to which people have been displaced
Areas within which people have been displaced
New displacement reported in 2009
IDPs in situation of protracted displacement
Urban displacement
National legal framework or policy pertaining to the protection of IDPs in place at the end of 2009
IDP profiling exercise completed
National human rights institutions with full accreditation (status A) according to the Paris Principles in 2009: see www.nhri.net for more information
Signatories in 2009 to the African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (the Kampala Convention)
## Contents

- **Key findings** .............................................. 8
- **Introduction** .............................................. 11
- **Global developments in 2009** ................. 12
  - Global trends ........................................... 13
  - Reported movements .................................... 15
  - IDPs living in displacement .......................... 18
  - Durable solutions ........................................ 21
  - Responses to internal displacement .................. 24
- **Internal displacement in Africa** ............ 29
- **Internal displacement in the Americas** ......... 48
- **Internal displacement in Europe and Central Asia** .... 53
- **Internal displacement in the Middle East** ....... 64
- **Internal displacement in South and South-East Asia** ..... 72
Key findings

Facts and figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of people internally displaced by conflict or violence as of December 2009</td>
<td>27.1 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of countries covered by this report</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most affected region</td>
<td>Africa (11.6 million IDPs in 21 countries)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Region with the largest relative increase in number of IDPs in 2009</td>
<td>South and South-East Asia (with a 23 per cent year-on-year increase from 3.5 million to 4.3 million)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Countries with over a million people identified as IDPs</td>
<td>6 (Sudan, Colombia, Iraq, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Somalia, Pakistan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Countries with at least 200,000 people newly displaced in 2009 (in order of scale)</td>
<td>8 (Pakistan, DRC, Sudan, the Philippines, Somalia, Colombia, Sri Lanka, Ethiopia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Countries with at least 200,000 people returning during 2009 (in order of scale)</td>
<td>6 (Pakistan, DRC, Uganda, Sudan, Kenya, the Philippines)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Countries with new internal displacement in 2009</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Countries with a significant proportion of IDPs living in protracted displacement</td>
<td>At least 34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Countries in which almost all IDPs lived in identified sites</td>
<td>3 (Burundi, Chad, Uganda)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Countries with IDPs in urban environments</td>
<td>At least 48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Countries with legislation or policies specifically addressing internal displacement</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Numbers**

- At the end of 2009, the number of people internally displaced by conflict, generalised violence or human rights violations across the world stood at approximately 27.1 million. This figure represented an increase of over a million people compared with the 26 million IDPs estimated for 2008 and also for 2007.

- Over half of the world’s internally displaced people (IDPs) were in five countries: Sudan, Colombia, Iraq, DRC and Somalia. The region with most IDPs was Africa, with 11.6 million.

- South and South-East Asia and the Americas accounted for most of the increase, with their respective totals 800,000 and 500,000 higher. These increases mirrored the year-on-year growth in the internally displaced populations of Pakistan and Colombia. In Africa, the Middle East, Europe and Central Asia, the estimated numbers of IDPs did not change significantly.

- Since 1997, the number of IDPs has steadily increased from around 17 million to over 27 million in 2009. The number of refugees has remained fairly stable, fluctuating between 13 million and 16 million in the same period.

- At least 6.8 million people in 23 countries were forced to flee their homes as a result of conflict and violence during the year. Nearly half of them were in Pakistan, where some three million people fled offensives against the Taliban and other armed groups by the Pakistan army. Other countries with large numbers of people newly displaced in 2009 were DRC (one million), Sudan (530,000), Somalia (400,000), the Philippines (400,000), Colombia (290,000), Sri Lanka (up to 280,000) and Ethiopia (200,000). Together, these eight countries accounted for 90 per cent of all new displacement.

- Far more people were newly displaced than in 2008 (4.6 million people) and 2007 (3.7 million people). However the number of people who reportedly returned during the year was also higher, at around five million compared to 2.6 million in 2008 and 2.7 million in 2007.

- Most people newly displaced during the year were able to return after a few weeks or months of displacement. In Pakistan, around two thirds of the people displaced during the year had returned to home areas at the end of 2009; in DRC half of the people newly displaced returned before the end of the year.

- Parties to conflicts failed to respect their obligations to protect civilians, and displacement will continue to disrupt and destroy people’s lives unless there is continuing engagement to encourage all parties to conflict to uphold these obligations.

**Protection issues**

- Most of the people internally displaced at the end of 2009 had already been living in displacement in 2008. The situations of most IDPs did not improve, with limitations to their enjoyment of their human rights continuing. Long-term IDPs in many countries lived in precarious conditions similar to those of the newly displaced, facing risks to their physical security and integrity, or struggling to get basic necessities. IDPs, including those who sought refuge in camps, continued to face risks related to armed conflict, counter-insurgency campaigns and inter-communal violence.

- Internally displaced children faced risks including forced recruitment into armed forces and trauma associated with displacement and conflict. In several countries, they suffered from lack of access to education or disruptions in education due to ongoing insecurity, because they had to contribute to their families’ income, or, for some displaced girls, as a consequence of gender discrimination.

- Internally displaced women and children were particularly exposed to rape and sexual violence in many countries including Chad, Colombia, DRC, India, Iraq, Kenya, Myanmar, Somalia and Sudan.

- In 34 countries with a significant proportion of IDPs living in protracted displacement, the process for finding durable solutions for internally displaced people was stalled, and/ or IDPs were marginalised as a consequence of a lack of protection of their human rights. In 21 countries people had been born and grown to adulthood in displacement.

- In 2009 the lives of some IDPs got better as a result of government measures to improve their housing conditions, including in Azerbaijan, Georgia and Iraq.

- Continuing insecurity meant that IDPs in many countries, including Afghanistan, Chad, Iraq, Sudan, Somalia and Yemen, did not access sustained humanitarian assistance and protection.

- Even when the situation of most IDPs improved, potentially durable solutions remained out of the reach of groups with particular needs or vulnerabilities, for example elderly or sick people, widows, or members of minorities. For these groups, activities which had improved the situation of other IDPs had not been effective or accessible. National authorities and international agencies have widely failed to address their needs, either through measures aimed just at vulnerable IDPs or at wider vulnerable populations.

- In many countries, returns were not voluntary and IDPs’ involvement in planning the process was limited. In countries including Bosnia and Herzegovina, Colombia, Iraq and Sudan, IDPs were encouraged or forced to return before it was safe or sustainable for them to do so. Returns were sometimes

**Causes**

- Internal armed conflict, rather than international armed conflict, has caused most internal displacement in the last decade.

- New displacement in 2009 was predominantly caused by conflicts which had already run for years or decades. Many people had been repeatedly displaced in successive cycles of conflict.

- As in previous years, the actions of government forces and of armed non-state actors, either associated with governments or fighting against them, caused the majority of new displacement in 2009.
induced by the closure of IDP settlements or the limiting of food rations when conditions were not conducive for return, as in DRC, Kenya, the Philippines, the Russian Federation and Timor-Leste.

- Only in three countries in 2009 (Burundi, Chad and Uganda) were almost all IDPs gathered in identified sites, while in others they were all dispersed. Dispersed IDPs generally received less attention and support. IDPs dispersed in towns or cities may be particularly unsupported, as they may have sought anonymity there because they fear for their safety.

- A large proportion of IDPs seek shelter with relatives, friends or members of their community or ethnic group. The international community and governments have increasingly acknowledged the need to identify these IDPs and their hosts, and provide a level of assistance to enable the hosts to remain self-reliant and the IDPs to recover their autonomy.

**Durable solutions**

- In 13 countries, there was information to confirm that the majority of IDPs had been able to exercise a voluntary choice of settlement, and that they enjoyed safety and security. IDPs were rebuilding their lives and gradually enjoying their human rights on an equal basis with other citizens and residents in their country.

- IDPs must be able to make a free and informed choice of whether to return in conditions of safety and dignity, to integrate locally or settle permanently elsewhere in the country. IDPs in a number of countries participated in decisions relating to their settlement options, for example in Côte d’Ivoire through their representation in local peace committees. However, many governments have not adequately respected and fulfilled the choices of IDPs themselves in programmes to support durable solutions.

- Most governments supported return over other settlement options. A notable development in 2009 was the new support by some governments to settlement elsewhere (as in Serbia) or to local integration (as in Burundi, Turkey and Uganda).

- The long-term development of areas which have faced cycles of neglect and conflict is necessary for durable solutions to be possible. In the shorter term, there is a need for more sustained assistance in post-emergency situations, to enable people to start the process of recovery.

- Monitoring of durable solutions remained largely inadequate. In most countries it was difficult to establish the number of IDPs still seeking durable solutions, and outstanding barriers in their way.

**Responses**

- In order to meet their responsibility to address internal displacement, states must establish institutional responses including policy, legislation, programmes and government structures. 16 countries had legislation or policies in place specifically pertaining to the protection of people internally displaced by conflict or violence.

- In the Great Lakes region of Africa, the Pact on Security, Stability and Development in the Great Lakes Region entered into force for 11 signatory states in June 2008, and so committed them to incorporating the Guiding Principles into their domestic laws and policies.

- States in Africa showed their commitment to addressing internal displacement by adopting the African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (the Kampala Convention). It will enter into force after it has been ratified by 15 states, and will have a positive impact for IDPs where it is implemented in practice.

- National authorities in Algeria, Indonesia (in Papua) and Myanmar barely recognised the situation of displacement and were unwilling to let other national or international actors engage with IDPs. In Zimbabwe, despite the recognition of the displacement crisis in the country by the new Government of National Unity, engagement on issues related to displacement remained sensitive. Some governments, as in Ethiopia, Sudan, Sri Lanka and Yemen, imposed restrictive controls on the activities of international agencies.

- Out of the 15 countries with internal displacement reviewed under the Human Rights Council’s Universal Periodic Review (UPR) in 2009, ten received recommendations specifically relating to IDPs. Six treaty bodies raised issues relating to the protection of IDPs in their concluding observations to 16 countries with internal displacement.

- The humanitarian reform process continued in 2009 to strengthen the predictability, capacity, coordination and accountability of the international humanitarian response. The “cluster approach” in humanitarian emergency situations was applied in several countries. In OPT, the Philippines and Yemen, varying arrangements were put in place to promote the coordination and leadership of protection activities.

- At the start of 2009, 14.4 million IDPs received protection or assistance from UNHCR as global lead agency for protection under the cluster approach; this was slightly over half of IDPs worldwide.

- In many countries which did not have complex emergency situations leading to a consolidated response by the international humanitarian community, such as Algeria and India, IDPs were nonetheless in precarious situations.
In 2009, the total number of people internally displaced by conflict, generalised violence or human rights violations across the world rose to 27.1 million people, over one million more people than the 26 million who were internally displaced at the end of 2008 and 2007. This staggering total was the highest since the mid-1990s.

In 2009, 90 per cent of new displacement took place in eight countries: Pakistan, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Sudan, Somalia, the Philippines, Colombia, Sri Lanka and Ethiopia: in each of these cases it was caused by conflicts that had already been going on for a number of years.

In Pakistan there was the largest and most rapid internal displacement of recent years. Three million people fled their homes within a few weeks, as the government armed forces waged intense campaigns against the Pakistani Taliban in north-western regions of the country. The large majority of the people displaced sought refuge with hosts. Most of them were able to return to their home areas as soon as fighting had moved on, but not all found safety after returning.

In eastern DRC, the killing and rape of internally displaced people (IDPs) and other civilians continued at a horrifying rate in 2009. Attacks against the civilian population by various militia groups and by government troops caused large-scale displacement and intense suffering for hundreds of thousands of people. In Somalia, large numbers of people also endured new displacement and hardship as conflict intensified.

An upsurge in inter-ethnic violence in Southern Sudan caused a significant deterioration in security in 2009, raising concerns over the risk of escalation of conflict in the build up to the election planned for 2010 and the referendum on self-determination of the south due in 2011. More people were displaced in Southern Sudan than in Darfur in 2009.

In Sri Lanka, the long-running armed conflict between government forces and those of the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE) ended in May 2009. Between October 2008 and June 2009, more than 280,000 people were displaced to government-controlled territory. The government held IDPs in closed camps until October or beyond, reporting that it needed to demine IDPs’ areas of origin and screen displaced civilians to identify LTTE combatants. In December, releases were significantly accelerated in the run-up to the presidential elections scheduled for January 2010.

Despite these events, most of the people internally displaced at the end of 2009 had already been living in displacement in 2008, with many IDPs, such as in Colombia, Sudan and Iraq, living in precarious conditions in which they still faced risks to their physical security and struggled to access basic necessities.

In many countries, IDPs were trapped in situations of protracted displacement; in many countries they could not make a voluntary choice of where to settle and rebuild their lives, and they remained marginalised.

Nevertheless, there were also a number of positive developments for IDPs in 2009. States in Africa showed their commitment to addressing internal displacement by adopting the Kampala Convention, the first regional instrument in the world to impose legal obligations on states in relation to the protection and assistance of IDPs. The Convention will come into force as soon as it is ratified by 15 African Union member states.

A number of governments gave greater consideration to issues related to displacement. In Pakistan, the government pre-announced its military offensives in an attempt to give civilians the opportunity to leave the areas, while taking steps to minimise the impact of their displacement. In Serbia, Uganda and Burundi, new settlement options were given to displaced groups who could not return to their home areas. In a number of countries, the majority of IDPs were able to exercise a voluntary choice of settlement, in conditions of safety and security.

This Global Overview provides a comprehensive review of the 2009 situation of internal displacement, based on the information on over 50 countries brought together on IDMC’s website at www.internal-displacement.org. It aims to provide information on these different situations from regional and country-specific perspectives, while providing an analysis of the different situations of IDPs globally: those newly displaced, those living in continuing displacement, and those making progress towards durable solutions. The achievements and limitations of the responses to these situations are also examined.
Global developments in 2009

Students at a school in Rafah, Occupied Palestinian Territory, which was destroyed during Israel’s 22-day offensive in the Gaza Strip.

(Photo: Reuters/Ibraheem Abu Mustafa, courtesy of www.alertnet.org, January 2009)
Global trends

At the end of 2009, an estimated 27.1 million people were displaced in 54 countries as a result of armed conflict, generalised violence or human rights violations. This figure represented an increase of over a million in the number of internally displaced people (IDPs) compared with the 26 million internally displaced in 2008 and also in 2007.

6.8 million people were newly displaced during the year by conflicts, generalised violence or human rights violations. Many of them were displaced only for a period of weeks or months. Some IDPs became more integrated in the place to which they had been displaced, or moved back to home areas or onwards to new locations. During 2009, the return of just over five million IDPs to their homes in 22 countries was reported.

Most of the 27.1 million people who were internally displaced at the end of the year had already been living in displacement at the start of the year. In 31 of 54 countries, no new displacement was recorded during 2009. In all the countries where there was new displacement in 2009, people also remained displaced from previous years.

In many countries where fighting had stopped, IDPs were still unable to access their areas of origin or rebuild their lives there due to the continuing impact of the conflict or violence. In some countries, the conditions did make it possible for IDPs to become self-reliant in their areas of origin or elsewhere; however few of them could access mechanisms to provide them with a remedy for the loss of their property or other violations of their rights which they had incurred in being displaced. The most vulnerable internally displaced people continued to have extreme difficulty in getting appropriate support.

Nonetheless, people and the institutions responsible for IDPs – primarily the governments of countries with internally displaced populations – continued their efforts to protect their rights; some governments who had not previously acknowledged that conflict or violence had caused displacement within their territory began little by little to do so; and some adopted new policies that had a more positive impact on IDPs. International measures were agreed to protect IDPs and particularly vulnerable internally displaced groups. The African Union (AU) showed the way by adopting the Kampala Convention, which when it enters into force, will commit signatory states to prevent displacement, and protect and assist IDPs on the continent.

Countries with most IDPs

The six largest internally displaced populations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>IDPs at end of 2009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>4.9 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>3.3 million – 4.9 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>2.76 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic Republic of the Congo</td>
<td>1.9 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>1.5 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>1.2 million</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- The largest internally displaced populations in the world at the end of 2009 were in Sudan and in Colombia.
- The IDP population in Colombia continued to grow in 2009, and may have reached the size of that in Sudan.
- The internally displaced population in Pakistan increased sharply, by almost one million, even though many of the people displaced during 2009 were no longer identified as IDPs at the end of the year.
- The figure for Iraq fell slightly during the year, with relatively few new displacements reported.
- The displaced populations in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) and Somalia increased by 500,000 and 200,000 respectively, as the conflicts in those countries continued.
- Turkey, Zimbabwe, India, Myanmar and Azerbaijan had internally displaced populations of between 500,000 and one million.

Countries with the largest percentage of people internally displaced

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>IDPs as percentage of population (to nearest %)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>7–11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Azerbaijan</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>5–8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>2–9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Displacement by region

IDP estimates by region (end 2009, millions of people)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>At end of 2009</th>
<th>At end of 2008</th>
<th>% change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Americas</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>+11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South and South-East Asia</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>+23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>-3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe and Central Asia</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>-4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>+4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Who is an internally displaced person?

According to the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, which set out the rights and guarantees relevant to their protection, 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, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognised State border”.

Global developments in 2009
In Africa, the increases due to new displacement in DRC, Sudan and Somalia, and on a smaller scale in Ethiopia, the Central African Republic (CAR) and elsewhere, were offset by decreases elsewhere, in particular in Uganda where an ongoing gradual return process continued.

The significant increase in the Americas was due principally to the new displacement caused by the ongoing conflict and violence in Colombia.

South and South-East Asia witnessed the largest regional year-on-year increase in IDP numbers, in both absolute and percentage terms. This reflected an increase of around three quarters of a million in Pakistan; there were smaller increases in the estimated number of IDPs in Afghanistan and Myanmar but decreases in the Philippines, Sri Lanka and Timor-Leste. In the Middle East, IDP figures increased because of conflicts in Yemen and in Gaza in the Occupied Palestinian Territory (OPT), while in other countries the numbers fell. In Europe, slightly lower figures were reported in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia and the Russian Federation.

**IDP and refugee numbers**

While the global number of IDPs remained stable in 2008 and rose in 2009, the number of refugees worldwide fell in 2008 from 16 million to 15.2 million. Refugee figures for 2009 will be published in mid-2010 in UNHCR’s *Global Trends* report.

Under the humanitarian reform process, UNHCR has assumed a lead role in the protection of conflict-related IDPs, and from 2007 to 2008, the number of IDPs protected or assisted by UNHCR rose from 13.7 to 14.4 million, to reach 57 per cent of the total number of people protected or assisted by UNHCR.

**Note on figures**

This report reflects IDMC’s 2009 monitoring of internal displacement caused by armed conflict, situations of generalised violence or violations of human rights; it does not include people internally displaced by natural or human-made disasters, or by development projects. In countries affected by internal displacement, existing data on IDPs is often incomplete, unreliable, out of date or inaccurate. Disaggregated data showing the location and size of internally displaced populations, and their breakdown by age and sex, is only available in a few countries. Reports on return or other settlement options are systematically more incomplete. These issues are discussed further below.

IDMC seeks and compiles information from national governments, UN and other international organisations, national and international non-governmental organisations (NGOs), human rights organisations and the media, and it also carries out field missions to a number of countries every year.

Situations of armed conflict consist of international armed conflicts, including internationalised armed conflicts, and conflicts of a non-international character, or internal armed conflicts. Generalised violence refers to internal disturbances characterised by a serious disruption of internal order resulting from acts of violence which nevertheless are not representative of an armed conflict, such as riots, struggles between factions against the authorities, or inter-communal violence. Human rights violations encompass failures by any state or, where applicable, relevant non-state actors, to respect their obligations under international human rights law.
Reported movements

New displacements

In 2009, around 6.8 million people were displaced in 23 countries. The number continued to increase steadily compared to the 4.6 million people displaced during 2008 and the 3.7 million during 2007.

Countries with the largest reported displacements in 2009

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>New displacement reported</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>3,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>530,000 (390,000 in Southern Sudan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>400,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>400,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>290,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>Up to 280,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>200,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yemen</td>
<td>150,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPT</td>
<td>100,000-200,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One armed conflict caused internal displacement on a massive scale, of nearly half of all people newly displaced during the year. Offensives against the Taliban and other Islamist groups by the Pakistan army in North West Frontier Province and subsequently in the Federally Administered Tribal Areas forced some three million people to flee. At the end of the year over 1.2 million people were still displaced, the large majority taking refuge with host communities.

In the east of the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), intense fighting between various armed groups and government forces supported by the UN’s MONUC peacekeeping force also caused massive new displacement. At the end of the year as many as 1.9 million people were internally displaced in DRC, including up to a million in North Kivu Province.

In Southern Sudan, an estimated 390,000 people were newly displaced as a result of inter-ethnic clashes. More people died or were newly displaced due to violence in Southern Sudan than in Darfur in 2009.

In Somalia, the establishment of a coalition government in January 2009 between the Transitional Federal Government and moderate Islamic groups led to the withdrawal of Ethiopian forces from Mogadishu. However, government forces continued to fight remaining armed groups including Hizbul-Islam and Al-Shabaab, while conflict between different insurgent factions across south-central Somalia led to the displacement of hundreds of thousands of people. By the end of the year the estimated number of people internally displaced had risen to 1.5 million.

In Colombia, the ongoing armed conflict saw a regrouping of the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC), while the government’s offensive against it lost momentum. Higher levels of violence and displacement were caused by new armed groups that had emerged after the demobilisation of older paramilitary groups in previous years. 2009 also saw increasing violence in cities, particularly Medellin and Cali, causing displacement within those cities at the same time as others were displaced into the cities from rural areas.

In Sri Lanka, the 26-year conflict between the government’s armed forces and the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE) finally ended in May 2009. During the final stages of the conflict, hundreds of thousands of civilians were trapped in an increasingly small area of the northern Vanni region. Between October 2008 and June 2009, more than 280,000 people fled to government-controlled territory and were....

Residents flee fighting between militant groups and government forces in the Somali capital Mogadishu. (Photo: Reuters/Omar Faruk, courtesy of www.alertnet.org, July 2009)
forced into closed camps; they endured very difficult conditions for several months before the government started to ease the restrictions on their freedom of movement and to allow increasing numbers of people back to their home areas in December.

In Afghanistan, civilians continued to be displaced by fighting between government and international forces and the Taliban. With insecurity making large parts of the country inaccessible and the millions of IDPs and returned refugees finding it impossible to restart their lives in home areas, the number displaced may have been higher than the 297,000 estimated by the government and its international partners in the country’s IDP Task Force.

In Ethiopia, fighting between the Oromo and Somalia clans over disputed administrative boundaries and other resources displaced as many as 160,000 people in February 2009 alone, while in Gambella Region, inter-clan fighting displaced hundreds of thousands. In Somali Region, fighting between government forces and the Ogaden National Liberation Front (ONLF) caused further displacement.

In Yemen, conflict between the army and al-Houthi rebels in Sa’ada Governorate flared up again in August 2009 in the sixth round of conflict since 2004, with the number of people displaced growing through the year. By the end of the year an estimated 175,000 people were displaced in Sa’ada and neighbouring governorates as the fighting continued to intensify. The conflict expanded into Saudi Arabia where thousands of people were displaced from areas bordering Sa’ada.

In Gaza in the Occupied Palestinian Territory (OPT), the Israeli Defence Force’s offensive at the beginning of the year displaced over 100,000 people. In the course of the conflict, over 4,000 houses were demolished and over 50,000 damaged. Reconstruction was hampered by the continuing Israeli blockade which prevented construction materials from entering Gaza; at the end of the year, an estimated 20,000 people were still living in tents or makeshift shelters. In the West Bank, the continuing demolition of Palestinian-owned structures and the revocation of residency permits in East Jerusalem also displaced hundreds of households during the year.

Other long-term conflicts continued to cause displacement, for example in Myanmar, India (in Orissa State and the northeastern Manipur, Assam and Mizoram States) and Senegal.

In several countries with long-term or intermittent conflict, including DRC, the Philippines and Yemen, people have been repeatedly displaced over the years. Thus new displacement may be partly explained by earlier settlement options proving unsustainable.

### Causes of new displacement

In all but two of the 23 countries with new displacement in 2009 (Kenya and Zimbabwe being the exceptions), armed conflict was one of the causes of displacement. Human rights violations caused displacement in 17 countries, and generalised violence in 12 countries. In many countries populations were displaced by a combination of causes, and armed conflict, generalised violence and widespread human rights violations frequently coincided in the same country.

In CAR, people were displaced both by renewed armed conflict between the government and a rebel group, and also by attacks by criminal gangs. In Nigeria, people in the Niger Delta were displaced by fighting between government forces and militants, while in several central and northern states, inter-communal violence triggered large-scale displacement.

In Zimbabwe, people were displaced by ongoing invasions of commercial farms and also by political violence, though in the latter case on a much smaller scale than in 2008. In Kenya, while efforts to resettle those displaced by the 2007 post-election violence continued, inter-communal violence in northern areas led to new displacement.

In 2009, government armed forces, and armed groups either fighting against them or associated with them, continued to cause displacement, while often failing to respect their obligations to protect civilians.

In Somalia, in northern Yemen, in Ethiopia’s Somali Region and in Papua Region in Indonesia, civilians were forced to flee as they were targeted by the army alongside the combatants allegedly among them. In Myanmar the army’s “four cuts” policy, designed to separate armed groups fighting the government from their support bases, continued to cause the displacement of civilians.

In Mindanao in the Philippines, the army defined IDPs as the “enemy reserve force” in areas known as rebel strongholds. From April 2009, many villagers were forced to leave their homes by an army counter-insurgency operation and an escalation in the fighting.

Armed non-state actors also caused displacement in all but a few countries. Attacks by the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA), a group which had originally operated in northern Uganda, caused the displacement of several hundred thousand people in DRC’s Orientale Province and also of people in CAR. In Colombia, attacks by new armed groups made
up of former paramilitaries forced large numbers of civilians to flee. In Iraq, most displacement in 2009 was caused by the actions of militant groups targeting members of other communities.

In conflicts such as those in Afghanistan, Colombia, Somalia, Sri Lanka and Yemen, the actions of all parties contributed to displacement. In DRC, army operations supported by MONUC against the Democratic Forces for the Liberation of Rwanda (FDLR) and other rebel groups, and the FDLR’s subsequent reprisals, had a catastrophic impact on civilians and caused large-scale displacement. NGOs argued that the operations’ achievements did not justify the resulting displacement.

The government in Pakistan, under international pressure to tackle the militancy which had taken root in the country, launched successive offensives across several districts of North West Frontier Province (NWFP) and the Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA). However, it announced these offensives and gave civilians the opportunity to leave the areas, and took steps to minimise the impact of their displacement.

Returns to home areas

Countries with the largest reported returns in 2009

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Returns reported</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>2,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>430,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>At least 280,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>200,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>200,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>350,000 in 2008 and 2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPT</td>
<td>80,000-180,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During the year, the return of a little over five million people within 22 countries was reported. The majority of these returnees, including most of some two million in Pakistan, about one million in DRC, some 200,000 in the Philippines, and some 100,000 or more in Gaza (OPT), had been displaced relatively recently in 2008 or 2009. There were also reports that 200,000 people displaced by the election-related violence in Kenya in 2007 and 2008 returned.

Some people who had been displaced for longer periods also returned. They included over 400,000 people in northern Uganda who returned to their home villages from the camps where many had lived for over a decade.

In Southern Sudan, the long return process continued, and between January and August at least 280,000 people returned to their places of origin. However, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) estimated that ten per cent of all return movements to and within Southern Sudan were unsuccessful and led to secondary displacement, due to a lack of basic services and livelihoods in the return areas. The precariousness of these return movements was further underscored by the fact that Southern Sudan also saw new displacement of 390,000 people in 2009.

In Iraq, UNHCR and IOM estimated that around 350,000 IDPs had returned during 2008 and 2009. Most IDPs were unable to return due to insecurity and difficulties in accessing property and livelihood opportunities.
In 2009, IDPs lived in a variety of displacement contexts, in rural and urban areas. IDPs gathered in camps or informal settlements were often the most visible but the majority were dispersed among host communities, relatives and friends. IDPs displaced before 2009 sometimes lived in precarious conditions similar to those of the newly displaced, facing risks to their physical safety or struggling to get basic necessities for survival like clean water, food, housing or medical care. This situation faced many IDPs in Chad, DRC, in Darfur and Southern Sudan, Iraq, Afghanistan, Colombia and elsewhere.

In many other cases, IDPs’ urgent humanitarian or protection needs had stabilised compared to when they were first displaced, but conditions did not allow for them to return home or to rebuild their lives elsewhere in the country. This was the situation for IDPs in countries such as Azerbaijan and also for some groups in the countries mentioned in the paragraph above. Some of these IDPs had progressed towards sustainable living conditions and greater enjoyment of human rights in areas of displacement while others experienced little change. In either case, they were trapped in situations of “protracted displacement” because they did not have long-term settlement options.

IDPs living in precarious conditions

Across the world, the safety and security of IDPs was threatened because of dangers related to armed conflict and generalised violence, including killings, abductions, arbitrary displacement and restrictions on freedom of movement. Violence was reported in IDP camps and settlements in many countries. In Yemen, dozens of IDPs were killed in September in an air attack on the settlement which they had fled to.

IDPs in many countries including Somalia, Afghanistan and Chad were unable to receive essential humanitarian assistance from organisations that had been denied access or could not operate safely because of high levels of insecurity. IDPs often faced daily survival challenges to get basic necessities and medical care, including maternal and infant health care.

Displaced women and children were exposed to rape and sexual violence in a number of countries, including Chad, Colombia, DRC, India, Iraq, Kenya, Myanmar, Somalia and Sudan. In Colombia, sexual violence was identified as a direct cause of displacement, and was committed in the context of military operations, but also individually by members of armed groups. In DRC, 8,300 women were reportedly raped in 2009, while many more were estimated to have suffered unreported sexual violence and abuse.

Displacement heightened these risks in various ways. In Myanmar, some displaced women were at risk of sexual violence when foraging for food and water in areas with large numbers of government troops. In Iraq, displaced women heading households on their own faced higher risks of sexual exploitation than women who were accompanied by men. In India, some displaced women were forced into prostitution in order to support their families in the absence of husbands who had left in search of work. In Nepal, according to the government, half of the 40,000 female workers aged between 12 and 30 working in restaurants, dance bars and massage parlours – of whom many had been internally displaced – were victims of trafficking and sexual exploitation.

Internally displaced children were particularly susceptible to risks associated with armed conflict, including increased vulnerability to forced recruitment into armed forces and groups, in countries including Afghanistan, CAR and Chad, to physical and psychosocial trauma associated with displacement and conflict (as in OPT, Yemen, Iraq and Lebanon) and to separation from their families.
Displaced children suffered from poor access to education or disruptions in education due to ongoing insecurity (in many countries including DRC, Ethiopia, Nigeria, Senegal, Somalia, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Colombia), and, for some girls, as a consequence of gender discrimination (in the Middle East and Turkey). Displaced children had less access to basic necessities including shelter, nutrition and health care (as was the case in Pakistan, Afghanistan and Sri Lanka).

