OCHA POLICY AND STUDIES SERIES

BREAKING THE IMPASSE
REDUCING PROTRACTED INTERNAL DISPLACEMENT AS A COLLECTIVE OUTCOME
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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Authors: Walter Kälin and Hannah Entwisle Chapuisat.

Design and Layout: Karen Kelleher Carneiro, Javier Cueto and Paolo Palmero.

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For more information, please contact:

Policy Development and Studies Branch (PDSB)
United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA)

E-mail: ochapolicy@un.org

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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgments i  
Foreword 2  
Executive summary 4  
Introduction 10  
  I. Background 10  
  II. Purpose, Scope and Content 11  
Part 1: Protracted internal displacement 15  
  I. The present situation 15  
  II. Conceptualizing Protracted Displacement 17  
  III. Addressing protracted displacement in different contexts and scenarios 21  
  IV. Protracted Displacement and Durable Solutions - A Complex Relationship 24  
  V. Protracted Displacement – A Cross-Cutting Issue 26  
Part 2: Impacts of protracted internal displacement 30  
  I. Impacts on IDPs 30  
  II. Other Impacts 38  
Part 3: Why internal displacement becomes protracted 44  
  I. Lack of safety and security 45  
  II. Political obstacles 45  
  III. Obstacles related to economic, social and cultural rights 46  
  IV. Obstacles related to civil and political rights 48  
  V. Aid dependency and other side effects of humanitarian action 49  
  VI. Limited development, weak capacity of competent authorities, and lack of appropriate normative and institutional frameworks 50  
  VII. Lack of appropriate responses by international actors 51  
  VIII. Severe, sequential or repeated natural hazards 52  
  IX. Other reasons 52  
Part 4: Collective outcomes: a new way to address protracted internal displacement 54  
  I. Notion 54  
  II. Background 55  
  III. Finding common understandings and forging partnerships 57  
Part 5: Achieving collective outcomes to prevent and reduce protracted displacement 63  
  I. Overview: Elements necessary to achieve collective outcomes 63  
  II. Creating the evidence base 65  
  III. Defining collective outcomes 67  
  IV. Ensuring a strategic outlook by formulating a common problem statement: Shared context and risk analysis 71  
  V. Integrating collective outcomes into relevant planning tools 73  
  VI. Promoting and creating normative and institutional frameworks conducive to achieving collective outcomes 76  
  VII. Prioritizing outcome-oriented programmes and projects 77  
  VIII. Securing transversal financing 80  
Part 6: Conclusions and recommendations 83  
  I. Key findings 83  
  II. Key Recommendations 85  
Annex I: Country case studies 92  
  I. Colombia 92  
  II. Democratic Republic of the Congo 96  
  III. Philippines 103  
  IV. Somalia 110  
  V. Ukraine 116  
Annex II: Impacts on IDPs – The Evidence 122  
Annex III: Protracted Displacement in HRPs and UNDAFs 123  
Acronyms and abbreviations 125  
References 126
Around the world, we are witnessing unprecedented numbers of people forced to flee their homes. Images of women, men and children displaced by conflict, violence and disasters have arrested our attention and demand action. While the international spotlight has increasingly focused on refugees and vulnerable migrants, the vast majority of displaced people find themselves within their countries, leaving them all too often invisible to the rest of the world.

Today, there are more than 40 million internally displaced persons (IDPs) due to conflict and violence living in over 50 countries. Millions more are displaced every year in the context of disasters and climate change. Lacking a home to return to and often fearful for their family’s immediate safety, IDPs live with constant uncertainty about their well-being and future. Many seek shelter in extremely poor urban environments, where they rely on host families and communities for support. As IDPs remain displaced for months or years on end, host communities can become overwhelmed by the tremendous economic and social strain of supporting displaced people. For many, becoming displaced is a life-long sentence that profoundly affects IDPs, host communities, municipalities and countries as a whole.

With nowhere else to turn, some IDPs grow dependent on humanitarian aid for survival. Humanitarian organizations work tirelessly to meet the immediate protection, health and other emergency needs of IDPs. But this enormous challenge cannot be solved by humanitarian action alone. This OCHA-commissioned study presents evidence that protracted internal displacement is primarily a development and political challenge with humanitarian elements. Displacement-affected countries will not be able to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals—including critical goals on poverty, education and gender equality—without addressing protracted internal displacement. According to the authors, a new approach is needed to address both the short- and long-term needs of IDPs and host communities. Governments, development and humanitarian actors and donors must work together to achieve context-specific, clear and measurable collective outcomes that reduce vulnerabilities and support solutions to protracted internal displacement. The proposed approach echoes many of the key elements put forward in the New Way of Working, which calls for the pursuit of collective outcomes that reduce needs, risk and vulnerability.

The Agenda for Humanity, prepared in advance of the 2016 World Humanitarian Summit, challenged Member States, with the support of the international community, to reduce internal displacement by fifty percent by 2030 to ensure that millions of people are not left behind. We now have an opportunity to realize this goal. Each of us has a role to play: Governments have the primary responsibility for protecting and addressing the needs of IDPs and creating conditions necessary to achieve durable
solutions; international humanitarian and development organizations must work collaboratively to support Governments in addressing short- and long-term needs and reducing vulnerabilities; civil society and the private sector must become key allies in achieving collective outcomes; and IDPs and host communities must be integral partners throughout the process to prevent and reduce protracted displacement.

Already, in different contexts, we see promising examples of how an approach based on collective outcomes can stimulate meaningful improvements for people living in protracted displacement. Colombia, a middle-income country, has set the ambitious goal of lifting 500,000 IDPs out of vulnerability by 2018 and discussions on how international development and humanitarian partners can best support this objective are already on-going. In Somalia, while efforts to address most pressing humanitarian challenges continue, the first National Development Plan systematically integrates the needs of the displaced in its vision for the country’s future, highlighting the link between protracted displacement, the reduction of vulnerabilities and long-term prosperity. We must build on these examples to transform our approach to protracted internal displacement and better support Government concerned to achieve the SDGs.

I am grateful to Dr. Walter Kälin and Ms. Hannah Entwisle Chapuisat for authoring this much-needed study. I also appreciate the dedication shown by members of the report’s Advisory Group to share their insights and help carry the recommendations forward. The effort to provide hope to millions of people living in protracted internal displacement will require continued attention and investment at senior levels over a long period of time. As Emergency Relief Coordinator, I am deeply committed to help lead this effort. I call on each of you to join me in taking strong and collective action for IDPs. Together, our work can ensure that millions of women, men and children around the world can lead rich and dignified lives.

Stephen O’Brien
Under-Secretary-General
for Humanitarian Affairs and Emergency Relief Coordinator
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The global number of internally displaced persons (IDPs) has reached an all-time high, as an increasing number of IDPs remain displaced for years or even decades. In 2014, more than 50 countries were reported to have people living in internal displacement for more than 10 years. As illustrated in the five country case studies informing this report (Colombia, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), the Philippines, Somalia and Ukraine), a rapidly resolved internal displacement crisis where IDPs find durable solutions—sustainable return, local integration or relocation—has become a rare exception.

Tens of millions of IDPs are dependent on humanitarian assistance or live far below the poverty line in substandard housing without security of tenure, and with no or only limited access to basic services, education and health care. They face security concerns, discrimination and financial insecurity, and they often struggle to maintain social cohesion among themselves and with host communities. Women, older people and people with disabilities are particularly affected, while young people are left with little chance for a better future. For example, the 1.1 million IDPs in Somalia account for 58 per cent of the total food insecure population, and they are particularly vulnerable to gender-based violence, forced evictions and marginalization. In the Philippines, people can be displaced numerous times in a single year to avoid military operations, violence or disasters, destroying their livelihoods and eroding their resilience.

The term “protracted displacement” refers to IDPs who are prevented from taking or are unable to take steps for significant periods of time to progressively reduce their vulnerability, impoverishment and marginalization and find a durable solution. With durable solutions out of reach and facing barriers to leading self-sufficient lives, they are “left behind” despite the promises of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

The major causes of protracted internal displacement, while highly contextual, include prolonged conflict; lack of political will and inadequate frameworks at the country level to address such displacement; limited engagement by international actors to move beyond the provision of humanitarian assistance; and lack of dedicated financial resources aimed at addressing protracted displacement or preventing new displacement from becoming protracted. Somalia, where the number of IDPs approaches some 1.5 million people or 9 per cent of the country’s population, causes of protracted displacement include decades of conflict,
the weakened role of state and local
governments in providing infrastructure and
delivering basic services, constant threats
eviction from areas of settlement and
insufficient land for permanent relocation.

Protracted internal displacement not only impacts IDPs; it can also severely affect host communities and local governments. The majority of IDPs stay with host families or settle in urban or peri-urban communities, placing social and financial burdens on host communities and local authorities that can undermine their own resilience over time. In DRC, about 80 per cent of the estimated 2.2 million IDPs live with host families who face economic hardship and cramped living conditions to accommodate them. In addition to straining local services and government capacity, protracted internal displacement may also adversely impact a country’s ability to achieve its overall development goals. Depending on the context, it may also become a source of conflict or political instability.

Addressing protracted internal displacement is not a purely humanitarian concern. The traditional approach—prioritizing responses that meet short-term humanitarian needs, such as immediate food aid, hygiene and shelter—has largely failed to achieve durable solutions for the ever-growing number of IDPs worldwide. This increasing trend of protracted displacement calls for moving beyond care and maintenance to rebuilding lives, with humanitarian, development and, depending on the context, human rights, peace and security, and disaster risk reduction actors at all levels each having a distinct and essential role to play.

This requires far-reaching changes in how Governments and the international community address internal displacement today. In May 2016 at the World Humanitarian Summit, the heads of key UN development and humanitarian agencies, as well as the World Bank, made a strong commitment in line with the Secretary-General’s Agenda for Humanity to implement a “New Way of Working”, i.e., adopt a context-specific approach of working towards collective outcomes over multiple years, based on the respective comparative advantages of a diverse set of actors.

In the context of protracted displacement, collective outcomes can be understood as commonly agreed results or impacts that reduce the particular needs, risks and vulnerabilities of IDPs and increase their resilience through targets that are strategic, clear, quantifiable and measurable, and which are achieved through the combined efforts of Governments at national, subnational and local levels, international humanitarian and development actors, IDPs, local communities, civil society and the private sector. The most sustainable results are achieved when Governments lead or co-lead with others, given their primary responsibility for IDPs, but different configurations may be required depending on the contexts. Among
the countries of focus for this study, the Government of Colombia’s goal enshrined in its National Development Plan to move 500,000 IDPs out of vulnerability by 2018 is a promising example that may provide a model for other displacement-affected countries.

This approach implicitly recognizes that IDPs should not have to wait until a conflict is fully resolved or all impacts of a disaster have ceased before they can begin rebuilding their lives and move towards self-sufficiency in accordance with the fundamental standards of human rights and dignity. For example, if IDPs find themselves in a safe part of the country, those who do not want to return to their place of origin should be supported to find durable solutions through locally integration or permanent settlement elsewhere in the country. For other IDPs wishing to return at a later stage, steps can be taken in their current location to help them move toward achieving self-sufficiency and improving their living conditions pending ultimately finding durable solutions. Finally, even when IDPs live in areas with ongoing conflict or recurrent disasters and remain in need of continuing humanitarian assistance, measures can still be taken to reduce IDPs’ vulnerability and impoverishment by removing obstacles that hinder IDPs’ efforts to strengthen their resilience.

Achieving collective outcomes in relation to protracted internal displacement requires seven elements:

1. Creating the evidence base: Identifying the impacts of protracted internal displacement with respect to humanitarian, development, human rights, peace and security, and disaster risk reduction action, and identifying the underlying causes for displacement becoming protracted. Evidence should also help assess the capacities that IDPs and host communities possess to address and solve protracted displacement.

2. Defining collective outcomes: Agreeing on strategic, clear, quantifiable, measurable and achievable results.

3. Ensuring a strategic outlook by formulating a common problem statement: Reaching a common understanding of the underlying causes of the protractedness of each specific internal displacement situation and ensuing risks and obstacles, and developing strategies to address protracted displacement, as informed by this analysis.

4. Integrating collective outcomes into relevant planning tools: Using National Development Plans, as well as subnational and local development plans or other relevant plans, complemented by UN planning tools, such as UN Development Assistance Frameworks (UNDAFs) and Humanitarian Response Plans (HRPs), to provide a sound basis for planning collective outcomes.

5. Promoting and creating normative and institutional frameworks conducive to achieving collective outcomes: Ensuring that Governments have adequate laws and policies as well as the institutional capacity to address protracted internal displacement or prevent recent displacement from becoming protracted, covering the full range of relevant ministries and authorities.

6. Implementing outcome-oriented programmes and projects: Moving from mandate-driven isolated projects
to multi-year collaborative interventions that effectively address protracted displacement or prevent recent displacement from becoming protracted.

7. Securing transversal financing: Ensuring that adequate financial resources are allocated in ways that transcend the humanitarian-development divide to bolster rather than undermine collective outcomes.

Provided collective outcomes are in line with international human rights guarantees and compatible with relevant standards, notably the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement and the IASC Framework on Durable Solutions, the involvement of humanitarian actors in their attainment would in most cases not compromise the humanitarian principles of humanity, neutrality, impartiality and independence.

Through this new approach, millions of IDPs and host communities could secure better access to livelihood opportunities, adequate housing with security of tenure and basic services. This approach would represent an important step towards the target of significantly reducing protracted internal displacement in a safe and dignified manner by 2030. IDPs would be better positioned to reduce aid dependency, move out of extreme poverty, become self-reliant and contribute to development. Governments would make improved progress towards achieving the SDGs. Local actors’ capacities and IDPs’ voices in community-based decision-making processes would be strengthened. Investing in collective outcomes over multi-year time frames would allow donors and humanitarian organizations to spend fewer resources on simply managing “caseloads” and reduce costs over time; saved funding could be reallocated to other emergencies.

Recommendations

The following recommendations address key areas where Governments, humanitarian and development organizations, international financial institutions and donors should consider potential and context-specific policy, and institutional and operational changes to achieve collective outcomes for people living in protracted internal displacement.

Governments should lead efforts, wherever possible, to address protracted displacement and prevent new displacement from becoming protracted. Governments should undertake, as a matter of priority, and as an important step towards achieving the SDGs, concerted efforts to reverse the trend of increased protracted internal displacement and substantially reduce the number of people living in such displacement. They should prioritize action ensuring IDPs’ and host communities’ access to livelihood opportunities, adequate housing with security of tenure and basic services using, where appropriate, area-based approaches.

Governments should define, integrate and prioritize collective outcomes that address protracted internal displacement within National Development Plans and other relevant plans, as well as adopt adequate normative and institutional frameworks on internal displacement. Supported by international actors, Governments should work to ensure that municipalities have adequate capacity to address protracted internal displacement, including resources allocated on the basis of the total population, inclusive of IDPs.
International humanitarian and development organizations should support governmental efforts to address protracted internal displacement by integrating concrete and measurable collective outcomes into their own planning and activities. In the absence of State-led initiatives to address protracted internal displacement or prevent recent displacement from becoming protracted, collective outcomes may be agreed within the UN system, albeit necessarily including consultation with relevant authorities and the displacement-affected communities themselves. International humanitarian and development organizations should, based on joint analysis and in consultation with IDPs and host communities, prioritize action that strengthens the resilience of IDPs and host communities, particularly by investing in livelihoods, adequate and stable housing and access to basic services. They should also endeavour to strengthen Government capacity at all levels. In urban areas, where currently about half of IDPs can be found, comprehensive urban planning approaches should be promoted and supported.

The role of the Resident Coordinator/Humanitarian Coordinator (RC/HC) in facilitating multi-stakeholder dialogue to foster collective outcomes should be clarified and strengthened. UN planning instruments, such as UNDAFs and HRP, and National Development Plans, should either be aligned with or complementary to each other and outline the contribution of various actors to achieving collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement.

Bilateral and multilateral donors, as well as international financial institutions, should direct multi-year, flexible funding towards collective outcomes that reverse the trend of protracted displacement by targeting the causes of protracted displacement, not just its impacts. They should also insist that monitoring and evaluation mechanisms measure the achievement of collective outcomes. Donors should provide more flexible and long-term funding, reduce or only use “soft” earmarking, and allow a proportion of humanitarian and development funding to go directly to national authorities. Donors should allocate development funding to country-level Multi-Partner Trust Funds that have a broad programmatic scope that includes addressing protracted internal displacement. Governments should consider the use of loans and other financial instruments, in addition to grants, to implement measures to address protracted internal displacement or prevent recent displacement from becoming protracted.

Next steps

To ensure that concrete action follows this report, it is recommended that the UN prioritizes the following action.

RCs/HCs and UN Country Teams, with support from UNDP and OCHA, and in collaboration with relevant governmental entities, should undertake concrete action on the basis of identified collective outcomes that will reduce the needs, risks and vulnerabilities of IDPs in protracted displacement in three to five selected countries, supported by multilateral as well as bilateral donors.

In order to support UN Country Teams and IASC/Humanitarian Country Teams, UNDP and OCHA should develop clear guidance on how to use existing planning tools that sets out the specific, measurable and necessary steps to reach agreed collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement, and
examine whether new joint planning tools are needed. UNDP and OCHA should also create monitoring and evaluation systems that focus on impacts and outcomes towards meeting collective outcomes, and allow for the adjustment of programmes to improve effectiveness and respond to unforeseen circumstances. The UN should integrate the New Way of Working within decision No. 2011/20 of the UN Secretary-General on Durable Solutions.

Finally, in order to ensure strong overall leadership, a system-wide internal displacement initiative should be initiated by the UN Secretary-General and his Deputy to implement the diverse set of actions listed above. In addition, the initiative should include a review of the role of and the contributions to be made by the UN’s peace and security actors towards meeting collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement and engaging with UN donor groups to find ways to ensure the provision of more flexible, predictable and sustainable financing to achieve collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement. Furthermore, organizing a high-level event convened by the Secretary-General on the new outcome-oriented approach to protracted internal displacement in 2018 on the occasion of the twentieth anniversary of the UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement could be considered. This event could provide a platform for promoting UN institutional and operational changes to enhance system-wide responses to protracted internal displacement and secure commitments from Governments, organizations, donors, civil society and the private sector.
I. Background

In 2016, the global number of internally displaced persons (IDPs) reached an all-time high. A staggering 28.8 million people were newly displaced in 2015 within their own countries by conflict and disasters triggered by natural hazards (hereinafter: disasters).\(^1\)

Tens of millions of IDPs live in protracted displacement, suffering from marginalization and a multitude of vulnerabilities. This number continues to increase from year to year for many reasons, most notably due to contemporary conflict dynamics, weak conflict-resolution mechanisms, and the growing number of people exposed to natural hazards and ensuing disasters. At the same time, global IDP numbers are growing because many IDPs, without real prospects for better lives, depend on humanitarian protection and assistance for years or even decades, while others may have never received humanitarian aid and remain stuck at the margins of society. In other words, their displacement is protracted because they are prevented from achieving or unable to move towards durable solutions.

The Sustainable Development Goals’ (SDGs) strong message of “no one left behind” gives such IDPs new hope. In reality, however, in an attempt to keep pace with the growing number of IDPs, humanitarian actors are, as highlighted by former UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon, all too often “left to provide short-term assistance to millions of displaced persons, sometimes for decades.”\(^2\)

Recognizing the unsustainability of this situation, he called for a “fundamental shift in our approach to internal displacement [...] : one that goes from meeting immediate humanitarian needs to one that preserves the dignity and improves the lives and self-reliance of displaced persons.”\(^3\)

Thus, Governments and the international community need to radically change their current course to fulfil such hope. In May 2016, an important step was taken when the heads of the key UN development and humanitarian agencies made a strong commitment, endorsed by the World Bank and the International Organization for Migration (IOM), to implement a “New Way of Working” and, in particular, to achieve “collective outcomes across the UN system and the broader humanitarian and development community, including Multilateral Development Banks” that address “the reality of protracted crises” and “contribute to longer-term development gains, in the logic of the SDGs.”\(^4\) The UN General Assembly recently endorsed this commitment.\(^5\)

This new approach, while not limited to IDPs, has the potential to fundamentally change how humanitarian and development actors address protracted internal displacement crises. In this context, collective outcomes should:

- Have strategic, clear, quantifiable, measurable and achievable results.
Reduce IDPs’ vulnerability and their dependency on aid, allowing them to move towards self-reliance, increased resilience and, ultimately, durable solutions.

Have targets ideally set by Governments in National Development Plans or, in their absence, included in other governmental or UN planning tools.

Be achieved through the combined efforts of Governments at national and subnational levels and the international community, particularly, but not limited to, humanitarian and development actors, civil society, IDPs and host communities.

Working towards collective outcomes for IDPs requires shifting from coordinating the multitude of frequently separate, mandate-driven and output-oriented activities of international humanitarian and development actors towards generating results-oriented cooperation among all stakeholders. This approach implicitly acknowledges that IDPs should not have to wait until a conflict is fully resolved or all impacts of a disaster have ceased before they can begin rebuilding their lives and move towards self-sufficiency. It also recognizes that actions should be undertaken in accordance with the fundamental standards of human rights and dignity.

II. Purpose, scope and content

This study expands on the outcomes of the World Humanitarian Summit (WHS) and the 2016 call by the UN General Assembly for humanitarian and development actors to work towards collective outcomes, and it builds on recent conceptual work on the issue. The study examines in more detail why the New Way of Working is critical to reverse the trend of more and more IDPs living in protracted displacement and what needs to be done to achieve this outcome. The study explains the factual and conceptual underpinnings of the concept of collective outcomes, as applied to protracted internal displacement, but it does not purport to provide operational guidelines.

Thus, the topic of the study is protracted internal displacement, which is understood as a situation where the process towards durable solutions is stalled, as IDPs are prevented from reducing, or are unable to progressively reduce, their displacement-induced vulnerabilities, impoverishment and marginalization. The study:

- Looks not only at situations where internal displacement already is protracted, but it also discusses the need to prevent recent displacement becoming protracted once it is clear that IDPs will not be able to return in the near future.
- Asserts that even when durable solutions are not yet achievable, measures to address protracted displacement, and to ensure that displacement does not become protracted, may be possible to help IDPs move towards self-sufficiency in safety and dignity.
- Explains why it is necessary to invest in addressing protracted internal displacement and prevent recent displacement from becoming protracted.
- Identifies elements and effective practices necessary to achieve collective outcomes that reduce protracted displacement and prevent new displacement from becoming protracted, and which help
IDPs move towards self-sufficiency and safe and dignified lives.

- Suggests next steps that would help this vision become a reality.

However, the scope of the study is limited. It is not about preventing new displacement from occurring, although it is important to recall that full respect for international humanitarian law and stronger protection of civilians, as well as more effective conflict-resolution mechanisms, are crucial for avoiding protracted displacement. Furthermore, the study does not cover all aspects of the challenge of finding durable solutions for IDPs. Rather, it discusses the need for and ways to address the obstacles that block IDPs from gradually improving their lives and moving towards ultimately achieving a durable solution. The study largely focuses on conflict-induced displacement, but it also addresses internal displacement in disaster contexts. It does not deal with development-induced displacement. Depending on the circumstances, peace and security actors may be important for addressing protracted displacement. Their particularly complex role and relationship with development and humanitarian actors largely lies outside the scope of this study, except when needs and opportunities for further dialogue with them are highlighted.

The study aims to facilitate collaboration between relevant stakeholders to reduce protracted internal displacement and prevent new displacement from becoming protracted by:

- Familiarizing UN as well as non-governmental humanitarian actors with the concept of “collective outcomes” as a working method in order to extend the UN’s development-centred Delivering as One framework to a key humanitarian area.
- Sensitizing international and national development actors on the urgent need to focus on protracted displacement situations as a development challenge, and familiarizing them with the specific needs and vulnerabilities IDPs and their hosts may have when displacement becomes protracted.
- Encouraging Governments at national and local levels to take the lead in addressing protracted displacement and preventing new displacement from becoming protracted, and contributing to a clarification of their roles in this regard.
- Encouraging bilateral and multilateral donors to provide more flexible multi-year funding to facilitate collective outcomes that reverse the current trend of growing levels of protracted displacement.

The study comprises six parts:

- **Part 1** provides a short overview of the present situation of protracted internal displacement, and it advances an understanding of protracted displacement that emphasizes not the duration of displacement but rather the entrenchment of IDPs’ vulnerability and marginalization, recognizing that protracted displacement occurs when the process towards finding durable solutions is stalled.
- **Part 2** argues that addressing protracted displacement where it already exists and taking measures to prevent new displacements becoming protracted is urgent because of the devastating impacts of such displacement not only on IDPs but also on host families and communities, local
governments, affected countries and even international actors.

**Part 3** shows that protracted internal displacement is more than a humanitarian issue and has multiple causes. Therefore, it cannot be left to humanitarian organizations but needs collective efforts by a multitude of actors.

**Part 4** explains the concept of collective outcomes and how it facilitates cooperation between humanitarian and development actors.

**Part 5** identifies seven necessary elements for developing and achieving collective outcomes to prevent and reduce protracted displacement. It presents practices that relevant actors should review to identify those most effective in each specific context.

The study ends with key findings and recommendations, including next steps in **Part 6**.

The study is based on five country case studies’ that analyse protracted displacement in Colombia, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), the Philippines, Somalia and Ukraine, as well as a desk review of relevant documents, reports and academic literature. Further input and comments were provided by advisory group members and other key partners.
An internally displaced family located in the Kafia site, Chad.
Credit: OCHA/Mayanne Munan
PART 1
Protracted internal displacement

I. The present situation
Conflict- and violence-induced internal displacement was at its highest recorded level ever in 2015, with some 40.8 million IDPs in 52 countries. This number has doubled over the past 15 years and far surpasses the global number of refugees. Armed conflict in the Middle East and elsewhere has forced millions of families to flee in recent years. In 2015 alone, 8.6 million people were newly displaced in 28 countries. In addition, although refugee returns have been at an all-time low in recent years, refugees who manage to repatriate are still often unable to return home and subsequently join IDPs in protracted displacement in another part of the country.

The high numbers of new displacement are alarming, but an important and often neglected reason behind the sharp increase of the total number of IDPs is that return and other durable solutions for IDPs have been relatively rare in recent years. According to some estimates, conflict-related displacement now lasts close to two decades on average, although available data do not presently allow for reliable calculations on the average duration of internal displacement. Nevertheless, in 2014 more than 50 countries had IDPs living in displacement for more than 10 years. In some countries, such as Afghanistan, Azerbaijan and Georgia, entire generations have lived in a state of perpetual uncertainty about their future, often facing severe hardship and threats to their personal security while blocked from resuming their normal lives. The exact number of IDPs who have found a durable solution is unknown, but countries such as “Colombia, DRC, Iraq, Sudan and South Sudan […] have featured in the list of the ten largest internally displaced populations every year since 2003.” In other contexts, such as in Mindanao, the Philippines, and parts of eastern DRC, displacement may be short term but repeated, as returnees may be forced or obliged to leave their homes again before they can rebuild their lives. IDPs may also become victims of secondary displacement, particularly when faced with violence or evictions (sometimes in the name of urban development) in areas where they found refuge.

In recent years, the number of people newly displaced each year has regularly been significantly higher than the number of IDPs who are no longer counted, including for reasons of return, local integration or settlement elsewhere in their country (Figure 1). More important than figures, however, is the fact that protracted displacement means that IDPs and often also their hosts are left behind in situations of vulnerability and marginalization. This may undermine development and in some cases peacebuilding efforts.
In sudden-onset disaster contexts, in which homes are accessible soon after the immediate threat from a natural hazard event has passed, displacement tends to be short term, or at least people return to their homes relatively quickly. However, in many situations, return is not a sustainable solution as the risk of disaster and recurrent displacement continues. The yearly average level of new displacement is particularly high at 25.4 million\textsuperscript{14} and is expected to rise in the context of climate change. Even so, evidence shows hundreds of thousands of people living in protracted displacement for years following disasters in countries as different as Haiti and Japan\textsuperscript{15}. In some countries, disaster displacement has been reported to last as long as 26 years\textsuperscript{16}. Recurrent or mega-disasters can require long processes to relocate displaced people to new, safer locations, or it may take years to reconstruct houses and restore basic services in IDPs’ places of origin. It is not part of this study, but internal displacement in the context of development projects can also cause protracted displacement, particularly when affected people are not properly relocated or assisted with addressing their displacement-related protection and assistance needs.

Each protracted displacement situation has its own history, causes and dynamics, but it is possible to identify some common features:

- Outside camps and in urban areas: No exact data are available, but it is estimated that less than 12 per cent of IDPs live in managed camps or self-governed IDP settlements. The large majority stay with host families or settle individually among the poor, mostly in urban and peri-urban areas, where about half of all IDPs can be found\textsuperscript{17}. Urban IDPs are often “invisible” and may face specific challenges, such

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**Conflict induced displacement 2011 – 2015 (in millions) (Source: IDMC).**

![Conflict induced displacement graph](image-url)

**Figure 1**
as urban crime or evictions. In countries such as Colombia, Somalia and Ukraine, the vast majority live in cities and towns.

Gendered: Protracted displacement has different impacts on men and women. In some situations, female-headed household are prevalent because men are engaged in armed conflict, have died or abandoned their families to find employment in big cities or abroad. IDP women and girls regularly face higher risks than men and boys of becoming victims of gender-based violence or trafficking. Domestic violence may increase in situations where men have lost their role as main providers for their families. However, women may find it easier to access jobs, e.g., as domestic workers, than men whose rural skills are not sought after in urban labour markets, or they may experience more autonomy and educational or economic opportunities when displaced from conservative rural to more liberal urban areas. In contrast, young IDP men and boys might face discrimination and security-related problems because they are suspected to be violent, engage in criminal activities or support one party to the conflict.

Fluid: Protracted displacement is not static. IDPs’ situation may improve or deteriorate, and their intentions and wishes adapt to changing environments. They may experience secondary displacements or decide to move to another place.

II. Conceptualizing protracted displacement

1. Four notions

An agreed definition of who is an IDP exists, but there is no consensus as to when displacement becomes protracted. Nevertheless, it is possible to identify four basic notions commonly associated with protracted displacement and relevant to conflict and disaster contexts.

Some see protractedness simply as an issue of duration, suggesting that displacement becomes protracted after one, three or five years. Temporal definitions have the advantage of providing clear and easily applicable criteria and acknowledging that time matters insofar as an IDP’s situation, wishes and interests, as well as the overall context of displacement, change. However, these definitions do not grasp the vast differences between situations where IDPs, while not being able to return, have found ways to resume (more or less) normal lives, as compared with situations where IDPs experience long-lasting extreme vulnerability and marginalization. Data collected in different contexts highlight how duration can be an inconclusive criterion to define protractedness and ensuing vulnerabilities (see Text Box 1).

Other notions of protracted displacement focus on the location where IDPs find temporary or transitional refuge and suggest that displacement becomes protracted when people are “unable to return to their former homes and awaiting relocation” for prolonged periods of time. The strength of this approach is its focus on IDPs’ need to find solutions that would end their
displacement. However, highlighting delays in the physical relocation of populations neglects the fact that local integration at the place where IDPs found refuge is also one of the internationally accepted solutions. More importantly, it also does not acknowledge that finding a durable solution is a gradual and often complex process that cannot be equated with moving to the place of origin or another site for permanent settlement.

Another approach takes the need for continued humanitarian action after international humanitarian actors would normally disengage, or after they have left, as the criteria for identifying protracted internal displacement. The strength of this approach is that the time when humanitarian actors leave usually can be easily identified, but it does necessarily recognize that their departure may be linked to reasons such as lack of funding or insecurity that have nothing to do with improved humanitarian indicators. Furthermore, displacement can be protracted even where humanitarian

**Text Box 1: What does the data show? Inconclusive effect of the length of displacement**

It can be assumed that IDPs typically face humanitarian needs in the immediate aftermath of displacement. However, analysis of profiling data demonstrates that the duration of displacement, as measured by the duration of time since the initial date of displacement, does not affect displaced groups in the same way across all contexts.

In Honduras — a context with high levels of gang-related violence and few protection or assistance programmes — households displaced a decade earlier tended to lead more stable lives than those displaced more recently, despite similarities in demographics, employment rates and relatively positive perceptions of social integration (Honduras, 2015). People displaced between 2012 and 2014 were more likely to rent than to own their dwelling, tended to be less food secure and tended to move internally more frequently than households displaced between 2004 and 2005. This implies that households displaced longer had been able to reduce their vulnerability and regain more stable living arrangements over time.

On the other hand, in informal settlements across Mogadishu (Somalia, 2016), where all IDPs could prima facie be assumed to be in a protracted displacement situation, comparing IDPs displaced between 2006 and 2010 with those displaced after 2010 reveals that those displaced earlier were more vulnerable in many ways. The groups live in similar areas, but they generally all lack electricity and permanent dwelling structures, and the vast majority lack personal documentation. People displaced earlier were significantly less food secure and earned lower wages per week than those displaced more recently, implying even greater assistance needs and poverty levels.

A third example from profiling data in Côte d’Ivoire (Côte d’Ivoire, 2014) shows that when comparing groups displaced in 2002 and 2010, those displaced in 2002 score markedly lower on measures of food security and housing conditions but much higher in some areas, such as social integration, than those displaced in 2011. However, closer inspection of the data reveals that many of these differences can be explained by the IDPs’ place of origin rather than by the effects of their displacement, since IDPs from rural areas and urban areas had significantly different skills and coping mechanisms at their disposal. Here, duration of displacement was not the most important factor in vulnerability.

These examples show that understanding the underlying causes that support durable solutions or prevent progress towards them requires comprehensive and in-depth analysis of the different characteristics of the displaced populations as well as the context of their displacement. It cannot simply be assumed that the length of the displacement automatically describes the protracted nature of the displacement.
protection and assistance was never provided by humanitarian actors, such as when humanitarian access to the country was not granted, or because IDPs were living in inaccessible areas or remained “invisible” as part of the urban poor, despite their specific vulnerabilities.

As The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) observed, some experts focus more on vulnerability, marginalization and the psychosocial impacts of displacement, such as the “disruption of the socio-economic fabric of a community and the social impacts of people’s identity and definition of home.” Development actors emphasize the lack of self-reliance and self-sufficiency as typical elements of protracted displacement situations. In addition, political dynamics or Government policies may be important reasons why IDPs remain caught in protractedness. Such qualitative approaches have the advantage of taking a qualitative approach, and they provide a good point of departure for a more adequate understanding of whether a given displacement situation is protracted.

2. Protracted displacement as an inability to move towards durable solutions

To gain a better understanding of protracted displacement, it is helpful to recall the effects of displacement on individuals, families and communities. Being internally displaced is a devastating experience. From one moment to the next, IDPs may lose their homes, livelihoods, assets, the security of community ties and much of what they cherished in their daily lives. Disoriented and frequently traumatized, often fleeing with no more than they can carry, most displaced people desperately look for safety, a place to stay, food to eat, clean water to drink and a minimum of medical assistance. Once these basic needs are addressed, they then seek livelihood opportunities, adequate housing, education for their children and access to basic services. In other words, displacement shatters lives and it often takes a very long time to rebuild them.

This is recognized by the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) Framework on Durable Solutions primarily used by humanitarian actors. The framework describes finding durable solutions (understood as sustainable return, local integration or settlement in another part of the country) as a long, complex process of reducing the “specific assistance and protection needs that are linked to their displacement.” These displacement-specific needs include ensuring access to long-term safety, security and freedom of movement; an adequate standard of living, including at a minimum access to adequate food, water, housing, health care and basic education; access to employment and livelihoods; restitution of property left behind or compensation for lost property; and access to remedies. IDPs in protracted displacement may be able to make progress in some of these areas, but all too often they face blockages or even setbacks regarding others. Overall, IDPs are able to rebuild their lives to the extent that these needs are addressed. Similarly, some development approaches, such as Michael Cernea’s Impoverishment Risk and Reconstruction Model, highlight forced relocation and displacement as processes that result in the material and social impoverishment of people forced to move. Thus, the search to regain a “normal” life requires reversing such impoverishment and marginalization through interventions that restore livelihoods,
housing, food security, health care, education and social inclusion.\textsuperscript{31} [Figure 2]

Recognizing the significant impacts of displacement and combining the two approaches to reversing these impacts, we suggest that “protracted displacement” refers to \textit{situation in which tangible progress towards durable solutions is slow or stalled for significant periods of time because IDPs are prevented from taking or are unable to take steps that allow them to progressively reduce the vulnerability, impoverishment and marginalization they face as displaced people, in order to regain a self-sufficient and dignified life and ultimately find a durable solution.} [Figure 3].

Such situations exist, for instance, when IDPs i) remain in extreme or absolute poverty for prolonged periods of time; ii) have to stay in irregular settlements without secure tenure and limited or very limited access to basic infrastructure or services; iii) are food insecure for prolonged periods of time; iv) remain dependent on long-term humanitarian assistance without improvements or even a deterioration in humanitarian indicators.

This notion of protracted displacement as used in this study covers a broad set of contexts. It addresses not only situations where IDPs are unable to return to their place of origin or integrate into another part of the county to find a durable solution, but also situations of repeated short-term displacement if the cumulative impact of such displacement results in increasing levels of vulnerability and impoverishment (e.g., in Mindanao, Philippines, and eastern DRC\textsuperscript{32}).

The notion is also applicable to secondary displacements, i.e., situations where IDPs face violence and threats in the place where they found refuge that force them to flee to yet another location (e.g., intra- and inter-urban displacement in Colombia\textsuperscript{33}).

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{Figure2.png}
\caption{Durable solutions as a gradual process of reducing displacement-specific needs.}
\end{figure}

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{Figure3.png}
\caption{Protracted displacement.}
\end{figure}
III. Addressing protracted displacement in different contexts and scenarios

1. Six contexts

Protracted displacement can be found in six general contexts:

1. **Ongoing conflict and violence situations:** Long-term internal displacement often lasting decades in conflict situations is common. For example, over the last 10 years, the number of people displaced by conflict in sub-Saharan Africa fluctuated by subregion but remained stable at 12 million people, largely due to a failure to resolve ongoing conflicts in the region. In some countries affected by protracted conflict, such as in the Philippines or DRC, displacement is often short term but recurrent, thus undermining the resilience of communities that, over years and decades, have been displaced time and again after returning to their places of origin. In Europe, Ukraine confronts the challenge that internal displacement, triggered by the 2014 outbreak of armed conflict in the country’s east, may become protracted.