In these difficult circumstances, IDPs turned to a variety of activities to generate income, such as daily labour or petty trade, which often did not provide the means for a sustainable livelihood and reliable access to food, secure housing or other basic necessities. Where children turned to labour to earn income for their families, they were frequently unable to attend schools too (as in Pakistan or Turkey). In towns and cities, IDPs who had been displaced from rural communities often lacked the skills that urban employers were looking for and often resorted to unreliable, low-paid or exploitative jobs. Displacement to urban areas nevertheless also provided opportunities, as IDPs were able to access a wider variety of services and benefit in some cases from wider livelihood options.

Some IDPs had to seek successive areas of refuge, depending on opportunities available and problems facing them in each area. They may have faced discrimination, or a host’s capacity to support them may become exhausted. Other IDPs commuted between a place of refuge and their place of origin, as in Georgia, Senegal and Turkey, to maintain property or to plant and harvest crops. The places of refuge and origin may have been close, as with IDP camps in northern Uganda. In other cases, IDPs resettled in their place of origin, but not in their original home which had been destroyed or occupied by someone else; this was reported in Timor-Leste in 2009.

**IDPs in stabilised or protracted situations**

Even where conflict and violence had subsided and emergency humanitarian needs had been met, many IDPs were not able to return home or to rebuild their lives elsewhere in the country because conditions of safety and dignity were absent and no progress towards durable solutions was likely. IDPs often faced barriers, including discrimination, to their enjoyment of basic rights such as personal documentation, medical care, education, adequate housing and property rights including ownership, rental, restitution and compensation.

National authorities have a duty to provide a durable solution for IDPs, who must be able to make a free and informed choice to return, integrate locally or establish themselves permanently elsewhere in the country. When durable solutions are not possible, national authorities have a responsibility to ensure IDPs have an adequate standard of living and enjoyment of other human rights during displacement. In a number of countries, IDPs saw their living conditions improve in 2009 as a result of government measures to improve conditions at their current residence or elsewhere in the country. In Georgia and Azerbaijan, some collective centres were renovated in 2009, and in Georgia and Cyprus some internally displaced residents were given the chance to become owners of the temporary housing they had been living in. In Iraq and OPT, IDPs received legal and advocacy support to avoid eviction and repeated displacement.

In at least 34 countries there were protracted situations where IDPs had limited prospects of durable solutions. In some countries, entire populations internally displaced by conflict, generalised violence or human rights violations had by 2009 fallen into protracted displacement.

In over 20 countries, the primary cause of protracted displacement was the continuation of conflict or violence.

---

**The Guiding Principles and bases in international law**

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

Nine countries have national laws or policies which specifically refer to the Guiding Principles and, in the Great Lakes region of Africa, while 11 states signatory to the Pact on Security, Stability and Development in the Great Lakes Region have committed to incorporating them into domestic law. The African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa, or the Kampala Convention, adopted in October 2009, further recognises the inherent rights of internally displaced persons as set out in the Guiding Principles.

The Guiding Principles reflect and are consistent with international human rights law and international humanitarian law, and to a large extent codify and make explicit guarantees protecting internally displaced persons that are inherent in these bodies of law. They address all phases of displacement, providing protection against arbitrary displacement, offering a basis for protection and assistance during displacement, and setting forth guarantees for safe return, local integration and settlement elsewhere in the country.

For more information see the *Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement: Annotations, Revised Edition* by Walter Kälin (ASIL & The Brookings Institution 2008).
An internally displaced resident of a collective centre in Tbilisi, Georgia. (Photo: IDMC/Nadine Walicki, November 2009)

In Azerbaijan, Cyprus, Georgia, OPT and Syria, IDPs’ areas of origin were controlled by foreign occupying powers or de facto authorities other than the government.

In Azerbaijan, the government had built new villages for a large number of IDPs in one of the world’s larger relocation initiatives, while maintaining that these IDPs would return to their places of origin when it becomes possible. While relocated IDPs enjoyed improved housing conditions, the villages were mostly in remote areas with limited transport, jobs, and access to services. The majority of IDPs in Azerbaijan, however, were living in inadequate conditions in 2009, without a regular income and depending on government assistance. Many had limited access to health care services, including psychological counselling; those who moved to urban centres still faced difficulty retaining IDP benefits.

IDPs belonging to an ethnic group which faced discrimination often found that their displacement compounded their marginalisation. In countries in the Balkans, many of the remaining IDPs who were not progressing towards durable solutions were Roma people, who lived in very difficult conditions and struggled to access support. A major obstacle facing many of them was that they had never had personal documentation.

In Colombia, the marginalisation of internally displaced Afro-Colombian and indigenous people reflected the structural discrimination in the country. Only 60 per cent of displaced Afro-Colombians had access in 2009 to the public health system, compared to 75 per cent of other IDPs; only 36 per cent had access to other services, compared to 50 per cent of the rest of the displaced population.

In 21 countries, people had been born and grown to adulthood in displacement. In some, IDPs broadly shared the living standards of non-displaced people; however, return or a free choice of settlement was still not possible.

In these countries the approximate number of people originally displaced was known, but generally the number of their descendants was not, even though they might still be affected by the displacement. The recognition of IDP status varied for descendants – for example in Cyprus, only children of male IDPs inherited the status and associated benefits – and the different generations had different perceptions of their identity and varying intentions regarding return.

Countries in which people have been born and grown up in displacement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Armenia</th>
<th>Liberia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Azerbaijan</td>
<td>Myanmar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>OPT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Peru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>Senegal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>Sri Lanka (Puttalam)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>Sudan (Southern Sudan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India (Kashmir)</td>
<td>Syria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Uganda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Countries in which people have been born and grown up in displacement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Armenia</th>
<th>Liberia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Azerbaijan</td>
<td>Myanmar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>OPT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Peru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>Senegal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>Sri Lanka (Puttalam)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>Sudan (Southern Sudan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India (Kashmir)</td>
<td>Syria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Uganda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 21 countries, people had been born and grown to adulthood in displacement. In some, IDPs broadly shared the living standards of non-displaced people; however, return or a free choice of settlement was still not possible.

In these countries the approximate number of people originally displaced was known, but generally the number of their descendants was not, even though they might still be affected by the displacement. The recognition of IDP status varied for descendants – for example in Cyprus, only children of male IDPs inherited the status and associated benefits – and the different generations had different perceptions of their identity and varying intentions regarding return.

Countries in which people have been born and grown up in displacement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Armenia</th>
<th>Liberia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Azerbaijan</td>
<td>Myanmar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>OPT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Peru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>Senegal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>Sri Lanka (Puttalam)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>Sudan (Southern Sudan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India (Kashmir)</td>
<td>Syria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Uganda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Durable solutions

IDPs achieve a durable solution when they no longer have specific assistance and protection needs linked to their displacement, and can enjoy their human rights without discrimination on account of their displacement. There are three possible settlement options which may lead to durable solutions:

- Sustainable reintegration at the place of origin (“return”);
- Sustainable local integration in areas where IDPs take refuge (“local integration”);
- Sustainable integration in another part of the country (“settlement elsewhere in the country”).

IDPs have the right to rebuild their lives, not only in their place of origin, but also in the place to which they were displaced or elsewhere in their country. In 2009, some governments began to support the solutions of local integration or settlement elsewhere.

In Turkey, the implementation of the Van Action Plan, a pilot for regeneration in displacement-affected provinces, addressed for the first time the situation of people displaced in urban settings as well as promoting return.

In the Philippines, conflict and displacement in Mindanao is known to have significantly contributed to rural-urban migration in the past decades. Recognising their impoverishment due to the loss of property and livelihoods, local authorities implemented a number of projects to help displaced communities in urban areas address their main rehabilitation needs and secure new livelihoods.

In Burundi, the government still favoured the return of IDPs to their former homes, but it also promoted the construction of “peace villages”, integrating IDPs, landless returnees and other vulnerable people from different ethnic backgrounds. It also drafted a national strategy to support the reintegration of returnees and the local integration of IDPs.

In northern Uganda the authorities came to accept in 2009 that some camps needed to be redeveloped as “viable communities”, as some residents would not be able to move on. Other IDPs who did not intend to return to their villages, as they had grown used to the urban lifestyle in the camps and developed livelihood strategies there, also stood to benefit from the new policy.

While still prioritising return to Kosovo in 2009, the Serbian government increasingly supported housing solutions which facilitated the integration of IDPs, including through social housing for IDPs and supported housing for vulnerable residents. Since very few Serbs displaced within Kosovo returned to areas where they would be in a minority, both the Serbian and Kosovo authorities took steps to support their resettlement in majority-Serb areas.

The alternative settlement options were not sustainable in all cases. In the Russian Federation, IDPs from Chechnya seeking to settle elsewhere have had to contend with insufficient and variable property compensation and problems with documentation leading to denial of pension rights and other entitlements, as well as wider discrimination in some cases. In Chechnya, the authorities started to offer housing to enable IDPs to resettle there. However, the housing was often inadequate and with little money to improve it, some IDPs were living in worse conditions in 2009 than before they came back.

The Framework on Durable Solutions

In 2009 the Inter-Agency Standing Committee revised and finalised the Framework on Durable Solutions for Internally Displaced Persons to serve as a practical tool to guide governments and other stakeholders in enabling IDPs to rebuild their lives and once more enjoy human rights on an equal basis with other citizens and residents in their country.

According to the Framework, a durable solution is achieved when IDPs “no longer have any specific assistance and protection needs that are linked to their displacement and can enjoy their human rights without discrimination on account of their displacement”. It highlights the continuing needs and concerns of IDPs when a conflict or other cause of displacement has ended, and also when people initially find safety from ongoing conflict or disaster.

The Framework also outlines:

- Eight criteria which determine to what extent a durable solution has been achieved:
  1. Long term safety, security and freedom of movement;
  2. An adequate standard of living, including at a minimum access to adequate food, water, housing, health care and basic education;
  3. Access to employment and livelihoods;
  4. Access to effective mechanisms that restore their housing, land and property or provide them with compensation;
  5. Access to and replacement of personal and other documentation;
  6. Voluntary reunification with family members separated during displacement;
  7. Participation in public affairs at all levels on an equal basis with the resident population;
  8. Effective remedies for displacement-related violations of human rights, including access to justice, reparations and information about the causes of violations.
Denial and limitations of IDPs’ free choice of settlement

While voluntary return in safety and dignity often remains the settlement option favoured by the majority of IDPs, and governments thus have a legitimate interest in supporting returns, a number of governments favoured return over local integration or resettlement elsewhere in the country. IDPs are often encouraged or forced to return to their home areas before it is safe or sustainable for them to do so. Some governments aim to quickly restore the situation which prevailed before the displacement began; others may wish to discourage wider urbanisation to which forced internal displacement may contribute. The resulting policies often forced IDPs to endure prolonged hardship with no prospect of the problems related to their displacement ending.

In Colombia, the government encouraged returns to some areas which had recently been taken by the army from insurgent control, but where safety has been questioned. In Sri Lanka, despite the government’s earlier reference to landmines in return areas to justify the use of closed camps, at the end of the year people were returned to areas that were still contaminated by landmines and other unexploded ordnance.

In Iraq, government programmes continued to promote return, with no policies on resettlement or integration, although a 2009 survey by the International Organization for Migration (IOM) showed that only a little over half of all IDPs cited return as their preferred settlement option, with a quarter expressing a preference to integrate in their place of displacement and 20 per cent wishing to resettle elsewhere. Similarly, Nepal’s government clearly promoted the return of IDPs, even though its 2007 IDP policy expressed support to all three durable solutions. Relief packages only benefited those who agreed to return to their homes, while government resettlement initiatives were limited in number.

In Southern Sudan, ever since the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement, the Southern Sudanese authorities had put pressure on IDPs to return to their villages of origin in Southern Sudan, in the hope that the return of IDPs would stimulate the development of the south’s rural areas.

In Bosnia and Herzegovina, national authorities and the international community continued to promote return almost exclusively (except in the case of some extremely vulnerable IDPs whose local integration they supported). Their unwillingness to promote other durable solutions which might make permanent the effects of wartime ethnic cleansing led to protracted displacement; here, as elsewhere in the Balkans, relatively few IDPs have been able to rebuild their lives in return areas in which they had been members of a local minority.

The closure of camps may have the effect of forcing people to return to their home areas prematurely. In 2009, the Philippines government closed a number of evacuation centres. Some attempted to return but were prevented from doing so by continued fighting. Many IDPs were subsequently displaced again or went back to evacuation centres. Others were sent to “relocation sites” where conditions were often worse than in the camps. A significant number of IDPs returned in the wake of a ceasefire in July, but often without the information they needed to make a free and informed choice.

In Kenya and Timor-Leste, the governments encouraged people to move from camps to smaller “transitional sites” nearer their places of origin, or closed the camps altogether. In Kenya, IDPs’ access to basic necessities and services was reportedly worse in some of these sites than in the camps they had come from.

In North Kivu in DRC, not all returns in 2009 signalled an improvement of security: the reduction of food rations in camps and the closure of camps combined with the need to plant crops were in some cases more significant drivers.

In Russia, IDPs from Chechnya living in government-provided accommodation in Ingushetia reported that government officials took them off the accommodation and assistance list and put pressure on them to sign return application forms. However the promised accommodation in Chechnya did not always materialise.
In other countries the settlement options of IDPs were limited by government policies which had the effect of cementing demographic changes which had followed displacement. In Israel, the government was unwilling to acknowledge the rights of Palestinian refugees living in other countries over property in Israel. It therefore did not support property restitution for people displaced within the country either. In Darfur, the government’s reported encouragement of members of certain tribes to settle on IDPs’ land rendered the prospect of their eventual return even more distant.

Barriers facing vulnerable groups of IDPs

Even when the situation of most IDPs improved, potentially durable solutions remained out of the reach of specific groups with particular needs or vulnerabilities, for example elderly or sick people, widows barred from recovering the property they had lived in, or members of minorities facing discrimination or whose livelihoods depend on a particular attachment to their areas of origin. For such groups, strategies or incentives which had encouraged other IDPs to move towards a durable solution may not have been effective or accessible, and the tailored support they needed to rebuild their lives was not available. National and international actors have widely failed to address the needs of such groups, either through measures aimed just at vulnerable IDPs or at wider vulnerable populations.

Monitoring of durable solutions

While some IDPs made progress towards durable solutions, the information that would be necessary to confirm or measure this progress was generally not available. The achievement of durable solutions is often unrecorded; it is more often noted when all of a displaced population or a particular sub-group faces a continuing barrier.

In many countries IDP figures were based on registration exercises or surveys carried out several years before, often shortly after the initial displacement in all or part of the affected territory. Thus in Côte d’Ivoire, Serbia, Armenia and Turkey, there was no information on how many people out of a total recorded years before might have moved towards or achieved durable solutions. The information on the situation of IDPs in Turkey remained limited to a survey commissioned by the government in 2006 which provided only a general idea of the scale of the displacement at that time.

In some countries with a very long-term displacement situation, the displacement events had been recorded decades ago, but the achievement of durable solutions by all or some of the displaced population could only be surmised as their situation was not subsequently monitored. While hundreds of thousands of people had been displaced by Guatemala’s long civil war, there was never a response to IDPs as a specific group or ongoing monitoring of their situation.

Thus in many countries more information is needed to establish the numbers of IDPs still seeking durable solutions, their demographic characteristics, the diversity within the displaced population, the continuing needs and human rights concerns linked to their displacement, and the value of responding to them as a specific group or together with other affected populations or among wider vulnerable groups. To this end, the role of civil society advocates in monitoring the development and implementation of durable solutions for IDPs should be supported.

In post-emergency situations, comparing the enjoyment of rights by IDPs and non-displaced people would not only highlight the extent to which IDPs continued to face obstacles to the enjoyment of their rights and identify those IDPs who had found durable solutions, but would also highlight obstacles faced by the wider population in accessing their rights.

An internally displaced Roma family living in a situation of protracted displacement in Serbia. (Photo: IDMC/Barbara McCallin, May 2009)
The primacy of national responsibility

The primary responsibility for protecting people, including IDPs, on their territory lies with the state authorities. Non-state armed groups have obligations under international humanitarian law in situations of armed conflict, in particular where they have control of parts of the territory. National human rights institutions, national civil society groups, international and regional organisations and human rights bodies all have a complementary role in protecting the human rights of IDPs.

The responsibilities of national authorities relate to prevention of displacement, prohibition of arbitrary displacement, protection and ensuring respect for the rights of IDPs during displacement and the creation of conditions conducive for return and other durable solutions.

In 2009, 16 states had adopted a national legal or policy framework specifically pertaining to the protection of IDPs displaced by armed conflicts and violence. A new national policy on internal displacement was adopted in Sudan in 2009, while in Burundi a national policy to find durable solutions for populations affected by the conflict, including IDPs, was drafted in 2009 prior to its adoption in 2010. In Burundi and in countries including Guatemala and Kosovo, provisions relating to the protection of IDPs could be found in agreements between national authorities and other parties. National authorities also developed action plans on IDPs, often jointly with international partners, as in Afghanistan.

Only a few countries (including Angola, Iraq and Nepal) had adopted laws and policies applicable to all IDPs, including those displaced by natural or human-made disasters. In general, national laws and policies tended to focus on specific categories of IDPs, such as people displaced by particular conflicts or events. Geographic limitations also restricted their scope, as in the Russian Federation, where people displaced within their own republic were not entitled to the national “forced migrant” status. Several national frameworks addressed the protection needs of IDPs during all phases of displacement, as in Sudan, Uganda, Iraq and Peru, but other countries had restricted the scope of their national laws and policies to a particular phase of displacement, such as protection during displacement (as in Azerbaijan) or durable solutions (as in Angola and Turkey).

### National IDP laws and policies

Countries with national laws or policies pertaining to the specific protection of IDPs displaced by armed conflict, generalised violence and human rights violations:

- Angola
- Azerbaijan
- Bosnia and Herzegovina
- Colombia
- Croatia
- Cyprus
- Georgia
- Iraq
- Liberia
- Nepal
- Peru
- Russian Federation
- Serbia
- Sudan
- Turkey
- Uganda

Countries with peace agreements including provisions relating to the protection of IDPs:

- Bangladesh
- Burundi
- Guatemala

National laws and policies in up to nine countries explicitly referred to the Guiding Principles. In the Great Lakes region of Africa, the Pact on Security, Stability and Development in the Great Lakes Region entered into force in June 2008, and so committed 11 signatory states to incorporating the Guiding Principles into their domestic laws and policies. The African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa was adopted in Kampala in October 2009; the Kampala Convention further recognises the inherent rights of IDPs as set out in the Guiding Principles.

### 12 steps to fulfill national responsibility

The Framework for National Responsibility, developed in 2005 by the Brookings / Bern Project on Internal Displacement, identifies 12 steps for governments to take towards fulfilling national responsibility for internal displacement. These include the creation of a legal framework for upholding the rights of IDPs and a national policy on internal displacement, and the designation of an institutional focal point on IDPs.

1. Prevention
2. Raising of national awareness of the problem
3. Data collection
4. Training on the rights of IDPs
5. National legal framework
6. National policy or plan of action
7. National institutional focal point for IDPs
8. Role for national human rights institutions
9. Participation by IDPs in decision-making
10. Durable solutions
11. Adequate resources
12. Cooperation with international and regional organisations
International support for the assistance and protection of IDPs

International responses to internal displacement situations have largely focused on the provision of humanitarian assistance to IDPs and, to a lesser degree on supporting post-emergency early recovery, peacebuilding and development activities. In the humanitarian context, the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) has an international mandate to protect victims of armed conflict. No single UN agency or other international organisation has the sole responsibility to provide humanitarian assistance and protection to IDPs. In 2005 the Humanitarian Response Review launched by the UN’s Emergency Relief Coordinator (ERC) found that the international humanitarian response to the needs of IDPs was poorly coordinated and unpredictable, and prompted a humanitarian reform of which the “cluster approach” forms a central part.

This institutional framework designates “global cluster lead agencies” to make the overall response more predictable and improve the leadership and coordination of agencies. This was a significant positive development for people internally displaced by armed conflict, notably because UNHCR assumed leadership for the coordination of activities related to their protection, under the overall leadership of the UN’s Resident Coordinator / Humanitarian Coordinator in the country.

In 2009, the roll-out of the “cluster approach” in humanitarian emergency situations continued in countries in which the establishment of standard arrangements had proved difficult. At the end of 2008, the cluster approach was implemented in Sri Lanka, with UNHCR leading the protection working group. In March 2009, the approach was implemented in OPT, with the UN’s Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) acting as protection lead with the support of the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA).

In 2009, the protection cluster was activated in Zimbabwe, and also in Timor-Leste, where the UN’s integrated mission (UNMIT), OHCHR and the Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC) led the cluster.

In the Philippines, coordination of the international response in Mindanao edged forward despite the government being wary of stronger international involvement on protection issues.

A monitoring working group was established in February 2009 in Mindanao, and replaced in August by a protection working group with wider responsibilities led by IOM. Following Tropical Storm Ketsana, which hit the northern Philippines in September, the Resident Coordinator also assumed the role of Humanitarian Coordinator. UNHCR assumed leadership of the protection cluster, although with a focus limited to natural disaster protection concerns.

In Yemen, there was scant information available on the protection concerns of IDPs or returnees. Even in accessible areas, protection assessments were lacking due to restrictions or lack of resources. UNHCR coordinated protection activities under a “cluster-like” approach, through a protection working group established at the end of 2008. Clusters were rolled out from August 2009.

Limitations to humanitarian access

Several governments continued to deny that people had been internally displaced in their countries because of conflict or violence. In countries such as Algeria, Myanmar and in Papua in Indonesia, national authorities barely recognised such situations of displacement, and were unwilling to let other national or international actors engage with IDPs.

In Sudan (Darfur), Sri Lanka and Eritrea, imposed strict controls on the activities of international actors, which arguably had a negative impact on the situation of IDPs.

In Zimbabwe, until the formation of the Government of National Unity in February 2009, there had been no official recognition of the displacement crisis in the country. Although the new government started to adopt a different stance, engagement on issues related to displacement remained sensitive, particularly those related to Zimbabwe’s fast-track land reform programme.

In southern Sudan, Somalia, Iraq, Afghanistan, Yemen and other countries with ongoing insecurity, humanitarian agencies struggled to reach a majority of IDPs, particularly those who had taken refuge within host communities. The effectiveness of emergency assistance to Gaza following the Israeli attack in early 2009 was subsequently limited by Israel’s blockade of the territory, which stalled reconstruction efforts.
Empowering national responses for long-term recovery

The above instances highlight obstacles in the way of effective international action in favour of IDPs. As the situation of IDPs evolves so their specific needs change. Over time the international agencies present are increasingly focused on development and they may not identify IDPs as a group with specific needs. These agencies should seek to support national and local government officials, national human rights institutions, civil society organisations and the judiciary to enable them to go on to ensure the effective protection and recovery of IDPs.

Human rights treaty bodies and the Human Rights Council’s Universal Periodic Review (UPR) process continued to draw attention to issues related to IDPs’ enjoyment of rights in 2009. Out of the 15 countries with internal displacement reviewed under the UPR during the year, ten received recommendations specifically relating to IDPs. In 2009, six treaty bodies raised issues relating to the protection of IDPs in their concluding observations to 16 countries with internal displacement. National human rights institutions (NHRIs) are ideally placed to follow up these recommendations through monitoring, advocacy or capacity building. In 2009, 24 countries monitored by IDMC had NHRIs with full accreditation according to the Paris Principles, which NHRIs are required to meet in order to be effective.

In Colombia, the Constitutional Court has been the most effective body in holding the government to account for its responsibilities towards IDPs. International agencies have helped to design and implement protection policy for IDPs. In 2009, Colombia visit and report by the UN Special Rapporteur on the situation of human rights and fundamental freedoms of indigenous people drew on the work of national organisations, thereby adding value to their activities which the government had previously discredited.

In northern Uganda, the planning and coordination of assistance had mostly been taken over by international humanitarian actors during two decades of war. As a result, when hostilities between the government and the LRA finally ceased, the capacity of local authorities was almost non-existent. The process of phasing out humanitarian clusters, which began in earnest in 2009, and handing over cluster responsibilities to Ugandan institutions, provided an opportunity to reinforce local government capacity. The government’s Peace, Recovery and Development Plan, which was adopted in 2007 but whose implementation finally began in mid-2009, provided further impetus for national and local authorities to start taking on renewed responsibilities.

Enabling the participation of IDPs in decisions

In contexts of conflict, violence or human rights violations, people cope with displacement based on rational choices; when people decide to flee from conflict or violence they sacrifice their homes, livelihoods and the support of their communities in order to ensure their immediate safety. As well as safety, they urgently seek access to the things necessary for their survival. Meanwhile they evaluate how, when and where to start to rebuild their lives. If they believe they will be able to return quickly, they may wait to continue their lives in their place of origin, otherwise they will assess alternatives in the place they were displaced to or elsewhere.

Where the causes of displacement cannot be prevented, its impact should be minimised from the beginning by supporting people’s coping strategies to the extent necessary to enable them to become self-sufficient and secure again. The effectiveness of support for durable solutions will depend on its support to IDPs’ own decisions and efforts to rebuild their lives.

In 2009, IDPs in a number of countries participated in decisions relating to their settlement options. In Colombia, some
IDPs were able to participate in policy through the process of the Constitutional Court. The Court invited IDPs to give their testimonies pertaining to the government response on various issues. In Côte d'Ivoire, groups displaced in the west made arrangements to participate more through representation in local peace committees. Representatives of internally displaced communities were trained on basic protection issues, and played an important role in facilitating return. The government and international agencies also organised “go and see” visits to enable IDPs to gather and share information on the situation in areas of return.

Information for better responses

A fundamental step in planning a response to the needs of IDPs is to establish their number and location, and their breakdown by age and sex. Once this profile is agreed it may become possible to establish the population’s humanitarian needs and enjoyment of rights in comparison with non-displaced people.

In 2009, no profiling exercises were carried out which presented up-to-date, comprehensive, agreed estimates of the numbers, demographic characteristics and locations of the internally displaced population of any country. In countries where information had been gathered in previous years, no exercises were carried out to update the profile of the displaced population or make it more comprehensive.

Planning of responses based on the number of IDPs who have registered for assistance has presented many challenges. In situations in which most assistance was channelled through camps or identified settlements in which IDPs had gathered, information was often limited to the population of these sites. Many IDPs outside camps may not wish to identify themselves as such, while other non-IDPs may seek the benefits of registration. Registration exercises were carried out in DRC, Pakistan and Yemen in 2009. In DRC, most IDPs lived with host families and were not registered, and return figures were estimated in the absence of a global monitoring system. No information gathered in this way was disaggregated by age or sex. In Pakistan, estimates of IDP numbers were based on registration of IDPs in camps, and self-identification by the large majority who sought shelter elsewhere.

Only in three countries in 2009 (Burundi, Chad and Uganda) were all IDPs gathered in identified sites, while in others they were all dispersed among host communities. In the Philippines, IDPs living with host communities received far less attention than those in “evacuation centres” and by the end of the year the government no longer even recognised that they were still displaced. In Nigeria, no reliable information was available, let alone a breakdown by age and sex. The many people who sought refuge with family and friends were almost never included in counts.

Getting information on IDPs dispersed in urban areas may be even harder than on those displaced in rural areas, as IDPs who fear for their security may want to remain “invisible” in the anonymity of urban areas, among other IDPs, economic migrants and urban poor. For example in Yemen, while there was more limited access to northern areas affected by conflict and displacement, there were also difficulties in acquiring a comprehensive understanding of the situation of IDPs in the capital Sa’ana. There were IDPs located in towns and cities in at least 48 countries in 2009.

In Myanmar and Indonesia, the denial of displacement by national authorities meant that there was little or no information on how the situation of IDPs was evolving. In Algeria and also in Chechnya in the Russian Federation, the government has stated that no-one remains displaced, but has not provided information about returns or living conditions in areas of origin. In Zimbabwe, very little information about the situation and needs of IDPs was available, but the new government participated in a small-scale rapid IDP assessment with the UN in August 2009, signalling a tentative new direction.

Despite these difficulties, internationally-agreed standards and methodologies were by 2009 available to enable profiling exercises, and an inter-agency profiling support unit was set up at the end of the year.
Supporting IDPs and host communities

The majority of IDPs do not seek shelter in camps but with relatives, friends or members of their community or ethnic group. These movements are often not registered by authorities, these IDPs are seldom identified and in most situations little is known about their profile and needs and those of their hosts. Nonetheless there has been an increasing acknowledgement of the need to identify these IDPs and their hosts, and provide a level of assistance to enable the hosts to remain self-reliant and the IDPs to recover their autonomy.

Lack of support may impact negatively on hosts and IDPs themselves. In the Philippines, assessments of the situation in host communities revealed living conditions that were not much better and even sometimes worse than in evacuation camps or relocation sites. Food assistance was extended to “house-based” IDPs later than to camp-based IDPs, and also in smaller rations and not to all of them; house-based IDPs also had to share food aid and other relief items with host families, and compete with them for scarce job opportunities. Host communities faced a reduction in food security, and in access to drinking water, sanitation facilities, land and shelter. While a majority of respondents who shared their homes considered their shelter as adequate prior to the arrival of IDPs, only 16 per cent had the same opinion five months later.

In DRC, the vast majority of IDPs sought shelter in 2009 with relatives, friends, or people from the same ethnic group. In North Kivu Province, as displacement lasted longer and resources became scarcer, and the option to go to a camp became available, more people moved to camps to get assistance. In Nigeria, even those who initially found refuge in schools or army barracks tended to move in after some time with family and friends while looking for a more permanent solution; they then ceased to receive support from government agencies and international partners.

Some governments took steps in 2009 to identify and support both IDPs and hosts by including IDPs in wider recovery strategies. In Iraq the UN country team and the government sought to support host communities, and provide potentially durable settlement options to IDPs, by applying integrated responses to priority areas. In Diyala Governorate, for example, they implemented a programme to rebuild 400 villages while facilitating returns.

In Senegal, the government continued to fit its response to internal displacement into efforts for the general development of the Casamance region. These included demining operations, demobilisation of combatants, reconstruction and community development linked to reintegration, and longer-term sustainable development activities. In Côte d’Ivoire, the government’s Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), though not yet implemented in 2009, included measures to promote national reconciliation and general economic development by implementing pro-poor economic policies which included IDPs as a defined vulnerable group.

In Zimbabwe, a national housing convention attended by government, donors and civil society groups including homeless people’s organisations gave an opportunity to discuss the need to change Zimbabwe’s building regulations and town planning, which are essential elements of a long-term strategy to address the needs of Zimbabwe’s urban IDPs as well as those of the communities where they have sought refuge.

IDPs risk being excluded from development programmes, because they face discrimination, because of their ethnic identity, because they have lost personal documents or have no local resident status, or because information they need is only available in the place they were displaced from. In Côte d’Ivoire, a 1998 land titling law used to address pre- and post-conflict land disputes acted in 2009 as a substitute for a restitution mechanism. However there were concerns that IDPs’ absence from the land might compromise the legitimacy of their claims, and that, having sought shelter elsewhere, they might not be notified or able to participate in processes or decisions concerning their claims over land in their place of origin.
In 2009, IDMC monitored internal displacement in 21 African countries. There were an estimated 11.6 million IDPs in these countries, representing more than 40 per cent of the world’s total IDP population. As in previous years, Sudan had the largest internally displaced population in Africa with about 4.9 million IDPs, followed by DRC with 1.9 million and Somalia with 1.5 million.