2. **Frozen conflict situations:** Displacement may continue in the absence of ongoing violence when underlying political or other issues linked to the displacement persist. In the case of Georgia, for instance, displacement has continued since the early 1990s for more than 90 per cent of the country’s remaining 267,323 IDPs, even though hostilities ended in 2008. This is because in the absence of peace agreements, IDPs cannot return and many of those willing to locally integrate still face many obstacles, despite efforts by the Government and the international community.

3. **Post-conflict situations:** The signing of a peace agreement does not necessarily mean that displacement will simultaneously end for all IDPs. For example, in Bosnia and Herzegovina, the majority of the 1 million people originally displaced were able to return or had their property restituted to them by 2009, but some 10 per cent of the IDPs for whom return was not a viable option were still seeking a durable solution 14 years after the conflict ended.

4. **Mega-disaster events:** Mega-disasters, i.e., disasters that overwhelm the capacity of a country to respond, pose particular risks for protracted displacement given their devastating impact on livelihoods, social networks, infrastructure and services, and overall development, from which it can take years to recover. For example, one year after the 2015 earthquake in Nepal, some 2.6 million people were still displaced and awaiting permanent housing, despite Government plans to rebuild 600,000 homes. Displacement has persisted following other major disasters, such as the 2010 earthquake in Haiti and the 2013 Typhoon Haiyan/Yolanda in the Philippines.

5. **Long-lasting, repeated, small-scale or seasonal disasters:** The risks associated with some hazards can continue for extended periods of time. Smaller-scale, repeated disasters, such as seasonal flooding, can also result in long-term displacement, particularly for poorer, marginalized groups that face continued...
exposure to natural hazards and lack the capacity to recover lost assets following a disaster. For example, the people affected by the 2009 Cyclone Aila in Bangladesh’s Ganges delta region have faced multiple displacements due to repeated exposure to tidal floods and tropical storms, and a lack of funds to relocate to new areas.44

6. Mixed situations: In many contexts, it may be difficult to isolate the primary driver of a protracted displacement situation, or displacement may be triggered by a combination of conflict or violence and disasters. In Somalia, for instance, “prolonged drought between 2010 and 2012 on top of political instability, conflict and widespread poverty precipitated a complex emergency and famine that led to huge displacement […]”.45 Similarly, most of DRC’s 1.5 million IDPs “have fled violence and human rights abuses committed by armed groups and the military, but inter-communal tensions and disputes over land and the control of natural resources have also caused displacement, as have natural hazards.”46

2. Three scenarios

Traditionally, there has been a widespread belief that durable solutions for internal displacement can only be achieved once the conflict or the impact of natural hazards is over or at least a certain level of safety and security is achieved.47 Prior to reaching these situations, assistance for IDPs was generally limited to humanitarian action. However, this study argues that it is possible in some contexts to make progress towards durable solutions even when a conflict or the impacts of a disaster continue, albeit only for some members of the displaced population. In situations where achievable durable solutions cannot be found, steps can still be taken to gradually improve the living conditions of displaced people, helping them to regain at least some degree of self-sufficiency.

It is important to emphasize that addressing protracted displacement is not necessarily tantamount to finding durable solutions. Rather, addressing protracted displacement means undertaking actions that allow IDPs to progressively reduce the vulnerability, impoverishment and marginalization they face as displaced people and make significant steps towards regaining a self-sufficient and dignified life.

Addressing protracted displacement in different scenarios.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation</th>
<th>Desired outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Conflict/disaster has ended</td>
<td>Durable solutions through sustainable return, local integration or relocation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Ongoing conflict/disaster in one part of the country with IDPs staying in an unaffected part of the country</td>
<td>Durable solutions for those opting for local integration or relocation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reducing vulnerabilities pending return for those opting to return</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Ongoing conflict/disaster affecting the whole country or areas where IDPs stay</td>
<td>Reducing vulnerabilities pending durable solutions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Addressing protracted displacement means undertaking actions that allow IDPs to progressively reduce the vulnerability, impoverishment and marginalization they face as displaced people and make significant steps towards regaining a self-sufficient and dignified life.
they face as displaced people and make significant steps towards regaining a self-sufficient and dignified life. Even though such actions may not immediately lead to a durable solution, measures can still be taken that help IDPs improve their living conditions and reduce their need for continued humanitarian assistance pending a durable solution, e.g., by ensuring IDPs have access to adequate livelihood opportunities during displacement. In this sense, a protracted displacement situation is unblocked because IDPs can begin the gradual process of rebuilding their lives.

The following scenarios can be distinguished, noting that a country may have several at the same time:

1. Conflict and violence have ended/impacts of a disaster have ceased in the place of origin, and options for achievable durable solutions have been identified:

   The process of ending protracted displacement can begin by identifying and addressing practical, political or socioeconomic impediments that have previously prevented IDPs from sustainably returning, locally integrating, or relocating to another part of the country.

2. Conflict and violence are ongoing or recurrent/disaster-affected areas remain inaccessible or unsafe in the place of origin, while the situation is safe and stable where IDPs find themselves:

   a. Options for achievable durable solutions have been identified for those IDPs who do not want to return to their place of origin.

   The process of ending protracted displacement, including for people affected by recurrent repeated short-term displacement, can begin by gradually improving IDPs’ living conditions and circumstances during displacement, strengthening their self-sufficiency in preparation for when durable solutions become possible. In conflict situations, respect for international humanitarian law and effective protection of civilians may

b. Measures to reduce IDPs’ impoverishment and marginalization have been identified, pending achievable durable solutions, for those who plan to return.

   The process of ending protracted displacement can begin by gradually improving IDPs’ living conditions and circumstances during displacement, strengthening their self-sufficiency in preparation for the time when durable solutions become possible.

3. Conflict and violence are ongoing or recurrent/impacts of a disaster continue throughout the country or in the areas where IDPs find themselves, and measures to reduce IDPs’ impoverishment and marginalization have been identified, pending achievable durable solutions:

   The process of ending protracted displacement, including for people affected by recurrent repeated short-term displacement, can begin by gradually improving IDPs’ living conditions and circumstances during displacement, strengthening their self-sufficiency in preparation for when durable solutions become possible. In conflict situations, respect for international humanitarian law and effective protection of civilians may

Signing a peace agreement does not necessarily mean that displacement will simultaneously end for all IDPs.
be an important precondition that such measures are successful.

This categorization highlights that addressing protracted displacement is not only possible once a conflict or a disaster has ended. Rather, an effort can, and should, be made to help people rebuild their lives and become self-sufficient even in the absence of possibilities for sustainable return (scenarios 2.b and 3). [Figure 4]

IV. Protracted displacement and durable solutions - a complex relationship

The relationship between addressing protracted displacement and finding durable solutions is complex. As these scenarios indicate, addressing protracted displacement or preventing new displacement becoming protracted may be tantamount to finding durable solutions for IDPs (scenarios 1. and 2.a), as understood by the IASC Framework on Durable Solutions for Internally Displaced Persons. According to the framework, a durable solution “is achieved when IDPs no longer have specific assistance and protection needs that are linked to their displacement and such persons can enjoy their human rights without discrimination resulting from their displacement.” Such a solution can be achieved through return and “[s]ustainable reintegration at the place of origin,” “[s]ustainable local integration in areas where internally displaced persons take refuge,” or “[s]ustainable integration in another part of the country,” i.e., relocation or settlement in another part of the country. This understanding implies that finding solutions to internal displacement is a process, not a singular event. Therefore, in scenarios 2.b and 3, even if the time for durable solutions has not yet come for IDPs, reducing their vulnerabilities and helping them move towards self-sufficiency are important steps in this process.

Thus, in the specific case of local integration, two situations have to be distinguished. First, such integration can amount to a durable solution, particularly in situations of long-lasting conflict when IDPs from rural areas have adapted to urban lifestyles, or when they do not want to go back to areas where they would lose access to education, health and other services available in towns and cities. In some contexts, IDPs have to locally integrate by default, as opposed to a voluntary, informed choice, even though they would prefer to return to their place of origin, because the underlying causes of displacement still exist.

Second, IDPs may make an effort to improve and succeed in improving their livelihoods and living conditions, while still hoping to return at a later stage. In such cases, local integration is “a means of allowing people to live as normal a life as possible pending a solution, which ultimately may support their ability to return.” Whether this is called “interim integration,” “de facto integration” or a “transitional solution,” it addresses protracted displacement effectively. It not only “is about realizing and protecting rights during displacement, about building self-reliance and self-sufficiency,” but it may also enhance the prospects for durable solutions, as self-reliant IDPs, for instance, “are able to build and retain skills and accumulate savings essential for eventual successful return and reintegration.”
The question of when durable solutions are achieved must be distinguished from the question of when IDPs are no longer of concern to the different international actors with their specific mandates. The answer to this question helps to determine when each actor can end their IDP-related operation [Figure 5]. The idea of handing over from humanitarian to development actors at a particular time has proven to be problematic, as transitions from war to peace “are particularly susceptible to repeated cycles of violence and displacement, even in situations of relative peace and stability.”

Thus, humanitarian and developmental needs may coexist over prolonged periods of time, and relevant international actors have to decide in accordance with their specific tasks and mandate when their presence is no longer necessary. For instance, when reviewing their operational roles with respect to displacement-related needs, the presence of security actors, such as peacekeeping missions with a mandate to protect civilians, may be deemed no longer necessary in locations with IDPs when a sufficient degree of stability has been restored and remaining security-related needs can be addressed by national authorities. Likewise, humanitarian actors may determine that operations can end when their assessments indicate that relevant humanitarian needs of IDPs in a specific situation no longer exist or are adequately addressed by competent authorities. Development actors may determine that specific development action is no longer needed to the extent that in areas where IDPs live or are returned to, access to basic services and livelihoods is sufficient for everyone including IDPs to move out of defined poverty levels. However, even this analysis will not necessarily mean that there are no other remaining human rights issues related to displacement. For instance, the right to return or the restitution of property may still need to be addressed by judicial and similar authorities, or international human rights mechanisms. Finally, subjective factors also play a role when displaced people no longer regard themselves as IDPs and are no longer perceived by host communities as IDPs.

Figure 5

Diminishing needs – diminishing role of international actors.

- **Security related needs**
  - IDPs no longer of concern for security actors

- **Humanitarian needs**
  - IDPs no longer of concern for humanitarian actors

- **Developmental needs**
  - IDPs no longer of concern for development actors

- **Rights related needs**
  - IDPs no longer of concern for rights actors
V. Protracted displacement – a cross-cutting issue

Addressing protracted internal displacement and preventing recent displacement becoming protracted requires engagement by a multitude of actors. This is because it is not only a humanitarian challenge but also a development and, depending on the circumstances, a peace and security or even a disaster risk reduction (DRR) challenge.

1. Protracted displacement as a humanitarian challenge

For valid reasons, protracted internal displacement is considered to be a humanitarian challenge. Protracted displacement means that many IDPs continue to face social and economic marginalization and remain dependent on humanitarian protection and assistance for long periods. The inability to rebuild their lives and become self-sufficient has made large numbers of IDPs more vulnerable over time. This perpetuates the suffering of displaced people, particularly women, children and vulnerable groups, such as people with disabilities, older people without family support, female-headed households or indigenous communities. Protracted displacement can also have negative humanitarian consequences for host families and host communities.

The international community has increasingly recognized the toll that the “forced displacement crisis” is placing not only on people living in protracted situations but also on the ability of governmental and the international humanitarian response systems to adequately respond to their needs, as well as to existing and new emergency situations.

In particular, international humanitarian actors have argued that responding year after year to protracted displacement, including repeated short-term displacement, channels money away from responses to new emergencies. While exact figures are not available on the percentage of humanitarian assistance spent on IDPs in protracted displacement, it is revealing that in 2014, 89 per cent of humanitarian funding by OECD member states went to protracted crises, and about a quarter of the global expenditure for humanitarian assistance was dedicated to responding to protracted internal displacement and refugee situations. Despite the high expenditure for humanitarian assistance, which has undoubtedly saved many lives, prolonged assistance often fails to significantly help people improve their lives in the long term. Even worse, particularly when IDPs stay in camps or collective shelters, such assistance may inadvertently contribute to keeping them in situations of dependency, vulnerability and marginalization, thus prolonging their suffering.

2. Protracted displacement as a development challenge

Protracted displacement is also, or even primarily, a development challenge. On the one hand, it “can have negative development impacts, affecting human and social capital, economic growth, poverty reduction” and the achievement of the SDGs. On the other hand, structural economic, political and developmental factors “such as land rights, establishment of livelihoods and employment opportunities,
rule of law, and freedom of movement [which] are developmental and political in nature rather than humanitarian” are among the underlying reasons for protracted displacement. One expert has even gone so far as to suggest “that conflict-induced forced displacement is predominantly a development issue with humanitarian elements and not the other way around,” even though protracted displacement may require humanitarian assistance in the short term. Similar statements have been made about disaster contexts. Such arguments are based on the assertion that:

“protracted displacement is clearly a central development challenge for both origin and host communities, simply because it is protracted in nature: the costs, benefits and dynamics caused are

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**Text Box 2: Protracted displacement and the SDGs**

Countries affected by conflict or disasters will hardly be able to reach the SDGs if protracted displacement persists for substantial numbers of IDPs. Not addressing protracted displacement or taking measures to prevent new displacement becoming protracted means that IDPs are “left behind” with regard to many of the SDGs, although they should, as citizens or part of the regular population of a country, be able to benefit from development interventions regardless of where they are located in the country.

The following goals and targets are particularly relevant for IDPs, as they concern negative impacts discussed below (Part 2) that characterize most protracted internal displacement situations:

- **Goal 1 on poverty:** As poverty is a common trait of protracted displacement, eradicating extreme poverty for all people everywhere by 2030 (target 1.1) will not be realistic unless the economic situation of tens of millions of IDPs is significantly improved. Ensuring that by 2030 all men and women have “access to basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property” (target 1.4) is particularly relevant for IDPs who live in irregular settlements or have property left behind not restituted to them. Target 1.5 on building “the resilience of […] those in vulnerable situations and reducing their exposure and vulnerability to climate related extreme events and other economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters” directly applies to IDPs in disasters contexts.

- **Goal 4 on inclusive and equitable education:** Besides ensuring free primary and secondary education for all IDP boys and girls (target 4.1), ensuring equal access of all IDPs regardless of gender to technical, vocational and tertiary education and increasing the number of IDP youth with relevant skills for the labour market (targets 4.3 and 4.4) are particularly relevant for improving the livelihoods for people in protracted internal displacement.

- **Goal 5 on gender equality and empowerment of women and girls everywhere:** In light of the particular needs of IDP women in protracted displacement, this goal calls for increased efforts, including with regard to eliminating all forms of gender-based violence (target 5.2), for the participation of women at all levels of decision-making (target 5.5), and equal rights and opportunities in the economic sphere (policy area 5.a).

- **Goal 8 on full and productive employment:** Targets 8.5 and 8.6 on employment for everyone, including women and youth, directly respond to the need for better livelihoods as one of the key measures to move IDPs out of protracted displacement. Target 8.7 on taking immediate and effective measures to eradicate human trafficking and the recruitment and use of child soldiers deals with another area of the negative impacts of protracted displacement.

- **Goal 11 on making cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable:** Target 11.1 on ensuring “access for all to adequate, safe and affordable housing and basic services and upgrading slums” addresses the needs of the many IDPs in protracted urban displacement, particularly those living in irregular settlements.
not transitory and need to be taken into account in development planning.  

A growing number of development agencies have programmes specifically designed to support finding durable solutions for IDPs. UNDP highlights “the importance of investment in development approaches to displacement” and promotes its own role in providing such investments. Complementing wider international efforts, multilateral development banks, particularly the World Bank, have highlighted their collective expertise and comparative advantage in ending protracted displacement situations. They explain how their medium- and long-term perspective allows them to support affected States to respond to the specific needs and vulnerabilities of displaced people and host communities in a wide range of areas, including social infrastructure, sustainable livelihood opportunities and legal issues.

3. Protracted displacement as a peace and security challenge

Failure to address protracted displacement may also endanger peace and security. Noting the importance of peace dividends benefiting people beyond the capital and a country’s elite, a 2015 expert panel review of the UN peace operations states that a lack of inclusion and continued marginalization not only of ex-fighters but also of refugees and displaced people “may threaten the sustainability of peace in the short and longer term.” Neglecting durable solutions for IDPs, for instance, may “provoke the rejection of peace agreements by the displaced community, and nurture latent disputes and grievances that can constrain peacebuilding.”

Thus, as reflected by the mandates of peacekeeping operations to support the creation of conditions allowing for finding durable solutions for IDPs, as well as peace agreements with explicit provisions on ending internal displacement, it is increasingly recognized that peace and security actors play a relevant role in preventing and addressing internal displacement situations.

The 2015 expert panel review found that while peacekeeping operations need to uphold their enforcement mandates and avoid confusion with humanitarian objectives and actors, “[w]here appropriate, timely coordination between missions with humanitarian actors is indispensable in pursuing unarmed strategies, as those partners often work closely with communities, especially internally displaced persons.” Such coordination is particularly relevant in situations where peacekeepers might be tempted to equate returns with durable solutions, even if returns are not voluntary or unsustainable.

However, despite these acknowledgments, the full potential of peace and security actors in addressing protracted displacement has not been widely or fully set out. For instance, aside from a few passing references to displacement, this role is not mentioned in a 2015 review of the UN peacebuilding architecture, and Security Council resolution 2282 (2016) on the Review of United Nations Peacebuilding Architecture does not mention displacement at all. However, promoting the concept of “sustaining peace”, it calls for close cooperation of peace and security with development and human rights actors.
4. Protracted displacement as a disaster risk reduction challenge

DRR is crucial to prevent internal displacement, but protracted displacement can also become a DRR challenge when IDPs live in areas with high exposure to natural hazards. Examples include IDP camps situated in flood-prone areas or irregular settlements on steep slopes where landslides may occur. The Sendai Framework on Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 encourages States to adopt, at national and local levels, “policies and programmes addressing disaster-induced human mobility to strengthen the resilience of affected people and that of host communities.” This recommendation is also relevant in situations of conflict-induced protracted internal displacement.
PART 2
Impacts of protracted internal displacement

The social fabric was torn apart, and many young people knew no other life than that in the camps. As a result, the conflict deepened poverty and dependency on humanitarian assistance. Displacement changed the traditional way of life. An already poor region faced destitution—its population living in appalling conditions in congested camps facing food shortages, security gaps, and a lack of income generation opportunities.”

Michelle Berg, “A Sort of Homecoming… Local Integration in Northern Uganda,” 2011

Robust efforts by Governments and the international community are not only needed because protracted internal displacement has contributed to the large increase in the number of IDPs in recent years. They are also, or even primarily, needed because protracted displacement has devastating impacts. Protracted displacement also has significant implications for humanitarian response efforts and the achievement of the SDGs. Depending on the situation, conflict/peace dynamics or disaster risk management (DRM) and DRR activities may also be affected by protracted displacement. A review of the literature, as well as the situation in the five countries identified for case studies, indicates that the impacts are primarily negative with some positive exceptions.

I. Impacts on IDPs

1. Overview

Protracted displacement leaves IDPs in a situation of vulnerability that exposes them to various protection problems that often increase over time, particularly when humanitarian action is reduced or phased out, and when IDPs’ specific needs are not adequately addressed within development, DRM or peace-planning processes.
Certain needs frequently emerge as common challenges, most notably in relation to adequate livelihood opportunities and the need to resolve housing, land and property issues, as supported by the country case studies and analysis by, among others, the Joint IDP Profiling Service (JIPS),90 the Displacement Tracking Matrix91 and REACH.92 However, each protracted displacement situation is unique. For example, IDPs living in South Sudan’s urban centres in overcrowded, often illegal, settlements have lower humanitarian indicators than IDPs living in camps who continue to receive assistance from humanitarian actors.93 In other countries, IDPs in urban areas may have better access to livelihood opportunities in the informal sector than those living in rural camps, but they face challenges accessing basic services and education due to a lack of appropriate documentation.

Text Box 3: Are IDPs more vulnerable? The need for comparative analysis

In many contexts, IDPs face specific vulnerabilities and assistance and protection needs. However, assuming this is the case without adequate evidence can also lead to responses that create tensions between communities and further complicate the process of achieving solutions, thus increasing the protracted nature of the situation. Understanding the host community’s vulnerability situation in comparison with the displaced groups’ is therefore paramount for developing responsible and appropriate responses to support durable solutions in every context.

Analysis of profiling data does not unequivocally support the statement that IDPs are more vulnerable than non-displaced groups in all contexts. For example, in Hargeisa, Somalia, there were no significant differences in the living conditions of IDPs and other groups (Hargeisa, 2015). Similarly, when comparing the adequate standard of living of non-displaced and IDP households in the main urban areas of Honduras with IDP presence, the differences between the two groups in terms of well-being and vulnerability are relatively small, showing that the IDPs are not significantly worse off in key areas, such as access to livelihoods and education. However, these studies alone do not allow us to distinguish whether IDPs live in more impoverished areas as a result of their displacement, or if their socioeconomic situation has remained at the pre-displacement level. In contrast, many IDPs in Colombia and Ukraine are clearly poorer than most members of host communities.

On the other hand, housing, land and property issues are examples of specific challenges to IDPs in various contexts. For instance, in Honduras, displaced households are twice as likely as host community households to rent rather than own their dwellings, and they are half as likely to have recorded deeds or leases. Housing conditions differ as well, since displaced households are more likely to live in apartments or guesthouses rather than individual homes. In Mogadishu (2015), by contrast, housing conditions and tenure security are tenuous for host and displaced communities, but displaced households are still more vulnerable to evictions as they collectively pay a fee to landlords to stay in settlements (including a portion of their humanitarian assistance), but there is rarely documentation available on this or on their tenure status.99

These findings by JIPS are confirmed by other studies. A joint World Bank-UNHCR study on urban IDPs in Afghanistan (2011) found that they “live in much more hazardous housing conditions than the urban poor” and “have a much higher level of deprivation than the urban poor, with potential negative impacts on health outcomes. Over 70 percent of IDPs, compared to 18 percent of the urban poor, do not have access to electricity. Inadequate water and sanitation facilities, poor drainage and solid waste management and indoor pollution characterize living conditions in these settlements.”100

In contrast, there were less significant differences in Abidjan, Côte d’Ivoire (2008), as “IDPs and non-IDPs experience[d] the same stresses related to urban poverty and lack of adequate infrastructure, and share similar demographic characteristics and household situations”, although even there some differences “in their employment and housing situations” could be identified.101 These examples support the conclusion that every situation has to be assessed on its own.
IDPs’ needs also often change as time passes and family members age, and thus a periodic review is required to monitor evolving situations and IDPs’ perceptions of their circumstances. In some contexts, IDPs’ personal situations may have gradually improved, particularly when they were supported with assistance to find durable solutions, such that they may appear to have similar living conditions as the broader community within which they live. However, upon closer examination, they may still face displacement-specific-related concerns, such as an inability to resolve a property claim, that leave them stuck in a protracted displacement situation with a durable solution seemingly just out of reach, such as in Burundi and Georgia. In other protracted displacement situations, IDPs may have received little if any support over the years. Consequently, they may face ever-increasing levels of impoverishment, weakened resilience and exploitation that leave them dependent on humanitarian assistance to meet their basic needs, if such support is even available. This is the case for the most vulnerable IDPs in several protracted displacement situations in Europe.

Systematic profiling of protracted internal displacement situations, in which the circumstances of IDPs are compared with a larger host community, is still quite rare. However, efforts are under way to develop a standard set of indicators based on the IASC Framework on Durable Solutions to Internal Displacement that could be used, inter alia, to analyse the impact of protracted internal displacement on displaced people as well as host communities. These indicators facilitate the identification of specific protection and impoverishment risks and vulnerabilities that may arise when internal displacement becomes protracted, in addition to the widely recognized protection risks that emerge in internal displacement situations generally. More detailed information on the impacts of protracted displacement gathered from a wide variety of sources and country contexts, as well as references, can be found in the Annex I: Country case studies.

2. Long-term safety, security and freedom of movement

2.1 Safety and security conditions

When people flee armed conflict, violence or disasters, the purpose is to escape specific dangers and find safety elsewhere in the country. After fleeing the danger, IDPs may face the same challenges as the local population in accessing safety, security and justice. However, depending on the circumstances, IDPs may encounter the following categories of risks related to safety and security, which may increase the longer protracted displacement lasts: (i) violent conflict with host communities; (ii) increased levels of gender-based and domestic violence, particularly in poorly maintained camps or collective centres; (iii) increased risk of trafficking, particularly of women and girls; (iv) infiltration of camps and settlements by criminal elements; (v) the “militarization” or control of IDPs camps and settlements by armed groups, e.g., where such sites are used to hide or recruit (child) soldiers; (vi) the use of violence to evict IDPs from occupied land or buildings; and (vii) exposure to high levels of disaster risk, e.g., in irregular settlements in urban areas.

In Haiti, for example, following the 2010 earthquake, the Special Rapporteur found that “Physical aggression and domestic violence remain the most widespread forms of violence, while rape allegations
have doubled in the first half of 2014 compared to the last semester of 2013.\textsuperscript{106} In Colombia, the researchers heard reports that criminal gangs in informal settlements are making a profit from selling water and electricity stolen from State services to IDPs, and they raised concerns that this was also the case after humanitarian actors had left such settlements.\textsuperscript{107}

2.2 Freedom of movement

IDPs in protracted displacement situations occurring within ongoing or frozen conflicts, and sometimes even in disaster contexts, may face restrictions on their freedom of movement, particularly when their displacement has been politicized. For example, IDPs displaced in Papua New Guinea by the Manam volcanic eruptions faced obstacles to free movement due to the threat of physical attacks that arose when relations with the host community became increasingly tense during the years of displacement, “with regular clashes between the two groups generally triggered by disputes over land and resources.”\textsuperscript{108} Over time, restrictions on freedom of movement can significantly contribute to greater impoverishment by limiting IDPs’ access to livelihood opportunities, social and family networks, basic services and education.

3. Adequate standard of living

In many conflict, post-conflict and post-disaster situations, it may be difficult to determine whether IDPs’ inability to maintain an adequate standard of living is linked to protracted displacement as such, or whether it reflects a more general state of a weakened economy, the impacts of the crisis, poor governance or underdevelopment. Even though IDPs are not always economically worse off than the wider host community, evidence shows that in some contexts, those in protracted internal displacement face greater difficulties maintaining an adequate standard of living as compared with the broader community within which they live.

3.1 Access to food and drinking water

Whether IDPs in protracted displacement are food insecure or lack access to clean drinking water depends on many circumstances, including non-discriminatory access or lack thereof to food aid or jobs, their level of poverty or the location of IDP settlements. In some countries (e.g., Somalia), IDPs in protracted displacement are among those most affected by food insecurity. For instance, after being displaced for many years, Dinka IDPs in Yei, South Sudan, particularly women, faced challenges accessing water points even though they paid a monthly fee. This was due to conflicts within the local community linked to the fact that IDPs were living on squatted land and water points were insufficient to serve both the host community and IDPs.\textsuperscript{109}

3.2 Access to basic shelter and housing

Loss of housing is an immediate consequence of displacement. As time passes, some wealthier or “more socially mobile” IDPs may be able to purchase houses and land when it becomes clear that return will not be possible for an extended period of time.\textsuperscript{110} However, in many protracted internal displacement situations, IDPs have not received housing assistance beyond emergency shelter, or they may be living in deteriorating transitional shelters, or lack the financial resources to find suitable housing or to repair damaged
or destroyed housing on their own. For example, in Mogadishu, Somalia, some 75 per cent of IDPs live in traditional huts, as compared with 35 per cent of urban poor in the host community residing in the same area.\textsuperscript{111}

Particular protection and impoverishment risks related to shelter and housing in protracted situations include: (i) poor standards and maintenance in collective centres or camps; (ii) risk of eviction from occupied or informally shared land or housing, or because of informal rental agreements; (iii) lack of money to pay for rental accommodation once savings are exhausted; (iv) deterioration of emergency or transitional housing.

Extremely vulnerable people within the displaced population, such as female- or youth-headed households, older people without family support or people with disabilities, face particular risks in this regard.

3.3 Health

Living in a state of chronic displacement places a significant toll on many IDPs’ physical and mental health. Even when IDPs can access health care to the same degree as other non-displaced citizens, “the negative impact of poor health on the general economic and psychosocial situation of IDPs is often more substantial for them than for the general population.”\textsuperscript{112} Protracted displacement can negatively impact health as a consequence of (i) unsanitary, deteriorating living conditions;\textsuperscript{113} (ii) the psychological stress associated with the initial displacement and the conditions during prolonged displacement, as well as any human rights violations suffered in the process; (iii) lack of services for older displaced people; or (iv) lack of access to sexual, reproductive and maternal health services for women and girls.\textsuperscript{114} If left unaddressed, health problems can deteriorate over time.

4. Access to education

It is possible that IDP children, such as those who were displaced from poor rural areas, may have access to better education during their displacement. However, this is not commonly the case. Protracted displacement can have a detrimental impact on childhood and adult education for various reasons. Educational facilities may not be available for IDP children, and where they do exist, facilities may be crowded and underfunded or lack high-quality teachers. School buildings may have been destroyed during conflict or a disaster. Parents may be unable to pay for education or may choose not to send children to school, e.g., because of a volatile security situation. In other situations, IDP children may be able to go to school but are educated separately from the general population in institutions with lower educational standards, potentially obstructing their integration.\textsuperscript{119}

Over time, such circumstances can result in a generation of displaced people that has grown up without adequate formal education. After many years of displacement, IDP children may even become illiterate, as was the case in Georgia.\textsuperscript{120} Adults, young and old, may also not have access to technical or higher education during displacement, which can limit their ability to gain skilled, well-paying jobs and integrate in local communities.
5. Access to employment and livelihoods

Displacement results in a loss of productive assets, including one’s home and livelihood opportunities. In some protracted internal displacement contexts, IDPs share the same employment and livelihood challenges as the general population that is recovering from a post-conflict or disaster situation, making it difficult to distinguish displaced people’s livelihoods needs from those of their host community.

However, even when IDPs are living among the wider urban population, they are sometimes the poorest of the urban poor. In Colombia, for example, the percentage of IDPs in extreme poverty is about 2.5 times higher than that of the general population.

Poverty affects many Ukrainians, but IDPs are in a particularly precarious situation. Between 2014 and 2015, 8.6 per cent of the general population was living at or below the national poverty line, but a staggering 81 per cent of IDPs fell within that category. While a large percentage of IDPs are pensioners with very small monthly pensions, unemployment among economically active IDPs is significantly higher than among non-displaced people.

Livelihood issues are highly contextual. IDPs with specific resources and skills may be able to find employment or start a small business early in their displacement, relying on savings or social networks. Other IDPs may initially be able to rely on their own resources during the initial period of displacement but fall into extreme poverty once they are exhausted. However, in some situations, IDPs in protracted displacement have been unable to develop adequate livelihood opportunities to meet their basic needs when humanitarian assistance was phased out after a significant period of time.

The reasons for challenges include: (i) insufficient access to employment opportunities and markets, e.g., for people from rural areas who lack the required skills for urban labour markets; (ii) sale of productive assets to meet immediate needs or pre-existing financial obligations, such as mortgages, in their place of origin; (iii) inability to access land or essential

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Text Box 4: Impact of protracted displacement on health and access to health services

Chronic health conditions and poor mental health were found to be especially high for older displaced people living in collective centres in Georgia due to “higher rates of life dissatisfaction, depression, and anxiety due to feelings of social isolation combined with exceptionally bad living conditions.” Similarly in Japan, it was reported, “In Fukushima prefecture, the death toll resulting from health problems and suicides after the nuclear disaster has exceeded that from the direct impacts of the earthquake and tsunami, with people over 66 years of age accounting for more than 90% of such fatalities.” Social isolation due to young people or family members leaving older people behind in search of better conditions was identified as a major contributing factor.

In Papua New Guinea, IDPs living in poorly maintained collective centres for more than six years following a volcanic eruption reported that mothers and their babies were dying at a rising rate during childbirth because the mothers were afraid to seek medical attention outside of the IDP camps due to security threats posed by conflicts with the host community.
assets; (iv) exploitation, particularly in the informal sector of the economy, or negative coping strategies, such as child labour and prostitution; or (v) risk of losing social benefits associated with being internally displaced. For instance, in Serbia/Kosovo, obtaining employment or buying land that could be used to support enhanced livelihood opportunities jeopardized eligibility for benefits, such as social benefits or a small stipend, linked to one’s IDP status. Even when IDPs have found livelihood opportunities, such activities may not be dependable or long lasting, with many IDPs relying on unpredictable informal or casual labour markets or holding insecure land tenure for farming or small businesses.

6. Housing, land and property rights

People displaced for extended periods of time often face challenges asserting rights over housing or property left behind, or benefiting from restitution, compensation or reconstruction schemes. These may include the fact that property left behind was taken over by others and restitutions mechanisms do not exist or are ineffective, or customary systems of property ownership eroded during extended periods of displacement. IDPs may also be deemed ineligible for housing schemes in their current locations due to a lack of documentation, or because housing programmes are limited to regular residents, based on the assumption that IDPs will eventually return.

7. Access to and replacement of personal and other documentation

As in any internal displacement situation, IDPs in protracted displacement may have difficulties obtaining or replacing lost documents that are essential for accessing IDP-related benefits, basic services, schooling, health care, employment authorization, establishing property ownership and pensions. Such challenges may also be equally faced by non-displaced people, but specific challenges may arise in protracted situations when, for instance, obtaining replacement documentation or registering births and marriages is only available in areas of origin that IDPs cannot access.

Text Box 5: Risk of negative coping mechanisms

In the absence of an ability to meet their basic needs, there is a growing risk that IDPs will rely on negative coping mechanisms such as child labour and prostitution. The trafficking of women and children may also increase, with single women- and female-headed households potentially more at risk. In Nepal, for example, displaced women, particularly those heading their households, expressed concern about resorting to prostitution or allowing their children to be indentured labourers to ensure their survival. Resorting to prostitution was also a coping mechanism in Côte d’Ivoire. In the Kurdistan region of Iraq, it was found that “the incidence of child labour appears to increase among displaced families the longer displacement lasts.” Children may also face a growing risk of recruitment into armed groups.

It has been observed that preferences for specific coping mechanisms are often gender specific. Men, in particular, may turn to alcohol and drug abuse or domestic violence or sign up with armed groups; women may resort to survival sex.
In other situations, ongoing political disputes may result in authorities refusing to acknowledge the legitimacy of documents issued by another political body, e.g., the Serbian authorities that did not recognize the legitimacy of Kosovo’s administration authority. In countries that create a specific legal status for IDPs, the status and associated benefits may not be granted to children or newly married couples, creating specific problems as long as durable solutions are not possible.

8. Participation in public affairs at all levels on an equal basis with the overall population

Depending on the situation, IDPs may or may not be able to participate in public affairs during their protracted displacement. In many countries, the right to vote can only be exercised at the place of habitual residence, excluding IDPs from local or even national elections. In other situations, IDPs may lack documentation necessary to be registered as a voter.

9. Social integration, non-discrimination, and political, cultural and religious practices

Over time, IDPs may be able to integrate into host communities and feel accepted by the wider community in some situations. However, in other situations, protracted displacement can lead to heightened social, cultural and economic marginalization and stigmatization. For example, it was observed in the Sri Lankan context that “the IDP status and category has separated IDPs from other citizens and has restricted rather than secured their access to rights, effectively creating unequal access to citizenship rights.” This is particularly true when IDPs are perceived as a long-term burden on the host community, are viewed as supporting an adverse party in the conflict or live in geographically isolated and/or marginalized locations. Protracted displacement can also exacerbate pre-existing discrimination.

Protracted displacement may also undermine traditional leadership structures and cultural traditions, including religious practices, particularly in the case of displaced indigenous communities. In Colombia, for instance, extended periods of time away from traditional lands and the culture shock of living in urban areas have made it difficult for indigenous and Afro-Colombians to maintain and pass on their cultural traditions to younger generations.

Text Box 6: Erosion of customary systems of property ownership

In northern Uganda, where land is primarily governed by customary law through elders, the protracted war and displacement destroyed the social fabric essential to the functioning of the system, with many elders taking essential knowledge related to land demarcation with them when they died. The absence of a functioning system led some returning IDPs to take control over additional land and prevented other IDPs from returning, particularly as land became more valuable for development in the post-conflict phase.
II. Other impacts

1. On host families

In many protracted displacement situations, friends and family members generously host IDPs despite the fact that they rarely receive support or remuneration and are poor themselves. In 2008, for instance, an estimated 90 per cent of IDPs in Jaffna, Sri Lanka, lived with host families and as many as 97 per cent in South Kivu, DRC. Despite such high numbers, most assistance is usually provided to IDPs in formally recognized camps or collective centres, leaving host families to provide for the needs of their guests on their own.

Studies that compare the situation of IDP hosting families to non-hosting families are extremely rare. However, hosting displaced family members for extended periods of time has been found to create social and financial burdens for host families that can undermine their own resilience over time (DRC, and Mindanao, Philippines) and prompt them to seek Government assistance or request some form of remuneration from IDPs. For example, a study in DRC found that the cost of hosting IDPs could require as much as one half of a host family’s income. Similarly, in Côte d’Ivoire, IDPs said that three years of hosting had “impooverished the families and led to tension between individuals, and is having a negative effect on the psychological and social development of children.”

In general, host families face economic hardship and cramped living conditions to accommodate displaced guests, which can result in conflict within the household over time. IDPs have also cited this burden as a reason for deciding to leave a host family.