Internal displacement in 2009 resulted from ongoing internal armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations, and inter-communal tensions that flared up over limited natural resources, including between pastoralists and sedentary farmers, and over political, social, and economic advantages. The highest number of new displacements in 2009 was reported in DRC with over one million new IDPs (the country’s highest rate of new displacement since 2004), followed by Sudan with 530,000, Somalia with 400,000 and Ethiopia with an estimated 200,000. New displacements were also reported in CAR, Côte d’Ivoire, Kenya, Nigeria, Senegal and Zimbabwe.

Central African Republic p.33; Chad p.34; Côte d’Ivoire p.35; Democratic Republic of the Congo p.36; Ethiopia p.37; Kenya p.38; Nigeria p.39; Somalia p.40; Sudan p.41; Uganda p.43; Zimbabwe p.44; Algeria p.45; Burundi p.45; Eritrea p.46; Niger p.46; Senegal p.47; Liberia p.47
The adoption in October 2009 of the African Union’s Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (the Kampala Convention) was widely recognised as a historic achievement. The Kampala Convention is the first regional instrument in the world to impose legal obligations on states to protect people from arbitrary displacement, to provide protection and assistance to IDPs during displacement, and to seek 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 grant 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. The Kampala Convention will come into force once it has been ratified by 15 AU member states.

By the end of 2009, the Great Lakes Pact on Security, Stability and Development in Africa’s Great Lakes Region (the Great Lakes Pact) had been ratified by its 11 member states: Angola, Burundi, CAR, DRC, Republic of the Congo, Kenya, Rwanda, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia. Together with the Great Lakes Pact, the Kampala Convention marks a real opportunity to address the protection and assistance needs of IDPs in African countries, including the urgent need for durable solutions.

In 2009, the highest numbers of returns in Africa were reported in DRC with one million returnees, Uganda with over 500,000 and Sudan with at least 280,000. Returns were also reported in CAR, Chad, Côte d’Ivoire, Kenya, Niger and Nigeria.

While return remained the preferred durable solution for many African governments and IDPs, some IDPs were not able to make free and informed decisions of whether to return to their places of origin, to integrate locally, or to settle elsewhere in their countries. In Kenya, the government forced IDPs to return even though the situation that gave rise to their displacement had not been properly addressed. There was little or no information across the continent about the number of IDPs who chose durable solutions other than return.

Despite the intentions shown by states in supporting the Great Lakes Pact and the Kampala Convention, durable solutions remained out of reach for many IDPs in the region. IDPs’ attempts to rebuild their lives were blocked by the continuing absence of stability and food security, reconciliation between communities, development and livelihood opportunities in areas of return, mechanisms to restitute or provide compensation for housing, land and property, and appropriate management of funds meant for returns, compensation and purchase of land. In 2009, one or more of these issues prevented progress towards durable solutions in Burundi, CAR, Chad, Côte d’Ivoire, DRC, Ethiopia, Liberia, Kenya, Nigeria, Senegal and Sudan. Meanwhile, landmines hampered free movement in return areas in several countries including Algeria, Niger and Senegal.

The lack of humanitarian access to displaced communities was also an issue of concern in 2009. In Sudan, following the March 2009 indictment by the International Criminal Court of President al-Bashir on charges of war crimes and crimes against humanity, 13 international NGOs were expelled from northern Sudan and three Sudanese humanitarian organisations were disbanded. The 16 agencies had together delivered more than half the total amount of aid through 40 per cent of all aid workers in northern Sudan. Meanwhile, landmines hampered free movement in return areas in several countries including Algeria, Niger and Senegal.
interrupt the delivery of humanitarian assistance. In Algeria, Ethiopia, Niger and Nigeria, restricted access to insecure or displacement-affected areas prevented humanitarian organisations from monitoring displacement, conducting needs assessments or delivering assistance in a timely manner. In parts of DRC, humanitarian access was severely limited by fighting, leaving IDPs to support themselves or to rely entirely on the limited resources of host communities.

Internally displaced communities in African countries faced various protection risks, due to immediate threats to their safety in some cases, and long-term neglect in others. Protection risks included the forced recruitment of children into armed forces and groups, and rape and sexual violence against women and girls. In Somalia, recruitment of internally displaced children by insurgent groups continued to be reported in 2009. In DRC, Ethiopia, Nigeria, Senegal and Somalia, displaced children also suffered from lack of access to education or disruptions in education due to ongoing insecurity. In DRC, over 8,000 women were reportedly raped in 2009, while many more were estimated to have suffered unreported sexual violence and abuse. Rape and sexual violence against IDPs were also observed or reported in Burundi, Chad, Côte d’Ivoire, Nigeria, Senegal, Somalia and Sudan.

The UN Security Council adopted Resolution 1882 and Resolution 1888 to counter violence, including sexual and gender-based violence, against women and children in armed conflicts. If actively implemented, monitored and evaluated, these measures will have an important impact on the lives of IDPs in Africa, especially if they also lead to the development of humanitarian response programmes that help survivors cope with the trauma and impact of these crimes.

In the Great Lakes region, the Protocol to the Great Lakes Pact on the Prevention and Suppression of Sexual Violence against Women and Children also addresses the problem of rape and sexual violence in Africa. Ratification must now be followed by concrete actions by member states to realise commitments to ensure the prosecution of perpetrators and the protection of women and children who are survivors of sexual violence in the Great Lakes Region. While several countries, including CAR and Chad, were in the process of drafting national policies or laws to protect and assist IDPs, and while others such as Burundi, Nigeria and Côte d’Ivoire had developed draft IDP policies or laws which were awaiting enactment, only Sudan and Uganda had national IDP policies and only Liberia had incorporated the Guiding Principles into domestic law.

As in previous years, the international response to internal displacement in African countries in 2009 included the implementation of the humanitarian reform and the cluster approach to coordinate the delivery of assistance and improve the protection of IDPs, and the deployment of UN peacekeeping troops following UN Security Council resolutions. By the end of 2009, 12 countries in Africa had implemented the cluster approach, including Burundi, CAR, Chad, Côte d’Ivoire, DRC, Ethiopia, Kenya, Liberia, Niger, Somalia, Uganda and Zimbabwe (where the protection cluster was activated during the year). Six countries had UN peacekeeping forces: MINURCAT in CAR and Chad, UNOCI in Côte d’Ivoire, Nigeria, UNMIL in Liberia and UNAMID and UNMIS in Sudan. MONUC, the largest UN peacekeeping mission in the world with 20,000 troops, was sharply criticised by international NGOs for its seemingly unconditional support to the Congolese army’s operations, and the lack of clear rules of engagement to protect civilians.

Several African countries face elections in 2010, including Burundi, CAR, Chad, Côte d’Ivoire, Ethiopia and Sudan. It is to be hoped that the conduct and outcomes of these elections pave the way for peace processes which have a real positive impact on the lives of IDPs and returnees.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number of IDPs (rounded)</th>
<th>Government figures</th>
<th>UN figures</th>
<th>Other figures</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,000,000 (EU, 2002)</td>
<td></td>
<td>No recent figures available.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td>19,566 (UN–TCU, November 2005)</td>
<td></td>
<td>UN figure refers to the number of IDPs in Cabinda Region. No recent figure is available.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>100,000 (OCHA, November 2006)</td>
<td>162,284 (OCHA, November 2009)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central African Republic</td>
<td>162,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>168,467 (OCHA, November 2009)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chad</td>
<td>168,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>7,800 (2006)</td>
<td>0–7,800 (OCHA, October 2009)</td>
<td>Since 2006, no new assessment of the number of IDPs has been conducted, 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>42,000 in western Côte d’Ivoire (UN, September 2009)</td>
<td>Around 42,000 in western Côte d’Ivoire (UN, September 2009)</td>
<td>There are no comprehensive statistics on return movements and therefore no clear number of people still internally displaced in Côte d’Ivoire. The only figure available concerns the populations displaced in the west. No data is available on the 300,000 to 440,000 people who had been displaced into Abidjan.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Number of IDPs (rounded)</td>
<td>Government figures</td>
<td>UN figures</td>
<td>Other figures</td>
<td>Comments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic Republic of the Congo</td>
<td>1,900,000</td>
<td>1.9 million</td>
<td>(OCHA, January 2010)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Displacement was estimated at 2.1 million in September 2009, and was then reduced to 1.9 million at the end of the year. Around a million people returned home in 2009, but estimates are approximate, as most IDPs are with host families and are not registered, and many areas are difficult to reach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eritrea</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10,000 (IDMC, February 2009)</td>
<td>According to UN agencies, all camp-based IDPs had been resettled or returned to home areas by March 2008, but some may still be living with host communities. There has not been a UN assessment since 2006.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>300,000–350,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>300,000–350,000 (IDMC, October 2009)</td>
<td>The UN carried out assessments in southern areas of the country and in Gambella Region in 2009. The IDMC figure was compiled following interviews with UN and other agencies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td>3,714 families</td>
<td>from post-election</td>
<td>200,000–300,000 (OCHA)</td>
<td>The government has not made other IDP data available.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>still in camps</td>
<td>violence still in camps</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(MoSSP, January 2010)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Undetermined (UNHCR, July 2007)</td>
<td>About 23,000 people believed still to be in former IDP camps in 2007. According to the government all IDPs have achieved durable solutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>6,500</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11,000 (IRIN, December 2007)</td>
<td>This figure is based on the estimated return of approx 4,500 IDPs to the town of Iferouane.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td>1,210,000</td>
<td>(National Commission</td>
<td></td>
<td>No reliable figures available. The 2007 NCR figure does not clearly differentiate between people still displaced and those who have returned. During periodic outbreaks of violence most IDPs stay with host families.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>for Refugees, September</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2007); 80,000 (NCR, June 2009)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Unclear if people resettled in new “villages” in the early 2000s have found durable solutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>1,500,000</td>
<td>1,500,000</td>
<td>(OCHA/UNHCR, March 2009);</td>
<td></td>
<td>No reliable figures available. The 2007 NCR figure does not clearly differentiate between people still displaced and those who have returned. During periodic outbreaks of violence most IDPs stay with host families.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>4,900,000</td>
<td>4.1 million</td>
<td>(UNHCR, January 2010)</td>
<td>4.9 million (IDMC, January 2010)</td>
<td>The UNHCR figure is not broken down by area. The IDMC total includes 2.7 million IDPs in Darfur, 1.7 million IDPs in the Greater Khartoum area, 390,000 IDPs in Southern Sudan, and 60,000 IDPs in Southern Kordofan. No figures are available for the Eastern States and Blue Nile.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Togo</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10,000 (2008)</td>
<td>The UNHCR figure does not include IDPs in urban areas, or in Karamoja region. In addition, as of December 2009 there were 963,000 returnees in villages of origin in the sub-regions of Acholi, West Nile and Teso, many of whom had ongoing protection and assistance needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>At least 437,000</td>
<td>437,000 (UNHCR,</td>
<td>December 2009)</td>
<td></td>
<td>The UNHCR figure does not include IDPs in urban areas, or in Karamoja region. In addition, as of December 2009 there were 963,000 returnees in villages of origin in the sub-regions of Acholi, West Nile and Teso, many of whom had ongoing protection and assistance needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>December 2009)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>570,000–1,000,000</td>
<td>569,685 Operation</td>
<td>Mu-rambatsvina: UN Special Envoy, July 2005; 1,000,000 (Fast-track land reform programme: UNDP, September 2008)</td>
<td>880,000 – 960,000 (Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee, June 2007).</td>
<td>No comprehensive surveys of IDPs have been done, and estimating the total number of IDPs in the country is made more difficult by the fact that a significant number of IDPs have been displaced more than once. Eight per cent of respondents to the June 2007 Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee survey stated they had been “asked to move” in the last five years, implying between 880,000 and 960,000 people nationwide involuntarily displaced in that period.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Central African Republic

Quick facts

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of IDPs</td>
<td>162,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement situation</td>
<td>2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
<td>212,000 (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>15,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Internal armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>179</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The number of people displaced within the Central African Republic (CAR) rose in 2009 due to a resurgence of violence and new stumbling blocks in the country’s peace process. Clashes between the army and a splinter rebel group, and attacks against civilians by the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA) brought the numbers of IDPs up to 162,000 by the end of the year. The LRA operated initially in northern Uganda, but had expanded its field of operations to Southern Sudan, DRC and CAR, contributing to sub-regional instability. In addition, Central Africans sought refuge in neighbouring Chad.

Since 2005, IDPs in CAR have suffered from a range of human rights abuses, including killings, looting and burning of villages, destruction of fields, loss of livelihoods, sexual violence, and the abduction and recruitment of children. Members of all armed groups have perpetrated these crimes. Each wave of IDPs has been forced to take shelter in fields and forests without access to basic services, before seeking support from impoverished host communities when it has been safe to do so. There is only one IDP camp in CAR, and most IDPs rely almost entirely on host communities in remote rural towns.

Repeated patterns of internal displacement due to an increase of violence in areas of displacement and areas of return have further affected IDPs, making it all the more difficult for them to rebuild their lives. In 2009, over 73,000 people returned to their villages of origin but were unable to find durable solutions. For most IDPs in CAR, return was not yet a viable option. IDPs were reluctant to return because of security concerns and the lack of basic services in their villages of origin. Houses had been burned and health posts, schools, and water pumps were damaged or unlikely to be functioning, leaving very little incentive for people to return.

International peacekeeping forces in CAR have had little impact in providing security in areas of displacement and return because they have been deployed in small numbers and have been unable to engage criminal gangs. In March 2009, European Union troops deployed to Chad and CAR with a Security Council mandate to protect IDPs, refugees and humanitarian workers were replaced by a UN peacekeeping force known as MINURCAT. UN troops worked at half operational capacity due to lack of funding and problems in the acquisition and transportation of military equipment by contributing countries.

Accessing displaced communities is a big challenge in CAR for both logistical and security reasons. Collapsed road infrastructure between the capital and internally displaced communities means that transport is difficult and costly, and impassable roads during the rainy season prevent timely response to their needs. The impact of these difficult conditions on the delivery of humanitarian assistance is exacerbated by the fact that the IDPs most in need of help do not live in concentrated groups. Continuing insecurity also restricts humanitarian access. Criminal gangs kidnapped two French aid workers in 2009, forcing several humanitarian agencies in CAR to relocate field staff to the capital.

Until recently, the government charged the Ministry of Social Affairs with coordinating assistance to IDPs. However, it lacked the funds and the capacity to respond to their needs. In 2009, CAR’s High Commissioner for Human Rights and Good Governance created the National Standing Committee (CERF) to coordinate the national response to internal displacement. In October 2009, CAR was among the signatories to the Kampala Convention. Ratification of the Convention by CAR would show its commitment to protecting the rights of IDPs and achieving their durable return, resettlement or reintegration. CAR has already ratified the Great Lakes Pact which commits member states to incorporate the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement into domestic law. Although CAR has yet to enact national legislation to protect IDPs, a draft law is expected in 2010.

In 2009, UN agencies and international NGOs provided protection and assistance to conflict-affected communities in CAR, and some also worked on early recovery and development programmes. Since the cluster approach was implemented in CAR in 2007, ten clusters have been activated, including the protection cluster. By the end of 2009, 68 per cent of the $116 million requested in the 2009 Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP) had been funded. The Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF) recognised that CAR was an underfunded emergency and allocated $2.8 million for life-saving assistance, benefitting 355,000 people. The UN Peacebuilding Commission also contributed $10 million to kick-start the peacebuilding process, but more sustained bilateral and multilateral support will be needed to rebuild CAR for durable solutions and lasting peace.
At the end of 2009, almost 170,000 people were internally displaced in eastern Chad as a result of conflict and human rights abuses related to tensions between Chad and Sudan, internal armed conflict, and inter-ethnic violence. The number of IDPs fell slightly from a 2008 high of 185,000, about one fifth of the population of eastern Chad. IDPs were either gathered in 38 camps where they could access some level of international aid or being supported by host communities in remote areas with little to no humanitarian assistance. No new internal displacements were reported in 2009.

For most IDPs in eastern Chad, return was not a viable option in 2009. Some cited ongoing insecurity and others the lack of basic services in villages of origin as major obstacles to their return. Those IDPs that did return to their villages of origin went back to very unstable conditions and without the support from traditional leaders needed to resolve the inter-ethnic conflicts that may have caused their displacement in the first place. They returned because of the food insecurity, lack of access to land, and the lack of sources of income in IDP sites. Chad is an oil-producing country, but the government has used oil revenues to buy weapons with which to fight insurgent groups, rather than investing in social services, reducing poverty and improving governance, all of which are essential components for protecting and assisting IDPs and achieving durable solutions.

Meanwhile, the main protection risks facing IDPs were insecurity, circulation of small arms in IDP camps, arbitrary arrest, punitive fines, theft of property, and violence against women including domestic violence, early and forced marriage, and female genital mutilation. Displaced children also faced a range of threats. In IDP sites they had limited access to primary education and no chance of further schooling. Government armed forces continued to recruit children, despite a primary education and no chance of further schooling. Government armed forces continued to recruit children, despite a 2007 agreement with UNICEF to demobilise children from the army and integrated rebel groups.

Inter-ethnic violence has decreased considerably since 2007, only to be replaced by widespread attacks against civilians by road bandits and criminal gangs who have acted with almost total impunity. These criminal attacks have multiplied despite the presence of international military forces and Chadian police units. In March 2009, European Union troops deployed to Chad and CAR with a Security Council mandate to protect IDPs, refugees and humanitarian workers were replaced by a UN peacekeeping force known as MINURCAT.

Humanitarian organisations were increasingly targeted in eastern Chad. In the first nine months of 2009, there were 192 serious attacks on humanitarian workers, including killings and abductions, and the number of security incidents doubled from 2008 to 2009. The town of Abeche, a hub for humanitarian operations in Chad, had the highest-ever rates of crime against aid agencies. As a result, the delivery of aid was repeatedly interrupted, leaving displaced communities whose lives were already precarious without assistance. High levels of insecurity also prevented the access of humanitarian agencies to IDPs living with host communities in areas closer to the border with Sudan, rendering needs assessments and the delivery of aid particularly difficult.

The government of Chad has taken steps to respond to the situation of IDPs, but their impact has been limited. In 2007, it established a national committee to assist IDPs, but it had limited resources and staff, and has delivered only sporadic assistance. In 2008, the government set up the CONAFIT committee to coordinate humanitarian activities with EUFOR, MINURCAT, and the humanitarian organisations working in Chad. The government has yet to enact national legislation to protect IDPs. In 2009, Chad was not a signatory to the Kampala Convention. Ratification of the Convention would show Chad’s commitment to protecting the rights of IDPs and achieving their durable return, resettlement or reintegration.

More than 70 international humanitarian organisations provide assistance to displaced communities in eastern Chad, including IDPs and refugees from Darfur. The cluster system was introduced in Chad in 2007 to improve the protection and assistance of IDPs by humanitarian agencies. Thirteen clusters are now operational, including the protection cluster. By the end of 2009, 68 per cent of the $400 million requested in the 2009 CAP was funded. The Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF) recognised that Chad was an underfunded emergency, and allocated $5.5 million for life-saving assistance programmes to IDPs.

With the government committed to military investment rather than social development, and national and international protection agencies hamstrung by access and capacity limitations, it remains unlikely that conditions in eastern Chad will permit durable solutions for IDPs in the foreseeable future.
Seven years after civil war erupted in Côte d’Ivoire, it was not known how many of the over 700,000 people who had fled were still displaced at the end of 2009. Almost all IDPs were hosted by friends and family, and there were no country-wide mechanisms to monitor returns. In mid-2009, the UN’s Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) used a figure of approximately 42,000 IDPs in the west of the country where monitoring mechanisms were in place.

The politicisation of ethnicity during the economic decline of the 1990s had caused escalating tensions and eventually armed conflict which led the country to be split between the south under government control and the north held by the rebels of the Forces Nouvelles (“New Forces”). Thousands of civilians, especially government and public sector employees, left the north to seek shelter in the south, mostly within the economic capital Abidjan. Meanwhile, in the western “cocoa belt” of Moyen Cavally and Dix-huit Montagnes, tensions over land between indigenous communities and economic migrants escalated and caused massive displacement.

The 2007 Ouagadougou Peace Agreement gave IDPs real hope for an end to their displacement. However, the process has since suffered from delays in its implementation, including the repeated postponement of national elections. In 2009, the country was still divided between a government-controlled south and a centre-north where Forces Nouvelles members were still performing administrative duties despite the redeployment of government administrators. At the end of the year, it was not clear whether the benefits of implementing the Ouagadougou Agreement outweighed the existing incentives for all parties to maintain the current situation of “neither war nor peace”.

In 2009, new displacement occurred in the west, due to land disputes and inter-communal tensions which sometimes followed the return of IDPs. Ongoing tensions over land and property also stopped many people returning. Attacks and armed robberies continued in 2009, especially along highways in the west, despite the deployment of joint government and Forces Nouvelles patrols. Displaced women and girls were particularly vulnerable to the widespread threat of sexual violence.

Accessing the basic necessities of life has proved difficult in areas of displacement and return, for IDPs and host communities. Social services are inadequate or absent, particularly in the north and west, and food insecurity is high where displacement has interrupted agricultural cycles. Displaced women and girls have more frequently had to resort to prostitution as a means to ensure they and their family have some income.

Return has been the only option promoted so far by the government. Return movements have mostly been spontaneous, but some IDPs have received support to return from both government and national and international agencies. No data is available on IDPs who may have integrated in the place to which they were displaced or successfully settled in another area. Until solutions are found to guarantee equal access to land and land ownership, address rampant criminality and human rights abuses and the prevalent impunity of perpetrators, the attainment of durable solutions is still a distant prospect.

The restitution of IDPs’ property and access to their land remains politically charged; in the north there are concerns about restitution of property illegally occupied or taken by members of the Forces Nouvelles, and in the west land has been occupied by people who remained in villages, by other IDPs or by newly-arrived migrant workers. With the government set on the implementation of the 1998 Rural Land Law as the only legal framework available to settle disputes in rural areas, the specific impact on IDPs should be considered to avoid unintended discrimination.

In 2009, the humanitarian community decided to focus on IDP protection and resettlement in the west, and nutrition and food security in the north. In 2009, OCHA started pulling out of Man and Zou in western Côte d’Ivoire as part of its strategy to gradually reduce its country programme. Meanwhile, international donors prioritised development assistance, in line with the country’s Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper. The UN Humanitarian Coordinator set up a local transitional fund to bridge the gap between decreasing humanitarian funding and anticipated development funding, but by the end of 2009 no donors had contributed.

The Ministry of Solidarity and War Victims is the government’s focal point on IDP issues. Its impact is limited by the lack of coordination within the government, institutional support and funding. Although a national legal framework upholding the rights of IDPs was still not finalised in 2009, Côte d’Ivoire was among the countries which signed the Kampala Convention.

### Quick facts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of IDPs</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement situation</td>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
<td>1,100,000 (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Internal armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As of December 2009, 1.9 million people were displaced by the various conflicts which have killed several million people since the mid-1990s and continue to affect the east of the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC). Over a million people were displaced in 2009 alone, the majority of them in North Kivu Province, and the level of displacement was at the end of the year the highest since 2004. At the same time, an estimated million people or more returned home, half of them in North Kivu.

The new displacement in 2009 was caused by fighting between militia groups and Congolese armed forces supported by the UN, as well as by attacks and violence against civilians by all sides. Following an improvement in relations between the Congolese and Rwandan governments in early 2009, the countries jointly led operations against the Hutu Democratic Liberation Forces of Rwanda (FDLR) in North Kivu. After the end of the joint operations, the Congolese army launched in North and South Kivu operation “Kimia II” against the FDLR, with logistical support from MONUC, the UN peacekeeping mission in DRC. The army also clashed with Mai Mai militias, and the FDLR and Mai Mai groups both made widespread attacks in reprisal against civilian communities. By the end of the year, an estimated 990,000 people were displaced in North Kivu, and 690,000 in South Kivu.

Attacks against the population by the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA) in Lower Uele and Upper Uele Districts, and by local militias in Ituri District, also led to the displacement of several hundred thousand people in 2009, bringing the number of IDPs in Orientale Province to 450,000 in December. In addition, over 140,000 people fled inter-communal clashes in Equateur Province at the end of 2009, which were reportedly fuelled by demobilised militia members. At least 35,000 people were displaced in other parts of the Province, while over 100,000 sought refuge in the Republic of Congo.

The killing and rape of IDPs and other civilians continued at a horrifying rate in eastern DRC in 2009, and the protection of IDPs and other civilians in eastern DRC has remained of great concern. The government’s troops are ill-equipped, poorly trained, and barely paid. Both government forces and rebel groups have attacked civilians, to defeat historic enemies and also to secure territory in order to benefit from the extraction of natural resources. Many IDPs have had their possessions looted as well.

Women and children have remained at great risk of sexual violence, and according to UNFPA, some 8,300 women were reported to have been raped in the Kivus in 2009. Militia groups have also abducted children to fight. People from ethnic groups who find themselves in a minority in their displacement area are particularly vulnerable.

Most IDPs live with host communities, where they are either supporting themselves or relying entirely on the limited resources of their hosts, as humanitarian access has been severely limited by the fighting. In North Kivu, thousands of people have sought shelter in camps.

The vast majority of IDPs and returnees have lacked access to basic infrastructure such as health centres, schools and roads, clean water, food, seeds, tools, clothes and materials to build houses. The conflict has also caused the disruption of education for many children.

Return has not always been durable, as the reduction of food rations in camps and the need to start up the new planting season were major factors in return rather than the improvement of security. Many people returned home to then find their land occupied. Renewed clashes in return areas also forced people to flee again soon after their arrival home.

The government has made the Ministry for Solidarity and Humanitarian Affairs responsible for the situation of IDPs, but it has had no impact and there has been no legislation to support their protection. MONUC, the largest UN peacekeeping mission in the world with 20,000 troops, has been strongly criticised by international NGOs for its seemingly unconditional support to the army’s operations, and the lack of clear rules of engagement to protect civilians. The cluster approach was introduced in 2006, but humanitarian agencies and local NGOs have struggled to respond to the emergency needs of IDPs and other vulnerable people in a context of ongoing military operations and increased attacks against humanitarian workers.

DRC has ratified the Great Lakes Pact and in 2009 signed the Kampala Convention.

### Democratic Republic of the Congo

#### Quick facts

| Number of IDPs | 1,900,000 |
| Percentage of total population | 2.9% |
| Start of current displacement situation | 1996 |
| Peak number of IDPs (Year) | 3,400,000 (2003) |
| New displacement | 1,000,000 |
| Causes of displacement | Internationalised and internal armed conflict, human rights violations |
| Human development index | 176 |
Ethiopia

Quick facts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of IDPs</th>
<th>Percentage of total population</th>
<th>Start of current displacement situation</th>
<th>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</th>
<th>New displacement</th>
<th>Causes of displacement</th>
<th>Human development index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>300,000 – 350,000</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>Internal armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ethiopia has endured internal and international conflict for decades. The conflicts with Somalia during the cold war era and with Eritrea between 1998 and 2000 have had a long-term impact on the national economy and social stability. In 2009 inter-ethnic conflict and conflict between government armed forces and insurgency groups continued in some parts of the country. Various sources estimated the number of conflict-induced IDPs to be around 300,000 at the end of 2009.

The current government of Prime Minister Meles Zenawi introduced radical changes to the constitution in the early 1990s, which transformed the hitherto centralised state into a federation of states based on ethnicity, in order to bring government closer to Ethiopia’s diverse ethnic groups and provide a check against regional imbalances. However, this transformation failed to bring the anticipated decentralisation of power, and the central government has retained its grip on power through political patronage.

Following the establishment of ethnic federalism, a wave of local conflicts gripped the country, as groups were encouraged to settle old disputes or claim territory they felt was rightfully theirs following disputed demarcation of ethnic boundaries. Constitutional mechanisms and the federal government’s management proved insufficient to resolve these conflicts, and the Committee on the Elimination of the Racial Discrimination (CERD) recommended in August 2009 that greater efforts be made to address the roots causes of ethnic conflicts.

In February 2009, inter-ethnic conflict between the Borena of Oromiya Region and the Garre of Somali Region displaced an estimated 160,000 people. The conflict broke out over a borehole that the Borena zone officials wanted to construct in disputed territory on the border of the two regions. Officials of both regions accused the central government of inaction, and an international inter-agency assessment in the areas to which people had been displaced found that the government was not providing any assistance to IDPs who had fled into forest areas or to the outskirts of towns.

In Gambella Region, where conflicts are linked to competition of natural and political resources, fighting between ethnic groups displaced tens of thousands of people in 2009. Conflict between ethnic groups in southern Sudan also spilled over into Gambella, due in part to the cross-border ethnic links.

In 2009, the army continued to fight secessionist groups including the Ogaden National Liberation Front (ONLF) in Somali Region and the Oromo Liberation Front (OLF) in Oromiya, and there was no prospect of a resolution to either conflict. Fighting between government forces and the ONLF, and the human rights violations committed by both parties, had resulted in displacement since 2007. The government was accused of burning villages and forcing communities to vacate their land on the pretext of security concerns, while the ONLF was also reportedly responsible for forcibly recruiting people and obliging other non-Ogadeni clans to support the insurgency. Humanitarian agencies were unable to assess the situation as they were not granted access to the area.

Ethiopia was among the countries that signed the Kampala Convention, but the country is yet to take serious steps to address the rights of those displaced as a result of conflict. The government has rarely acknowledged conflict within its territory and has granted humanitarian organisations only limited access to displaced populations. IDPs have not received assistance for basic necessities such as shelter, education or health care, and in the majority of cases have had to rely on the support provided by host communities. In a country struggling to ensure food security, where according to some donors the government has politicised food distribution and obstructed delivery of aid, IDPs were particularly food insecure.

Among the issues raised by CERD in August 2009 was the need for the government to provide detailed information on the human rights situation of refugees and IDPs in its territory. However a law enacted in January 2009 placed further restrictions on the activities of human rights organisations and others monitoring conflict, and so the monitoring of displacement caused by conflict and human rights violations became more difficult. UN agencies were unable to carry out any profiling of internally displaced populations, while humanitarian agencies including Médecins Sans Frontières had to leave Somali Region in 2009, due to government interference and obstruction of their activities.
Kenya is still recovering from the December 2007 post-election violence that split the country along ethnic lines and left a very high number of people internally displaced. An estimated 1,300 Kenyans were killed and 600,000 forced from their homes. The government’s return programme in 2008 and 2009 was marred by irregularities, and IDPs and civil society organisations accused the government of enforcing unsafe returns, and of corruption in disbursing compensation monies. Despite government claims that the majority of IDPs had been resettled, a substantial number were still living in camps and with host communities at the end of 2009. The government was also accused of neglecting the claims for resettlement and compensation of groups of people who had been displaced by earlier violence.

Kenya has still a way to go in finding durable solutions for IDPs, despite ratifying the Pact on Security, Stability and Development in the Great Lakes Region (the Great Lakes Pact) and signing the Kampala Convention in 2009. Despite efforts by the government to formulate a national policy and to resettle those displaced by the 2007 violence, significant numbers remained without a home or livelihood. During the year, the government made no significant effort to profile or assess the needs of populations displaced by conflict or violence.


Efforts to bring perpetrators of violence and displacement to justice did not lead to prosecutions in 2009. The government’s Commission of Inquiry on Post Election Violence recommended the establishment of local tribunals to identify and prosecute those suspected of inciting and engaging in violence, but parliament blocked the proposal. The Commission handed over the names of those implicated in the violence to the International Criminal Court in the Hague, but at the end of 2009 the ICC was yet to undertake investigations.

In response to the post-election displacement, the government set up the National Humanitarian Fund for Mitigation and Resettlement of Victims of Post-election Violence in early 2008 to help families return to areas they had been displaced from. The Fund was intended to provide cash grants to help with the logistics of return, to support returnees replace basic household items and also rebuild houses.

Since 2008, the government has helped a large number of IDPs to return but, even after it forcibly closed camps in 2009, a significant number of IDPs were still in transit camps or living with hosts at the end of the year. According to the Ministry of State for Special Programmes (MoSSP), over 3,700 households displaced by the post-election violence were still living in 25 transit sites in Molo, Uasin Gishu/Wareng, and Trans Nzoia West/Kwanza Districts.

An audit commissioned by the Kofi Annan-led Panel of Eminent African Personalities reported that that some 19,000 people uprooted by the 2007 election violence were yet to be resettled and that 62 per cent of IDPs had not been provided with funds to construct their houses. Some of these families were still awaiting the government grants to return to their farms, although the government was providing food assistance through MoSSP. Over 6,800 internally displaced families also required support from the government to access land and livelihood opportunities. The government has committed to purchase land and allocate 2.25 acres to each household and resettle these families in an eco-village.

Representatives of civil society organisations, the media and IDPs themselves all reported in 2009 that return funds had been grossly mismanaged by government officials who reportedly embezzled large quantities of the money and denied IDPs their entitlement. Promises of resettlement land for IDPs were not realised by the end of the year, and the government could not account for over $19 million allocated to buy the land.
People have been forcibly displaced across Nigeria, for short or longer periods, since the end of military rule in 1999. Only rough estimates of the number of IDPs and their location are available as there are no reliable statistics on internal displacement in the country. The figures provided by government and non-governmental agencies are generally only estimates referring to localised situations. In most cases, the numbers refer to people who have sought shelter at temporary IDP camps.

Against a background of systematic patterns of inequality and intense competition for resources, Africa’s most populous nation has had little success in bringing together its diverse ethnic, religious and linguistic groups. Armed conflict between security forces and the rebel Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta (MEND) has caused displacement in the Niger Delta region, while across the rest of the country the most significant cause of violence has been the entrenched division between people considered indigenous to an area and those regarded as settlers. Indigenous groups have routinely prevented settlers from owning land or businesses, or accessing jobs and education, leading inevitably to tensions.

Both new displacements and returns were reported in 2009. In May, thousands of people fled clashes in the Niger Delta between MEND militants and the governmental Joint Task Force (JTF), charged with restoring order in the Niger Delta. In the central and northern regions referred to as the “middle belt”, between 4,500 and 5,000 people were displaced in February following sectarian violence in the city of Bauchi, while in July clashes between a militant group and the army in Borno State led to the displacement of some 4,000 people. Over the year, people who had been displaced because of post-electoral violence in Jos at the end of 2008 reportedly started to go home where possible.

Most IDPs were supported by their family or friends or local faith-based groups, and only some groups received assistance from local government bodies or the Nigerian Red Cross. However their protection needs appear to have been significant. Human rights organisations have regularly accused the security forces of failing to provide protection during outbreaks of inter-communal violence, while people displaced into makeshift camps in schools or army barracks have had to endure overcrowded and insanitary conditions.

Many children internally displaced by these episodes were unable to go to school, and displaced women and girls risked sexual and gender-based violence and exploitation. In the Niger Delta, there were accounts of disruption to family life as many women and children found shelter separately from the men.

Nigeria was among the countries which signed the Kampala Convention.

In the absence of any national IDP policy, responses have generally been incomplete and subject to competing mandates with consequent duplication of services or else inaction. The national responsibility to respond to displacement has been delegated to the local governments, and only if they are unable to cope are state governments called in. State Emergency Management Agencies (SEMAS) exist in some states, but they have varying capacities. Only when this second level of response is ineffective does the state government appeal to the federal government for support. The President takes the final decision on whether the federal government intervenes.

At the federal level, the National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) coordinates emergency relief operations and assists in the rehabilitation of victims where necessary. However, the Nigerian Red Cross has often been first to provide aid, as it has the structure and the capacity necessary to respond at short notice. The National Commission for Refugees (NCFR) has taken responsibility for post-emergency and long-term programmes for IDPs. There has been no consistent drive for durable solutions; in many cases there has been no support for the rebuilding of homes and livelihoods in areas of return, and where IDPs have sought to integrate locally or resettle in another part of the country, material support has been scarce and has varied from state to state. Apart from addressing the causes of communal violence, comprehensive compensation and restitution mechanisms and reconstruction efforts in areas of return are needed. These would depend on clearer mandates, greater institutional support to IDP focal points, better and more efficient funding, and greater staff capacity.

The UN in Nigeria has focused on development rather than humanitarian issues, where it believes it may have a greater impact on ending the recurrent conflicts. Coordination between humanitarian agencies at all levels has been inconsistent.

### Quick facts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Undetermined</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of IDPs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement situation</td>
<td>1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>At least 5,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Internal armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Human development index: 158

### Causes of displacement

- Internal armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations

### Internal displacement in Africa

- **Nigeria**
  - **Number of IDPs**: Undetermined
  - **Percentage of total population**: –
  - **Start of current displacement situation**: 1999
  - **Peak number of IDPs (Year)**: Undetermined
  - **New displacement**: At least 5,000
  - **Causes of displacement**: Internal armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations
  - **Human development index**: 158

The UN in Nigeria has focused on development rather than humanitarian issues, where it believes it may have a greater impact on ending the recurrent conflicts. Coordination between humanitarian agencies at all levels has been inconsistent.
IDPs in Somalia had grounds for optimism at the beginning of 2009; after the withdrawal of Ethiopian troops from Somalia in January, a lull in fighting allowed for the return of an estimated 70,000 people to Mogadishu up to April. Meanwhile, a new president was elected at UN-sponsored peace talks in Djibouti.

However, from May 2009, fierce fighting between the Transitional Federal Government (TFG) and its allies including the AMISOM African Union forces and insurgent groups such as Al-Shabaab and Hisbul-Islam, and between the insurgent groups themselves, reversed this trend and led to a renewed exodus from Mogadishu and other towns. Fighting also spread to other towns as insurgent groups and allies of the government fought over territories in south and central Somalia, and residents of towns and villages surrounding Beletweyn, Kismayo, Galgadud, and Gedo were forced to flee to other villages and into the bush.

At the end of 2009, an estimated 1.5 million people were displaced within Somalia due to the ongoing fighting. Inter-clan fighting in the relatively safe Somaliland also led to the displacement of hundreds of people in 2009.

The conflict led to the further worsening of a grave humanitarian situation and continued to severely limit the access of humanitarian agencies to internally displaced populations, as aid personnel and their property were increasingly targeted, especially by Al-Shabaab, which controls most of the territory in south and central Somalia. Al-Shabaab also publicly banned some UN agencies from working in areas under its control, forcing the World Food Programme (WFP) and UNICEF to suspend assistance to displaced populations. In July 2009, a camp in Jowhar hosting some 49,000 IDPs was cut off from WFP assistance.

Violations of international humanitarian law and human rights law were also reported in areas with internally displaced populations. Local human rights organisations and UN sources highlighted cases of insurgents recruiting child soldiers from IDP camps. Fighting close to areas inhabited by civilians and near IDP camps was also reported. The physical security of internally displaced women was an issue in all the camps, with cases of rape reported in addition to other attacks on camp residents, especially in Galkayo.

Conditions in IDP settlements in 2009 fell far short of international standards. In the area of the Afgooye corridor outside Mogadishu, one of the largest concentrations of IDPs in the world, overcrowding and a lack of basic services and sanitation facilities created a public health emergency. In 2009, the UN-led humanitarian cluster responsible for water and sanitation was only able to supply an average of eight litres of water per day per person, while in some areas of the corridor, people had as few as two litres per day.

Sanitation in the Afgooye corridor, as in other IDP sites within Somalia, was equally insufficient. An inter-agency assessment in 2009 found that there was one latrine for every 212 displaced people in the area, although SPHERE standards prescribe a ration of one latrine for 20 people. As a result, cases of acute watery diarrhoea were reported in IDP camps.

The humanitarian situation in Somalia in 2009 was critical. Nearly half the Somali population was said to be food insecure, including the entire internally displaced population. Nonetheless, some donors cut funding to agencies in 2009 for fear that assistance might end up in the hands of insurgents. UNICEF warned that funding cuts were forcing it to reduce programmes.

Access to education and health care for internally displaced children in 2009 was among the worst in the world. One in five children was acutely malnourished and hundreds of thousands remained at risk of death. This situation was aggravated by continued fighting and impediments to humanitarian assistance. An inter-agency assessment found that emergency levels of acute malnutrition continued unabated in 2009, with one in four internally displaced children malnourished.

From 2008 to November 2009, over 40 aid workers were killed and over 30 abducted. The continued insecurity forced many agencies to relocate the few staff members still based in Somalia to Nairobi. This reduction in field capacity had a significant impact on the provision of food aid, medical assistance, health care, water and sanitation to IDPs. Local organisations tried to fill the gap left by international organisations, but their capacity and resources were insufficient to meet the needs.
Sudan

Quick facts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of IDPs</td>
<td>4,900,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>11.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement</td>
<td>1983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
<td>2,700,000 in Darfur (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4,000,000 in Southern Sudan (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>530,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Internal armed conflict, generalised violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 2009, Sudan continued to have the largest internally displaced population in the world. By the end of the year, about 4.9 million people were displaced in Darfur, the Greater Khartoum area, Southern Kordofan and the ten states of Southern Sudan, with unknown numbers of IDPs in the other northern and eastern states. Their circumstances varied hugely: some people had been displaced for more than two decades, while others were newly displaced in 2009.

Sudan has long been the scene of internal conflicts instigated by various rebel groups in response to an unequal distribution of resources and a concentration of power in Khartoum. In Southern Sudan, armed conflict broke out soon after Sudan gained independence in 1956. That conflict ended in 1972, but in 1983 civil war started again between the government in Khartoum and the Sudan People’s Liberation Army (SPLA). In January 2005 the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) established home rule for the ten southern states under the Autonomous Government of Southern Sudan, and provided for a referendum on secession in 2011.

The CPA did not fully resolve the demarcation of the border between the north and the south, instead recognising three transitional areas (Southern Kordofan, Abyei and Blue Nile), whose final status as part of either northern or southern Sudan was governed by a separate protocol to the CPA. Tensions, around the oil-rich area of Abyei in particular, have remained high.

In eastern Sudan, conflict between the army and an insurgent coalition which became known as the Eastern Front continued from 1997 to 2006, when the Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement was signed. Progress in the implementation of the Agreement has been slow, and the region remains among the poorest in Sudan.

Armed conflict broke out in Darfur in 2003, when two loosely-allied rebel groups, the Justice and Equality Movement (JEM) and the Sudan Liberation Movement/Army (SLM/A), took up arms against the government. As with Sudan’s other conflicts, the causes of the war in Darfur lay in a history of neglect by the central government, and a failure to share resources and wealth. However, the dynamics of the conflict have changed over time, with the rebel movement fracturing into a large number of rival factions. The Sudanese government and one of the major rebel groups, the Justice and Equality Movement (JEM), signed a joint declaration of goodwill in February 2009, but peace negotiations were repeatedly suspended in the course of the year.

People displaced within Sudan by these conflicts have either sought safety within their own region or they have fled to the rapidly-expanding agglomeration around Khartoum and to other cities in Sudan’s northern states. In Southern Sudan, IDPs were mostly dispersed among host communities; a sizeable number sought shelter in towns. The conflict has led to even more pronounced urbanisation of Darfur, where the percentage of people in towns and cities doubled from 18 to 35 per cent between 2003 and 2009, and where many of the IDP camps are urban settlements in all but name. IDPs in eastern Sudan live in camps as well as in urban and semi-urban areas, notably in Port Sudan and Kassala.

Estimates for the total number of IDPs (from the south, Darfur, and the east) in the greater Khartoum area vary widely. By the end of 2009 UNHCR estimated that there were 1.7 million IDPs in Khartoum, including in the four areas officially designated as IDP camps by the authorities. The Sudan People’s Liberation Movement (SPLM) maintained that in 2009 at least two million southern Sudanese people remained displaced in Khartoum, but Sudan’s fifth population and housing census (the results of which were released in May 2009, a year after the census was held) provided a much lower number of just over 500,000. Part of the difficulty lies in the fact that many southern IDPs have been displaced for years or decades (and their children have been born in displacement), and have integrated economically, if not socially. Since 2005, significant numbers of southern IDPs have returned from Khartoum to the south, but some have since gone back to Khartoum after failing to re-establish themselves in places of origin where access to basic services and livelihoods was very limited.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Percentage of population</th>
<th>Number of IDPs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chad</td>
<td>11.6%</td>
<td>4,900,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>4,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
<td>3,500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chad</td>
<td>11.6%</td>
<td>4,900,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>4,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
<td>3,500,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In January 2009 the government adopted a national IDP policy which set out IDPs’ rights during different phases of displacement and the required responses to their needs. Sudan also ratified the Pact on Security, Stability and Development in Africa’s Great Lakes Region, including its protocols on the protection and assistance of IDPs and on the property rights of returning populations, but the government did not start implementing these instruments in 2009. By the end of the year, Sudan had not yet signed the Kampala Convention.

Sudan is the scene of the largest humanitarian operation in the world, with estimated needs totalling $2.18 billion at the start of 2009 and $1.88 billion at the start of 2010. It is the only country in the world with two international peacekeeping forces: the United Nations Mission in Sudan (UNMIS) in Southern Sudan and the African Union-United Nations Hybrid Operation in Darfur (UNAMID).

In March 2009, following the indictment by the International Criminal Court of President Bashir on charges of war crimes and crimes against humanity, 13 international NGOs were expelled from northern Sudan (including Darfur, the eastern states and the Transitional Areas), and three Sudanese humanitarian organisations were disbanded. These 16 agencies had deployed 40 per cent of the aid workers in northern Sudan, and delivered more than half of all assistance.

The prospect of durable solutions for the many displaced groups continued to depend first and foremost on the achievement of sustainable peace across Sudan, and on the economic and social development of areas long neglected and then devastated by years of conflict.

**Darfur**

Following clashes between rebels and government troops, up to 140,000 people were newly displaced in Darfur in the first five months of 2009, bringing the total number of IDPs in Darfur to around 2.7 million. With a further 270,000 Darfurians having fled to refugee camps in Chad, about half of Darfur’s total population was displaced. A further two million people were directly affected by the conflict in Darfur and in need of humanitarian assistance.

The expulsion of the 13 international NGOs and the dismantlement of three Sudanese aid organisations affected hundreds of thousands of people in Darfur, with the provision of clean water and sanitation, hygiene and nutrition support most seriously affected. The expulsions combined with security concerns to reduce the access of humanitarians outside the three state capitals of Northern, Southern and Western Darfur.

In October the High-Level Committee, a forum established to enable the government and the humanitarian community to discuss issues related to humanitarian action in Darfur, endorsed the Joint Verification Mechanism on Returns, intended to ensure that any return movements in Darfur are voluntary, and that return areas have the necessary basic infrastructure and food supplies to receive the returnees.

2009 saw little improvement in the prospects for Darfur’s IDPs. Efforts to obtain a peace agreement for Darfur remained unsuccessful, and the majority of IDPs continued to depend on aid. 45 per cent of the population of Darfur was food insecure, a far higher rate than anywhere else in the country.

**Southern Sudan**

The conflict in the south led to the internal displacement of an estimated four million Southern Sudanese, while half a million people fled abroad. UNMIS estimated that by June 2009, a total of 2.5 million IDPs and refugees had returned to their homes in Southern Sudan. However, the achievement of durable solutions by these returnees remained difficult. Southern Sudan is one of the poorest areas in the world, with very limited access to clean water, basic services and livelihood opportunities, and widespread malnutrition. In many cases, members of receiving communities, many of whom had themselves been displaced at some point during the war, were just as vulnerable as the returnees, and had little capacity to help them rebuild their lives. IOM has estimated that ten per cent of returns have not lasted and have led to secondary displacement.

Continuing attacks by the Lord’s Resistance Army and a significant increase in inter-ethnic and inter-communal violence caused a significant deterioration in security in Southern Sudan in 2009, and led to the displacement of 390,000 people in the course of the year. Conflicts in the south undermined the fragile survival strategies of large numbers of people. In the worst affected state, Jonglei, more than 100,000 people did not cultivate crops during the 2009 season because they were displaced; as a result they will be highly food insecure in 2010. Even for households that were not displaced, conflict levels reduced the area cultivated and restricted the flow of goods to markets, resulting in increased prices of staple foods. Conflict over grazing areas also reduced access to grazing and to animal products. Conflicts also occasionally disrupted the delivery of humanitarian aid.

Following the signing of the CPA, donor governments pledged up to $2 billion in aid for the reconstruction of Southern Sudan. By the end of 2009, they had provided only a quarter of this sum to the Multi-Donor Trust Fund (MDTF), and of that, only $181 million had been spent by the World Bank which administers the MDTF. The MDTF’s performance has been hampered by World Bank procurement rules and the lack of capacity on the part of the Government of Southern Sudan to follow World Bank procedures.
The conflict in northern Uganda between the government and the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA) began in 1988, but it was not until 1996 that the government forced people to move en masse into camps under its “protected villages” policy. It repeated the measure in 2002 and 2004, during heightened military operations against the LRA. An unknown number of people also fled to towns and cities in other parts of Uganda.

There have been no LRA attacks in Uganda since 2006, when the government and the LRA signed the Cessation of Hostilities Agreement (CHA). The LRA never signed the Final Peace Agreement, but rather moved its area of operation to Southern Sudan, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and the Central African Republic. As a result of the improved security in northern Uganda, by the end of 2009 around 1.4 million of the 1.8 million IDPs returned to their home areas from camps in northern Uganda’s Acholi, Lango, and Teso sub-regions; over 400,000 returned in 2009 alone.

Violence continued, however, in the neighbouring Karamoja sub-region. Illegally-armed Karimojong persisted in 2009 with cattle raids and attacks against villages, while the army’s ongoing forcible disarmament programme continued to give rise to human rights concerns. Since the population of Karamoja is largely nomadic, it is exceedingly difficult to distinguish between regular migratory patterns and forced displacement caused by conflict and human rights abuses. However, hundreds and perhaps thousands of women and children have moved out of Karamoja in search of safety and livelihoods.

While the return of stability in the Acholi sub-region is to be welcomed, the situation in 2009 presented two areas of serious concern. First, IDPs who had returned to their villages of origin faced significant challenges, and the sustainability of the large-scale return movements was by no means guaranteed. The obstacles they faced fell into two broad categories: the absence or inadequacy of basic services, including clean water, sanitation, health care and education; and the limited opportunities to rebuild livelihoods. Insufficient access to seed and fertiliser, combined with poor weather monitoring and forecasting, meant the 2009 harvest was only half what was expected. A food crisis arose across the north due to the premature termination of general food assistance.

Disputes over land in return areas, and the weakness of mechanisms to resolve them, further exacerbated the vulnerability of returnees, including in particular widows, single mothers, orphans and former child soldiers.

Schools in return areas continued to struggle with a lack of teachers, classrooms, teachers’ housing, latrines and water. The number of pupils per classroom and teacher remained well below national standards.

Second, by the end of 2009, 235,000 IDPs remained in camps and a further 200,000 in transit sites. A disproportionate number of these IDPs were elderly, disabled, and sick people, including people living with HIV/AIDS. Local authorities had been phasing out the camps without developing any potentially durable settlement options for these vulnerable IDPs. Many could not return home, as they would be unable to build a hut or access health care there. But neither could many of them settle permanently where they were, due to disputes with the owners of the land on which the camps were based; some IDPs had been threatened by eviction from their huts in the camps. Children who had been left behind in the camps, to access basic services including education when their parents returned to their villages, remained vulnerable to abuse.

The government signed the Kampala Convention in 2009. It also began to implement its Peace, Recovery and Development Plan for Northern Uganda (PRDP) in July. The Plan’s full implementation would help to bring the north up to the same level of development as the rest of the country, and would thus address one of the major causes of the conflict with the LRA. While the international community contributes financially to the PRDP, overall leadership lies with the Government of Uganda. However, there are concerns about the capacity of local government bodies in particular to manage and disburse the PRDP funding, as well as about monitoring mechanisms.

Funding for the consolidated humanitarian appeals in Uganda decreased from 86 per cent in 2006 to 67 per cent in 2009. The major challenge in the delivery of international aid is to find an appropriate balance between humanitarian assistance and recovery and development support. The reduction in humanitarian activities without a corresponding increase in recovery and development programmes is threatening to undo some of the gains made since the signing of the CHA and undermine the search for durable solutions.
A substantial proportion of Zimbabwe’s population is internally displaced, but in the absence of a comprehensive survey it is impossible to say with confidence exactly how many people are affected. The UN estimated that 570,000 people were made homeless by the urban demolitions of Operation Murambatsvina (“clear the filth”) in 2005, while the government destroyed the homes of thousands of informal mine workers in Operation Chikorokoza Chapera (“stop the gold panning”) in late 2006 and early 2007. In 2008, UNDP estimated that a total of a million farm workers and their families had lost their homes and livelihoods as a result of the fast-track land reform programme which had led to the almost complete collapse of commercial farming in Zimbabwe since its inception in 2000. Estimates of the number of people displaced in 2008 by the electoral violence ranged between 36,000 and 200,000.

Farm invasions continued in 2009, leading to the displacement of 15,000 farm workers and their families. Urban evictions also continued, notably in Victoria Falls where the homes of 157 families were destroyed for failing to comply with building regulations. The families in question had previously been made homeless by Operation Murambatsvina, and had since been given permission by the authorities to stay in shacks. In addition, by the end of 2009, local communities in the Marange diamond area were under threat of arbitrary displacement in contravention of the law to make way for mining operations. By the end of the year, the majority of the people displaced in 2008 by electoral violence had been able to return to their homes, but some people were unable to return because their homes had been burnt down or because they feared further violence against their person.

A significant number of people have been displaced repeatedly by successive operations, making it even more difficult to produce reliable estimates for the total number of IDPs. Many farm workers who were displaced to the towns and cities were later caught up in Operation Murambatsvina. Many of the people internally displaced may have since been among the estimated three to four million Zimbabweans who have left the country due to violence and economic hardship.

The formation of the Government of National Unity (GNU) in February 2009 led to some policy changes in relation to internal displacement. Previous governments led by President Mugabe had refused to acknowledge that government policies and actions had led to internal displacement, and had objected to the use of the term IDPs with reference to displaced Zimbabweans. As a result, it had been impossible to profile displaced populations or assess their needs, and humanitarian organisations considered them among wider “mobile and vulnerable populations” (MVPs) instead. However, in August 2009, the GNU and UN agencies for the first time conducted a small-scale rapid IDP assessment, which used the IDP definition in the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement and referred explicitly to people displaced by natural disasters, politically-motivated violence and Operation Murambatsvina. Displacement caused by the fast-track land reform programme remained a sensitive issue, and the terms of reference referred instead to “those who have lost their residences as a result of losing their livelihoods”. The government and the UN agreed that a nationwide assessment remained necessary to establish the scale of the displacement problem in the country and the extent of IDPs’ needs.

In general terms, political developments allowed for enhanced humanitarian access to vulnerable populations in 2009, and resulted in greater engagement of the government with the international humanitarian community. One manifestation of this new climate was the activation of the Protection Cluster in 2009, which had initially remained a working group when other clusters were activated in 2008. The MVP working group became a sub-cluster of the Protection Cluster. Concerns remain, however, about a lack of coordination in relation to displacement and protection issues.

Despite the stabilisation of the economy in 2009, humanitarian needs remained acute and the general population benefited only marginally from improvements in the socio-economic situation. In many respects IDPs remained among the most vulnerable groups of all, lacking access for example to water and sanitation infrastructure which left them even more vulnerable than the rest of the population to cholera and other water-borne diseases. Generally IDPs are starting from an even lower base than non-displaced people, making it harder for them to rebuild their lives following the near-collapse of the economy in 2008. The durability of any settlement options for Zimbabwe’s displaced people will depend on effective urban planning and changes to the building regulations for towns and cities, as well as a new approach to the distribution of farm land.
Algeria

Quick facts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of IDPs</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement</td>
<td>1992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
<td>1,500,000 (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Internal armed conflict, human rights violations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An unknown number of people – estimates range between 500,000 and 1.5 million – have been displaced in Algeria since 1992 due to ongoing conflict between insurgent Islamist groups and the government. In particular, large-scale massacres of civilians between 1996 and 1998 by the Armed Islamic Group (GIA) forced many Algerians to flee affected areas. Media sources, including the newspaper El Watan, suggested there were 500,000 IDPs in 2004.

Security has improved considerably in recent years, but the group known as Al Qaeda in the Islamic Maghreb (AQIM) was still active in 2009. While AQIM had previously been active in the north and in the regions of Aurés and Jijel, in 2009 it was also active in the south, on the Saharan borders with Mali, Niger, and Mauritania.

The President began a third presidential term in 2009 after modifying the constitution to allow for re-election. The government has consistently reported that there is no internal displacement in Algeria, and limited access to displacement-affected areas makes reliable figures unavailable. Algeria was not among the countries which signed the Kampala Convention.

Government figures on urban growth rates show that the expansion of cities has slowed over time, and would appear to corroborate the statement that few IDPs or migrants are still arriving in cities. However, the government does not systematically release full indicators, and its figures do not take into account the many people living in slums around cities without legal residence. Such informal settlements have grown significantly in Algiers, Blida, Médéa, Chalet, Tiaret, Sidi Bel Abbes, Relizane and Oran.

It is unlikely that a significant number of IDPs achieved durable solutions by 2009 given the magnitude of the displacement situation. The continuation of the state of emergency since 1992 remains an issue of concern.

Burundi

Quick facts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of IDPs</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement</td>
<td>1993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
<td>800,000 (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Internationalised and internal armed conflict, human rights violations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some 100,000 people still live in a number of IDP sites in the north and centre of Burundi. They were displaced by ethnic violence and civil strife which broke out after the 1993 coup and the fighting between the government and rebel groups which followed. The security situation improved after the last rebel group in the country laid down its arms in 2008, and no new conflict-induced displacement was reported in 2009. Most IDPs are struggling to support themselves, and many of their difficulties are shared by the rest of the population in one of the ten least-developed countries in the world. The rights of women and children are often at risk, and sexual violence remains widespread.

Most IDPs reportedly have no intention of returning to their place of origin, mostly because of the better economic opportunities around the sites, rather than for security reasons. Many of the sites are gradually becoming permanent villages. The government has, with international support, integrated vulnerable members of the host community and landless returnees into some existing sites now called “peace villages”.

The majority of IDPs do not own their houses and land in the sites, but live on state-owned, private or church-owned property, which has caused disputes with the original owners. At the same time, an estimated 70 per cent of IDPs still have access to their original farming land.

In 2009 the ministry in charge of supporting the reintegration of IDPs and returnees drafted the National Strategy of Socio-Economic Reintegration for People Affected by Conflict.

Burundi has ratified the Great Lakes Pact as well as signing the Kampala Convention in 2009.
Eritrea

Quick facts
Number of IDPs 10,000
Percentage of total population 0.2%
Start of current displacement situation 1998
Peak number of IDPs (Year) 1,000,000 (2000)
New displacement 0
Causes of displacement International armed conflict
Human development index 165

According to OCHA’s Displaced Population Report of October 2009, there were no IDPs in Eritrea. However, UN and human rights sources reported that an estimated 10,000 people were yet to be resettled who had been displaced during the 1998-2000 border war between Eritrea and Ethiopia over the contested Badme region.

There were no major conflicts between Eritrea and its neighbours in 2009, although tensions over regions on the borders with Ethiopia and Djibouti remained and could yet lead to security and humanitarian crises if left unresolved.

The war with Ethiopia displaced an estimated million people within Eritrea. After the conflict ended, the government and its international partners made efforts to help displaced families return to their home areas, and assisted others who wished to resettle in other parts of the country. They invested in programmes to provide basic services and livelihoods to families that had returned or settled in other villages.

The government reported in December 2009 that the internally displaced families who had resettled were leading better lives as a result of the development and livelihoods programmes which it had implemented.

However, despite these efforts, it is difficult to say whether IDPs have found durable solutions in areas of return or resettlement. The government has not accepted proposals made by the UN country team to carry out a joint assessment, although the last assessment dates back to 2006.

Human rights organisations have also reported that in 2009 the government perpetrated human rights violations including forced conscription, extra-judicial killings, and arbitrary detention, while restricting independent media and humanitarian organisations.

In 2009, thousands of Eritreans reportedly fled the country. Eritrea was yet to sign the Kampala Convention by the end of 2009.

Niger

Quick facts
Number of IDPs 6,500
Percentage of total population Up to 0.1%
Start of current displacement situation 2007
Peak number of IDPs (Year) 11,000 (2007)
New displacement Undetermined
Causes of displacement Internal armed conflict, human rights violations
Human development index 182

In 2007, some 11,000 people were displaced in northern Niger, when the conflict between the government and Tuareg groups intensified following the creation of the Niger Movement for Justice (MNJ) after a comprehensive peace agreement signed in 1995 had failed to appease the economic and political grievances of Tuaregs. The conflict abated in 2009 with both parties intent on holding talks. Meanwhile, inter-communal clashes between pastoralists and farmers caused significant but little-reported displacement across the country, and especially along the western border with Mali.

IDPs and local communities in areas affected by the MNJ insurgency faced a range of diverse threats to their life and security in 2009. Landmines caused casualties among civilians and also prevented the free movement of civilians and the return of IDPs. The conflict also prevented nomadic groups accessing their traditional pasture areas.

Some 4,500 IDPs started returning between the end of 2008 and the beginning of 2009. Many returned spontaneously, while in other cases local authorities sought the help of NGOs for transport and reinstallation expenses. However, with a state of emergency in place in the whole region, the available information rarely gave a comprehensive assessment of the situation of either IDPs or returnees.

In 2009, Niger was not among the countries which signed the Kampala Convention. The international humanitarian response was being strengthened with the gradual implementation of the cluster approach in 2009. However, the response has suffered from the lack of access and the impossibility of carrying out comprehensive needs assessments.
Senegal

Quick facts

- Number of IDPs: 24,000–40,000
- Percentage of total population: 0.2–0.3%
- Start of current displacement situation: 1982
- Peak number of IDPs (Year): 70,000 (2003)
- New displacement: 1,000
- Causes of displacement: Internal armed conflict
- Human development index: 166

Senegal’s Casamance region has since 1982 witnessed low-intensity conflict between government forces and the separatist Movement of Democratic Forces in the Casamance (MFDC). A 2004 peace agreement was rejected by an MFDC faction. 2009 witnessed a surge in violence with heavy clashes between the Senegalese army and MFDC militants.