Hosts may include landowners or landlords who receive little or no compensation for the fact that IDPs have occupied their land or buildings for years at a time. For example, several landowners in northern Uganda who hosted IDPs without compensation for more than 14 years sought either compensation from the Government or at least minimum assistance with land clearance and complex cultural processes associated with moving the graves of IDPs who were buried on their property during their displacement. However, adequate measures were not provided for within national laws to address such needs, generally leaving landowners without recourse.

2. On host communities and local governments

Host communities may benefit from IDPs who arrive with resources and knowledge. For instance, some localities in Ukraine profited from the arrival of IDPs, particularly in areas that received relocated institutions, such as universities and businesses, from non-Government- to Government-controlled areas. Faced with a previously declining population, some villages were also able to avert the risk of having their schools or other services closed with the arrival of new families. However, IDPs in protracted displacement as understood in this study normally pose burdens on host communities and local authorities, even if the presence of humanitarian actors and cash transfers to IDPs may initially boost local markets.

For host communities, the arrival of large numbers of IDPs “is a demographic shock that disrupts existing equilibria and creates mismatches in demand and supply in multiple markets”, including labour and housing.
markets. It can also exacerbate pre-existing problems. Once displacement becomes protracted, “a new set of equilibria emerges”, which can be negative or positive depending on the overall conditions and the type of policy responses provided. The presence of IDPs may, for instance, contribute to high unemployment, or it may create new markets and with them new jobs. The arrival of IDPs may also result in the presence of people with specific qualifications needed by the host community, compensate for diminishing populations that would have otherwise led to the closure of schools or health facilities, or create new opportunities for members of host communities when IDPs relocate their pre-existing businesses or institutions.

Overall, host communities “with better access to resources are more likely to benefit from forced displacement inflows, while the more disadvantaged become increasingly vulnerable, reinforcing inequalities.” This requires a careful and holistic analysis of each specific situation.

At the local or regional level, an influx of additional people for an extended period can strain local services, reducing authorities’ capacity to respond to the needs of the local population, including the most vulnerable people among them. It is widely recognized that when IDPs are not living in camps, they inevitably place stress on educational and health services and urban infrastructure with negative implications unless the increase in demand is “matched by a supply response, through external assistance or country systems.” In particular, host communities and their members may be negatively affected by the increased burden on local resources (e.g., land, water, fishing); greater competition in the labour market and over access to basic services; lower wages and higher prices triggered by changed patterns of supply and demand; higher prices for housing; the effects of IDPs’ negative coping mechanisms such as petty crime; or the impoverishment of host families. It can also result in a change in demographics. Such impacts can trigger conflict within

**Text Box 7: Impact of protracted internal displacement on host communities and local authorities**

In the Kurdistan region of Iraq (Erbil, Duhok and Sulaymaniah, 2016), the arrival of IDPs and refugees has increased demand for housing and services, such as schools and medical facilities. The profile of the IDP population is very diverse and includes relatively affluent IDPs with purchasing power, which is important for the region’s stagnant economy. Despite this, many of the basic services have not been able to grow in proportion to the population’s needs. This, coupled with perceived unfairness and fears of a demographic shift in the region, has caused the host community to react negatively to the presence of displaced people.

In the case of Soacha, an autonomous municipality outside Bogota, Colombia, the high concentration of IDPs has greatly reduced the local government’s capacity to provide adequate levels of social services. As a result, thousands of regular residents had reportedly moved to another municipality to maintain their quality of life.

In Goma, DRC, which hosts tens of thousands of IDPs and has doubled in size since 2002, local authorities were generally recognized as lacking the sufficient resources and planning needed to adjust to the city’s growing population. The vast negative consequences include overcrowded and deteriorating neighbourhoods, a saturated labour market with low wages and insufficient urban infrastructure, which weaken social cohesion.
the broader host community, undermining social cohesion. Existing tensions may also be exacerbated if IDPs are regarded as supporting a party to a conflict that is not supported by the host community.

As the front-line responders, local authorities may find themselves unable to adequately fulfil their obligations to assist IDPs given the strain on existing local services and insufficient local budgets. However, local authorities’ needs are often not sufficiently addressed. For example, even when local authorities receive budget allocations from the central Government to respond to a crisis, such allocations are often too little to meet the demand of the crisis, or they fail to reflect the increased de facto population because the allocations are calculated based on regular (registered) residents. Local authorities may also be hindered from taking appropriate action because there is a lack of clarity regarding the respective powers and roles of national and local governments.

Consequently, the presence of large numbers of IDPs in protracted displacement and the ensuing consequences for the host communities can negatively affect overall local development goals and jeopardize the impact of specific local development programmes. The absence of comprehensive development responses to displacement impacts means that host communities may never fully recover and continue to lack sufficient infrastructure and social services to adequately support their own needs as well as those of people displaced for extended periods of time.

Protracted internal displacement also has implications for local DRM and DRR efforts. For example, local plans need to recognize that IDPs often settle in poorly constructed and poorly maintained housing with insecure tenure in disaster-prone areas, where they generally receive less housing assistance after disasters. This perpetuates or increases their vulnerability to future disasters. Similarly, when DRR measures prohibit IDPs from returning to their former homes, stalled relocation plans may force them to remain displaced for prolonged periods in transitional relocation sites, or they may simply return to unsafe areas in the absence of another viable option.

There is anecdotal evidence that the underemployment of IDPs, particularly those who would normally farm, has contributed to the overall decline in agricultural production in eastern DRC, although it is not known to what extent as compared with the overall impacts of the ongoing conflict. Similarly, agricultural land left idle during displacement was noted as having a negative impact on the overall economic productivity of central Mindanao and the eastern Visayas region in the Philippines. The slow pace of the relocation process following Typhoon Haiyan/Yolanda also resulted in uncertainty for the business community about whether to invest in developing planned new relocation areas, which is essential for establishing viable communities in the long term.

3. On countries and their policies

It is difficult to make a comprehensive assessment of the impacts of protracted internal displacement on a country or an affected community, particularly because much of the relevant literature focuses on protracted refugee situations. Some studies include IDPs under a broader rubric of protracted displacement generally, but the unique situation of
internal displacement is rarely explored in the same detail as refugee movements.

During long-term conflict, or following a major disaster, national authorities’ capacity or finances may already be overstretched, making it difficult to provide high levels of protection and assistance to people displaced for extended periods of time. For example, to enable the Government of Colombia to fully execute the 2011 Victims and Land Restitution Law, which addresses the needs of 7 million victims of displacement, the Government will require $US1 billion a year for the next 10 years. However, according to the World Bank, the Government of Colombia only has an estimated $3 billion of fiscal space for all expenditures over and above those already mandated by law, meaning that implementing the Victims Law would require one third of the fiscal space. At the same time, failing to meet IDPs’ long-term development needs or address the marginalization of IDPs in conflict situations “can lead to renewed tensions and risk the stability of peace.” Large-scale, protracted internal displacement also negatively affects a country’s ability to achieve its overall development goals, including the SDGs, and it increases the vulnerability of communities and individuals personally affected by the impacts of displacement. For example, increased poverty and reduced resilience of displacement-affected communities that result from protracted displacement can affect the overall economic development of a country when large numbers of formerly productive people are displaced (e.g., a drop in agricultural production in eastern DRC and the Philippines). Protracted displacement also “typically disrupts or reverses progress made in schooling, healthcare, food production, sanitation systems, infrastructure improvements, local governance, and other sectors fundamental to economic and social development.” Depending on the context, protracted displacement may also undermine relevant State policies, such as poverty-reduction programmes, or attempts to reduce unemployment or diminish budget allocations for pensions and similar social protection measures. These combined impacts can result in “real and perceived costs that in turn result in policies that push solutions for displaced populations further away and incur even greater costs.”

While recognizing these very real challenges, some argue that these negative effects are outweighed by potential benefits. In particular, they observe that the costs and benefits of prolonged displacement change over time in relation to “market prices, the flow of humanitarian aid, new influxes of displaced people, etc., and urge policymakers to weigh these factors against outdated perceptions of costs or short-term domestic political considerations.” These assessments are based on evidence that displaced people can make positive contributions to the economy if given the chance. This has prompted broad advocacy for measures that allow displaced people to pursue livelihood opportunities during displacement.
4. On conflict and peace dynamics

Internal displacement may be an unintended side effect of an armed conflict and become protracted as a consequence of conflict dynamics. However, it also “becomes a source of conflict or political instability, especially in cases where displacement is the product of identity or sectarian conflict.”192 Failing to ensure that displaced people and other groups adequately benefit from “vital peace dividends such as jobs and livelihoods” within peace processes may not only contribute to IDPs’ continued or worsening social or economic marginalization, it arguably may also “threaten the sustainability of peace in the short and longer term.”193 On the other hand, the continued presence of IDPs as victims may be a forceful voice to call for peace.

Comprehensive evidence documenting the impact of protracted internal displacement on conflict dynamics is not available, as there is little research into the impact of displacement-related provisions of peace agreements194 or the related issue of how and to what extent to include IDPs in peace processes.195 For example, although there was little documented evidence, protracted displacement was recognized as a contributing factor to continued insecurity and conflict in DRC in terms of long-standing IDP sites being infiltrated by militarized elements, and the emergence of tensions between the IDPs and the host communities, which resulted in armed conflict and new displacement.196

Finding durable solutions for internal displacement, largely in the form of return to the place of origin, is often viewed as an indicator of a successful post-conflict peace and economic revitalization process.197 In Colombia, for instance, the protracted displacement of rural IDPs and their unresolved land claims has already exposed their vacated land to occupation by criminal armed groups and demobilized paramilitaries, generating continued violence and human rights violations. Recognizing that finding durable solutions displacement is entwined with the success of ending the conflict, compensating victims of the conflict, the majority of whom are IDPs, is a central component of the November 2016 peace agreement between the Government of Colombia and FARC.198

By comparison, protracted displacement in the Philippines generally was not viewed as having a significant effect on the conflict dynamics, since displacement in Mindanao was largely precautionary to avoid being caught up in military offenses and not overtly politicized. However, concerns were raised about protracted displacement leading to increased radicalization, even though such incidents were thought to be small at the time.199

Similarly, IDPs in Ukraine are not an identifiable and relevant factor in the dynamics of the present conflict in eastern Ukraine. Their existence neither contributes to nor mitigates the conflict.200 At the same time, the fact that many IDPs maintain contact with families and friends who remain in non-Government-controlled areas, travelling back and forth across the confrontation line, may enable them to contribute to confidence-building across communities on opposing sides of the conflict.201 Here, as in other countries, unless the risk of protracted displacement is addressed in ways that respond to legitimate demands of IDPs and their host communities, social cohesion may be undermined.
and tensions between displaced people and hosts increase, creating additional challenges of finding peace and stability.

5. On international actors

A failure to meet the needs of all people, including those in protracted displacement, impinges on development actors’ ability to meet broader development objectives as a whole. It can result in new development challenges, undermining the achievement of the SDGs. When displaced people are stuck in protracted situations, they “are likely to be left behind in long-term recovery, disaster risk reduction and development processes.”

Protracted internal displacement can also negatively affect the efforts of peace and security actors, such as when IDP settlements and camps are militarized, or when the lack of any perspectives for a better future makes IDP youth an easy target for recruitment by non-State armed forces.

Poorly maintained IDP buildings and settlements commonly found in protracted situations can heighten disaster risk. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, some IDPs who had previously been displaced by conflict in the 1990s were displaced again by floods and landslides in 2014 from sites in floodplains and on hillsides that were illegally constructed and/or in disrepair, factors that the Government said were “the largest problem which caused flooding disasters.”

Humanitarian actors are facing particular challenges. To the extent that humanitarian access is provided and possible, protracted displacement can pose significant financial burdens and operational challenges on humanitarian actors seeking to meet IDPs’ basic needs over a long period of time, particularly when aid contributions dwindle and partnerships with development actors to implement durable solutions strategies do not exist. For example, despite the existence of ongoing humanitarian needs for conflict-affected IDPs in northern Sri Lanka in 2012, the humanitarian action plan received only 27 per cent funding, even though durable solutions strategies for IDPs were not included within the broader UN Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF). As experts have observed, “International donors and aid agencies struggle to keep afloat expensive, open-ended humanitarian assistance packages that offer slim prospects for the longer-term well-being of displaced people.”

In the absence of other actors, humanitarians sometimes had to engage in activities such as the construction of roads, schools, health clinics, and livelihoods and self-reliance programmes. However, such activities have received some criticism for lacking effective design, inadequate implementation and having a limited long-term impact. They have also been criticized for taking away needed funding and focus from other more critical, forgotten or new humanitarian crises. Engagement in these areas also undermines humanitarian actors’ ability to implement exit strategies.
PART 3
Why internal displacement becomes protracted

Failure to address the causes of protracted displacement is one of the main factors behind the ever increasing number of IDPs worldwide.”

NRC/IDMC, 2016 Global Report on Internal Displacement

Achieving collective outcomes depends on a full understanding of the causes and impacts of protracted internal displacement on IDPs and other affected groups and actors. Because each situation is unique, efforts to respond to displacement will be undermined if they do not account for or properly understand the reasons for the protracted displacement. Understanding the broader context helps to identify the dynamics and political obstacles that need to be addressed to allow IDPs to move towards durable solutions. For instance, while a lack of livelihoods and poverty is a common impact of protracted displacement, training programmes are of limited value if discrimination is the main obstacle to accessing jobs and other sources of income and no measures are taken to reduce it.

The causes of protracted internal displacement are many, overlapping, highly contextual and in some cases challenging to identify. The initial cause of displacement may remain, such as an intractable conflict. Alternatively, broader impacts associated with long-term conflict or a severe disaster may have created new challenges, such as the lack of livelihood opportunities or lost identification documents that are essential for accessing social services and benefiting from housing-reconstruction schemes. Protracted displacement may be linked to more visible elements, such as a lack of housing and livelihoods or weak infrastructure in return areas. In other cases, less visible impediments, such as discrimination against minority returnees, traumatic memories linked to violence or deadly disaster, or administrative and legal hurdles may hinder solutions. Sometimes protracted displacement occurs because a Government lacks sufficient capacity to support progress towards durable solutions. In other situations, IDPs are not allowed to move ahead to meet a party’s broader objectives within a conflict, or they are kept in limbo because pre-existing discrimination is exacerbated following a disaster.

Overall, the case studies suggest that protracted conflict, a lack of political will, and countries’ inadequate normative and institutional frameworks to address...
and prevent protracted displacement are particularly relevant. A lack of dedicated financial resources is also often mentioned as an obstacle. Nevertheless, an analysis of each specific situation is necessary to establish the main reasons why IDPs cannot move towards durable solutions.

I. Lack of safety and security

Concern about personal safety is one of the most common impediments to finding a durable solution. It can undermine sustainable reintegration at the place of origin or motivate IDPs otherwise willing to return to remain in protracted displacement in their current location. This is particularly true where conflict is ongoing or vulnerability to recurrent disasters remains high.

Currently, the return of displaced people is very low, largely due to unresolved conflicts that “are more intractable and less conducive to political resolution” than earlier conflicts. But even once the conflict has ended, landmines and other unexploded ordnance, a continued presence of military or other armed actors, or the location of return areas next to militarized zones can pose security risks. Such risks may also stem from militias or criminal gangs that may emerge following the demobilization of non-State armed groups. In Mindanao, Philippines, for example, ongoing conflict and ensuing repeated displacement are the key obstacles for IDPs to find durable solutions. In Somalia, violence in areas of origin exacerbated by the absence of State presence makes sustainable returns often impossible. In Colombia, secondary displacements triggered by high levels of crime and violence in urban areas may jeopardize local integration.

Conflict and violence between IDPs and the broader community may also pose safety threats in areas of local integration, return or relocation, such as intracommunal and intercommunal conflict over water and land access that can lead to deadly confrontations. In some cases, local integration may be affected by security problems, e.g., where host communities reject IDPs through violent means, or where high levels of criminality or the presence of armed groups in urban areas trigger secondary displacement. In disaster contexts, recurrent short-term natural hazards or the threat of future deadly hazards may lead to protracted displacement when the places of origin are deemed too dangerous, or when the recurrent losses are too substantial for continued habitation and alternative housing or land are not easily or quickly identified.

II. Political obstacles

As highlighted by IDMC, factors leading to displacement “becoming protracted and obstacles to solutions are often political in nature” in disaster contexts as well as in conflict situations.

A failure to resolve long-standing armed conflict through a political settlement is often the primary reason why IDPs cannot return to their places of origin and instead remain in protracted internal displacement, particularly when the State lacks effective control over the entire territory. While recognizing the serious challenges inherent in resolving protracted conflict, former UN Secretary-General Ban
Ki-moon asserted that the international community failed to provide the “more sustained, intense and concerted political and financial investment to prevent and end conflicts,” noting that greater resources were made available for humanitarian assistance in 2014 than for special political and peacekeeping missions combined.234

The politicization of internal displacement situations and the insistence on return can also be obstacles to local integration. In some contexts, IDPs may find themselves used as pawns to advance other political objectives. In frozen conflicts, IDPs “are often prevented from integrating locally, because political decision makers calculate that continued pressure to return will uphold their territorial claims,”235 or because local authorities primarily want to cater for their local voters and therefore channel their limited resources to the local poor rather than to IDPs.236 Such policies often result in limited access to housing and services for IDPs, thus keeping IDPs in protracted displacement where local integration would be a more realistic and adequate policy response. This is exacerbated in situations where waiting for return “dissuade[s] IDPs from investing in their present living situations” or where obstacles to local integration “lead[s] to premature and unsustainable return, resulting in renewed displacement.”237

III. Obstacles related to economic, social and cultural rights

Insufficient access to livelihoods, adequate housing, education, health services or psychosocial support is a very common reason why large numbers of IDPs cannot rebuild their lives and move towards durable solutions.

An inability to access sufficient livelihood opportunities after many months or years can keep IDPs in perpetual states of poverty. Access to adequate livelihoods is one of the most important reasons why IDPs are impeded from gradually improving their overall situation, because livelihoods are also linked with access to health care, education for their children or improving their housing situation.

Some IDPs may have sufficient savings to start businesses or find jobs soon after arriving in a new destination,240 but most have lost or left behind their assets and arrive with no or little resources. Factors such as high levels of unemployment, discrimination in accessing labour markets or IDPs lacking the necessary skills, contacts or expertise to gain employment often hinder their ability to find employment and can take years to overcome. In Somalia, for instance, even though the

Text Box 8: Political Obstacles: Georgia and Azerbaijan in the 1990s and early 2000s

Until the introduction of a new strategy in Georgia in 2007, IDPs were subject to a special legal regime that deliberately made local integration difficult. This policy kept many of them in run-down collective shelters, excluded them from acquiring property, limited their right to marry by prescribing that everyone married to a non-IDP would lose State support, created obstacles for their economic integration and limited their political rights.238 This legal regime was largely motivated by fears that these ethnic Georgians would not return to Abkhazia at a later stage if they were allowed to locally integrate.

Similar considerations led Azerbaijan to provide separate schools for ethnic Azerbaijanis who were displaced in the early 1990s from Nagorno-Karabakh and to build housing for them in isolated areas.239
unemployment rate of IDPs is only slightly higher than that of the host community in Mogadishu, IDPs are more likely to work as daily workers (47 per cent) than members of the host community (30 per cent).\textsuperscript{241} The obstacles for people displaced from rural areas to integrate in urban labour markets are often more pronounced than for rural-urban migrants. Such IDPs were not able to prepare for the move. In most cases they had to flee unexpectedly, did not always find a pre-existing family or community network at the place of refuge and were often traumatized.

IDPs also commonly face administrative and legal barriers to accessing education and other services, finding employment or establishing new businesses when they are unable to replace personal documentation\textsuperscript{243} that was left behind, lost, destroyed or confiscated in the conflict or disaster situation or during flight.\textsuperscript{244} The same can be true for those who never possessed documentation in the first place, such as when people from rural areas are displaced to urban centres, where having documentation becomes essential. In other situations, the fact that IDPs have little or no access to higher education means that young IDPs remain stuck in a labour market that provides them only with low-income jobs, thus perpetuating the low social status of their displaced parents.\textsuperscript{245}

Perhaps one of the most essential elements of finding a durable solution for displacement is ensuring that displaced people have adequate housing, including the key aspect of security of tenure.\textsuperscript{246} However, due to an inability to improve livelihoods over time, many IDPs may lack the money to rebuild their homes or rent adequate housing. Consequently, they are forced to remain in camps, collective centres, shared accommodation or irregular settlements\textsuperscript{247} for prolonged periods. It is difficult for IDPs to rebuild their lives when they are repeatedly evicted from irregular settlements or when settlements are not linked to basic services, infrastructure, such as water and sanitation and roads, and lack market connectivity.\textsuperscript{248} The same is true when their health is deteriorating, or when their children receive little or no formal education because access to basic services is blocked due to administrative obstacles, outright discrimination or lack of resources.

\textbf{Text Box 9: Livelihoods}\textsuperscript{242}

\textbf{Ukraine:} As well as the overall economic downturn of Ukraine in recent years, structural problems, such as widespread poverty, high levels of unemployment, very low salaries in many economic sectors, a potential lack of marketable skills, an unfriendly environment for starting a small business and increasing social tensions, further undermine IDPs’ ability to rebuild their lives and integrate into communities.

\textbf{Mindanao, Philippines:} Repeated short-term displacement is perceived by authorities and the international community only as a humanitarian problem, which weakens the resilience of IDPs and host communities. For instance, a lack of investment in livelihoods may force IDPs to sell productive assets, while the absence of schooling in evacuation sites jeopardizes the education of repeatedly displaced youth.

\textbf{Colombia:} Livelihood opportunities are limited due to a lack of marketable skills for urban labour markets, particularly for IDPs with rural backgrounds or those who belong to indigenous and Afro-descendant communities. Further, insufficient access for IDP youth to higher education, which, in the Colombian context, is essential for moving out of poverty, is a factor keeping IDPs in protracted displacement.
Even when reconstruction or housing assistance schemes are in place, a backlog in construction, ineffective financial distribution processes, or delays in verifying land titles over the reconstruction site can delay IDPs from moving into a permanent structure. Challenges in verifying land tenure or restitution of property left behind include destroyed or lost documents (including Government archives), the non-recognition of customary forms of property and land tenure, domestic laws that prohibit widows from inheriting land title from their husbands, a lack of administration capacity or the absence of dispute-resolution procedures.

Many IDPs are traumatized by violence they experienced or witnessed, the loss or disappearance of family members or the experience of displacement. Despite this, they are often left without access to mental health services. As the World Bank found, “experience of loss and trauma distinguishes [IDPs] from other poor people and from economic migrants in their host communities.” Increasing evidence indicates “that this can hamper an individual’s ability to build relationships and to seize economic opportunities,” thereby reducing their capacity to rebuild their lives. This inability to move ahead may be also linked to the fact that the “experience of losing assets is distinct from that of poverty,” as is suddenly falling into extreme poverty and destitution, and “is different from being poor” and “may have an additional impact on the sense of dignity of the displaced.”

IV. Obstacles related to civil and political rights

The fact that IDPs may be unable to replace lost or destroyed personal documentation even years after their initial displacement impedes their ability to become self-sufficient. It can also contribute to protracted displacement if such documents are essential to move freely, access social services, qualify for reconstruction or compensation funds, purchase or rent housing and land, enroll in school, vote and find employment. The issuance or replacement of personal identification may be delayed because of a backlog by central or local government officials in light of high demand, the fact that Government offices have also been affected by a disaster, or processes may be expensive, complicated or viewed as corrupt.

In other situations, local integration may be hindered when IDPs are unable to register as residents in areas where they found refuge, thus limiting their access to several rights, including the right to vote in local elections.

Discrimination can play a powerful, although potentially less visible, role in perpetuating protracted displacement. Discriminatory practices of local authorities towards IDPs belonging to an ethnic or religious minority may limit access to education and health services in areas of refuge. In other cases, discrimination linked to the conflict can hinder sustainable return where, based on ethnic or religious origin, IDPs are deprived of access to livelihoods, adequate housing or education. The inability to access education in a language of choice may also be an important obstacle for return.
Restrictions on freedom of movement, linked not only to poor infrastructure but also frozen or ongoing conflicts, can be obstacles to finding durable solutions. For example, after 2008, IDPs in Georgia faced increasing restrictions crossing between Abkhazia and Georgia, which made it difficult for returnees, who faced an overall unemployment rate of 95 per cent, to sell their harvest from subsistence farming, collect IDP benefits, visit their families or access health services. For other IDPs in Georgia, it was difficult to access arable land at all or to be allocated land to allow for self-sufficiency despite repeated requests.

Inefficient, poorly executed or politicized mechanisms for the restitution of property or compensation for lost or destroyed property may be major obstacles to return for prolonged periods, as illustrated, for instance, by experiences in Bosnia-Herzegovina and Kosovo. Also, IDPs in protracted displacement may not have received adequate information in time to comply with requirements to benefit from such mechanisms, or IDPs may lack the financial resources, documents or freedom of movement to access them.

V. Aid dependency and other side effects of humanitarian action

Particularly when IDPs are forced to remain in camp or camp-like settings without freedom of movement or are otherwise deprived of access to livelihoods, they may have no other option than to rely on humanitarian assistance to meet their basic needs. At the same time, a lack of broader livelihood and development interventions to address the needs of host communities who also face poverty may result in community tensions, as well as people coming to IDP camps or settlements on distribution days. Over time, this reliance can develop into aid dependency that contributes to an overall stagnation in displaced people’s progress towards self-sufficiency and finding a durable solution.

Aid agencies confirm that when displaced people “do not have formal livelihoods opportunities and employment rights, they are more likely to become dependent on humanitarian aid and cannot contribute to economic growth, social services and public sector revenues.” In many long-term displacement contexts, this dependency emerges when short-term humanitarian grants are used as “an expensive and ineffective safety net of first resort” in the absence of other measures to reduce vulnerability over multi-year planning cycles. Humanitarian action is not designed to enable long-term sustainable development outcomes. This means that IDPs generally receive short-term interventions funded through unpredictable, ad hoc mechanisms, and they risk losing the small gains they may have been able to achieve if funding dries up from one year to the next.

Another perceived trend is that when development action is not well executed by humanitarians, it may result in other adverse impacts, such as reduced funding and lower-quality development overall, which arguably further perpetuates protracted displacement.
VI. Limited development, weak capacity of competent authorities, and lack of appropriate normative and institutional frameworks

The implementation of durable solutions is particularly difficult in contexts facing overall fragility and low levels of development. For example, the absence of infrastructure, insufficient access to basic services and weak governmental presence are common impediments for people planning to return. In some contexts, IDPs may be explicitly excluded from benefiting from development interventions because of perceptions that IDPs are viewed as “foreigners” taking advantage of social services and negatively impacting the economy. In light of public sentiment and despite evidence that displacement is likely to last for an extended period of time, political leaders may still perceive, or choose to present, displacement as a temporary issue and thus omit IDPs from local economic and social development programmes. Development strategies may also not integrate durable solutions strategies, such as by failing to fully recognize or allocate sufficient financial resources or capacity to local authorities in areas where IDPs return, integrate or relocate.

Even when significant development efforts are under way in a country with protracted displacement, IDPs may not be recognized as a group with specific needs within such plans and programmes. In some contexts, IDPs may be explicitly excluded from benefiting from development interventions because of perceptions that IDPs are viewed as “foreigners” taking advantage of social services and negatively impacting the economy. In light of public sentiment and despite evidence that displacement is likely to last for an extended period of time, political leaders may still perceive, or choose to present, displacement as a temporary issue and thus omit IDPs from local economic and social development programmes. Development strategies may also not integrate durable solutions strategies, such as by failing to fully recognize or allocate sufficient financial resources or capacity to local authorities in areas where IDPs return, integrate or relocate.

More specifically, the absence of specific normative frameworks, such as IDP laws or durable solutions policies and strategies, significantly contributes to protracted displacement situations. Even with political will, Governments are unable to assume their responsibility to create conditions necessary for durable solutions in the absence of frameworks that designate responsibilities to specific authorities and authorize budget and resource allocations. Key institutional problems affecting assistance to IDPs identified in the context of this study include:

- The lack of interministerial coordination mechanisms to address and prevent protracted internal displacement.
- Overlapping powers of different ministries and authorities at central levels leading to a lack of clarity over who is responsible for what.
- Allocation of responsibility for internal displacement to a special authority that has insufficient capacity and resources and lacks the power to coordinate relevant line ministries.
- Allocation of responsibilities and tasks to local governments without strengthening their capacity and allocating the necessary resources.
- Development plans and budgets for local governments that are based on regular (registered) or pre-crisis population figures, rather than the de facto population, which would include IDPs.

Even where internal displacement is addressed in development plans, programmes and projects, or where displacement-specific laws, policies and strategies exists, the lack of capacity of central or local authorities may undermine their implementation. Local governments...
who are among the front-line responders are often institutionally too weak or lack the political will to assume their responsibilities vis-à-vis IDPs. Alternatively, they may not be provided with the necessary resources by the central Government, often because financial transfers to subnational and local levels are calculated based on the number of regular residents, which does not include IDPs.283

VII. Lack of appropriate responses by international actors

Insufficient responses by international humanitarian and development actors may also contribute to protracted displacement. Solutions to protracted displacement are jeopardized by the notorious lack of funding for protracted displacement and the problem of short-term (one year) funding cycles for humanitarian action even when needs span decades. The commonly recognized weak cooperation between humanitarian and development actors in terms of programming and implementation also pose challenges. When short-term, fragmented strategies to address protracted displacement prevail over longer-term holistic programming, they risk “breed[ing] exclusion, poverty, degradation, possible radicalization, and new conflict and violence as well as significant economic and fiscal pressure on […] countries.”284

More specifically, the failure to develop comprehensive, multi-stakeholder strategies or plans to address the multiple causes and impacts of protracted displacement can contribute to the ever-greater prolongation of displacement situations.285 Development actors have been providing assistance to IDPs for decades as part of their ongoing development programmes. However, these programmes rarely explicitly address IDPs’ displacement-specific needs as distinct from the larger population. Furthermore, in many protracted displacement situations, international humanitarian and development actors develop separate national plans and fundraising appeals often in the same areas affected by displacement, but based on different target groups, baseline data,

Text Box 10: Lack of appropriate legal and policy frameworks to address protracted displacement282

Unlike Colombia, which has very advanced legal and institutional frameworks, DRC’s governmental leadership regarding durable solutions is weak. The country has neither an IDP law (a draft is pending with Parliament since 2014) nor a durable solutions strategy adopted by the national Government. At the same time, relevant ministries and authorities with assigned responsibility for displacement issues focus on humanitarian assistance, and they have an overlapping lack of a national legal framework that clearly sets out roles and responsibilities for respective Government ministries at all levels of government, including financing mechanisms and coordination with international actors.

In Ukraine, in addition to the ongoing conflict, a major challenge will be insufficient Government attention to addressing displacement as a matter of priority, linked to the absence of a comprehensive and operational solutions strategy or action plan. Inconsistencies in or contradictions between provisions of several legal instruments in different policy areas exacerbate the situation, as do inadequate human and financial resources, particularly at the level of local governments.

In Somalia, Puntland and Somaliland have IDP strategies that cover durable solutions. No legal or policy framework exists for Mogadishu, where more than one third of Somalia’s IDPs live in protracted displacement.
goals and timelines and working with
different branches of national authorities.
In other situations, comprehensive, multi-
year and multipartner strategies have been
developed by international actors, but
national authorities and international donors
did not prioritize their implementation
despite being involved in the process.286

These challenges for integrated planning
are compounded by different relationship
styles for working with national authorities,
a still-common perception that international
assistance should begin with a humanitarian
phase followed by a development phase,
and donors’ earmarking of funds as either
development or humanitarian in nature.287
Over time, particularly when humanitarian
actors can no longer sustain basic
assistance or provide adequate longer-term
programming, such as in relation to livelihood
development, this “division of labour” can
result in IDPs living without the assistance
and social and economic conditions
they need to find durable solutions.

VIII. Severe, sequential or
repeated natural hazards

The long-term or repeated impacts of
natural hazards can contribute to an overall
reduction in the resilience of displaced
people to rebuild their lives, particularly
in disaster situations that severely impact
infrastructure and livelihoods and render
places of origin inhabitable. For example, the
long-term effects of a hazard could include
storm surges that result in the salinification
of arable lands, while long-lasting hazards,
such as drought, can result in multiple
seasons of reduced grazing lands and
lost livestock. Both can contribute to the
impoverishment of displaced people and
an inability to replenish financial reserves or
rebuild lost assets. Similarly, over time, even
small-scale hazards that repeatedly affect the
same vulnerable communities that lack the
capacity to withstand their impacts can lead
to protracted displacement situations.288

IX. Other reasons

Because each protracted displacement
situation is complex, the list of reasons
for protracted displacement is essentially
indeterminate and dependent on contextual
factors. Additional reasons include:

- Illegitimate control over IDPs: In Somalia,
  the existence of so-called gatekeepers,
  i.e., people who provide IDPs with land
  where they can settle but who also
  profit from their presence, may prevent
  IDPs from finding durable solutions.
  Gatekeepers typically control access
to the international community, local
NGOs and even State authorities. They
often divert humanitarian assistance and
otherwise profit from the presence of
IDPs.289 In Colombia, criminal groups that
exert control over urban settlements with
large numbers of IDPs and profit from
selling water and electricity diverted from
State-run infrastructure services might
have similar economic incentives to keep
people in protracted displacement.290

- In post-conflict situations, the absence
  of transitional justice mechanisms to
  hold perpetrators accountable for
  serious violations of international
  human rights and humanitarian law
  may be a further obstacle to creating
  conditions for durable solutions.
In some situations, protracted internal displacement is caused by the premature return of refugees before adequate conditions have been met for them to seek durable solutions. This may lead to their protracted internal displacement.  

For the schools that are still operational in Yemen, there are 2-3 shifts of faculty and staff that must come in to the schools in order to accommodate growing number of students, including IDPs.

Credit: OCHA
PART 4
Collective outcomes: a new way to address protracted internal displacement

I. Notion

A collective outcome in areas such as internal displacement can be described as “a commonly agreed result or impact in reducing people’s needs, risks and vulnerabilities and increasing their resilience” that is realistic, “strategic, clear, quantifiable, and measurable,” and achieved through the combined effort of Governments, humanitarian and development actors and, where appropriate, peace and security actors at national and local, regional and international levels, as well as bilateral and multilateral donors.

More specifically, in the context of protracted internal displacement, the outcome is a measurable reduction of IDPs’ vulnerability and an increase of their self-sufficiency and resilience, which enables them to achieve, or at least move towards, durable solutions in the three scenarios outlined above (Part 1.III.2). Part 5 discusses the result of this and what processes are required to agree on it.

Working towards such collective outcomes requires a diverse set of actors building on their respective strengths and advantages to

**“reinforce local leadership and ownership; transcend the humanitarian-development divide while ensuring full respect for humanitarian principles; increase preparedness and risk-driven planning and programming; create diverse partnerships and alliances to tackle specific challenges; and provide coherent and aligned financing to enable these shifts.”**

To be effective, the “collective” of those working towards such outcomes includes, depending on the circumstances, most or all of the following actors:

- The governments at national and sub-national or local levels in countries affected by protracted displacement, as under international law the primary responsibility for creating the conditions necessary to achieve durable solutions rests with them.

- The international community with humanitarian and development organizations and agencies and, depending on the context, peace and security, human rights or DRR actors, as well as international financial institutions and bilateral donors, supporting, complementing and, in cases where Governments are unable to act, substituting for governmental action.

- Civil society and the private sector as key partners.
IDPs and affected local communities, particularly host communities as well as communities that (re-)integrate displaced people as not only beneficiaries but also agents of change.

II. Background

The need to improve cooperation between relevant actors and collective action has been recognized within the United Nations for decades. The adoption of the UN’s “Delivering as One” framework was an important step to address this challenge. It primarily addresses development actors who are expected to cooperate within the framework of results-based management, a concept very similar to that of collective outcomes. On the humanitarian side, the 2005 adoption of the IASC Cluster Approach was an effort to enhance cooperation, leadership and predictable financing in order to make humanitarian response more effective, particularly regarding improving protection and assistance to IDPs. Regarding durable solutions for IDPs, decision No. 2011/20 of the UN Secretary-General on Durable Solutions was adopted in 2011. Under the decision, the Resident/Humanitarian Coordinator, with support from UNHCR and UNDP and, where present, the Early Recovery and Protection Clusters, is tasked with leading “the development of a Strategy for Durable Solutions for Displaced People, determining the most appropriate approach [...] in consultation with national authorities and other partners.” To date, the decision has had a limited impact. Reasons include the fact that it only applies to durable solutions following a conflict, is limited to certain UN actors, and refers neither to the roles and responsibilities of Governments nor to civil society. It also fails to establish a clear link to National Development Plans as a key instrument to ensure a cross-cutting approach involving all relevant ministries and authorities at national and subnational or local levels. And the decision does not oblige actors to be outcome oriented.

As part of broader conversations on cultivating greater system-wide coherence among international institutions in their support to States, some progress was made to improve collaboration between humanitarian and development actors. However, these efforts alone were insufficient to reverse the trend of increased protracted internal displacement. Recognizing the unsustainability of this situation, former UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon called for a “fundamental shift in our approach to internal displacement [...] one that goes from meeting immediate humanitarian needs to one that preserves the dignity and improves the lives and self-reliance of displaced persons.” In particular, the Secretary-General highlighted that for “those displaced within their own countries, not being left behind means the ability to return to their homes, to be better integrated into their host communities, or to be settled elsewhere if needed.” He urged the international community “to collectively work towards a clear, ambitious and quantifiable target for reducing new and protracted internal displacement, in a dignified and safe manner” by 50 per cent by the year 2030. He also encouraged “[h]umanitarian and development actors [...] to work collaboratively across silos and mandates to implement plans with a clear and measurable collective outcome” to reach this goal.
In late 2016, the UN General Assembly endorsed collective outcomes as a general concept. It encouraged humanitarian and development actors to cooperate in coordination with Governments “to ensure that all relevant actors work together, in accordance with their mandates, towards common results with the aim of reducing need, vulnerability and risk over multiple years, based on shared understanding of the context and each actor’s operational strengths, in support of national priorities, while fully respecting the importance of humanitarian principles for humanitarian action.”