The actual number of people still internally displaced across Casamance is unknown, as no profiling exercise was carried out in 2009. Estimates range between 24,000 and 40,000 IDPs. In September, an attack by rebels on an army base near Ziguinchor led to the displacement of some 600 people.

Gender-based violence is believed to be widespread, but has tended to go unreported. For children, violence and displacement have disrupted access to education, as schools in some parts of the region have been closed and teachers have preferred not to go back to insecure areas.

In some cases, displacement lasted only a few days. In others, IDPs were supported by family members or host communities while commuting to their home areas by day to tend their orchards.

According to the evidence available, most IDP returns have been spontaneous and unassisted. Because of landmines planted by the MFDC, freedom of movement has generally remained limited. In 2009, insecurity hampered humanitarian demining efforts and put on hold government construction plans around border areas, further impeding the achievement of durable solutions.

Senegal has no bodies with a mandate to protect IDPs, nor has it developed legislation or policies in their favour. In 2009 Senegal was not among the countries which signed the Kampala Convention. Regional development plans have targeted IDPs among other groups, including people remaining in conflict areas. International organisations have outsourced most programme implementation to local NGOs as they face a lack of access.

Liberia

Quick facts

- Number of IDPs: Undetermined
- Percentage of total population: –
- Start of current displacement situation: 1989
- Peak number of IDPs (Year): 500,000 (2003)
- New displacement: Undetermined
- Causes of displacement: Internal armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations
- Human development index: 169

Up to 500,000 people in Liberia were internally displaced by the 14-year civil war which ended in 2003 with the Accra Peace Agreement. IDP camps were officially closed in 2006 and the return of IDPs and refugees was completed in mid-2007.

In 2009, both the government and its international partners considered the internal displacement situation in Liberia to be over. However, the specific concerns of an unknown number of unregistered IDPs who had found refuge in public buildings in the capital Monrovia during the war remained undocumented.

Liberia is facing extraordinary reconstruction challenges and many of the vulnerabilities shown by the returnees are shared by the rest of the population. However, a survey published in 2009 showed the heavy toll that displacement had had on Liberians, as becoming displaced still represented the biggest fear for more than a third of respondents. Insecurity has continued in areas of return, with repeated clashes between rival ethnic groups over land ownership. Sexual and gender-based violence remains a major concern. Durable solutions will depend on better services and infrastructure, the peaceful resolution of land conflicts, and improved security of tenure for those who opted to integrate in the place they were displaced to, or to settle elsewhere in the country.

The Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement were adopted into national legislation in 2004 but there is still room for better governance and wider access to justice to guarantee durable solutions. In 2009, Liberia was among the countries which signed the Kampala Convention. The current challenge is to phase out the humanitarian clusters in such as way as to enable the transition to recovery and development, yet ensure that residual humanitarian needs are addressed.
Internal displacement in the Americas

At the end of 2009, about five million people were internally displaced in the Americas. As in previous years, the growing number of IDPs in the region was due mostly to the ongoing displacement in Colombia, which brought it alongside Sudan as the country with the most IDPs in the world. Colombia’s displacement crisis also continued to have regional implications in 2009, as Colombians were forced across borders into neighbouring Ecuador, Venezuela, and Panama. New displacement was also reported in Mexico and Guatemala in 2009, as a result of the actions of drug cartels and gang-induced violence. In 2009, the Colombian government’s strategy against the country’s various armed groups suffered a number of setbacks following some successes in 2008, all of which led to further forced displacement. As in 2008, armed groups that had emerged after the demobilisation of paramilitary organisations in 2006 gained strength, and the widespread human rights abuses which these groups committed were an important cause of displacement in 2009. In addition, violence in urban areas, which appeared to be linked to these groups, increased in 2009 after a decline recorded in 2008.

Displacement continued to be caused by clashes between government forces and the leading rebel group, the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC); between the FARC and a smaller rebel group, the National Liberation Army (ELN); and between these groups and the new post-demobilisation armed groups. People in rural areas were not only displaced by fighting but also by land seizures by all illegal armed groups perpetrated as a way to control territory and also to grow coca.
These continuing and new patterns of violence meant that Colombia may have had in 2009 an internally displaced population of as many as 4.9 million IDPs. The government took some steps to encourage their return, and reported around 30,000 returnees during the year; however this figure represented less than one per cent of the displaced population. Meanwhile, tensions with Ecuador were resolved in 2009, but relations with Venezuela worsened. Support to Colombian asylum seekers in these neighbouring countries varied: Ecuador implemented inclusive registration programmes, while in Venezuela asylum seekers were ignored at best.

In Mexico, it was reported in 2009 that thousands of people had fled Ciudad Juárez in Chihuahua State to escape widespread violence caused by drug gangs. It was not clear how many had been displaced, or how many had stayed in the country, as many of them had reportedly crossed the border into the United States. The situation of those uprooted within the country had not been evaluated.

In Guatemala, where conflict ended over a decade ago, the end of violence left many thousands of people internally displaced, most of them from indigenous communities or marginalised rural groups. These populations became increasingly invisible as they returned, settled in new locations or blended with impoverished non-displaced groups. It was unclear in 2009 whether they had attained durable solutions allowing them an equal enjoyment of rights. 12 years after the end of the conflict, little progress had been made in implementing the measures included in the peace accords to provide reparations for victims of human rights violations during the conflict.

An unprecedented food crisis hit Guatemala in late 2009, and the country had the highest rate of malnutrition among children under five in Latin America. Those whose vulnerability was enhanced by displacement in previous years were likely to be particularly affected. Furthermore, residents of impoverished city neighbourhoods continued to face intense gang violence which reportedly forced some to leave their homes.

In Peru, where armed conflict between government forces and the Shining Path and the Túpac Amaru Revolutionary Movement ended in 2000, IDPs were like many other victims of violence still waiting in 2009 for reparations for the human rights violations and abuses they suffered in the conflict. There was no progress in 2009 in implementing a 2004 statute on internal displacement, which mandated the Ministry of Women and Social Development to register remaining IDPs so that they could access reparations. The number of people registered remained at a mere 5,000 of the 150,000 IDPs identified in 2007. Meanwhile, in 2009, a recalcitrant faction of the Shining Path carried out attacks and fought government forces in the northern region of Ayacucho, but there were no reports of displacement associated to these confrontations.

The Americas thus included situations ranging from new displacement through to very long-term protracted displacement. IDPs from conflicts that had ended years before, such as those in Guatemala and Peru, were still waiting for reparations and it was unclear whether some of them had achieved durable solutions; meanwhile large numbers continued to live in precarious situations, or to be newly uprooted in Colombia’s ongoing conflict, and to be displaced within cities across the region following the violent activities of criminal gangs.
<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>Colombia</td>
<td>3,300,000–4,900,000</td>
<td>3,303,979 (December, 2009)</td>
<td></td>
<td>4,915,579 (CODHES, December 2009)</td>
<td>CODHES figure is cumulative since 1985, while the government’s figure is cumulative only since 2000. The latter does not include intra-urban displacement and displacement due to crop fumigations. Government figures include only those registered in the national IDP registry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>242,000 (UNFPA, May 1997)</td>
<td>It is unknown whether IDPs displaced in 1980s and early 1990s have reached durable solutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>5,000–8,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5,000–8,000 (Center for Human Rights Fray Bartolomé de la Casas, 2007)</td>
<td>These figures do not include displacement caused by drug cartel-induced violence. Media sources have reported 200,000 people leaving Ciudad Juárez to escape widespread violence. The proportion of those remaining in Mexico is unknown.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>150,000</td>
<td>150,000 (MIMDES, May 2007)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Peru**

**Quick facts**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of IDPs</td>
<td>150,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement situation</td>
<td>1980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Internal armed conflict, human rights violations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Armed conflict between government forces and the revolutionary Shining Path and the Túpac Amaru Revolutionary Movement from 1980 to 2000 caused the displacement of up to one million people at the height of the conflict in the 1990s. In 2007, the Ministry of Women and Social Development (MIMDES) estimated that 150,000 IDPs had not yet returned or resettled, and were still in urban centres including Ayacucho, Lima, Junín, Ica and Huánuco.

A law on internal displacement passed in 2004 represented a positive step towards the protection of IDPs’ rights. It incorporated the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement into local legislation, and created an focal point within MIMDES to coordinate the response to internal displacement. The IDP division of MIMDES has since improved the lot of some displaced people by starting to register them for eventual reparations, and implementing some livelihoods programmes.

During 2009, however, there was no progress in registering and accrediting IDPs according to the 2004 statute; the number of people registered remained at only 5,000, none of whom had received reparation by the end of the year. Lack of coordination between the IDP-specific registry and the general registry of conflict victims, and the focus on reparations for collective groups, have effectively excluded individual IDPs. Finally, reparations both for IDPs and victims of other human rights abuses have generally been framed as development or anti-poverty measures rather than fundamental rights supported by international law.

Nine years after the end of the conflict, there is no data evaluating the situation of IDPs group either independently or in comparison with non-IDPs. However, there are indications that they continue to struggle to access livelihood opportunities, education and health care.

Continuing support is needed for reparations and also for wider livelihoods interventions and development of basic services in the places to which people were displaced. Further returns and resettlements are not expected.
At the end of 2009 there were up to 4.9 million IDPs in Colombia, bringing it alongside Sudan as one of the two largest internal displacement situations in the world. 2009 saw the opening of new fronts in Colombia’s internal armed conflict. In 2008 the government’s strategy to contain and combat illegal armed groups had brought a string of positive results, including a notable weakening of the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC). However clashes with FARC increased in 2009, and supposedly demobilised paramilitary armed groups re-gathered, and committed a significantly higher number of human rights abuses. Insecurity in urban areas and particularly in large cities, which had declined in 2008, increased again in 2009.

The continuing forced displacement of people from the countryside towards towns and cities continued in 2009. So-called “drop-by-drop” displacement, less conspicuous than mass displacement, accounted for most displacement as it had in previous years. Nonetheless, around 80 large-scale events caused the displacement of a total of 19,000 people. The groups affected were mostly indigenous and Afro-Colombian, and most were in the departments of Nariño, Chocó, Cauca, Valle del Cauca, and Antioquia. Roughly half of these mass displacement events took place in Nariño, where assassinations of indigenous people were also repeatedly reported in 2009.

The large cities of Medellin, Cali, and Bogota were among those which received the most IDPs. In 2009, the process to improve the response of receiving municipalities continued, but it bore negligible results because of coordination and budget limitations. Insecurity in towns and cities where IDPs typically settle led to an increase in intra-urban displacement. In 2009, thousands of Colombians were also driven across borders into neighbouring Ecuador, Venezuela and Panama.

The government’s estimate of the total number of IDPs and those of civil society bodies continued to move further apart. In December, the government reported that a little over 120,000 people had been internally displaced in 2009, while a reliable national monitor reported a figure nearer 290,000. Under-registration of IDPs by the government persisted, due to IDPs not declaring themselves because of fear or lack of information, and because of a high rate of rejections among those who requested it. In 2009, the Constitutional Court declared the right of IDPs to be included in the registry and directed the government to address under-registration once and for all by launching information campaigns; by registering people displaced in previous years whose application had been rejected; by sharing information between the IDP registry and other government databases; and by registering children born to internally displaced families after the family’s registration date.

IDPs’ enjoyment of economic and social rights remained precarious. In 2009, the lack of sustainable livelihoods was critical, and IDPs remained significantly poorer than non-displaced populations. Almost all of them were excluded from the formal labour market: only 11 per cent of IDPs earned the already low minimum salary of $260 per month for 2009, with the rest having to rely on informal work. As a result, internally displaced households continued to struggle to secure the basic necessities of life and only few could envisage durable solutions to their displacement.

In 2009, the government continued to privilege collective returns through a programme offering housing and livelihoods opportunities. A few thousand people returned under this programme, but they made up less than one per cent of the internally displaced population. Given the duration of the displacement of so many people, local integration in places of displacement should be supported if IDP’s settlement choices are to be respected. In general, the longer IDPs remain in towns or cities or even rural areas of displacement, the less interested they become in returning to their areas of origin.

Early in the year, the Constitutional Court upheld its 2004 ruling that the inadequacy of the response represented an “unconstitutional state of affairs”, and throughout the year handed down 12 subsequent decisions obliging the government to take measurable actions in the response to IDPs. As part of this process, various government agencies drafted a comprehensive reform of land policy for discussion in 2010. There is therefore expectation that in 2010 the restitution of land, and the prevention of future dispossession in the midst of the ongoing conflict, will be addressed through legislation.

Implementation of the UN’s humanitarian reform process continued in 2009, with positive results such as better information sharing and communication among international agencies. However, greater international presence on the ground was identified as necessary to prevent violations and carry out protection. Finally, the lack of a consolidated appeal process in Colombia was identified as an impediment to the quick mobilisation of international support.
Up to 40,000 people were displaced in the 1990s in the Mexican state of Chiapas during an uprising by the Zapatista Army of National Liberation (EZLN) and the group’s subsequent confrontations with government forces. OHCHR reported that between 3,000 and as many as 60,000 people were still internally displaced in 2003; and between 5,000 and 8,000 were reportedly still displaced in 2007 according to local NGOs. No new information on displacement in Chiapas was made available in 2009.

While the 1996 San Andrés Accords marked the end of the uprising, divisions within indigenous communities in Chiapas and also in Guerrero and Oaxaca States, based often on religious affiliation, have continued to cause violence and displacement. The Commission for the Development of Indigenous Peoples (CDI), a body created by the government, reported that over 1,000 indigenous members of protestant minorities were displaced from nine districts during 2009.

The CDI reportedly concluded assessments of the situation of IDPs in Chiapas, Guerrero, Hidalgo, Nayarit and Oaxaca States in 2009, but had not released its report by the end of the year.

Meanwhile, violence associated with turf battles between drug cartels in Ciudad Juárez in the northern state of Chihuahua escalated dramatically in 2009, causing tens of thousands of people to flee the city. Up to 200,000 people reportedly left Ciudad Juárez between 2007 and 2009 to escape violence which the local government had been unable to curb.

The situation of this population is largely unknown: those affected have not yet been identified as IDPs and provided with support. This may be due to the fact that their displacement was caused by generalised violence linked not to ideology or armed action against the state, but to control of drug routes by criminal groups. Those displaced were mostly middle-class workers who moved to safer cities such as Monterrey and Guadalajara, and possibly found opportunities in the place of displacement through family networks.

Between 500,000 and 1.5 million people were displaced by internal armed conflict in Guatemala in the early 1980s. The conflict between government forces and insurgent factions grouped under the Guatemalan National Revolutionary Unity ended in 1996, but not before the armed forces had carried out brutal “scorched-earth” campaigns to crush the insurgents.

The end of conflict in 1996 left large numbers of IDPs dispersed across the country, many of them in the shanty towns of the capital Guatemala City. These IDPs joined the ranks of the poorest citizens. The widespread harsh poverty in the country, and the additional difficulties associated with forced displacement, suggest that many people will have been unable to rebuild their lives. An unprecedented food crisis hit the country in late 2009, and the country now has the highest rate of malnutrition among children under five in Latin America. 13 years after the end of the conflict, little progress had been made in implementing the measures for reparations included in the peace accords. In 2009, however, it was reported that spending on reparations increased and that more than 10,000 survivors of the armed conflict had received reparations for violations suffered. IDP groups have negotiated collective reparations measures, including memorials and money to buy land.

Recently, it has been reported that gang violence has forced people from their homes, especially in poor neighbourhoods in urban centres where IDPs settled during the conflict. In Ciudad Quetzal, an impoverished neighbourhood of Guatemala City, it was reported that owners had abandoned their homes to escape violence and threats from gangs. Community leaders in Villa Nueva near Guatemala City have estimated that five per cent of families there have had to resettle after they failed to pay the illegal taxes imposed by those groups. The government has proved unable to provide security, accountability, and access to justice. The UN’s International Commission Against Impunity in Guatemala, the first of its kind, continued its work towards addressing these problems in 2009.
Internal displacement in Europe and Central Asia

Some 2.4 million people were still internally displaced in Europe in 2009, more than 40 per cent of whom were in Turkey. Most fled their homes more than 15 years ago as a result of violence, human rights violations and armed conflicts in Turkey, the Balkans and the Caucasus. The number of IDPs in the region fell slightly throughout the year as IDPs returned to their homes or integrated locally – mainly in Georgia, but also in Russia and the Balkans. No new information was available on the number of IDPs in Armenia, Cyprus or Turkey.

Governments still largely prioritised the return of IDPs to their places of origin. However, return remained impossible for most IDPs in Azerbaijan, Georgia and Cyprus in the absence of peace agreements. Obstacles to return in other countries included insecurity, ethnic discrimination, limited government support, infrastructure and social services in areas of origin, as well as problems

An elderly internally displaced woman in a collective centre in Kosovo, showing a picture of her brother whose remains had recently been identified. (Photo: IDMC/Barbara McCallin, May 2009)
in repossessing and repairing property, earning an income, cultivating land, receiving a full pension and obtaining documentation.

Despite their focus on return, an increasing number of governments took measures in 2009 to improve the living conditions of IDPs at their current residence and elsewhere. In Turkey, action plans were being developed for IDPs in areas of displacement which had not received any support. Some IDPs in Azerbaijan, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Russia and Serbia were moved into better housing, mainly from collective centres. Other IDPs in Georgia, Russia and Cyprus became owners of temporary housing they had been living in, and in Georgia and Russia, collective centres housing IDPs were renovated and repaired.

The majority of IDPs in the region nevertheless still needed a durable and adequate home in 2009. Property restitution mechanisms such as those in Bosnia, Croatia, Kosovo, and Russia, and compensation mechanisms such as those in Turkey and Russia had largely not solved the housing problems of IDPs; many continued to live with inadequate security of tenure in overcrowded and dilapidated collective centres, informal settlements or makeshift housing with limited access to electricity, heating, water and sanitation. The living conditions of IDPs in private accommodation in cities remained largely unknown.

IDPs also still struggled to earn a regular income. In rural areas, IDPs’ land plots mostly only supplied food for the family as a result of poor soil quality, outdated machinery and cultivation techniques, limited access to markets and continued presence of landmines. With the general lack of investment in rural areas, there were few jobs and IDPs remained unemployed and dependent on benefits and assistance. IDPs seemed to find jobs more easily in cities, except for displaced members of minorities, who encountered social and economic marginalisation and discrimination.

Several other challenges persisted for IDPs in the region. Some still faced difficulties in obtaining and renewing the documents they needed to access jobs, services, benefits and full pensions. This was particularly the case for internally displaced Roma people in the Balkans, who were confronted with widespread discrimination. Many IDPs faced administrative obstacles in accessing medical services or could not afford them, and were forced into debt or poor health as a result.

In many instances reconciliation between communities had still not happened and IDPs continued to await information on the fate and whereabouts of disappeared relatives.

In 2009 several governments were working on or implementing plans for IDPs. The government of Georgia adopted and began implementing a revised action plan to implement its State Strategy on IDPs; and the Bosnian Ministry for Human Rights and Refugees revised the Strategy for achieving durable solutions for refugees, displaced persons and returnees which will be presented to Parliament in 2010 for approval; in Armenia the government was seeking foreign funds for its latest programme to help conflict-induced IDPs return. By the
end of the year, the Turkish government had still to formulate a national IDP plan of action.

International humanitarian organisations in the region played a gradually decreasing role due to diminished funding and the shift from humanitarian to development activities. The UN’s involvement centred on UNHCR and UNDP in most countries, as well as on the Representative of the UN Secretary-General on the Human Rights of IDPs, who visited Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia, and South Ossetia, Georgia during the year.

UN treaty bodies and member states reviewed the compliance of several governments in the region with international human rights law during the year. The situation of IDPs was not raised as a concern during the reviews of Russia and Turkey, but several concerns about IDPs were raised during reviews of Azerbaijan, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Cyprus. Between them, the committees urged governments to ensure equality and participation of IDPs, to improve IDPs’ access to social services, jobs and housing, to assist the most vulnerable of the remaining IDPs who would not be able or willing to return, and to provide adequate and durable alternative housing solutions.

The Council of Europe paid particular attention to IDPs in the region in 2009. The Committee for Migration, Refugees and Population adopted a report and resolution on protracted internal displacement in Europe which called for a renewed and improved response to internal displacement, and the Commissioner for Human Rights expressed concern about continued displacement in Turkey and Russia, and urged those governments to comprehensively address the needs of IDPs and facilitate their voluntary return, local integration and resettlement.

Despite the efforts of governments and national, international and regional organisations, significant gaps persist in the protection of IDPs in Europe. As IDPs who have been able to find solutions to their displacement have already done so, those who remain displaced are in many cases among the most vulnerable who have been marginalised and still require specific assistance. They will not achieve durable solutions until their specific needs are identified and addressed, regular monitoring of their situation is carried out, peace agreements are realised, and reconciliation initiatives established.

<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>Armenia</td>
<td>8,400</td>
<td></td>
<td>8,399 (NRC, 2005)</td>
<td></td>
<td>No more recent figures available.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Azerbaijan</td>
<td>586,000</td>
<td>586,013 (December 2009)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Figure includes around 200,000 children born to male IDPs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bosnia and Herzegovina</td>
<td>114,000</td>
<td>113,642 (December 2009)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>UN agencies use government figures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>2,400</td>
<td>2,285 (December 2009)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>UN agencies use government figures. Reports indicate a certain number of unregistered IDPs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>Up to 201,000</td>
<td>200,457 (March 2009)</td>
<td>230,006 (UNHCR, November 2009)</td>
<td>0 (“Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus”, October 2007)</td>
<td>The figure reported by the Republic of Cyprus includes those displaced to areas under its control since 1974, and around 54,000 children since born to male IDPs. The “Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus” considers that displacement ended with the 1975 Vienna III agreement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>At least 230,000</td>
<td>249,365 (Government, December 2009)</td>
<td>230,006 (UNHCR, November 2009)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Figures include displaced in 2008 and displaced in the 1990s and children born since.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kosovo</td>
<td>19,700</td>
<td></td>
<td>19,670 (UNHCR, December 2009)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian Federation</td>
<td>80,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>79,950 (UNHCR, December 2009)</td>
<td></td>
<td>The figure only includes IDPs in the North Caucasus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serbia</td>
<td>225,000–230,000</td>
<td>230,000 (November 2009)</td>
<td>205,211 (UNHCR, December 2009)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Estimate includes 20,000 unregistered internally displaced Roma people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia</td>
<td>650</td>
<td>644 (December 2009)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>UN agencies use government figures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<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>Hacettepe University survey was commissioned by the government. A government estimate that 150,000 people had returned to their places of origin as of July 2009 has not been confirmed.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkmenistan</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uzbekistan</td>
<td>3,400</td>
<td></td>
<td>3,400 (IOM, May 2005)</td>
<td></td>
<td>No more recent figures available.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Almost 590,000 people were internally displaced in Azerbaijan at the end of 2009, some 20 years after the conflict over Nagorno-Karabakh. The Azerbaijani and Armenian presidents met repeatedly during 2009 for negotiations to resolve the conflict under the aegis of the OSCE Minsk Group, but a peace agreement still appeared distant. Meanwhile, the 1994 ceasefire remained fragile as both sides continued to increase their defence budgets and skirmishes continued.

The government continued to improve housing conditions for IDPs in 2009, and some 1,400 families were resettled to new villages and apartment buildings. While this was a positive initiative, resettled IDPs reported that they did not participate in the planning process, the houses of vulnerable groups were not adapted to their needs, and new villages were far from jobs and services and sometimes close to the line of contact. IDPs’ tenure of this accommodation was insecure, a problem which also affected IDPs in all other types of accommodation.

The majority of IDPs, however, still lived in dire conditions in various types of housing, including collective centres, mud shacks, abandoned apartments, informal settlements and in the overcrowded homes of relatives. In 2009, an increasing number of owners sought to evict IDPs from their property through the courts, and in these cases, the courts increasingly referred to a 2007 decision of the European Court of Human Rights upholding the right of an owner to repossess property occupied by IDPs. Usually the IDPs were not offered either adequate alternative accommodation or compensation.

IDPs still struggle to earn a stable income. In rural areas, few IDPs are employed or have the land, livestock and assets to engage in profitable agriculture. With no investment in rural areas, home gardens have become their main source of food and they continue to depend on government assistance and remittances from relatives. IDPs seem to find jobs more easily in cities, but mainly in the low-paying informal market.

Many IDPs who moved to the capital Baku have been unable to register their new residence, due to bureaucratic processes, demands for unofficial payments and because of the government’s policy to limit migration to the city. Without residence registration, IDPs have been unable to access formal employment or government assistance, health care services, education or pensions. As a result, families have been separated, with one member moving to Baku for work while the rest of the family stays behind to receive entitlements. IDPs have also had difficulties in buying property due to their temporary residence status, in receiving their due pension after losing their work book during displacement, and in standing for election to public roles at their current place of residence.

The Ministry of Education was in 2009 undertaking a study on the quality and level of education of internally displaced children. Approximately 60 per cent of IDP children are taught separately from local children, but parents can send their children to mixed classes. Schools reportedly need renovations and additional qualified teachers, especially in rural areas. Parents cannot always afford transport, clothing and supplies for their children, which has limited their attendance, as has early marriage of girls and labour migration of families. IDPs consider they cannot afford higher education despite their entitlement to tuition fee waivers.

IDPs’ health appears to still be affected by their displacement. A 2009 study found that the majority of IDPs suffered from mental health problems, and that their children had been traumatised by the displacement, despite not having directly experienced military operations themselves. Most of these IDPs had not applied for mental health care services because they were not aware of them or feared being stigmatised, because they could not afford them, or because the services and qualified personnel were lacking. Some health services and medicines are free for IDPs, but information on their entitlements is not easily accessible and, like other citizens, they have to pay some official fees and also make unofficial payments.

The government continues to favour the return of IDPs over other settlement options. An improved national response would entail efforts to involve IDPs in decisions that affect them, acknowledgement of their right to freely choose between returning and settling elsewhere, and measures to make IDPs more self-reliant at their current residence.

In 2009, three UN treaty body committees made recommendations to the government on IDPs. These included ensuring equal opportunities, simplifying the address registration procedure, continuing to improve access of women and girls to education, employment, health and housing and ensuring consultation during rehabilitation of collective centres. UN member states also made recommendations to the government on IDPs during the Human Rights Council’s Universal Periodic Review of Azerbaijan early in the year.
Bosnia and Herzegovina

Quick facts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of IDPs</th>
<th>114,000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement situation</td>
<td>1992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
<td>1,000,000 (1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Internationalised and internal armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the early 1990s, generalised violence and armed conflict between Yugoslav, Croatian and Bosnian armed forces and militias, accompanied by massive human rights abuses and violations, led to the displacement of over a million people and the creation of ethnically homogeneous areas within the newly independent Bosnia and Herzegovina. By the end of 2009, some 580,000 people had returned to their places of origin, and the government reported that some 114,000 people remained as IDPs.

The vast majority of displaced people moved to areas where they would be among the ethnic majority and therefore not subject to discrimination. However the discrimination which returnees face as members of a local ethnic minority in return areas has continued to affect their livelihood opportunities and access to services. 98 per cent of the displaced people who returned home in 2009 went back to areas where they were living as part of the minority.

Many of the people who have remained displaced are among the most elderly or vulnerable, who still need specific assistance to access adequate housing, income, psychiatric and social care and treatment for chronic diseases. These people are over-represented among the 7,000 who have continued to endure very difficult conditions in collective centres. During 2009 fewer than 1,000 people returned, and remaining IDPs have little prospects of improvements in the absence of measures to facilitate their integration in the place they were displaced to. The government has remained reluctant to develop any such project, despite some initiatives taken by UNHCR and the Council of Europe.

In addition, the fragmentation of the social welfare system in Bosnia has resulted in lower pensions and other social benefits in certain areas, effectively limiting elderly people’s ability to choose where to live, while the lack of cooperation between the health insurance schemes in Bosnia’s two political entities – the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina and Republika Srpska – makes it harder for pensioners and returnees in general to access health care.

Under Annex VII of the 1995 Dayton Peace Agreement, support to durable solutions has focused almost exclusively on the return of IDPs and refugees to their places of origin. This has been to the exclusion of other settlement options, as support to local integration has been perceived as attempting to cement the effect of the war and the “ethnic cleansing” which motivated the displacement. This perception still coloured the government’s approach to facilitating durable solutions in 2009: the Ministry for Human Rights and Refugees drafted a revised version of the National Strategy for the Implementation of Annex VII, which, while still focusing on return, recognised the need to compensate people for lost property (instead of just focusing on restitution) and to assist the most vulnerable who cannot or do not want to return, thereby providing de facto support to local integration; however, at the end of 2009, and despite strong support from the international community, the revised Strategy had still not been adopted by the Parliament’s House of Peoples, due to disagreements on whether resources should be dedicated to return projects only, as supported by the Bosniak parties, or shared between return and local integration initiatives.

The Ministry has increased financial support to returns in the past three years and improved the scope of the assistance provided, by adding income-generating activities and rehabilitation of infrastructure to reconstruction aid. In addition, these more comprehensive programmes have been combined with greater support to local integration, and together they are likely to lead to a more effective response.

Despite the impressive international humanitarian commitment which followed the war in Bosnia and Herzegovina, only a few organisations remain in support of IDPs, in particular the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), UNHCR and UNDP. The European Union has also played a major role in influencing government policy in favour of IDPs through the accession process. The Council of Europe Development Bank has provided significant loans to UNHCR and Bosnian authorities to facilitate the return and reintegration of IDPs and refugees still accommodated in collective centres.
In 1974 groups backed by Greece’s military government ousted the Cypriot leader, and Turkey sent troops to the island in response. Hundreds of thousands of people were forced from their homes; Greek Cypriots fled to the south, while Turkish Cypriots took refuge in the north. Both groups suffered significant loss and needed large-scale assistance. Attempts to find a diplomatic solution failed and in 1975 the Turkish Cypriots declared their own state, which in 1983 became the “Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus” (TRNC), which only Turkey has recognised. A UN-monitored buffer zone has since divided the island in the absence of a political solution.

The Government of the Republic of Cyprus (GRC) reported in 2009 that about 201,000 Greek Cypriots could not return to their homes due to the Turkish military invasion and occupation. The Turkish Cypriot administration contended that the Turkish intervention had liberated them from Greek Cypriot domination since they faced multiple rounds of displacement up to 1974, and that internal displacement had ended in 1975, when the Vienna III agreement enabled residents to move with assistance or remain where they were with protection guarantees. While many Greek Cypriots still expected to be able to return and receive a remedy for lost property, most Turkish Cypriots considered their displacement to the north a permanent move and were more concerned in 2009 with what would happen to the property they were currently living in should the division of the island end.

By 2009, IDPs on both sides of the buffer zone appeared to share living conditions of a fairly high standard with the non-displaced population. The GRC continued to provide housing free of charge to holders of the Refugee Identity Card, and some 15,000 families were due to receive title deeds for these homes by the end of 2009. Nevertheless, IDPs still faced particular problems related to their displacement, such as the impossibility of return, the lack of information on the fate and whereabouts of missing relatives, and limited solvency due to their loss of property. 11 Greek Cypriot families who asked to permanently return to the north were still awaiting a decision in 2009 since there are no agreed criteria for returns. By the end of the year, the bi-communal Committee for Missing Persons had returned the remains of 196 identified missing individuals to their families, but some 2,000 people were still missing.

There is no mutually-recognised remedy for lost property, and Greek and Turkish Cypriots have applied to the European Court of Human Rights (ECtHR) to assert their property rights, as well as to the relevant institutions on each side. At the end of 2009, the Immovable Property Commission (IPC) in the TRNC had issued 139 decisions on property claims, awarding mainly compensation, but the ECtHR had yet to rule on the effectiveness of its remedies. Also in 2009, one displaced Greek Cypriot recovered property in the north after the European Court of Justice ruled that a court judgment of one EU member state is enforceable in another, and so the UK Court of Appeal should uphold the 2004 GRC court decision ordering the British occupants to surrender the land.

The situations of IDPs and their children continue to be unequal in GRC law. Children of men with “displaced person” status are entitled to the Refugee Identity Card and associated benefits, but children of women with the same status are entitled only to the Certificate by Descent, which does not allow them to access those benefits. In 2009 approximately 51,000 people were affected by this discrimination. During the year, the UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights urged the government to end this discrimination, as did several UN member states during the Human Rights Council’s Universal Periodic Review. With no domestic remedy available, some 100 internally displaced mothers and their children have applied to the ECtHR on the issue.

Peace efforts gained pace in 2009, with UN-supported talks intensifying between Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot leaders and a seventh crossing of the “green line” buffer zone opening as part of confidence building measures. During the year, international experts on governance, power-sharing and property met the negotiating teams of both sides. However, areas of divergence remain, there has been little preparation of the communities for a solution and IDPs have not been involved in the peace process. Leaders plan to launch a new and intensified phase of reunification talks in 2010.
People in Georgia have been displaced by several waves of conflict. Fighting which erupted in the early 1990s in South Ossetia was soon followed by conflict in Abkhazia. More recently in 2008, conflict broke out between Georgia and Russia over South Ossetia. While negotiations continue, the conflicts are unresolved and their settlement remains elusive.

At the end of 2009, at least 220,000 people were displaced in Georgia proper, including up to 22,000 people displaced in 2008. There were also some 10,000 IDPs in South Ossetia and an unknown number in Abkhazia. By the end of the year, over 100,000 IDPs displaced in 2008 had returned to Abkhazia, South Ossetia and areas adjacent to South Ossetia. Around 45,000 people displaced in the 1990s, whom Georgia still counted as IDPs, had over the years returned to Gali district in Abkhazia.

The registration of IDPs displaced in 2008 started in spring 2009. At the end of the year almost 16,000 new IDPs had been registered and the process was continuing. These IDPs received one-off financial assistance and were automatically included in the state social assistance programme. Some IDPs who had lost documents or left them behind had been unable to register by the end of the year, and faced particular difficulty in accessing disability pensions and social support.

About 7,000 families displaced in 2008 were resettled to new villages and refurbished apartments during 2009. Living conditions and assistance provided in the new villages varied, but in general houses were poorly constructed with inadequate water and sewage systems. There were few jobs locally and some villages did not have schools or medical clinics, but their infrastructure was slowly developing.

Most IDPs and returnees have had to endure inadequate living conditions. In 2009, about half of all IDPs were living in private accommodation and information on their situation was scarce; the other half were living in collective centres which were mostly overcrowded and dilapidated non-residential buildings. Many returnees were living in damaged houses that they could not afford to repair, or still relying on the hospitality of relatives or friends.

In 2009 the government offered IDPs in some collective centres the chance to own their assigned space. This privatisation process also involved the renovation of some collective centres. By the end of the year, almost 7,000 families had signed purchase agreements. However, procedures varied, information was limited and families did not always receive adequate living space or information about alternatives.

Many IDPs were still unemployed and dependent on benefits and assistance in 2009. IDPs had less access to formal jobs than others, as they continued to be excluded from local networks and often lacked skills that were in demand. Some had received land plots, but they were mostly small, often not very fertile and sometimes far from their homes. Many returnees in Abkhazia and areas near South Ossetia who had recovered their original land continued to struggle, with out-dated machinery and limited access to markets, to rebuild farming livelihoods in the face of insecurity and criminality.

Internally displaced children regularly attend school, though the quality of education is generally poor in Georgia. Problems include the lack of qualified teachers, run-down and ill-equipped schools, the cost of textbooks and school supplies and the lack of transport in some areas. Separate schooling continued for about 4,000 children attending 15 schools for IDPs in Georgia proper. Children who had returned to Abkhazia were mainly taught in Georgian, but there are few job opportunities for those who graduate without good Russian language skills.

Access to health care was difficult for IDPs, as out-of-pocket payments for medicines and special treatments not covered by state health insurance forced many to let illnesses go untreated or else fall into debt. There were few medical clinics and personnel in new settlements and the continuing need for psychosocial assistance was not met. In Abkhazia and South Ossetia, medical services were generally inadequate.

In 2009 the government adopted a revised action plan to implement its strategy for IDPs, which contained measures for all internally displaced populations and aimed to provide housing, promote socio-economic integration and inform people about decisions affecting them. Programmes to promote the last two aims had yet to be enacted.

IDPs continued to receive assistance from numerous international organisations, but while some continued to provide assistance in Abkhazia, most humanitarian agencies could still not access South Ossetia from Georgia proper. The end of the UN Observer Mission in Georgia and the closure of the Georgian mission of the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) drastically reduced the international presence in Abkhazia and South Ossetia.
More than 15 years after they first fled their homes, at least 80,000 people were still internally displaced in the North Caucasus in 2009 and an unknown number of people were still displaced elsewhere in the country. Over 800,000 people in Chechnya had been displaced by successive separatist wars that broke out in 1994 and 1999, while up to 64,000 ethnic Ingush people had been displaced during the 1992 conflict with Ossetian militants over Prigorodny district in North Ossetia.

In early 2009 the federal government pronounced that the decade-long “counter-terrorist” regime in Chechnya had ended. However, attacks, abductions and killings increased during the year, and the authorities continued to carry out “special operations”, reportedly abducting, killing and in some cases burning down the homes of people suspected of collaborating with alleged insurgents. Perpetrators of human rights abuses continued to enjoy impunity, while people exposing cases were threatened, harassed and killed, curtailing the reporting of human rights issues in Chechnya and Ingushetia.

Despite continued insecurity, IDPs from Chechnya living in Ingushetia reported that government officials put pressure on them to sign return application forms in 2009. The campaign of promoting return of IDPs to Chechnya from temporary settlements in Ingushetia was the result of an agreement early in the year between the presidents of the two republics. Soon after the agreement the remaining IDPs in Ingushetia were taken off the government’s accommodation and assistance list and the government terminated financial agreements with temporary settlement owners accommodating them. IDPs reported they later had difficulties in extending their residence registration, which limited their access to social services. Some IDPs who returned to Chechnya subsequently went back to Ingushetia after government promises of accommodation in Chechnya did not materialise. The Commissioner for Human Rights of the Council of Europe visited the North Caucasus in 2009 and emphasised that the choice of IDPs to return, integrate at their current residence or settle elsewhere in the country must be individual and voluntary.

Over 25,000 people had returned to North Ossetia by 2009 with government assistance. In 2009, the leaders of North Ossetia and Ingushetia signed an agreement to improve relations, including through facilitation of the return and settlement of IDPs. However, it was unclear whether all IDPs would be able to return to their places of origin. Some returnees reported that they could not use housing compensation to settle in return areas, but primarily in Maiskoy or Novy, villages to which IDPs had already been resettled. An additional difficulty for returnees was the temporary suspension of payments because federal funds had not been fully disbursed. Access of IDPs to the housing compensation programme has been limited, with few recipients in 2009.

Inadequate housing continues to be an issue for most IDPs and returnees. Some 40,000 people in Chechnya, Ingushetia, Dagestan and North Ossetia still needed a permanent home in 2009. The authorities in Chechnya and Ingushetia continued to close the collective “hostels” in which many still lived, and at a faster rate than before in Ingushetia. IDPs were not always fully informed about hostel closures and relocations, nor were they willing to move, and alternative accommodation was not always adequate. Many IDPs in hostels in Chechnya did not have a proper lease agreement for their accommodation, and so were unprotected against unlawful eviction and ineligible for some subsidies. The government reported that IDPs in several hostels in Grozny were given the chance to take ownership of their apartments free of charge. Outside the North Caucasus, evictions of IDPs living in hostels continued, without alternative accommodation being offered.

Some IDPs also still struggled to secure and maintain documents. IDPs within and beyond the North Caucasus continued to have problems renewing internal passports, residence registration and the “forced migrant” status which they needed to access jobs, services and benefits. Some 40,000 displaced elderly people from Chechnya living outside of the North Caucasus only received a minimum pension, because their work booklets and the archives showing their work history were destroyed during the conflicts and no mechanism had been put in place to ensure they received the pensions they were entitled to.

To ensure that statements made in 2009 by several government agencies about durable solutions for IDPs are translated into action, housing programmes for IDPs should continue and efforts should be expanded to include measures to facilitate IDPs’ access to services and benefits, increase their self-reliance, and address the needs of the most vulnerable IDPs. Continued monitoring of IDPs and returnees is needed to ensure they can increasingly enjoy their rights on a par with their non-displaced neighbours.
Turkey

Quick facts

- Number of IDPs: 954,000–1,201,000
- Percentage of total population: 1.3–1.6%
- Start of current displacement situation: 1984
- Peak number of IDPs (Year): Undetermined
- New displacement: 0
- Causes of displacement: Internal armed conflict, human rights violations
- Human development index: 79

Around a million people were displaced from towns and villages in south-eastern Turkey during the 1980s and 1990s as a result of the insurgent actions of the Kurdistan Workers’ Party (PKK) and the counter-insurgency policies of the Turkish government. Over 60 per cent of these IDPs were forced from their homes between 1991 and 1996.

As of July 2009, according to government statistics, a little over 150,000 people had returned to their places of origin. Others had returned only temporarily, usually in the summer months, commuting between cities and their villages of origin. Although security in the south-east has greatly improved since the 1990s, clashes between government forces and the PKK have increased since 2004, when the PKK announced the end of a five-year ceasefire, and particularly in the last three years, discouraging returns and even threatening new displacement.

In 2005, 75 per cent of IDPs were found in urban centres, both within affected provinces and elsewhere in Turkey. In 2009, most were living on the edges of Istanbul, Ankara, Izmir and Adana, and in cities in the south-east such as Batman, Diyarbakir, Hakkari and Van, having settled among the urban poor, but facing discrimination, acute social and economic marginalisation and limited access to housing, education and health care. Problems particularly identified among forcibly displaced communities include trauma, low levels of education and high levels of unemployment, particularly among women. Child labour and domestic violence were reported to be increasing in urban centres.

Policies up to 2009 had largely promoted return as opposed to local integration or settlement elsewhere; however return had remained limited. Outstanding obstacles to sustainable return included the upsurge in violence, the continuing presence of government village guard militias, whose members were often implicated in the original causes of displacement, and close to a million landmines in provinces bordering Syria and Iraq. Return areas also lacked economic opportunities, social services, and basic infrastructure including clean water, electricity, telephone lines, schools and roads.

The government has taken notable steps to address the internal displacement situation. In 1994, it launched the Return to Village and Rehabilitation Project to facilitate the return and rehabilitation of IDPs, and in 2005, it commissioned a national survey on the number and conditions of IDPs, drafted a national IDP strategy and adopted a law on compensation. It also put together a comprehensive pilot plan in Van Province. The Van Action Plan (VAP) addresses rural and urban situations of displacement. The preparation of similar plans in 12 other provinces in the south-east was still ongoing at the end of 2009. They are intended to form the basis of a national action plan on which to base a comprehensive response to internal displacement.

However, gaps persist in the response, both for IDPs in the south-east and for those displaced in other parts of Turkey, and civil society observers have continued to voice concerns over the continuing situation of IDPs. They have criticised return programmes for the lack of support which they offer to returnees, and for lacking transparency, consistency, consultation and funding. Despite attempts to address some of these issues in the VAP, similar criticism continues to be voiced. The VAP has also been criticised for failing to acknowledge the Kurdish issue and insecurity, particularly the village guard system, in areas of return. There are also continuing concerns that the situation of IDPs outside the south-east remains unaddressed.

The issue of the place of Kurdish people in Turkey dominates the situation of displacement. The vast majority of IDPs are Kurdish, and their displacement and current situation is tied to the lack of recognition of the Kurdish identity. In the last few years, the government has taken a number of unprecedented steps towards a “democratic opening” which could have significant bearing on the response to displacement. Human rights organisations have nevertheless condemned continued discrimination and limitations in freedoms, and made repeated calls to address past human rights violations, and end the impunity of perpetrators.

Progress for IDPs in Turkey has been influenced by regional and international institutions such as the European Union, European Court of Human Rights and the Council of Europe. In his most recent report in 2009, the Council of Europe Commissioner for Human Rights underlined the need for a comprehensive plan to address the socio-economic problems faced by IDPs and to ensure sustainable durable solutions. If IDPs are to find sustainable solutions, the international community should continue to emphasise the need to address their situation in urban areas, the pervasive obstacles to their return, integration or resettlement, and encourage wider efforts to seek reconciliation.
A 2004 survey found over 8,000 people still internally displaced in Armenia, almost two decades after violence and conflict with Azerbaijan had forced them to flee in the early 1990s. The conflict displaced about 65,000 people within the country, but they received hardly any government attention compared to other larger displaced groups, including refugees from Azerbaijan and people displaced by a 1988 earthquake and other disasters. International organisations have also largely neglected their plight. The low public profile and lack of registration and monitoring of these IDPs have made it difficult to estimate how many have achieved durable solutions.

There are no precise figures on the number of IDPs who have returned to their homes. Returnees mainly rebuilt houses on their own, and the quality of education and health care remains poor. Some returnees are not fully safe as landmines have not been cleared and skirmishes between Armenia and Azerbaijan continue. This continued insecurity has hindered their farming livelihoods.

Nor is up-to-date information available on IDPs who have integrated in the place of displacement or settled elsewhere in the country. There have been no major barriers to the integration of IDPs in areas outside their place of origin, but nor has the government put in place any support to facilitate it.

Between 1991 and 1995, 220,000 ethnic Croats and subsequently up to 300,000 ethnic Serbs were displaced by armed conflict in Croatia. Since then almost all the Croat IDPs have returned to their homes, while most of the displaced Serbs have resettled in Serbia or in the majority-Serb Danube region of Croatia. In June 2009, 2,400 people remained displaced in Croatia, two thirds of them ethnic Serbs in the Danube region, and their numbers continued to fall slowly as a result of property restitution or reconstruction. Since the end of the conflict, only one third of Croatian Serb IDPs and refugees have been able to return, and in the first half of 2009 only 95 IDPs returned, mostly ethnic Croats. It is estimated that only half of returns have proved sustainable; the main obstacles to minority returns have been the failure to punish perpetrators of war crimes, to restore people’s former occupancy rights or provide compensation, and also the difficulties they have faced in rebuilding livelihoods.

Contrary to the practice in other Balkan countries, Croatia refused to allow restitution of flats held under occupancy rights, and former holders of such rights are only entitled to limited and delayed benefits from a housing care scheme. Only a minority of nearly 14,000 people who have claimed housing care have been successful.

The national authorities have made progress since 2000, under European Union pressure. They have adopted legislation ensuring participation of people in a minority situation, restitution of property and reconstruction of destroyed properties, and have reviewed cases involving Serbs arrested or convicted for war crimes. However, implementation has been slow due to the complexity of the legal framework and the discriminatory attitude of administrative and judicial bodies.
Serbia

In 2008 Kosovo declared independence from Serbia. The UN General Assembly subsequently voted to refer the independence declaration to the International Court of Justice for an advisory opinion. At the end of 2009, 64 countries had recognised Kosovo. For the purpose of this page references to “Serbia” exclude Kosovo.

In 1999, bombardments by NATO forces and attacks by Kosovo Albanians forced Kosovo Serbs and Roma people to flee into Serbia proper or within Kosovo. As of December 2009, there were still around 225,000 IDPs in Serbia, including an estimated 20,000 unregistered displaced Roma people. An additional 20,000 people were displaced in Kosovo, mainly in majority-Serb enclaves.

Few of the people displaced in 1999 have found durable solutions. After an almost complete halt of returns in 2008, rates increased slightly with some 540 returns in 2009. Prospects for return to Kosovo are limited, and many IDPs face difficulties in repossessing property and obtaining legal documentation. Those who have returned to Kosovo have struggled to find work, notably because of widespread discrimination against Serbs and Roma people. As a result, Serb IDP associations estimate that only 5,000 IDP minority returns out of 15,000 have been sustainable.

The Serbian government has implemented projects supporting the development of social housing for IDPs in recent years, notably for the 4,200 IDPs still in collective centres.

The most vulnerable IDPs are Roma people who have specific protection needs. Their lack of documentation and any official residence prevents them from registering as IDPs and limits their access to services and social benefits.

Kosovo

Kosovo’s declaration of independence in 2008 created new uncertainty for the 19,700 people internally displaced within Kosovo, as well as for the 230,000 IDPs from Kosovo who were still residing in Serbia by the end of 2009. However there has been no further displacement since 2008. Serbia has not recognised the independence of Kosovo, continuing to regard it as a UN-governed entity within its sovereign territory.

Living conditions are difficult and opportunities for IDPs to integrate are scarce where they are in a minority. Security concerns have prevented most from returning to repossess their property. Because of their limited freedom of movement and the discrimination they face, IDPs’ access to land and employment has been very poor. Most Serb IDPs reside in enclaves and rely on a parallel system of education, policing, and health care supported by Serbia. However, they are increasingly approaching Kosovo institutions to obtain valid personal documentation or social benefits.

The rate of return fell in 2008 from an already low level, as IDPs waited to evaluate the approach of the Kosovo authorities towards non-Albanian communities. It increased only slightly with some 540 returns in 2009. Prospects for return to Kosovo are limited, and many IDPs face difficulties in repossessing property and obtaining legal documentation. Those who have returned to Kosovo have struggled to find work, notably because of widespread discrimination against Serbs and Roma people. As a result, Serb IDP associations estimate that only 5,000 IDP minority returns out of 15,000 have been sustainable.

The most vulnerable IDPs are Roma people who have specific protection needs. Their lack of documentation and any official residence prevents them from registering as IDPs and limits their access to services and social benefits.
In the Middle East region there were about 3.8 million IDPs at the end of 2009. This total figure represents a slight decrease since the end of the previous year.

IDMC monitors six displacement situations in the Middle East: in Iraq, Israel, Lebanon, OPT, Syria and Yemen. The figures on internal displacement should be read with caution, as few exercises to profile internally displaced populations in the region have been undertaken, and there are significant variations between different reports of their numbers.

In 2009, there were no significant trends which could be identified across the region. In Iraq, the number of returnees increased but remained a small percentage of the number displaced. Meanwhile the number of IDPs increased dramatically in Yemen and Gaza in OPT. More than 300,000 people displaced in those two places during the year faced acute humanitarian and protection concerns, many of which were shared by other less recent IDPs in the region.
Though there were improvements in the humanitarian and security situation in Iraq, and no major conflict-induced displacement in 2009, the country accounted for the majority of the region’s IDPs, with 2.764 million people internally displaced at the end of the year. Iraq remained one of the most unsafe countries in the world, despite a decrease in the number of recorded violent incidents since 2006 and 2007.

In OPT, 2009 was one of the most violent years since the Israeli occupation began in 1967. The Israeli offensive in Gaza launched in December 2008 displaced more than 100,000 people, and the implementation of policies of house demolitions and revocation of residency permits in East Jerusalem displaced hundreds more. The armed conflict in northern Yemen in the second half of 2009 was the most intensive fighting there since 2004, and the number of IDPs increased to 175,000 by late 2009. Many of them had already been displaced a number of times by previous rounds of conflict.

In Yemen and OPT, people fleeing conflict were killed or injured by warring parties: in Yemen, IDPs fleeing the conflict and others gathered in settlements were killed or injured by indiscriminate bombardments or in cross fire between warring factions; in Gaza during the Israeli offensive, many displaced people were killed or injured while sheltering in UN-designated emergency shelters.

In Iraq, despite the overall decline in violence, returnees and IDPs continued to face endemic violence and threats on the basis of their religious, sectarian or ethnic origins, or simply for being displaced or a returnee.

Restrictions on freedom of movement continued to affect IDPs and non-displaced people alike in a number of countries in the region. Movement restrictions inside Gaza during the offensive, and the refusal by Israel and Egypt to let people leave the enclave, left residents with few safe havens; in the West Bank movement continued to be restricted by around 580 checkpoints, roadblocks and other impediments. In Yemen, checkpoints established by government forces, opposition groups or warring tribes increasingly limited the movement of civilians including those seeking to flee. In late 2009, tens of thousands of people were stranded in conflict areas, while hundreds were reportedly refouled along the Saudi-Yemeni border. In Iraq, checkpoints, curfews, permission requirements and security barriers continued, particularly in Baghdad and surrounding areas.

IDPs’ access to basic services and to assistance varied significantly across the region, with most difficulties faced by IDPs in Yemen, Iraq, and much of OPT. In Gaza, humanitarian access proved impossible due to prevailing insecurity and Israeli restrictions. The continued blockade of Gaza has since 2007 prevented efforts at reconstruction and limited access to basic services. In Yemen, the majority of IDPs lacked basic services, whether they were dispersed among hosts, with whom relations became more tense as resources dwindled, or living in makeshift shelters, or schools.

Elsewhere displaced communities were simply neglected: Bedouin communities in southern Israel had only irregular access to clean water, as the tankers and pipes supplying them had been allowed to fall into disrepair.

Trauma associated with displacement and conflict was reported among children in OPT, Yemen, Iraq, and Lebanon. In Iraq, displaced children were still at risk of recruitment while in Yemen children, displaced or not, were reportedly recruited by various factions to the conflict. In the region the prevalence of gender discrimination continued to restrict the access of displaced women and girls to fundamental rights including education.

Throughout the region, minority groups faced a greater risk of being displaced on the basis of their cultural, religious or ethnic identity. Although sectarian violence declined in Iraq in 2009, sectarian tensions and violence were still evident and led to isolated cases of displacement. In the Negev region of southern Israel, Bedouin communities remained at risk of displacement as the government maintained its policy of destroying villages it deemed illegal. These communities faced widespread protection concerns.

The achievement of durable solutions has been prevented by continued political conflicts and longstanding barriers including insecurity, occupation, and inadequate responses by national authorities. There were no recorded returns in Israel, OPT or Syria due to continuing Israeli occupation and policies. In Iraq, rates of return remained modest. In Yemen, return movements in early 2009 were soon overshadowed by the resumption of hostilities. In Lebanon, the number of returnees achieving durable solutions remained unclear, while Palestinians displaced from Nahr el Bared refugee camp continued to wait as the reconstruction of the camp edged forward.

In general, there was little information about IDPs achieving other durable solutions than return. For many countries in the region, such as Iraq, return continued to be advocated at the expense of other durable solutions.

The national and international responses to internal displacement in the Middle East remained uneven in 2009. Several factors continued to undermine an effective response including restrictions on humanitarian access, insecurity including targeting of humanitarian workers, the lack of resources or the will to recognise, assist or protect IDPs,
and the will and capacity of the international community to address crisis situations.

In Lebanon, state institutions, national societies, and the international community have responded to several waves of displacement. However, significant reconstruction was still needed in southern Lebanon and Nahr el Bared. In Iraq, several steps were taken to address the needs of returnees and IDPs, but the ability of the government to provide for durable solutions was weakened by insecurity, lack of national reconciliation, and insufficiency of resources and institutional capacity. Prevailing insecurity also limited the capacity of national and international NGOs and UN agencies to respond effectively.

Yemen and OPT remained two of the region’s neglected crises, despite the increase in the number of people displaced and in the corresponding humanitarian needs. In Yemen, following the resumption of conflict in the second half of 2009, the government took some steps to facilitate a coordinated response; however humanitarian agencies faced a range of challenges in gaining access to IDPs and conflict-affected civilians, due to the prevailing insecurity, the restrictions imposed on them, obstacles from warring parties, and limited resources.

In Gaza, humanitarian access was continuously hindered by the Israeli blockade during and after the Israeli offensive, and onerous administrative restrictions that agencies faced, including those related to the policy of “no contact” with local Hamas authorities. Advocacy denouncing demolition orders against Palestinian’s homes and revocation of residency permits in the West Bank remained ineffective in changing Israeli policies, while Palestinian authorities continued to be impaired by their limited jurisdiction and political disunity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number of IDPs (rounded)</th>
<th>Government figures</th>
<th>UN figures</th>
<th>Other figures</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>2,764,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>2,764,000 (UNHCR, November 2009); 1,350,000 (post-2006 only) (OCHA, December 2009)</td>
<td>2,170,000 (Iraqi Red Crescent Organisation, June 2008)</td>
<td>Figures are based on the number of IDPs registered by the Iraqi authorities since 2006, in addition to UN estimates of IDPs pre-2006.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td></td>
<td>150,000 (Cohen, July 2001); 420,000 (BADIL, May 2006)</td>
<td></td>
<td>As displacement occurred over 60 years ago, most of those included in these estimates are the children and grandchildren of people who were displaced.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>90,000–390,000</td>
<td>40,000 since July 2006 (February 2008); 16,750 due to civil war (July 2006); 33,000 Nahr el Bared (September 2007); 70,000 since July 2006 (UNHCR, February 2008); 28,000 from Nahr el Bared (UNRWA, September 2008); 50,000-300,000 prior to July 2006 (USCR, 2005); 600,000 prior to July 2006 (USDOS, 2006); 23,000 (Lebanon Support, February 2010)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Different populations are included; those displaced by the 2007 siege of Nahr el Bared camp for Palestinian refugees, the 2006 Israel-Hezbollah conflict, and the 1975-1990 civil war and Israeli invasions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupied Palestinian Territory</td>
<td>At least 160,000</td>
<td>At least 20,500 (OCHA, November 2009)</td>
<td>129,000 (BADIL, September 2009); 4,700 (Harmkod, December 2009)</td>
<td>OCHA refers to IDPs receiving rental allowance in Gaza or displaced due to house demolitions in West Bank. BADIL refers to people displaced from 1967 to 2008 excluding the offensive in Gaza. Harmkod indicates the number of revoked residency permits in 2008 not included in BADIL figures.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>At least 433,000</td>
<td>433,000 (November 2007)</td>
<td></td>
<td>The figures provided by the Syrian Government includes children of people originally displaced from Golan.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yemen</td>
<td>At least 175,000</td>
<td>175,000 (UNHCR, OCHA, December 2009)</td>
<td>100,000 (ICRC, May 2008)</td>
<td>Limited access has made it difficult for the UN to assess all areas in which IDPs are located.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Six years after the 2003 US-led invasion, Iraq remained deeply divided in 2009. Approximately 15 per cent of the population were displaced inside and outside Iraq, and they had limited prospects of durable solutions. At the end of 2009, between 27 and 2.8 million people were believed to be internally displaced, close to half of whom were displaced prior to 2003. They were dispersed across Iraq in rented accommodation, informal settlements or public buildings, or occupying private houses which others had fled from. They were relying on the support of host communities as well as national authorities and international humanitarian agencies and non-governmental bodies, including some with political affiliation.

This internally displaced population – equivalent to one in ten Iraqis – had been displaced in three phases. Since February 2006, around 1.5 million people were fled sectarian and generalised violence including military operations by multinational, Iraqi, Turkish and Iranian forces in northern Iraq. Approximately 190,000 people had been displaced by military operations and generalised violence from 2003 to 2005, and close to a million by the policies of the former government of Saddam Hussein, including the “arabisation” of Kurdish areas, destruction of marshlands in southern Iraq, and repression of political opposition.

In 2009, despite continued improvements in security, the country remained volatile. Though there was no further major conflict-related displacement, there were ongoing isolated cases of displacement throughout Iraq including in Kirkuk, Ninewa, and Diyala. In 2009, security measures including checkpoints, curfews and security barriers continued to restrict the movement of people including IDPs. Meanwhile, rising tensions over disputed territory in northern Iraq raised fears of further displacement.

IDPs continued to face a wide range of protection issues. Though the vulnerability of IDPs was likely to be greater, many of these were shared by non-displaced groups. Iraq’s many minority groups faced particular threats, including Christian Assyrians, Faéli Kurds, Yazidis, Palestinian refugees, and also Sunni and Shia people where they were in the minority. Children and women faced recruitment by armed groups, sexual and gender-based violence, and labour exploitation.

Despite the decline in violence, the UN and the humanitarian community continued to report human rights abuses and violations against civilians by militias, criminal gangs, and security forces, with perpetrators generally avoiding prosecution. Though Iraq was no longer in the grip of a humanitarian crisis, daily life for all Iraqis remained precarious. Public health, electricity, water and sanitation services were inadequate and for the majority of IDPs, ensuring shelter, food and employment remained urgent priorities. Unemployment particularly affected IDPs who had left behind their sources of income and moved to areas where their skills might not be marketable.

The prospects of durable solutions were limited for most IDPs, with policies supporting return instead of other settlement options. Returns were reported, principally to Baghdad and Diyala, but the rate of return did not increase through the year as initially expected. The insecurity and new sectarian make-up of areas of origin, the lack of basic services and livelihoods there, and the destruction or secondary occupation of private and public properties all remained as serious obstacles to their return.

Though hampered by limited capacity and internal divisions, the government continued to take steps to address forced displacement. Centres which it had set up in 2008 in Baghdad continued to help returnees register, receive assistance and resolve property issues. In mid-2009, the government extended support measures adopted in Baghdad to Diyala where it launched its first inter-agency and inter-ministerial programme to rebuild homes and make returns sustainable; the programme focused on 400 villages with high returnee populations, many of which were ethnically mixed.

IOM and UNHCR are the leading organisations addressing displacement. UN agencies continued to expand their presence in Baghdad and in governorates including Basra, Najaf, Kirkuk, Mosul and Irbil. While the UN had access to all governorates in 2009 through operational partners, its ability to undertake effective humanitarian work continued to be impaired by its operational restrictions and dependence on the Multi-National Force in Iraq for security. Critics questioned the effectiveness of the UN’s coordination mechanisms and its ability to accurately monitor operations. Several international NGOs relocated international staff to central and southern Iraq, but due to insecurity many continued to operate remotely from northern governorates controlled by the Kurdish Regional Government or from neighbouring countries. The activities of multi-national forces and non-state armed groups continued to limit the space for needs-based humanitarian action.
A number of internal displacement situations have persisted in Lebanon since the 1975–1990 civil war, invasions and an 18-year occupation of southern Lebanon by Israel; a 33-day war in July 2006 between Israel and Hezbollah; the destruction in 2007 of the Nahr el Bared camp for Palestinian refugees; and localised sectarian violence in 2008.