This was a clear and strong endorsement of the New Way of Working suggested by the UN Secretary-General and supported by humanitarian and development actors at the 2016 World Humanitarian Summit. This approach puts the emphasis on meeting “people’s immediate humanitarian needs while at the same time reducing risk and vulnerability over multiple years through the achievement of collective outcomes.”

These commitments are in line with the SDGs’ strong message of “no one left behind”, which is particularly important for IDPs in protracted displacement, as the SDGs recognize internal displacement as an obstacle to sustainable development. The SDGs explicitly cover IDPs as one of the categories of vulnerable people who need to be empowered and included in the commitment “to take further effective measures and actions, in conformity with international law, to remove obstacles and constraints, strengthen support and meet the special needs of people living in areas affected by complex humanitarian emergencies and in areas affected by terrorism.”

**Text Box 11: A broadly emerging consensus on addressing protracted internal displacement**

The Wilton Park Principles on New Approaches to Protracted Forced Displacement emphasize the need for new thinking that focuses on working “through national and local systems” and “entails not only humanitarian and development partners working together differently but also collaborating with a broader range of international and regional peace and security actors and the private sector.” At the regional level, the EU Council highlights that protracted displacement cannot be addressed by humanitarian actors alone, as it is “a political, human rights, security, developmental and economic challenge.” Thus, the consensus on the need for holistic approaches has grown out of an acknowledgement that efforts to find truly durable solutions “must be framed by broader peacebuilding and state-building discourses, and that final resolution of protracted displacement is contingent on the (re)building of viable state governance structures,” which can take decades and extend well beyond the mandates of humanitarian organizations. The former Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of Internally Displaced Persons has also urged “humanitarian and development actors to work together differently and collaboratively towards collective outcomes in the measurable reduction of displacement and achieving durable solutions for such persons.” Furthermore, the Solutions Alliance, a network of relevant organizations and interested States, promotes “collaborative approaches between humanitarian and development actors to enable the transition of displaced persons away from dependency on aid towards increased resilience, self-reliance, and development while also supporting solutions to protracted displacement.”

"305 306 307 308 309 310 311 312"
III. Finding common understandings and forging partnerships

1. Different roles and perspectives

Moving towards collective outcomes requires close cooperation between humanitarian and development actors in displacement situations. The difficulties of such cooperation should not be underestimated. At the same time, the fact that they “have different objectives, counterparts, and instruments” can, as recently stressed by the World Bank, also “be a source of strength. They can contribute to a comprehensive effort from the onset, learn from each other, and build synergies based on their respective comparative advantages.”

Strong cooperation requires mutual understanding for each other’s specific perspectives. Humanitarian actors generally focus on needs and vulnerabilities and regard IDPs as beneficiaries of protection and assistance. Their planning horizons are usually short term with a weak focus on the sustainability of their interventions, as they are “measured and held to account on the basis of short-term outputs, such as the quantity of food aid delivered.”

In conflict situations, they tend to work separately from and largely independently of Governments, particularly when Governments are a party to the conflict or view IDPs as supporting their enemies. In contrast, development agencies’ approach puts an emphasis on strengthening States’ capacity to address people’s needs, largely focuses on poverty and its alleviation, and “is centered on such concepts as economic opportunity, medium-term sustainability, and cost-effectiveness. It sees the forcibly displaced and their hosts as economic agents who make choices and respond to incentives. It pays particular attention to institutions and policies. And it relies on partnerships with and between governments, the private sector, and civil society.”

However, the distinction between humanitarian and development action is not always sharp, and some humanitarian actors, such as ICRC or UNHCR, also invest in long-term, development-oriented activities, while development actors may also engage in humanitarian action, as illustrated by UNDP’s role in leading the Early Recovery Cluster. The two types of activities may overlap on a continuum between the two poles of emergency assistance on the one hand and development interventions at a macroeconomic level on the other hand. Thus, for instance, humanitarian actors work in a development rather than humanitarian mode when they invest in long-term livelihoods or build schools that will remain after they depart. At the same time, development interventions in areas affected by ongoing conflict or disasters often contain humanitarian elements. [Figure 6]

2. Challenges

Traditional understandings of the respective roles of humanitarian and development actors are clearly inadequate to address and prevent protracted displacement.

In certain circumstances, a clear division of roles is required by humanitarian principles. However, sometimes for good reason, humanitarian action has been criticized for being “self contained, working outside
government systems and reliant on imported material and personnel, supporting displaced individuals in internally displaced persons camps with food and non-food assistance.”

Such action risks undermining the capacity of affected communities and local service providers and businesses to recover from the shocks of violence or disasters triggering displacement. In Haiti, for example, where most basic services are provided by private actors, it was found that providing free health care, water and education by humanitarian actors beyond the initial response “had a negative effect on private providers of these services”. The consequence was that “[s]everal private hospitals and schools have gone bankrupt since the [2010] earthquake.”

More generally, humanitarian services provided “in camps, collective shelters and IDP settlements may disappear quickly when humanitarian actors leave after the emergency phase, or they may deteriorate when displacement becomes protracted and humanitarian funding decreases,” potentially leaving people worse off than they were in the immediate aftermath of displacement if these services are not subsequently provided by others.

Development actors have historically associated the response to internal displacement, including finding durable solutions with humanitarian assistance “as if forced displacement was a short-term crisis without impact on national development.”

Consequently,

“Most development programming, including at the international financial institutions (IFIs), has not considered […] IDPs to be part of the target population for social protection, livelihoods assistance, health, education or local infrastructure, despite the high poverty rates prevalent in these groups and the long duration of displacement (17 years spans more than the full educational cycle for a young displaced child, for example).”

Even when development actors have included IDPs in area-based programmes, they were often unaware of or unresponsive to the specific situations and needs of displaced people that may affect their ability to fully benefit from development programming. For example, discrimination by host communities or the prevalence of trauma and other mental problems associated with displacement may seriously affect IDPs’ ability to successfully compete in local labour markets.

To be able to work together, humanitarian actors must accept that IDPs are not just beneficiaries and objects of humanitarian action but also, as recognized by the Wilton Park Principles, “agents with the human capital to build their own future and contribute to national development and...”

The humanitarian-development continuum.

Figure 6
growth.” Thus, humanitarians must be ready to adopt a development lens and use proven and effective approaches for implementing development programmes and projects (e.g., investment in building local capacity, community participation, cooperation with the private sector). Development actors must understand that IDPs are not just poor, but they may have specific needs and vulnerabilities not necessarily shared by poor, non-displaced community members. They need to build up what could be called “emergency development capacity,” i.e., the capacity to work in highly volatile environments with short- to mid-term rather than long-term perspectives.

3. Common values – compatible concepts

Humanitarian and development actors need to become more familiar with each other’s concepts, notions and terminology. They essentially need to become “bilingual” in order to transcend, at times, artificial institutional divides and develop and implement collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement. Likewise, “multilingualism” will be required in situations where development and humanitarian actors also have to work with peacebuilding actors, who may focus on achieving “stability” and view IDPs in terms of their potentially positive or negative roles within complex conflict and peace dynamics.

Despite their differences in approach, humanitarian and development actors can find common ground if they understand that they share common values and concepts that, while not identical, are compatible. For example:

- Saving lives AND fulfilling dignity and equality: Where humanitarians invoke the imperative of saving lives, UN development actors support the implementation of the SDGs whose aim is “to end poverty and hunger, in all their forms and dimensions, and to ensure that all human beings can fulfil their potential in dignity and equality [...].” The World Bank Group strives to lift people out of extreme poverty, a state that it calls “morally unacceptable.”
  For all actors, the dignity of the human person is at the centre of activities.

- Needs and vulnerabilities AND poverty and fragility: Where humanitarians speak about needs and vulnerabilities, development actors refer to poverty and fragility. The concept of resilience, which aims to help “countries and communities develop capacities to withstand and recover from shocks and stresses, and to adapt and rebuild in such a way that future shocks and stresses have minimal impacts on societies and households” can, as UNDP highlights, bring “together humanitarian and development interventions in crisis situations.” In other words, resilience helps to manage crises. For development actors, managing crisis risks ensures that development gains are sustainable and protected from shocks. For humanitarians, it is a way to anticipate crisis and ensure that sound risk analysis, risk reduction and preparedness are also a priority in order to fully advance the core humanitarian principle of humanity.

- Beneficiaries AND area-based approach: Humanitarians often focus on the needs of beneficiaries, but development actors favour area-based approaches. These apparently contradictory approaches can be overcome if humanitarians
adopt the concept of displacement-affected communities, which recognizes that displacement not only affects IDPs but also the communities and regions surrounding them (e.g., host communities and communities at the place of return or relocation).

Protection needs AND human rights-based approach AND safeguards: Where humanitarians invoke needs related to human rights protection as driving their response, the UN development organizations, agencies and programmes talk about human rights-based approaches to development. International financial institutions, such as the World Bank, invoke the notion of safeguards, which “serve to identify, avoid, and minimize harm to people […]” and include requirements such as social impact assessments and consultation with affected communities. These concepts are different and do not necessarily apply to the same contexts, but they complement rather than contradict each other at a conceptual level.

More particularly, and as noted previously, clear parallels regarding addressing protracted displacement and finding durable solutions for IDPs also exist between some development approaches and the IASC Framework on Durable Solutions.

The Impoverishment Risk and Reconstruction Model (hereinafter referred to as the IRR model), developed by Michael Cernea in the 1990s, is particularly helpful in understanding and properly addressing such processes from a development perspective.

The IRR model “highlights the intrinsic risks of sub-processes that cause impoverishment through forced relocation, as well as the ways to counteract – eliminate or mitigate – such risks.” Impoverishment is understood as the loss of “(i) natural capital, (ii) man/woman-made physical capital, (iii) human capital and (iv) social capital.” The model identifies eight risks or processes that cause impoverishment of people affected by involuntary resettlement. They are landlessness, joblessness, homelessness, marginalization, food insecurity, increased morbidity and mortality, loss of access to common property and services, and social disarticulation.

Cernea argues that it is possible to reconstruct the livelihoods of involuntarily resettled people by addressing these risks through processes that lead

“a) from landlessness to land-based resettlement; b) from joblessness to reemployment; c) from homelessness to house reconstruction; d) from marginalization to social inclusion; e) from food insecurity to adequate nutrition; f) from increased morbidity to improved health care; g) from loss of common property to restoration of community assets and services; h) from social disarticulation to rebuilding of networks and community.”

The IASC Framework on Durable Solutions and the rights enshrined in the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement set out the necessary elements for achieving a durable solution for internal displacement. Inspired by a human rights framework, these elements include: 1) long-term safety, security and freedom of movement; 2) an adequate standard of living, including access to adequate food, housing and basic services; 3) access to employment and livelihoods; 4) access to effective mechanisms to have housing, land and property restored or compensation paid where restitution is not possible. Depending on the context,
elements may also include 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; and 8) effective remedies for displacement-related violations. 338

The elements of the IRR model and the IASC Framework on Durable Solutions are not identical, but to a large extent they overlap and are compatible with each other. This is important, as it indicates that common ground can be found with Governments and development actors, such as the World Bank Group, that do not use a human rights-based approach to development but instead focus on poverty and vulnerability.

**4. Are humanitarian principles an obstacle to collective outcomes?**

An organization’s decision not to join a collective outcome framework as a matter of principle and in accordance with its mandate does not raise problems. However, the question is sometimes raised whether the humanitarian principles339 of humanity, neutrality, impartiality and independence block humanitarian actors from working towards collective outcomes addressing protracted displacement. 340

Humanity is understood as the principle that “[h]uman suffering must be addressed wherever it is found” in order “to protect life and health and ensure respect for human beings.” It lies at the centre of humanitarian action. 341 Therefore, addressing protracted displacement is not only fully in line with this principle but may even be required by it, as prolonging protracted displacement may in fact extend suffering.

The principle of impartiality is also crucial, as it seeks to ensure that humanitarian action is guided by needs and carried out without discrimination on the basis of nationality, race, gender, religious belief, class or political opinions. It would be jeopardized if collective outcomes were formulated and implemented in a way that discriminates against certain communities, e.g., for political reasons or on account of ethnic origin. In the absence of discriminatory elements, however, impartiality does not create obstacles for humanitarian actors to join collective efforts.

Neutrality, meaning that humanitarian action “must not take sides in hostilities or engage in controversies of a political, racial, religious or ideological nature,” as well as the principle of independence, understood as requiring that “[h]umanitarian action must be autonomous from the political, economic, military or other objectives” of relevant actors, are not ends in themselves. Rather, they facilitate achieving the goal of addressing human suffering in an impartial manner, particularly by ensuring that humanitarian access in armed-conflict situations is not denied because humanitarian action is considered to be biased by one party to the conflict.

Independence and neutrality are sometimes misunderstood as meaning that humanitarian actors cannot support Governments in addressing protracted displacement.

Independence and neutrality are sometimes misunderstood as meaning that humanitarian actors cannot support Governments in addressing protracted displacement or peacebuilding partners, or support Governments in addressing protracted displacement and moving towards durable solutions. However, these principles “must not be misrepresented as a requirement to not interact with the state and its authorities.” 342 Independence, in particular, prohibits humanitarian actors from becoming...
dependent in ways that their actions would no longer be considered “autonomous from the political, economic, military or other objectives” of Governments and other stakeholders. This is not the case where a collective outcome defined by a Government is in line with human rights standards, particularly the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement and the IASC Framework on Durable Solutions. However, the principle of independence provides guidance in drawing red lines. For instance, independence would be jeopardized if collective outcomes were defined in ways that were discriminatory or otherwise violated fundamental values of humanitarian action (e.g., IDP relocations that serve the goal of “ethnically cleansing” a geographical area), or that served illegitimate interests of specific interested parties at the expense of IDPs’ and their hosts’ interests. Therefore, in specific cases, the principle of independence might be a bar to joint action.

It can be concluded that humanitarian principles do not per se prohibit humanitarian actors to join efforts to achieve collective outcomes. Rather, the principles of humanity and impartiality can provide important guidance insofar as they highlight the need to formulate collective outcomes in ways that respond to human suffering and are non-discriminatory. The principles also help to identify cases where collective outcomes or the manner of their implementation cannot be supported without compromising them. Particularly in situations where IDPs are located in areas directly affected by conflict (scenario 3), humanitarian actors should ask themselves whether joining a collective-outcome framework would undermine their relationship with one party to the conflict and thus affect their neutrality.

About 35 internally displaced Embera Cami families currently live at the settlement pictured, Chami Puru, in Caqueta, Colombia. The families were forced from their homes by armed guerillas and the threat of forced recruitment.

Credit: UNHCR/Sebastian Rich
PART 5
Achieving collective outcomes to prevent and reduce protracted displacement

“Aid is given ad hoc, justified as an activity and not as part of a systematic plan to enable people to reach any defined level of well-being. Project documents and monitoring systems all make it abundantly clear that aid is too often conceptualised as about what an agency gives and not about what people are able to access or to do as a result of the work of an agency.”


I. Overview: elements necessary to achieve collective outcomes

Collective outcomes could be useful for addressing any number of challenges, but the scale, complexity and urgency of addressing protracted displacement make it an obvious place for the international community to begin implementing the New Way of Working. The ever-growing global number of IDPs in protracted displacement underscores that humanitarian action alone is not enough. Reversing this trend requires strong political will and leadership by Governments of affected countries; concerted efforts by humanitarian, development and, depending on the circumstances, human rights, peace and security or DRR actors; and participation by IDPs and local communities.

Addressing the impacts and underlying causes of protracted displacement means taking actions that allow IDPs to progressively reduce the vulnerability, impoverishment and marginalization they face as displaced people and to increase their resilience. In some contexts, this may mean placing IDPs on a direct path towards finding a durable solution, particularly where the conflict or the effects of a disaster have ended, or when IDPs find themselves in a safe part of the country and want to integrate there (situations 1 and 2 as described above). In other circumstances, addressing protracted displacement may mean improving IDPs’ living conditions and reducing their vulnerability until viable durable solutions are possible, particularly where IDPs plan to return at a later time to a part of the country that is still unsafe, or when they find themselves in areas affected by an ongoing conflict or in a severe and chronic
disaster situation with long-lasting impacts (situations 2b and 3 described above)²⁴⁶).

In the context of protracted displacement, collective outcomes are agreements on where, when, how and to what extent IDPs can be brought out of protracted displacement. Achieving collective outcomes that address and prevent protracted displacement requires the following seven elements,²⁴⁷ which are essential parts of the New Way of Working but do not necessarily take place sequentially:

1. Creating the evidence base: Identifying the impacts of protracted internal displacement with respect to humanitarian, development, human rights, peace and security, and disaster risk reduction action, and identifying the underlying causes for displacement becoming protracted. Evidence should also help assess the capacities that IDPs and host communities possess to address and solve protracted displacement.

2. Defining collective outcomes: Agreeing on strategic, clear, quantifiable, measurable and achievable results.

3. Ensuring a strategic outlook by formulating a common problem statement: Reaching a common understanding of the underlying causes of the protractedness of each specific internal displacement situation and ensuing risks and obstacles; and developing strategies to address protracted displacement as informed by this analysis.

4. Integrating collective outcomes into relevant planning tools: Using national development plans as well as subnational and local development plans or other relevant plans, complemented by UN planning tools such as UN Development Assistance Frameworks (UNDAFs) and Humanitarian Response Plans (HRPs), to provide a sound basis for planning collective outcomes.

5. Promoting and creating normative and institutional frameworks conducive to achieving collective outcomes: Ensuring that Governments have adequate laws and policies and the institutional capacity to address or prevent protracted internal displacement, covering the full range of relevant ministries and authorities.

6. Implementing outcome-oriented programmes and projects: Moving from mandate-driven isolated projects to multi-year collaborative interventions that effectively address and prevent protracted displacement.

7. Securing transversal financing: Ensuring that financial resources are allocated in ways that transcend the humanitarian-
development divide to boost rather than undermine collective outcomes.

Implementation of these elements helps to monitor and evaluate whether interventions have the envisaged impact, thus enhancing the overall accountability of actors.

The sequence will be different depending on who defines collective outcomes (Governments, UN Country Teams, or other international or regional actors). For instance, the development of a collective outcome by a UN Country Team might begin with identifying or establishing an appropriate planning process followed by elements two and three, which will inform the agreement on the collective. In contrast, the collective outcome might already be predetermined by the Government and based on pre-existing evidence, leaving the UN Country Team with the task of planning its contribution to reaching that goal. In complex emergencies where the Government may not be in a position to define collective outcomes, an empowered RC/HC, drawing on the comparative advantages of members of the humanitarian and development communities, as well as, if necessary, peace and security actors in line with the concept of sustaining peace, may be in a better position to define collective outcomes that transcend horizontal institutional silos.

The following sections will explore each element in turn, identifying potential effective practices for each.