The number of IDPs in Lebanon in 2009 remained uncertain. Of the hundreds of thousands displaced by civil war and Israeli invasions up to 2000, who numbered over 800,000 at one point, the government reported in 2006 that fewer than 17,000 people were still displaced. The outstanding issues facing them related mainly to compensation and in some villages to reconciliation.

There were no clear figures in 2009 on the number still displaced as result of the 2006 war. According to government and UN estimates, between 40,000 and 70,000 people were still displaced in February 2008.

By the end of 2009, around 24,000 Palestinian refugees from the Nahr el Bared camp in northern Lebanon were still displaced, with most of them living in a new settlement adjacent to the camp and the remaining 2,000 or so families living in the neighbouring Beddawi refugee camp. Meanwhile, the majority of people displaced in mid-2008 by fighting between Lebanese factions in the city of Tripoli quickly returned after all the parties signed a peace plan in 2008.

In 2009, IDPs and returnees were dispersed across various areas of the country, but particularly in urban areas. During the civil war, many rural communities were displaced into towns and cities, while in the 2006 war over 80 per cent of people living south of the Litani river moved north, with only those unable or unwilling to leave remaining. The majority of those displaced have sought assistance and shelter from their respective communities, while also receiving support from national and international organisations.

In the context of an economy and society devastated by repeated conflicts, the various internally displaced populations faced a range of problems in 2009. Psychological trauma was prevalent among IDPs, and many continued to live in damaged homes or in temporary shelters without adequate water or electricity supplies.

The people facing most difficulties were those displaced by the war of 2006 and the destruction of Nahr el Bared. South Lebanon, the southern suburbs of Beirut, and the Bekaa valley bore the brunt of the 2006 conflict. Three years after the conflict ended, delays in reconstruction and compensation payments were still reported. According to a study released at the end of 2008, more than one in five families which suffered housing damage during the 2006 war had been unable to return to permanent housing, and many others appeared to have had to return to their severely damaged or partially destroyed homes; compensation provided had rarely been sufficient to rebuild homes.

The contamination of vast areas of farmlands by unexploded ordnance (UXO) including cluster bomblets continued to place lives at risk and hinder returns in southern Lebanon. In September 2009, work to clean UXO from the 2006 war was still ongoing, but the funding had dried up to the extent that completion of the work was expected to take a further decade.

The siege of Nahr el Bared had had severe consequences for people living in and around the camp; the destruction of their homes and livelihoods and their ongoing displacement had left most of them living in makeshift shelters in the adjacent “new camp”. In February 2009, the first part of a rebuilding effort to house 500 families began, which was scheduled to take about a year to complete. As of late 2009, reconstruction of Nahr el Bared was proceeding, but had been delayed by legal hurdles, political wrangling and a shortage of funds.

Most of the perpetrators of displacement and associated human rights abuses have enjoyed impunity. There have been no criminal prosecutions for acts committed during the civil war including killings, enforced disappearances and arbitrary detentions by various militias and Syrian and Israeli armed forces. Similarly, people displaced by more recent events have limited hope of seeing the perpetrators prosecuted.

The Lebanese government does not have a national IDP policy but has established several institutional mechanisms to address the recovery and reconstruction needs of IDPs and returnees in northern, central and southern Lebanon. The lack of a national policy has at times led to differences in the assistance provided to different displaced communities. The UN and international NGOs continue to assist reconstruction efforts, while Lebanese organisations including Hezbollah’s social institutions have also provided significant assistance, social services and reconstruction support. UNDP administers the reconstruction fund established by the international community following the 2006 war, whereas UNRWA is involved in the reconstruction of Nahr el Bared.

---

**Quick facts**

| Number of IDPs | 90,000–390,000 |
| Percentage of total population | 2.1–9.3% |
| Start of current displacement situation | 1975 |
| Peak number of IDPs (Year) | 800,000 (2006) |
| New displacement | 0 |
| Causes of displacement | International, internationalised and internal armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations |
| Human development index | 83 |
2009 marked one of the most violent periods in the West Bank and Gaza since they were first occupied in 1967. The three-week Israeli offensive launched in Gaza in December 2008 cost the lives of over 1,000 people and led to the displacement of between 100,000 and 200,000 people. Thoroughly reported estimates varied, at least a further 129,000 people had been displaced within the Occupied Palestinian Territory (OPT) during the preceding four decades. As of the end of 2009, conservative estimates suggested that over 160,000 people were internally displaced, of whom 20,000 were in Gaza; however this latter figure may be much higher.

Tens of thousands of people were still displaced in Gaza at the end of the year, owing in part to the Israeli government’s refusal to permit the transit of construction materials following the offensive. At the end of 2009, 20,000 people were receiving rental assistance but an undefined number remained displaced among the host community. IDPs were enduring precarious conditions with many living in makeshift structures or sharing overcrowded facilities with hosts.

In areas of the West Bank under Israeli administration, including East Jerusalem, several hundred Palestinians were displaced by house demolitions in 2009. There are no figures on the number of people whose residency in East Jerusalem was revoked during the year, but figures published for 2008 revealed an unprecedented number of revocations, affecting over 4,000 Palestinians. An estimated 100,000 people also remained at risk of displacement, including 60,000 in East Jerusalem alone.

The lack of profiling makes it hard to say where they have been displaced to. Generally, IDPs are thought to be dispersed among host communities in various areas away from Israeli infrastructure. In Gaza, people displaced due to incursions have sought shelter with relatives, or in public buildings or schools until the violence ends or longer-term accommodation becomes possible.

The persistence of displacement since 1967 attests to an Israeli policy of forced displacement for the purpose of acquiring land, redefining demographic boundaries, and divesting Palestinians of ownership guaranteed under international law. According to the Representative of the UN Secretary-General on the human rights of IDPs, it has been caused by incursions and military clearing operations, evictions, land appropriations and house demolitions, the illegal expansion of settlements and related infrastructure, the construction of the Separation Wall, violence by settlers, discriminatory denial of building permits, and the revocation of residency rights in East Jerusalem. Displacement has also been caused by restrictions on freedom of movement and a system of closures that make life untenable for many residents of Palestinian enclaves. In 2006, the former UN Special Rapporteur on the situation of human rights in OPT described the displacement arising from the construction of the Separation Wall as analogous to what had been described as ethnic cleansing in other contexts.

Palestinians, displaced or not, face a deepening protection crisis. Violence, restrictions on their movement and discriminatory policies and regulations have increased the vulnerability of the community as a whole, while the humanitarian situation has worsened in Gaza as a result of its isolation since the 2007 takeover by Hamas and the 2008 – 2009 offensive. In addition, displacement has entailed loss of family unity, social welfare and livelihoods, and has had wide-ranging physical and psychological impacts including trauma and anxiety for children. Communities in areas under threat of expulsion or eviction have also faced harassment and intimidation.

Internal displacement is generally not recognised by the government of Israel; although the Israeli state remains the primary perpetrator of forced displacement, it does not provide assistance or protection to IDPs. The Palestinian authorities in West Bank and Gaza, despite attempts to address displacement, have been impaired by the ongoing policies of occupation, limited jurisdiction under the Oslo Accords, political turmoil and poor governance.

Though several UN agencies have responded to concerns of victims of displacement within their respective mandates, there is no international agency in OPT with an explicit mandate for IDP protection. Palestinian, Israeli and international NGOs have researched and publicised the impact of house demolitions and the Separation Wall on Palestinian populations, and helped grassroots communities to prevent or seek to reverse processes of displacement, on occasion providing legal and other assistance to victims of eviction orders or demolitions.

For the vast majority of IDPs in OPT, durable solutions remain tied to the reversal of policies of occupation, and an eventual resolution to the conflict.
As of December 2009, at least 175,000 people were forcibly displaced by conflicts within Yemen. In recent years the government has faced intermittent internal armed conflict in Sa’ada Governorate in northern Yemen, a growing southern separatist movement, and a resurgence of terrorist groups including al-Qaida. In Sa’ada, a group referred to as “al-Houthi” after the family name of the leader of the rebellion, had since early 2004 engaged in an armed conflict with the Yemeni army and government-backed tribes. The conflict began with isolated clashes in Sa’ada but by late 2009 the conflict also affected the governorates of Al Jawf, Hajjah, and Amran, and bordering areas of Saudi Arabia. There had been six rounds of conflict since 2004, with the latest beginning in August 2009. The intensity and geographical spread of the conflict increased in each round and all parties to the conflict, including the Saudi army, had reportedly perpetrated violations of humanitarian and human rights law.

In addition to the people reportedly displaced in northern Yemen, more than 800,000 people in Sa’ada and neighbouring governorates were affected by the conflict. In Saudi Arabia, inhabitants of villages bordering Yemen were forcibly displaced to provisional camps while no clear estimate was available of their number or situation. Limited and sporadic access severely hampered needs assessments and prevented much humanitarian activity, especially in the governorates of Sa’ada, Al Jawf, and Amran. Difficulties in identifying appropriate sites to establish organised IDP sites led to the establishment of informal camps. However, as of late 2009, the camps only provided shelter for around one in eight IDPs, with most of the rest seeking shelter with hosts in governorates as far south as Sana’a.

At the height of the preceding round of fighting in 2008, 130,000 people had reportedly been internally displaced in a conflict involving indiscriminate bombardment of civilian areas, arbitrary arrests, enforced disappearances, and alleged child recruitment by all parties. In July 2009, the UN estimated that 100,000 people were still displaced or affected, but it lacked the access to verify this number. Damage to homes, continuing insecurity, the fear of reprisals and the lack of livelihood opportunities and basic services in return areas all added to IDPs’ vulnerability and barred their return. Exposure to violence had led to high rates of trauma and anxiety, particularly among women and children, and child labour was increasingly witnessed among vulnerable households in IDP camps and host communities. Intermittent violence in Sa’ada from late 2008 to mid-2009 led to further displacement, while tribal, government and Houthis checkpoints progressively reduced people’s freedom of movement.

With the escalation of the conflict in August 2009, IDPs and communities hosting them faced increasingly severe protection concerns, particularly the estimated 90,000 IDPs in Sa’ada governorate, where the fighting was most intense. Attacks on civilians including those fleeing the conflict were more frequently reported than in previous rounds of conflict, and many communities were trapped in areas where heavy fighting took place. Hundreds of people who sought refuge into neighbouring Saudi Arabia were subsequently refouled back to Yemen.

Needs assessments in accessible areas in late 2009 revealed IDPs living in open shelters, or in overcrowded housing, schools and clinics; they underlined the vulnerability of single mothers and girls, the rising rates of domestic violence, the lack of assistance reaching people with special needs, and also incidents of conflict between IDPs and host communities. The assessments also revealed that access to clean water, sanitation, and food and non-food supplies was inadequate and becoming more difficult.

The humanitarian response in Yemen was impeded by restrictions on the access of agencies, limited resources and inadequate funding. The government recognised the situation of displacement and established mechanisms to coordinate with the humanitarian community to address the situation of conflict-affected populations. The government also gradually conceded wider access to areas of displacement but this remained limited, as did its response to the situation of IDPs.

In December 2009, the UN launched its first consolidated appeal in response to the situation in northern Yemen, following the urgent appeal launched in August. The cluster approach was implemented, with UNHCR as protection cluster lead. Several international agencies, and national agencies such as the Yemeni Red Crescent Society, Al Amal and the Charitable Society for Social Welfare, were at the end of the year providing assistance to conflict-affected and displaced communities.

### Yemen

#### Quick facts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of IDPs</th>
<th>At least 175,000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>At least 0.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement situation</td>
<td>2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
<td>175,000 (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>150,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>Internal armed conflict, human rights violations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

**Human development index**

| Human development index | 140 |

---

**Causes of displacement**

- Internal armed conflict
- Human rights violations

**New displacement**

- 150,000

---

**Peak number of IDPs (Year)**

- 175,000 (2009)

---

**Start of current displacement situation**

- 2004

---

**Number of IDPs**

- At least 175,000

---

**Percentage of total population**

- At least 0.7%
Internal displacement in the Middle East

Israel

Quick facts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Undetermined</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of IDPs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement</td>
<td>1948</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
<td>50,000 (1950)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>International armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since the establishment of the state of Israel in 1948, various waves of people have been displaced within the country. Arab villagers were displaced during and after the conflict which accompanied its creation, and their descendants have remained dispersed across the country; meanwhile Bedouin communities were displaced within the southern Negev region. In addition, residents of towns near the borders with Lebanon and Gaza have in recent years experienced shorter-term displacement due to rocket attacks during periods of conflict with Hezbollah and Hamas.

The main concern of people displaced in the context of the creation of the state of Israel, both in the north and in the south, has been to assert their right to the property they lost. In 2003 the Israeli Supreme Court accepted the government’s argument that the current security situation and the persistent assertion by Palestinian refugees of their right of return could not justify allowing the claims of the internally displaced petitioners. The majority of the land from which they were displaced has been put under state ownership.

In addition, Bedouin communities in the Negev, whether displaced or not, face numerous protection concerns, including very limited access to livelihoods, education and other services. The government’s programme to demolish villages it views as illegal means that communities face a continuous risk of displacement. NGOs such as the Regional Council of Unrecognized Arab Bedouin Villages have helped to persuade relevant ministries to halt planned demolitions of villages.

There is no notable effort on the part of the state or international actors to help people recover the property they lost during displacement. Neither the UN nor the government consider that there are any IDPs in Israel.

Syria

Quick facts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>433,000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of IDPs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total population</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of current displacement</td>
<td>1967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</td>
<td>433,000 (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New displacement</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causes of displacement</td>
<td>International armed conflict, human rights violations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human development index</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The situation of hundreds of thousands of Syrians forcibly displaced from the Golan Heights during the Six Day War in 1967 is still unresolved. The Syrian government estimated in 2007 that over 430,000 people remained internally displaced, including the descendants of those originally forced to flee from the Golan. As occupying power in the Golan, Israel has prevented IDPs from returning to their homes and destroyed hundreds of villages. In 1981, Israel formally annexed the area, but this annexation has not been recognised internationally.

The living conditions of displaced Syrians are not well documented. Most displaced families appear to have integrated in Damascus or elsewhere; however many have expressed a wish to return to Golan, and none have achieved the restitution of their property or compensation for property lost or destroyed.

The Syrian government has made some efforts to rebuild in areas bordering occupied territory, but progress has been slow. Meanwhile, Israel has continued to promote settlements in the Golan: as of 2009, more than 17,000 Israeli settlers were in 32 settlements in the Golan, alongside 18,000 to 21,000 Syrians in the remaining five villages of an estimated 164 which had existed prior to the occupation.

Syrians in the Golan reportedly continued to face discrimination and to be separated from family members residing in Syria.
Internal displacement in South and South-East Asia

An estimated 4.3 million people in South and South-East Asia were internally displaced by armed conflict, generalised violence or human rights violations at the end of 2009. This represented an increase of around 800,000 people, or 23 per cent, since the end of 2008. Close to four million people were newly displaced in the region during the year, mainly as a result of existing conflicts that escalated. The overwhelming majority did however manage to return before the end of the year.

By far the largest displacement was in Pakistan, where three million people were forced to flee their homes owing to government forces’ operations against Pakistani Taliban militants in the north-western provinces bordering Afghanistan. In the Philippines, up to 400,000 people fled their homes in the south as the army stepped up its operations against elements of the Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MILF) before declaring a ceasefire in July. In Sri Lanka, the end of the long-running conflict between the government and the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE) came at a high price for civilians in the north, 280,000 of whom were displaced between October 2008 and June 2009. Tens of thousands of people were also estimated to be newly displaced in Afghanistan, in Myanmar and in India’s Orissa State and states in the north-east, where conflicts showed no signs of ending.
Conflict-induced displacement in South and South-East Asia was mainly caused by fighting between government forces and rebel groups striving for autonomy or regional control, or trying to resist assimilation or migration policies resulting in their political and economic marginalisation. Competition for land and other natural resources and the exclusion of ethnic or religious minorities from economic development lay at the heart of many of the conflicts. In addition to national armies and rebel groups, agents of displacement often included militias and vigilante groups, and also communities mobilised along religious or ethnic lines.

IDPs throughout the region were unsafe because of fighting, counter-insurgency campaigns or persecution, including by government armed forces. In the Philippines, IDPs in majority-Muslim areas of Mindanao not only risked being caught in crossfire but were also exposed to human rights violations by the army, which openly considered Muslim IDPs an “enemy reserve force” with close links to the MILF rebels.

In some cases, civilians including IDPs were used as human shields by insurgents looking to protect themselves from military attacks. In Sri Lanka, the LTTE prevented tens of thousands of people from leaving the Vanni Region and they were trapped there when government forces conducted final attacks including extensive aerial and artillery bombardments, which resulted in the death of several thousand civilians.

In Afghanistan, security deteriorated in the south, where fighting between armed opposition forces and pro-government groups forced thousands to flee. More than 2,400 civilian casualties were recorded during 2009, making it the conflict’s deadliest year since 2001. Although many people internally displaced by the fighting were able to return after hostilities ended in their home area, displacement increasingly became protracted as a result of increasing insecurity in other parts of the country.

In Pakistan, insecurity in the areas affected by fighting and displacement, and in particular in South Waziristan, prevented many organisations from operating and greatly limited independent reporting on the impact on civilians of the war and human rights violations committed by warring parties. How-ever, the scale of displacement and the number of wounded civilians treated in medical centres left little doubt that it was very severe.

IDPs in the region lived in a variety of displacement contexts in rural or urban areas. Whether they were gathered in camps or relocation sites, or dispersed and possibly hosted by relatives or friends, they tended to share similar limitations to the fulfilment of their human rights.

Many received inadequate assistance and lived without any predictable source of support. While IDPs gathered in camps or relocation sites, or dispersed and possibly hosted by relatives or friends, they tended to share similar limitations to the fulfilment of their human rights.

Some of the IDPs facing the most difficult conditions were in Myanmar and Indonesia’s Papua Region. They had been forced to hide in the jungle with extremely limited access to basic necessities including food and health care. In these countries as well as in others such as India, governments refused to acknowledge the existence or severity of displacement situations caused by armed conflicts or human rights violations, and restricted the access of independent monitors or agencies seeking to assist IDPs.
In most countries, the lack of monitoring of return movements, local integration or settlement elsewhere in the country, and the fact that most of IDPs did not seek refuge in camps but were dispersed within non-displaced communities, made it difficult to estimate how many were able to return or settle elsewhere during the year.

The majority of those who were reported to have returned did so after a relatively short period of displacement, as in Pakistan where around 1.6 million people displaced from the Swat Valley were reported to have returned when their areas were declared safe in July, or in the Philippines where the majority of people displaced between August 2008 and July 2009 were able to return in the weeks or months following their displacement.

For many IDPs, return was not an option during the year because of a number of obstacles including continued fighting, insecurity, land and property disputes, and the lack of assistance available in return areas. Even when return was a possible settlement option, it did not always present a path towards a durable solution.

In many countries ongoing insecurity, limited freedom of movement, unresolved land and property issues, and the lack of political will and assistance by governments prevented IDPs from achieving durable solutions, both in situations of return or settlement elsewhere.

A number of governments encouraged IDPs to return even when conditions were clearly not conducive for doing so and when assistance provided to rebuild and restart a livelihood was insufficient. Governments often failed to organise returns within the framework of a coordinated and comprehensive return and reintegration strategy. In some cases, returnees were subsequently displaced again, often beyond the reach of assistance. Others preferred to remain in displacement, with host families or in camps where at least some security and assistance was available to them.

In Afghanistan, Pashtun IDPs who had returned to provinces in the north found that the harassment which had contributed to their displacement in the first place continued to prevent their reintegration into their home communities. In Pakistan, some of the 1.6 million people who were told it was safe to return home were displaced again as they found their homes and livelihoods destroyed and insecurity continued. At the end of the year, 1.2 million people were still unable to return.

In the Philippines, the government tried to close camps in early 2009 and instructed residents to return although conditions were clearly not safe; many ended up returning to the camps or resettled elsewhere. Following the ceasefire in July, returns were much slower than expected, and at the end of the year up to 188,000 people were still living in camps or with host families where they felt safer, and people in return areas were confronting the impact of recurrent fighting on infrastructure, housing and basic services.

At the end of 2009, the government of Sri Lanka allowed a significant number of IDPs to leave the closed camps where they had been for months. However, many of them could not return due to the presence of landmines, damage to their homes, and the lack of livelihood assistance offered; they remained in displacement, with host families or in transit camps in their districts of origin.

Only in one country, Timor-Leste, was return linked to a near-resolution of the displacement situation. During 2009 “recovery packages” consisting of cash compensation continued to be distributed to people agreeing to leave the IDP camps, and all the camps had closed by August. By the end of the year, only 50 households were still living in “transitional shelters” in the capital Dili. However, lack of monitoring in areas of return made it difficult to estimate how many were able to successfully reintegrate.

Many of Asia’s IDPs, in particular those living in the main towns or cities, chose to integrate in the place of their displacement rather than to go back to their place of origin. Some had no other choice, but others were reluctant to jeopardise the relative security they had attained in urban areas where they had established new social links, sent their children to school or found a job. However, not all IDPs in urban areas had improved their standard of living. In Nepal, Afghanistan, Pakistan and the Philippines, many continued to struggle to obtain decent accommodation, employment, education and other services.

The responses of the region’s national authorities to internal displacement situations varied greatly, but overall they were largely insufficient. Most governments acknowledged their responsibility towards their displaced citizens and collaborated actively with the international community to assist them. However, few had the capacity or the will to comprehensively address internal displacement, let alone the root causes of the underlying conflicts. The drafting in some countries of IDP laws (as in Sri Lanka and the Philippines) did not make significant progress during 2009, while in Nepal, the effectiveness of the existing national IDP policy continued to be limited by poor coordination, insufficient resources and the absence of any implementation guidelines.

There was no coordinated regional response to the problem of internal displacement. Most countries continued to avoid interfering in the domestic affairs of their neighbours. Progress was made with the establishment during the year of the ASEAN Inter-Governmental Human Rights Commission, the region’s first human rights mechanism. However, due to a number of important limitations including its weak mandate, the absence of a formal mechanism for individual complaints, and a decision-making process based on consensus, there were strong doubts that it would be an effective instrument to implement international human rights principles and standards.

The United Nations plays an important role in helping governments of the region provide assistance to internally displaced populations. With the exception of India, Myanmar and Bangladesh, where governments have declined offers of international assistance for people displaced by conflict, the UN addresses internal displacement in all countries monitored by IDMC. The cluster approach has now been rolled out in eight countries out of ten, but only in five of them (Afghanistan, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka and Timor-Leste) were the needs of conflict-induced IDPs a regular item on the agenda of the protection clusters, mainly because of the sensitivities of governments (as in the Philippines) or their refusal to acknowledge the existence of such groups (as in Indonesia and Myanmar).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Number of IDPs (rounded)</th>
<th>Government figures</th>
<th>UN figures</th>
<th>Other figures</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>At least 297,000</td>
<td>297,000 (IDP Task Force, Ministry of Refugees and Returnees, 2010)</td>
<td>297,000 (IDP Task Force, UNHCR, 2010)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Figures do not include most of those displaced by the armed conflict between opposition groups and pro-government forces since 2002, or those displaced by local conflicts over access to resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>60,000–500,000</td>
<td>500,000 (Government Task Force, 2010)</td>
<td>60,000 (Amnesty International 1997)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Figures include only those people internally displaced by the conflict in the Chittagong Hill Tracts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>At least 500,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>At least 500,000 (IDMC, December 2008)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Compiled from various available figures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>70,000–120,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>70,000–120,000 (IDMC, March 2009)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Compiled from various available figures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>At least 470,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>470,000 (Thailand–Burma Border Consortium, October 2009)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Estimate relates to rural areas of eastern Myanmar and does not include IDPs in the rest of the country.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>50,000–70,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>50,000-70,000 (OCHA, July 2009)</td>
<td></td>
<td>The same range has been used by the UN and international agencies since 2007.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>1,230,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,230,000 (OCHA, February 2010)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Philippines</td>
<td>125,000–188,000</td>
<td>125,000 (DSWD, December 2009)</td>
<td>188,000 (IOM, December 2009)</td>
<td></td>
<td>A number of IDP groups are excluded from both the DSWD and the IOM figures. They include people displaced by counter-insurgency operations in Basilan and Sulu Provinces, as well as people displaced throughout the country by the government’s fight against the communist rebels of the NPA.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>400,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>108,000 Vanni IDPs remained in camps in the north (HC/RC, January 2010); 200,000 people displaced before 2006 remained in displacement (OCHA, August 2009)</td>
<td></td>
<td>At the end of 2009, the UN HC/RC reported that 156,000 people had returned from camps to their districts of origin. A subsequent breakdown by the HC/RC suggested that over half remained as IDPs with hosts or in transit camps.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timor–Leste</td>
<td>400</td>
<td></td>
<td>400 (IOM, December 2009)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Internal displacement increased in 2009 following the intensification of armed conflict in many parts of Afghanistan. 6,000 or more civilians were killed or injured in 2009, the highest number of casualties recorded since the fall of the Taliban regime in 2001. UN estimates suggest that 297,000 people were internally displaced at the end of 2009. Of these, 199,000 had been displaced since 2003.

While the lack of access to conflict zones made it impossible to verify the exact numbers, conflict between armed opposition groups and pro-government forces in the south, south-east and east of the country remained the primary source of displacement in 2009. Lack of livelihoods opportunities coupled with general insecurity often resulted in further displacement for returning refugees. Local conflicts over access to pasture and arable land further contributed to new displacements.

Some civilians who had been forced to flee were able to return after fighting around their home areas had ended, but many people in 2009 had been displaced for several years. Out of the 135,000 IDPs who had been displaced before 2002 and who lived in camp-like settlements in the south, the west and the south-east, only 7,000 were able to return to their places of origin within a planned and supported process. Others, such as Pashtun IDPs who had returned to provinces in the north, found that the discrimination which had contributed to their displacement in the first place continued to prevent their reintegration into their home communities.

Security and logistical constraints continued to hinder national authorities and international humanitarian agencies seeking to distribute emergency assistance to IDPs displaced by the armed conflict. Many IDPs mainly relied on their savings, informal day labour or the support of extended social networks for their survival; many, after an initial period of displacement near their home areas, chose to search for new livelihood opportunities in urban areas, a decision shared by many economic migrants. An unknown number had by 2009 ended up in slums in and around Kabul, despite the lack of infrastructure and services there.

IDP protection concerns should be seen against a national context of widespread poverty and insecurity. Nonetheless, IDPs faced particular threats in 2009, as they were reportedly targeted by armed groups suspecting them of collaboration with the enemy. Others were evicted from the places in which they had sought temporary shelter. While many Afghans have experienced the destruction of their property, lack of access to basic services and to livelihood opportunities have disproportionately affected IDPs, particularly women and children.

Militants continued to target girls’ schools and dissuaded female staff from returning to their work, thereby increasing their poverty. The influential cultural norms of seclusion were strictly imposed for displaced women and girls in unfamiliar environments and impeded their access to aid delivered by conventional means, particularly health care services and sanitation.

Internally displaced men were often required to provide for increased numbers of dependents in impoverished circumstances, but displaced women also found themselves filling new roles as family providers. Female-headed households, widows, orphaned and separated children had the greatest difficulty in accessing relief supplies and services.

Insecurity, landlessness, a lack of shelter, and an absence of livelihood opportunities or basic services deterred many IDPs from returning to rural areas. Some would be able to return if the conflict were to end, while others would still be barred by disputes with those who have occupied their property in their absence. However, the economic recession affecting many parts of the country increased pressure on host communities and, in the absence of targeted support, made it harder for IDPs to resettle elsewhere or integrate locally.

In 2009, international assistance constituted around 90 per cent of public expenditure in Afghanistan. While UNHCR and the Government of Afghanistan have sponsored a national IDP policy which promotes durable solutions through voluntary return and local integration, relief and development assistance has continued to be seen as a means to achieve counter-insurgency objectives.

Many donor countries in 2009 continued to fund reconstruction projects in areas where their national troops were deployed; these were coordinated by civilian-military Provincial Reconstruction Teams (PRTs), a concept developed in 2001. Aid delivered through civil-military structures in Afghanistan has in certain cases contributed to the spread of corruption and the intensification of local conflicts. Moreover, it has blurred the distinction between military and humanitarian actors, thus undermining the perceived neutrality and impartiality of humanitarians, increasing security risks for aid workers, and reducing their capacity to deliver assistance according to need.

### Afghanistan

#### Quick facts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Number of IDPs</strong></th>
<th>At least 297,000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percentage of total population</strong></td>
<td>At least 1.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Start of current displacement situation</strong></td>
<td>2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Peak number of IDPs (Year)</strong></td>
<td>1,200,000 (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>New displacement</strong></td>
<td>Undetermined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Causes of displacement</strong></td>
<td>Internal armed conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Human development index</strong></td>
<td>181</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In 1973, armed conflict broke out in Bangladesh’s Chittagong Hill Tracts (CHT) as the government rejected indigenous Jumma people’s demands for greater autonomy. In parallel with the escalating conflict, the government began relocating poor and landless Bengalis from the plains to the CHT as part of the scheme to manage overpopulation in the plains and to assert political control in the region. The relocation of 400,000 Bengalis to the CHT in the 1970s and 1980s fundamentally changed the demographic make-up of the CHT, ensuring that the Jumma became a minority. During this period, human rights violations including forced evictions and violent clashes with army-backed settlers displaced tens of thousands of Jumma people within the country and another 60,000 into neighbouring India.

More recently, sporadic clashes between two indigenous political groups in CHT, the United People’s Party of the Chittagong Hill Tracts (PCJSS) and the United People’s Democratic Front (UPDF) have also displaced an unknown number of people. Most settlers have been displaced closer to army camps for greater security, whereas displaced indigenous people have fled to more remote areas or to reserve forests, where access to health care and education is limited.

The Chittagong Hill Tracts Peace Accord was signed in 1997 between the government and the PCJSS and its Shanti Bahini militia. The accord allowed for the refugees to be repatriated; however thousands of IDPs and returned refugees remain displaced due to unresolved property disputes as well as ongoing land-grabbing by the settler population. Many IDPs have remained without a durable settlement option because the peace accord has never been fully implemented.

The number of people internally displaced is unknown, and different estimates have been contested. In 2000, a government task force estimated the number of IDPs from the CHT at 500,000 people, but it was criticised for including the non-indigenous population in its count. In the same year, Amnesty International reported that 60,000 people were internally displaced, not including the non-indigenous population.

The Awami League Government which came to power after the December 2008 elections pledged full implementation of the peace accord, including assistance and reparation to those who lost their land. It set up a committee for its implementation, re-established the land commission and the task force on rehabilitation of returnee Jumma refugees and IDPs, and withdrew some 35 temporary military camps. However, as of December 2009, there were still around 300 military camps in the region, and the work of the land commission and task force was hindered by lack of funding and human resources. Although donor governments had expressed interest in funding development projects in the CHT after the signing of the peace accord in 1997, both bilateral donors and UN agencies were yet to be mobilised in efforts to promote durable solutions for IDPs.

A possibly much larger number of members of religious minorities across Bangladesh have also been forcibly displaced as a result of discriminatory legislation. The Hindu community in particular lost much of its land due to the nationalist Vested Property Act of 1974, which authorised the government to confiscate property from individuals it considered an “enemy of the state”. Almost 750,000 Hindu families were dispossessed of agricultural land according to one survey; some of them were internally displaced and others left the country. Although the Act was repealed in 2001, the government has not yet taken measures to restitute land or compensate those affected.

Religious minorities, including the Ahmadi Islamic sect, have faced inter-communal violence, particularly between 2001 and 2006, when the Bangladesh Nationalist Party was in power. Evictions of Mady or Garo minorities continued to be reported in 2009. However, information on the figures or patterns of resulting displacement is not available.
Situations of internal displacement were ongoing in 2009 in a number of India’s regions, with each situation having different causes and outcomes for those affected. There are no comprehensive sources of figures across the country; based on the number of IDPs living in camp-like settings and those believed to have returned but not to have found durable solutions, there are at least 500,000 conflict-induced IDPs in India. In addition, an unknown number are dispersed in urban areas or have fled to other states where they are no longer traceable.

This figure includes those people displaced since 1990 by separatist violence targeting the Hindu minority in Jammu and Kashmir, and by shelling between Indian and Pakistani forces along Kashmir’s “line of control”; those displaced in states of the north-east by conflicts ongoing since 1947 between state and ethnic or secessionist groups, and by inter-ethnic and intra-ethnic violence; victims of the conflict between Naxalite insurgents and government security forces and armed vigilantes in Chhattisgarh State; victims of communal violence between the majority Hindu populations in Gujarat and Orissa States and the States’ respective Muslim and Christian minorities; and people displaced in West Bengal by violence related to a proposed development project. In 2009, people were newly displaced by armed conflict and violence in the north-east (Manipur, Assam, and Mizoram States) and in Orissa State.

India’s IDPs share urgent protection concerns, particularly relating to access to basic necessities of life such as food, clean water, shelter and health care. Physical security remains a concern for some of the newly displaced groups. Those in protracted situations still struggle to access education, housing and livelihoods.

The various groups also face unique challenges. Tribal IDPs in camps in Chhattisgarh face the risk of attacks by both government forces and Naxalite insurgents. Muslim IDPs in Gujarat continue to endure very poor living conditions and they are increasingly at risk of losing their original homes and land, which have been taken over by Hindu extremist groups. Christian IDPs in Orissa risk being forced to convert to Hinduism if they return to their homes. Displaced women in Assam and Manipur have increasingly been forced into prostitution in order to support their families in the absence of husbands who have left in search of work.

Conflict-induced IDPs enjoy no recognition under India’s national laws. The responsibility to protect them is generally left to state authorities, who are often unaware of their rights or reluctant to offer support, particularly in cases where they played a role in causing the displacement. Where IDPs have no recognised status, they have had difficulties asserting their civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights; for example, after living in displacement for more than 15 years, displaced Kashmiri Pandit families risk losing their cultural identity, while the government refers to them as “migrants”.

Prospects for durable solutions for the various displaced groups have been limited by barriers to their return home. In the absence of a national IDP policy, local integration or settlement elsewhere in the country have not been supported, with governments of receiving states generally unwilling to have IDPs settle there permanently. For example, officials in Andhra Pradesh have forced IDPs to return to Chhattisgarh State, and the Tripura State government continues to promote the return of Bru IDPs to Mizoram, although the Mizoram State government is opposed.

As of 2009, there was no ministry mandated with IDP protection, but some national agencies and human rights bodies advocated on behalf of people internally displaced by conflicts. For example, in December the National Commission for Protection of Child Rights described the living conditions of IDPs, in particular those from Chhattisgarh living in Andhra Pradesh, as an issue of national concern. It called on the state authorities to provide for their basic needs.

Nonetheless, a national legislative framework is needed to enable the recognition and protection of conflict-induced IDPs in India, including a national agency to oversee the response and ensure that it is consistent across the country. The international response has been limited, with only a few agencies such as Médecins Sans Frontières and the ICRC providing protection and assistance to some IDPs; there is no overall international agency coordinating the response. To enable a fuller response, the government would have to allow more international NGOs to work with IDPs, and explore ways of engaging UN agencies mandated with IDP protection.
At the end of 2009, in many provinces of Indonesia, tens of thousands of internally displaced people were still struggling to find durable solutions that would enable them to end their displacement. Some 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.

In Papua Province, which remains Indonesia’s only conflict area, counter-insurgency operations conducted in recent years by the army against rebels of the Free Papua Movement (OPM) have forced thousands of people from their homes. Many have sought refuge in the jungle to escape human rights violations by the security forces. During 2009, military “sweeping” operations in the Central Highlands reportedly resulted in new displacement. In September, soldiers looking for OPM rebels in a remote village in Jayawijaya Regency reportedly burned down 30 houses and forced villagers to flee into the jungle, where some remained for two weeks.

In Maluku Province, the main outstanding issue is the disbursement of a compensation package to an estimated 10,000 to 12,000 internally displaced families. Other continuing barriers to the full recovery and achievement of durable solutions of some displaced groups include land and property disputes, persistent tensions between communities which have become segregated along religious lines, lack of secure land tenure and lack of economic opportunities in relocation sites. In North Maluku, some groups of returnees struggled to access social services.

Central Sulawesi Province remained segregated between Christians and Muslims, despite significant reconstruction and recovery efforts and improvements in the security situation in recent years; this continued to prevent the return of displaced groups to mixed communities. Although there were no reliable figures, between 5,000 and 20,000 people were believed to be either unable or unwilling to return or to be waiting for assistance to rebuild their homes or livelihoods after having returned. Persistent tensions between communities, land and property disputes and the lack of assistance were the main obstacles to return.

In other provinces, such as West Timor and West and Central Kalimantan, thousands of people displaced by communal violence had still not returned, either because they were unwilling to face hostile neighbours, or because they had no land or homes to return to. Many were living in camps or relocation sites, where they were struggling to recover without access to basic services or sufficient support.

Since 2004, the government has officially considered the internal displacement situation resolved. In regions where significant numbers of IDPs have remained, the government has however continued to provide assistance, mainly through programmes addressing the needs of both IDPs and host communities. Nonetheless, corruption involving funds, unreliable data, poor coordination and limited local capacity have often hampered the response and prevented assistance from reaching IDPs.

The national Directorate of Social Assistance for Victims of Social Disaster of the Ministry of Social Affairs has nominal responsibility for assistance to IDPs now included in the broad “Victims of Social Disasters” category. However, since 2007, responsibility for IDPs has been transferred to provincial and district authorities, with central government funding discontinued. District governments now take decisions regarding assistance to IDPs, with provincial governments invited to provide the funding.

The UN no longer assists conflict-induced IDPs as a separate vulnerable group. Instead their needs are addressed through conflict-sensitive reintegration and development projects which seek to ensure that the needs of the most vulnerable are included in the planning of community-level development programmes, and that livelihoods and economic opportunities improve. A small number of international NGOs have maintained programmes in Maluku, Central Sulawesi, Central Kalimantan and West Timor, while local NGOs and church groups have supported IDPs across the country and in particular in Papua, where the government has not opened conflict-affected areas to neutral observers or humanitarian agencies. In the last few years, the European Union (EU) has been the main donor, supporting resettlement and livelihood programmes for former IDPs. The EU has set aside nearly $7 million to continue this support in 2010.

At the end of 2009, in many provinces of Indonesia, tens of thousands of internally displaced people were still struggling to find durable solutions that would enable them to end their displacement. Some 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.

In Papua Province, which remains Indonesia’s only conflict area, counter-insurgency operations conducted in recent years by the army against rebels of the Free Papua Movement (OPM) have forced thousands of people from their homes. Many have sought refuge in the jungle to escape human rights violations by the security forces. During 2009, military “sweeping” operations in the Central Highlands reportedly resulted in new displacement. In September, soldiers looking for OPM rebels in a remote village in Jayawijaya Regency reportedly burned down 30 houses and forced villagers to flee into the jungle, where some remained for two weeks.

In Maluku Province, the main outstanding issue is the disbursement of a compensation package to an estimated 10,000 to 12,000 internally displaced families. Other continuing barriers to the full recovery and achievement of durable solutions of some displaced groups include land and property disputes, persistent tensions between communities which have become segregated along religious lines, lack of secure land tenure and lack of economic opportunities in relocation sites. In North Maluku, some groups of returnees struggled to access social services.

Central Sulawesi Province remained segregated between Christians and Muslims, despite significant reconstruction and recovery efforts and improvements in the security situation in recent years; this continued to prevent the return of displaced groups to mixed communities. Although there were no reliable figures, between 5,000 and 20,000 people were believed to be either unable or unwilling to return or to be waiting for assistance to rebuild their homes or livelihoods after having returned. Persistent tensions between communities, land and property disputes and the lack of assistance were the main obstacles to return.

In other provinces, such as West Timor and West and Central Kalimantan, thousands of people displaced by communal violence had still not returned, either because they were unwilling to face hostile neighbours, or because they had no land or homes to return to. Many were living in camps or relocation sites, where they were struggling to recover without access to basic services or sufficient support.

Since 2004, the government has officially considered the internal displacement situation resolved. In regions where significant numbers of IDPs have remained, the government has however continued to provide assistance, mainly through programmes addressing the needs of both IDPs and host communities. Nonetheless, corruption involving funds, unreliable data, poor coordination and limited local capacity have often hampered the response and prevented assistance from reaching IDPs.

The national Directorate of Social Assistance for Victims of Social Disaster of the Ministry of Social Affairs has nominal responsibility for assistance to IDPs now included in the broad “Victims of Social Disasters” category. However, since 2007, responsibility for IDPs has been transferred to provincial and district authorities, with central government funding discontinued. District governments now take decisions regarding assistance to IDPs, with provincial governments invited to provide the funding.

The UN no longer assists conflict-induced IDPs as a separate vulnerable group. Instead their needs are addressed through conflict-sensitive reintegration and development projects which seek to ensure that the needs of the most vulnerable are included in the planning of community-level development programmes, and that livelihoods and economic opportunities improve. A small number of international NGOs have maintained programmes in Maluku, Central Sulawesi, Central Kalimantan and West Timor, while local NGOs and church groups have supported IDPs across the country and in particular in Papua, where the government has not opened conflict-affected areas to neutral observers or humanitarian agencies. In the last few years, the European Union (EU) has been the main donor, supporting resettlement and livelihood programmes for former IDPs. The EU has set aside nearly $7 million to continue this support in 2010.
At the end of 2009, there were an estimated 470,000 people internally displaced by armed conflict in rural areas of eastern Myanmar. There were also unknown but significant numbers of IDPs in other parts of the country, including in urban areas.

Internal displacement in eastern Myanmar has primarily been caused by government forces, and to a lesser extent by the insurgent ethnic armed groups fighting them. From 1996 to 2009, over 3,500 villages and hiding sites were destroyed, forcibly relocated or otherwise emptied, leading to the forced displacement of their occupants. However, displacement has been ongoing since the conflict began five decades ago, and it became systematic from the mid-1960s with the introduction of the “four cuts” policy (seeking to cut off insurgents’ access to food, money, intelligence, and fighting personnel) that has targeted civilians and caused their displacement in order to separate ethnic armies from their civilian support bases. In areas where ceasefire agreements between armed opposition leaders and the government brought conflicts to an end, displacement has often continued due to human rights violations by government forces.

In 2009, the government demanded that all groups which had agreed cessfies turn themselves into army-led Border Guard Forces. This led to new fighting in ceasefire areas, with some new displacement as a result. Government-led development projects also affected IDPs and led to further displacement.

IDPs in eastern Myanmar were in 2009 either gathered in government-run relocation sites (128,000), dispersed in hiding areas in the jungle (111,000), or in areas administered by ceasefire groups (231,000). During the year, the respective estimated numbers of IDPs in each of these situations increased. The IDPs in relocation sites may have been supporting themselves through daily labour, while a little aid from community-based groups and religious organisations may have reached them, but those in hiding were largely without formal support or livelihoods.

In comparison with Myanmar’s non-displaced population, IDPs – and particularly those in hiding or in relocation sites – face greater physical insecurity due to their forced displacement and relocation; they have less access to basic necessities, and they face a higher risk of exploitation. However, virtually all of the IDPs in eastern Myanmar are from ethnic minorities and so they share certain difficulties with non-displaced members of minorities.

Government troops have in many cases burned down villages and farms, so that IDPs have nothing to return to, and soldiers have also attacked IDPs in hiding sites. The government prevents all humanitarian agencies from specifically targeting people displaced by conflict, and in the absence of formal aid programmes, some IDPs and particularly displaced women have had to forage for food and water in areas with large numbers of government troops, putting them at risk of further violence. Displaced children have been at high risk of forced labour and recruitment.

IDPs in hiding in eastern Myanmar have experienced severe food shortages, as their farms and crops have been burned by the army. Some IDPs in relocation sites in Myanmar also face chronic malnutrition due to limited access to land; in cases where IDPs are able to grow crops, the army may be imposing taxes which leave many people without the means to secure even their minimum subsistence needs. Water and sanitation facilities in relocation sites may be inadequate and residents more susceptible to a number of diseases. Mortality rates of displaced children in conflict areas are three times Myanmar’s average. Internally displaced children in hiding areas have few learning resources, and open-air classes have often been disrupted by fighting. A large percentage of children in conflict areas have to leave school after primary level, and in areas under government control they have been prevented from studying in their own languages, having instead to study in Burmese.

The prospects are best for the 231,000 IDPs living in ceasefire areas, where integration may be feasible to a certain extent. It is, however, unlikely that they will achieve equal enjoyment of their human rights. For the people in hiding in jungles, safe return will not be possible until the threat of army attacks and destruction of villages recedes. At some relocation sites, restrictions on IDPs may decrease and they may be then considered to have locally integrated to a certain extent.

For lasting change, the armed conflict and human rights violations would have to give way to genuine reconciliation between the majority and the various minority ethnic populations; the government would also have to recognise that there are people who have been displaced by conflict in the country and give them access to assistance.
More than three years after the government of Nepal and Maoist rebels ended their ten-year conflict, up to 70,000 people were still displaced by the war and by inter-ethnic violence at the end of 2009, and unable or unwilling to return to their homes.

In 1996, the Maoists launched a “people’s war” to overthrow the monarchy and establish a socialist republic. Maoists in districts of the mid-western region attacked political opponents, members of police forces, teachers, government officials and landowners, and forced people associated with the monarchy to flee towards district headquarters. From 2001, the conflict escalated and a state of emergency was declared; broke down in education, commerce and public service in many areas and food security declined. By then, other poorer groups had fled from the fighting and from the threat of extortion and forced recruitment by the Maoists. People also started fleeing to large cities like Kathmandu, Biratnagar and Nepalgunj, and across the border to India.

The conflict ended with the Comprehensive Peace Agreement of November 2006. In April 2008, Nepal peacefully elected the Constituent Assembly, which formed a Maoist-dominated government tasked with completing the transition to a federal democratic republic. However, through 2008 and 2009, intense power struggles between the main political parties created an unstable environment which seriously hampered implementation of the peace process. As of the end of 2009, the political stalemate remained unresolved.

Repeated Maoist commitments to return confiscated houses and land were yet to be honoured in several districts, and IDPs from non-Maoist political parties still found it particularly hard to recover property. The government return package was limited to those officially registered, and in many districts, up to half of IDPs had been unable to register for assistance, because they faced bureaucratic hurdles or because they were unaware of the registration process. The post-war economy was depressed and there was still limited access to basic services in rural areas, so many returnees had had to go back to towns and cities again in search of work.

Most IDPs chose to stay in their area of displacement, mainly in urban areas, where some had managed to integrate and to find jobs. Many others, including internally displaced children and women in particular, were struggling to find proper accommodation or access basic services. Children were exposed to a variety of threats, including trafficking, sexual exploitation and child labour. Displaced women, particularly widows, faced significant discrimination, making them highly vulnerable to further impoverishment and forcing many to resort to prostitution.

The Ministry of Peace and Reconstruction (MoPR), the government body responsible for coordinating assistance to IDPs, has provided assistance to people returning home, but it has done little for those hoping to integrate locally. Nearly three years after being issued, the national IDP policy has yet to be fully implemented. Dissemination of information about the IDP policy has not been a government priority: procedural directives to ensure its implementation were developed by the MoPR and sent to the Cabinet for approval at the end of 2007, but as of the end of 2009, they had still not been formally adopted.

Since the introduction of the cluster approach in September 2008 following the displacement caused by flooding of the Koshi River, OHCHR has taken the lead of the protection cluster, and attention has focused on those displaced by the floods. At the end of 2009, OCHA, OHCHR, UNHCR and UNICEF requested the deployment of a senior advisor to work with the protection cluster on issues related to people internally displaced by the conflict. This work had, to a large extent, been done by NRC until its departure from Nepal in mid-2009.

Since 2008, priorities have again shifted back to development programmes, and funding for humanitarian operations has decreased. For most remaining IDPs there will be no durable solutions without completion of registration, return and reintegration assistance, land and property restitution, vocational training and income-generating projects to help people reintegrate.
North-west Pakistan saw the biggest and fastest conflict-induced internal displacement in the world in 2009. At least three million people fled fighting between insurgents and security forces. Many were able to return after hostilities ended but at least 1.2 million remained displaced at the end of the year.

Since 2002 the, Pakistani Taliban has combined a radical theological agenda with anti-NATO rhetoric to threaten tribal institutions and state authorities in the Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA) and later North-West Frontier Province (NWFP). After the breakdown of a peace deal between the Pakistani Taliban and the government, the army moved into the Swat Valley in NWFP in May 2009. Encouraged by the security forces, more than two million people fled towards the Peshawar Valley, and by late June, 2.1 million IDPs had been registered by the government, of which 85 per cent were staying with host families.

In July, the government and the UN signed a return policy framework, following which 1.6 million IDPs were encouraged to return. Some returnees were then displaced again as they found the areas were still unsafe, and their property and means of livelihoods destroyed. By December 2009, at least 370,000 people remained displaced.

During the second half of the year, the security forces relaunched operations against the Pakistani Taliban-led tribal militias in FATA. Some 190,000 people were displaced from Bajaur, Mohmand, Khyber and Orakzai Agencies, adding to 550,000 people who remained displaced after fleeing sectarian violence, Taliban abuses and military operations there in 2008. Out of all these groups, an estimated 450,000 people were still displaced in FATA at the end of the year, the vast majority staying with host families or in rented accommodation.

Finally, during October and November, up to 430,000 civilians fled another army offensive in South Waziristan in FATA, over half the population of that province. Fighting, roadblocks, and their lack of resources prevented other civilians from leaving the areas of conflict. At least 290,000 people remained displaced in the neighbouring districts of Dera Ismail Khan and Tank at the end of 2009.

Restrictions on humanitarian and media access made it hard to evaluate the difficulties facing returnees; meanwhile the prospects for effective local integration seemed slim.

The national response was significant. The National Database and Registration Authority registered the IDPs and issued them with national identity cards. However, the process was not universally applied: many IDPs who had been displaced from areas which the government did not recognise as conflict areas, or from tribes associated with militant groups, were excluded from this process. Some women-headed households also struggled to obtain an identity card, but a considerable number of displaced women did obtain one for the first time.

Initial assessments indicated that the IDPs, who were mostly in an urban environment where they relied on savings and support from relatives, primarily needed cash to pay for food, rent and utilities. Registered IDPs in NWFP were thus equipped with cash cards credited with $300 per family. Many of those displaced in FATA similarly received cash cards but with only $60 per family. In addition, UN-led agencies provided food assistance to 4.3 million people and health services to several hundred thousand IDPs.

Specific groups had particular protection needs. A higher proportion of internally displaced women than men had difficulties in accessing basic services, and were forced to move or return against their will. They also more frequently experienced family separation and intra-family violence. Internally displaced men were more concerned about replacing lost identity cards and the looting of livestock and property during displacement.

The military offensive resulted in widespread destruction of infrastructure and the loss of livelihoods for pastoral and farming communities. 77 hospitals were destroyed or damaged, and many of the 4,500 schools used as shelter for IDPs were not reopened by the end of the year. In an attempt to address this, the government initiated a post-crisis needs assessment exercise supported by the World Bank, the UN, the Asian Development Bank and the European Commission, to build consensus on recovery and peacebuilding strategies.

The limited information on displacement in Balochistan Province indicated that clashes between the army and Baloch separatists displaced up to 60,000 people in Bugti district in 2009. Prime Minister Syed Yusuf Raza Gilani recognised the difficult situation of the IDPs in a speech to parliament in December and offered $12 million for their rehabilitation and settlement as part of the Balochistan Support Package. However, despite the acknowledgement of the displacement, the Package was rejected by nationalists.
Conflict and displacement have been ongoing for at least 30 years in the Philippines. Most recently, in August 2008, renewed fighting between the government and rebels of the Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MILF) in the southern region of Mindanao led to the internal displacement of an estimated one million people, before the parties declared a ceasefire in July 2009.

Before this latest surge in fighting, it was estimated that more than two million people across the country had been displaced due to conflict since 2000. Most displacement had taken place in Mindanao; however, it had also been caused by armed encounters throughout the country between the Armed Forces of the Philippines (AFP) and the communist rebel group of the NPA, and by operations against the Abu Sayyaf group in Basilan and Sulu Provinces.

During 2009, the Mindanao conflict was largely concentrated in the majority-Muslim provinces of the Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao (ARMM), and particularly in Maguindanao Province. There, decades of conflict, displacement, poor governance and development neglect have kept the majority of the population in poverty, with limited access to personal safety or to basic social services.

Low-intensity conflict between the government and the MILF in the early months of the year caused only sporadic and limited displacement, but prevented many people displaced in previous months from returning home. From April onwards the government stepped up its military response, in particular in Maguindanao province where army operations caused massive displacement. Formal peace talks resumed at the end of the year, at which point up to 188,000 people were still displaced in the absence of security guarantees and sufficient assistance.

IDPs have faced many threats to their physical security and integrity, while facing barriers to their enjoyment of the basic necessities of life, education, property, livelihoods and other rights. The common agent of displacement nationwide has been the AFP and its operations against the different insurgencies. Civilians living near areas of fighting have been at risk from shelling and aerial bombardment, including after their displacement. During counter-insurgency operations by the AFP, people have reportedly been harassed, abducted and sometimes killed. In areas known as MILF rebel strongholds, the AFP has come to openly consider IDPs as the “enemy reserve force”.

At the end of 2009, IDPs were either gathered in camps, where they were receiving some national and international support, or dispersed and possibly receiving support from host communities. Many had been living in displacement for 18 months. Away from their farm lands or traditional livelihoods, most IDPs had resorted to daily labour, petty trade and fishing, activities which generated far less income and did not significantly improve their access to food or other basic necessities. Displaced children, many of whom had had their education interrupted by their displacement, were vulnerable to trafficking, recruitment into armed groups, malnutrition and health problems due to their prolonged stay in overcrowded emergency centres.

While the government has generally acknowledged the internal displacement situation, its scale and impact have been insufficiently documented and often played down. The government has so far failed to provide a comprehensive response to the specific problems which IDPs face. Most efforts have gone into providing emergency humanitarian assistance, but have not ensured that the returns which have taken place are safe or offer sustainable livelihood opportunities, or that alternative durable solutions are offered when return is not an option.

The Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD) has been the main agency delivering assistance to IDPs, either directly or through other agencies. Coordination, both between government agencies and between them and humanitarian agencies, is largely driven from Manila and has been reported as inadequate. Local NGOs, volunteers and other representatives of civil society, including IDPs themselves, have played a critical role in assisting the internally displaced and in advocating for their rights in Mindanao and elsewhere in the country; nonetheless, many IDPs have relied on the humanitarian assistance provided by international NGOs and agencies such as WFP, IOM or UNDP in the absence of sufficient government assistance.

The absence of a permanent Resident Coordinator to head the UN country team during the conflict period hampered the UN’s humanitarian response. It took more than a year from August 2008 for an IASC protection cluster to be established at the national level. In Mindanao, the Monitoring Working Group (MWG) established in February was replaced six months later by the Protection Working Group (PWG) led by IOM.
The protracted armed conflict in Sri Lanka between government forces and the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE) ended in May 2009. Between January and April 2009, there were over 200,000 IDPs in the northern LTTE-controlled Vanni region, and between October 2008 and June 2009, up to 280,000 people fled to government-controlled territory. The vast majority of these IDPs were interned in closed military-run camps in Vavuniya, Mannar, Jaffna and Trincomalee Districts. The government justified this with the need to screen the IDPs for LTTE affiliation and to demine their areas of origin, even though many could have been released to stay with host families in towns and villages free of mines. By October 2009, the most vulnerable IDPs (some elderly people, pregnant women and disabled people) had been allowed to leave the closed camps. Some of those without specific vulnerabilities had also left the closed camps and had been taken to transit sites for further clearance before being released to rejoin family members, especially in the east.

In November 2009, the number of IDPs released started to rise, and in December the government significantly accelerated the releases in the run-up to the presidential elections scheduled for January 2010. At the end of the year, a little over 100,000 IDPs remained in camps in Vavuniya and other areas of the north; a pass system in place since the start of December meant their freedom of movement was still limited. The implementation of the pass system differed between camp sections, and some IDPs were denied passes as they were suspected of LTTE affiliation. IDPs received conflicting messages and sometimes no information from authorities on the duration for which the passes were valid, but generally, IDPs holding passes were able to leave their camp for a period of up to two weeks. In addition, more than 11,000 IDPs suspected of LTTE membership were held in “separatee sites”, where they had been detained without due process nor access to any humanitarian organisation, including the ICRC.

Significant numbers of the people who were allowed to return to their areas of origin in late 2009 were unable to return to their precise places of origin, as these had not yet been demined according to UN security standards and many homes were still severely damaged. They remained in displacement, staying with host families or in transition camps, and continued to face difficulties rebuilding their livelihoods.

In western Sri Lanka, over 60,000 Muslim IDPs remained in displacement in Puttalam, 20 years after being forced out of the north and north-west by the LTTE in 1990. Many still faced poverty and difficult living conditions. With the end of conflict, the older generation of IDPs was keen to return but the younger generation, which had not known life outside the camps and the region, was uncertain about this option. The IDPs in Puttalam are among the 200,000 IDPs who had been displaced by the armed conflict before 2008. This number also includes thousands of people displaced from Jaffna and Trincomalee Districts who remained unable to return because their areas of origin had been designated as High Security Zones. In late 2009, the government started coordinating the return of Puttalam IDPs with that of those displaced most recently in Jaffna.

For returning IDPs in all parts of Sri Lanka, recovering the property they had left remained difficult. Under Sri Lankan law, more than 80 per cent of the national territory is owned by the state, and private ownership can only be established if land has been occupied continuously for ten years. It was also unclear whether land deeds allotted by the LTTE in the Vanni would be recognised by the government.

The effectiveness of the government’s response has been limited by organisational difficulties. The Ministry of Resettlement and Disaster Relief is the nominated local point, but the overlapping mandates and responsibilities of ministries and agencies have led to delays, poor coordination and duplication of activities. The Human Rights Commission of Sri Lanka, through its National Protection and Durable Solutions for Internally Displaced Persons Project, is responsible for coordinating the process of drafting a national IDP law, which would establish an Internally Displaced Persons Authority. In 2009, this process had not moved forward since 2008. Generally, greater political will was needed to uphold the rights of IDPs.

From January to May 2009, UN and other agencies had no access to IDPs in the Vanni, who did not receive any protection or assistance as a result. From November, UN agencies and IOM had access to parts of the Vanni, but international NGOs did not gain access to the return areas in the north and were therefore unable to implement urgent protection activities there, including those that go beyond basic necessities and promote durable solutions for IDPs.
An estimated 150,000 people in Timor-Leste were displaced in 2006 as their homes and property were seized or destroyed during violence between rival groups within the army and police and among the wider population. They sought refuge in the capital Dili, in government buildings, schools or churches and subsequently in makeshift camps, or with families and friends in rural districts.

The causes of the crisis included political rivalries dating back to the independence struggle up to 1999, divisions between “easterners” and “westerners”, but also chronic poverty and a large and disempowered youth population. Land disputes from before and immediately after the 1999 independence vote also continued to cause resentment.

During 2009 the government continued to distribute “recovery packages” consisting of cash compensation to people agreeing to leave the IDP camps, and by August the camps had all been closed. In September, the government started closing the transitional shelters where an estimated 2,500 IDPs were still living; it increased the compensation package from $200 to $1,500 to convince the remaining households to leave, and by the end of the year only a few hundred IDPs remained.

While the recovery strategy launched by the government in 2008 initially recognised the rights of IDPs to return, move to a transitional shelter or settle elsewhere, the lack of available land combined with the decision by the government in 2009 to close the transitional shelters meant that return was in practice the only option offered to the displaced. Only when communities openly and publicly opposed returns did IDPs settle elsewhere, usually with relatives or in rented accommodation. However, these cases were relatively rare: IOM and other agencies facilitated “go and see” visits and dialogue between IDPs and community members to address potential problems of reintegration, and the available data shows that up to February 2009 less than two per cent of returnees were re-displaced. Little can however be said about the extent to which reintegration was successful due to insufficient monitoring in areas of return.

Returnees shared a number of problems with non-displaced communities in 2009, mainly related to access to clean water and sanitation, food, basic services and economic opportunities. Other problems were more specific to IDPs. Of the total of 3,500 houses still damaged or destroyed as of February 2009, 2,400 belonged to returned IDPs. Land and property issues were settled on a case-by-case basis, with squatters often agreeing to leave in exchange for some of the IDPs’ compensation money, but more serious cases involving conflicting ownership claims had not been resolved by the end of the year. Access to justice for displacement-related human rights violations remained very limited, due to the limited capacity of the judicial system and the insufficiency of the government’s efforts to prosecute those responsible.

The government’s approach to solving the internal displacement problem was up to 2009 centered on encouraging IDPs to leave the camps, and it carried out little monitoring in areas of return to measure their progress in re-integrating and their use of the compensation package. This made it difficult to assess the extent to which they had been able to achieve durable solutions, or the number who had reintegrated successfully. At the end of the year, the government initiated the second phase of the national recovery strategy (NRS) under which each of the 14,000 or more internally displaced households who received the recovery package became entitled to a further payment of $500 to compensate for possessions and assets lost during the 2006 and 2007 crises.

The Ministry of Social Solidarity (MSS) is responsible for IDP assistance and coordination, while the Office of the Ombudsman for Human Rights and Justice is responsible for monitoring and protecting the rights of IDPs. Like other ministries involved in the national recovery strategy, the capacity of the MSS for cooperation, coordination and planning remains limited.

The UN applied the cluster system in Timor-Leste in March 2009 to coordinate international humanitarian efforts in support of the government’s recovery effort. Most issues related to IDP protection and assistance were discussed through the protection cluster, the early recovery cluster and the group tasked with building trust between IDPs and receiving communities within the NRS. During 2009 the protection cluster was led jointly by NRC and the UN integrated mission’s Human Rights and Transitional Justice Section (HRTJS).

A number of outstanding issues must be addressed for durable solutions to become possible. There is a need to address the shortage of housing, create new economic opportunities in areas of return for both the returnees and the receiving community, and improve living conditions there. The application of new land laws and regulations will remain a complex and daunting task.