II. Creating the evidence base

“Making the case for a new approach requires much better evidence. We must better understand the costs and benefits of including [...] internally displaced people in national development plans, as well as the impacts of their economic participation on host communities and the wider economy. More evidence is needed about which interventions work and at what cost.” (World Bank Group/DFID/UNHCR, Forum on New Approaches to Protracted Forced Displacement, 2016)\textsuperscript{349}

1. Challenges

Comprehensive data and information spanning the humanitarian, development, human rights, disaster risk reduction and peace and security fields are essential for establishing an evidence base that allows for a nuanced analysis of the potentially vast impact and underlying causes of protracted internal displacement. Important progress has been made in recent years,\textsuperscript{350} but analysis of protracted displacement situations often lacks sufficient contextual analysis that compares the situations of IDPs with wider displacement-affected communities. Needs assessments also tend to favour humanitarian indicators that are insufficient to guide tailored development or peace and security strategies. The latter remain relevant for humanitarian action, particularly when conflict is ongoing, but development-related indicators become essential when the purpose of data collection shifts. Humanitarian assessments tend to view IDPs only as victims, neglecting the fact that they also are actors with specific capacities that, if properly supported, help them act as change agents to improve their situation. An essential component of this approach is ensuring that IDPs are informed of, consulted on and included in matters affecting them, as required by the Guiding Principles.\textsuperscript{351}
One way to ensure a full understanding of the relevant needs and interests of IDPs and their hosts is to shift from narrow needs-and-intention surveys to more comprehensive profiling of displacement situations. Profiling enables a comparative perspective between IDPs and host populations, includes and goes beyond needs, looks at capacities, and links IDPs’ intentions regarding durable solutions to a broader analysis of the opportunities and obstacles to achieving them.\(^\text{352}\)

Compounding these issues, and despite some progress made,\(^\text{353}\) there is a lack of systematic information sharing. Information sharing tends to be ad hoc, driven by personal relationships on a case-by-case basis, particularly if there is no established trust between organizations. This is particularly a problem in situations where development and Government actors may already have baseline data necessary to understand a local context and the gaps to improve the response (e.g., access to sanitation facilities in host communities), but this information is not made available to humanitarian actors. This is unlikely to change unless organizations begin using a responsible data-sharing framework to increase trust between partners and mitigate risks for affected communities.\(^\text{354}\)

2. Effective practices

Effective practices for Governments and international humanitarian and development actors to establish the evidence base necessary for addressing protracted internal displacement or preventing displacement becoming protracted include:

- Gathering relevant evidence through an open and collaborative process in cooperation with, and ideally under the leadership of, the Government and local and national authorities, and supported by the RC/HC, that include data relevant for development and humanitarian action.\(^\text{355}\)

- Ensuring that the profiling of internal displacement situations

  - Combines humanitarian and development indicators, operationalizing the 2010 IASC Framework on Durable Solutions for Internally Displaced Persons and,\(^\text{356}\) where relevant:
    - Addresses entire displacement-affected communities, and allows for a comparative analysis to identify the respective needs of IDPs, host families, non-host families and host communities as a whole.
    - Identifies not only needs but also capacities at local levels.
    - Links intention surveys to a broader analysis of the opportunities and obstacles for solutions.
    - Allows for geographical and regional distinctions, different patterns of displacement, and gender- and age-disaggregated analysis.

- Integrating displacement-related aspects within other evidence-gathering and analysis exercises, such as within political economy, security, disaster risk or market analyses.

- Ensuring the provision of sufficient resources and technical expertise from
In order for partners supporting durable solutions to base their work on adequate evidence, they must have an understanding of IDPs’ plans for the future, combined with a broader analysis of their situation and potential hurdles to realizing this future. For this purpose, quantitative approaches should be complemented by qualitative approaches to understand intentions from the perspective of the displaced people, and intentions surveys should never focus only on a narrow conception of intentions.

Focusing on IDPs’ preferred locations for durable solutions without a broader analysis of their current situation and the situation in the potential return or resettlement locations risks steering the focus to mere physical movement of populations, rather than to reducing their vulnerability. Similarly, intentions surveys carried out without having ensured that IDPs have the necessary information to make a decision for a durable solution will likely result in data that cannot be effectively used for concrete planning.

Interest in return is rarely as clear cut as many actors expect. Examples from some profiling exercises have shown that on occasions, populations are interested in returning but have no concrete plans for doing so, or they place specific prerequisites for the returns to happen (Goma, 2014, Côte d’Ivoire 2015). In other cases, IDPs have little interest in returning to the place of origin (Honduras 2015, Somalia 2015), and communities prefer the options of local integration or relocation to another place within the country due to safety reasons.

Different generations often perceive solutions differently, especially in displacement situations that have spanned many years. For example, the process in Kosovo of developing data-collection tools for a profiling exercise in consultation with the communities showed that younger generations born after the displacement considered return to the household’s place of origin more as a ‘relocation’ than as an option for a durable solution. In such situations, IDPs are increasingly less likely to return to their place of origin the longer the displacement lasts. However, older people, as indicated by examples from Serbia and Japan, may be more willing to return than younger IDPs once return becomes possible. In Cyprus, it was found that as IDPs economically integrated and created new identities and aspirations during their 20 years of displacement, some were likely to choose multiple settlement options if it later became possible to return, while particularly vulnerable IDPs were more likely to locally integrate.

III. Defining collective outcomes

1. The contextual nature of collective outcomes

Protracted internal displacement can occur within a variety of scenarios, as noted above (Part 1, III.2). Despite the vast diversity of situations, it is always possible to analyse the potential for addressing protracted displacement and preventing recent displacement from becoming protracted, even for a subset of

Text Box 12: Challenges and opportunities on gathering data on intentions for solutions

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the larger IDP population. At a minimum, it may be possible to reduce IDPs’ dependence on humanitarian assistance.

The formulation of concrete outcomes will always depend on the context, such as whether a conflict is ongoing, whether the Government regards IDPs as people supporting the other party to the conflict or civilians worthy of support, or whether a region’s economic situation is deteriorating or improving. It also depends on the availability of resources. Particularly important is the nature of a crisis (is it a conflict or disaster?) and the level of violence in cases of armed conflict (is it high or low intensity? Is there an emerging or achieved political settlement?) as, for instance, achievable results as well as contributions by development actors will be limited in areas affected by acute fighting. The formulation of collective outcomes will also depend on a Government’s role and capacity, e.g., whether or not it receives development assistance and has a budget for activities relevant for addressing protracted internal displacement.

Depending on the situation, agreed outcomes could, for instance, be formulated as:

- Achieving sustainable return, local integration or relocation for 200,000 IDPs in five locations within four years.
- Reducing the number of IDPs in absolute poverty in a defined area (city, province or country) by 50 per cent over a five-year period.
- Legalizing 15 irregular settlements with IDP populations and linking them to urban services within two years.
- Integrating 5,000 recently displaced IDPs into the local labour market in three locations by providing them with the necessary skills, resources and opportunities to prevent their displacement becoming protracted.
- Ensuring livelihoods for 1,000 IDP families from rural areas on the basis of non-exploitive rental contracts by providing them with access to agricultural land in peri-urban areas.

Agreements on collective outcomes also depend on who is formulating them:

- They may be determined by Governments: As recognized by

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### Role of international humanitarian, development, and peace actors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collective Outcome</th>
<th>Role of international actors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Determined by Government (National development plan; IDP law or policy)</td>
<td>Contributing to formulating and achieving the outcome based on shared understanding of the context and each actor’s operational strengths</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enshrined in a peace agreement or stabilization and recovery plan</td>
<td>Contributing to formulating and achieving the outcome based on shared understanding of the context and each actor’s operational strengths/depending on the agreement or plan playing a lead role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreed with Government by regional organizations or multilateral development banks</td>
<td>Contributing to formulating and achieving the outcome based on shared understanding of the context and each actor’s operational strengths</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreed within UN system in the absence of State-led initiatives</td>
<td>Defining the collective outcome in consultation with the Government and leading necessary activities based on shared understanding of the context and each actor’s operational strengths</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, Governments have the primary duty and responsibility to establish conditions and provide the means, which allow IDPs to move towards durable solutions. As part of assuming this responsibility, governmental authorities may take the lead in formulating a collective outcome if they, for example, incorporate the reduction of protracted internal displacement as a goal within a national, provincial or local development plan, or if they include finding durable solutions in general or specific terms within national or regional IDP legal frameworks, policies or strategies. Notably, the Government of Colombia has set a quantified collective outcome related to protracted displacement, while the Federal Government of Somalia decided to provide the overall direction without defining a quantifiable result. In such cases, international humanitarian, development and, where relevant, peace and security or DRR actors are expected to define their contribution and support to reaching such governmental goals.

In some cases, collective outcomes also may be enshrined in a peace agreement or a stabilization and recovery plan, or be determined by regional organizations or multilateral development banks. In such situations, international humanitarian, development and, where relevant, peace and security or DRR actors are expected to define their contribution and support to reaching such governmental goals.

In the absence of State-led initiatives to address protracted displacement, collective outcomes may be agreed within the UN system, albeit necessarily including consultation not only with civil society and affected communities but also with relevant authorities. Importantly, while the international community takes the lead, such an approach may still fail without a minimum of governmental involvement, particularly in situations where political dynamics contribute to protracted displacement or are its main cause.

2. Effective practices

Effective practices for Governments regarding the development of and agreement on collective outcomes include:

- Defining strategic, clear, quantifiable, measurable and achievable outcomes to address protracted displacement or prevent recent displacement from becoming protracted, in line with the SDGs, the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement and the IASC Framework on Durable Solutions, as components within national and, where relevant, subnational and local development plans or within IDP laws and strategies. This should be done in consultation with humanitarian and development actors, civil society, affected communities and other relevant actors.

- Seeking operational and financial support from humanitarian and development actors as well as donors and other relevant actors to implement such outcomes.

Effective practices for development and humanitarian actors include:

- Regarding collective outcomes defined by Governments:
  
  - Where Governments have set collective outcomes in line with the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement
and the IASC Framework on Durable Solutions, explicitly integrating relevant programmes and projects into UNDAFs and HRP that support governmental development plans or laws, policies and strategies addressing protracted displacement.

Regarding collective outcomes in the absence of outcomes defined by governmental authorities:

- Lobbying Governments at appropriate levels to set strategic, clear, quantifiable and measurable goals to address protracted displacement or prevent recent displacement from becoming protracted. Where necessary, such lobbying should be accompanied by offers to provide relevant data and capacity-building support to competent authorities, such as planning ministries or commissions.

- Agreeing on collective outcomes that can be implemented, even in the absence of Government outcomes, using any of the following frameworks, as appropriate:
  - An **IDP durable solutions strategy** developed in accordance with decision No. 2011/20 of the UN Secretary-General on Durable Solutions and elaborated in close cooperation with relevant stakeholders, particularly Government authorities, affected communities and peacebuilding operations.
  - **Joint programmes** by humanitarian and development actors.

- **Regarding better mutual understanding between humanitarian and development actors:**
  - Integrating the topic of differences, commonalities and compatibilities of humanitarian and development approaches into RC/HC training courses.
  - Conducting similar joint training sessions or meetings at the country level for staff of humanitarian and development agencies, particularly people working in needs analysis and programme development to promote “multilingualism”.
  - Consciously using concepts such as “resilience” and “displacement-affected communities,” i.e., not only IDPs but also host communities and communities (re-) integrating IDPs that facilitate interaction between humanitarian and development actors when addressing protracted displacement.

Effective practices for **donors** include:

- Encouraging or insisting on programmes and projects that are geared towards collective outcomes, and that monitoring and evaluation mechanisms measure to what extent planned outcomes are achieved.
IV. Ensuring a strategic outlook by formulating a common problem statement: Shared context and risk analysis

“A common understanding of the context and its risks can provide a better basis for joint humanitarian, and development efforts – with the right links to peacebuilding. Yet assessments tend to be done after a crisis has occurred, and joint analyses that include humanitarian, development and peacebuilding dimensions remain the exception rather than the rule.” OCHA, UNDP, UNHCR, UNICEF, WFP and the World Bank

1. Challenges

Efforts to address protracted internal displacement have sometimes failed because broader reasons why displacement is protracted, such as political dynamics, discrimination or weak capacities of relevant actors, were not taken into account. Thus, it is essential to reach a common understanding of the underlying causes of the protractedness of a specific internal displacement situation and ensuing risks and obstacles, and, based on that, to develop strategies to address them.

When examining the potential underlying reasons for why displacement has become protracted or risks becoming so, humanitarian and development actors are well suited to identifying and addressing the socioeconomic obstacles to moving towards durable solutions, obstacles related to civil and political rights, and issues related to humanitarian dependency and other negative side effects of humanitarian action. They are also well placed to identify how a lack of capacity of relevant central or local authorities and normative and institutional frameworks, or their absence, may be contributing to protracted displacement.

However, identifying other causes of protracted displacement and evaluating risks and opportunities to address them in a common problem statement may require humanitarian and development actors to cooperate with a range of other actors. Depending on the context, additional human rights analysis may be necessary. Similarly, when evaluating how a lack of safety and security contributes to protracted displacement, humanitarian and development actors would need to call on the expertise of peace and security actors dealing with such issues. Political obstacles and the absence of appropriate normative and institutional frameworks may require prolonged, concerted and high-level diplomacy by Special Representatives of the Secretary-General, RCs/HCs, or even the Emergency Relief Coordinator, the High Commissioner for Refugees or the Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of IDPs. Thus, close cooperation with these actors and regional organizations may also be necessary. Problems related to severe, sequential or repeated disasters would require analysis from DRR and DRM actors, such as UNISDR.

2. Effective practices

Effective practices for humanitarian and development actors in developing a comprehensive, shared context-and-risk analysis and using it to inform strategies on protracted displacement would include:

Reaching a common understanding of the underlying causes of the protractedness of an internal displacement situation and, based on that, developing strategies to address them is essential.
Investing in joint analysis between development, humanitarian and other relevant actors and, where possible, with national authorities of the wider context, with a special emphasis on the causes of the protracted displacement, the obstacles these causes may create and strategies to address them, with a view to integrating a common problem statement into relevant plans and frameworks.

Assessing:

- Which key obstacles to overcoming protracted displacement can be addressed through humanitarian and development programmes and projects (e.g., lack of access to livelihoods and social services).
- Which obstacles (e.g., lack of security or State policies contributing to the protractedness) need interventions by other stakeholders with relevant capacities to address such obstacles and how to engage them. For example, advocating for strengthening the police component in peacekeeping and peacebuilding operations.

Effective practices for Governments include:

- Conducting or contributing to an analysis on the causes of the protracted displacement, the obstacles these causes may create and strategies to address them, drawing on the political and technical expertise of relevant line ministries and other governmental actors, including at the local level.

Effective practices for donors include:

- Insisting that programme and project proposals addressing protracted internal displacement, and responses to displacement generally, are strategic and based on a sound analysis of the reasons why displacement remains protracted or risks becoming so.
- Sharing context-and-risk analysis among themselves with a view to supporting common strategic approaches.

Effective practices for all actors include:

- Systematically including data and contextual analysis of the causes of protracted displacement within their data management systems.

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**Text Box 13: Addressing protracted displacement in National Development Plans**

**Colombia** is the main example among the case studies that has set a collective outcome related to protracted displacement. The Victims’ Unit is the Government entity charged with providing compensation to victims of displacement. It has set the goal of lifting 500,000 IDPs out of vulnerability, as defined by a set of seven concrete criteria, by 2018. In such cases, the international community’s role is to support the Government. For the UN system, this would mean developing a planning process that would facilitate UN organizations, agencies and funds to define how they can collectively contribute to reaching the Government’s envisaged goal.

**Somalia’s** first National Development Plan aims to “reverse the trend of protracted displacement and substantially reduce the number of IDPs in such displacement by facilitating and supporting durable solutions that bring them back into mainstream life and address underlying causes of their displacement and its protracted nature.” To achieve this goal, it strives to “systematically enhance the absorption capacity of basic services for IDPs and returning refugees, enhance access to affordable housing and land as well as to vocational skill and professional development and facilitate and diversify access to employment sectors and labour market.”
V. Integrating collective outcomes into relevant planning tools

"Even in contexts where donors may not have the political appetite to provide multi-year funding, multi-year planning in protracted crises is key for ensuring a more effective collective response that more clearly focuses on outcomes, rather than parallel and incoherent sets of short-term inputs and outputs, and which realistically addresses people’s long-term needs in a sustainable way." OCHA, An end in sight: Multi-year planning to meet and reduce humanitarian needs in protracted crises, 2015.

1. Challenges

1.1 State level

The primary responsibility for creating the conditions necessary to achieve durable solutions rests with national Governments, but many do not possess the tools for this task. Some States have developed laws, policies and strategies on durable solutions, but these are not always fully implemented. Therefore, it is necessary to integrate collective outcomes addressing protracted internal displacement, or preventing recent displacement from becoming protracted, into relevant planning tools. National Development Plans set the framework for coherent, cross-cutting and holistic responses at Government levels, as well as for cooperation with and financial support from the international community. However, many such plans still fail to respond to the challenge of internal displacement or, while identifying it as an issue, neglect to set out specific goals and activities.

1.2 UN level

The UN has several tools that can be used to plan programmes and projects that aim to achieve a collective outcome on protracted displacement determined by the Government of the country concerned or agreed among relevant UN actors. However, "UN planning processes, in support of national processes, have not consistently addressed the differing needs of displaced persons in areas of return, settlement or local integration in both rural and urban settings. [...] support is often fragmented

Text Box 14: Absence of collective outcomes in HRPs and UNDAFs

This analysis is supported by the case studies. All 2016 HRPs in the five case-study countries (see Annex III) address protracted internal displacement to a limited extent. However, even with Colombia and Somalia’s plans identifying it as a key issue, none of the five case studies reflect a comprehensive approach. The HRPs do reference the existence of Government plans, policies or strategies specifically addressing protracted situations (Colombia, Somalia), but they do not make it sufficiently clear how the HCT plans to contribute to their implementation. HRPs regularly mention the number of IDPs targeted for interventions (and in some cases individuals within host communities or return areas), but they do not contain quantifiable indicators regarding outcomes (e.g., the number of IDPs who found a durable solution or the percentage of IDPs with permanent housing).

Similarly, some UNDAFs mention IDPs as one category of vulnerable people of concern to development actors, but only the Colombia and DRC UNDAFs specifically reference durable solutions. Both UNDAFs list activities and projects in this area, but again they do not make clear how they contribute to measurable collective outcomes towards finding durable solutions.
and fails to address comprehensively all reintegration needs. UN recovery and development strategies have, in some cases, failed to incorporate the needs of displaced persons thereby undermining achievements made in the humanitarian phase.\textsuperscript{9381}

This finding of a 2011 gap analysis is still true to a large extent,\textsuperscript{382} despite multiple efforts to improve the UN’s response, including the adoption of decision No. 2011/20 of the UN Secretary-General on Durable Solutions.\textsuperscript{383}

Aside from separate IDP durable solutions strategies, as promoted by this decision, the two key UN planning instruments at the country level—HRPs and UNDAFs—are the natural entry points for planning towards collective outcomes to address and prevent protracted displacement and find durable solutions. However, OCHA has identified a series of challenges that affect such planning, including the fact that multi-year HRPs tend to be a series of single-year plans rather than truly multi-year; the misalignment of UNDAFs, Common Country Assessments and HRPs; donors’ reluctance to provide multi-year funding; and the fact that “planning assumptions are not informed by sound risk analysis.”\textsuperscript{384}

Furthermore, a lack of systematically linking humanitarian and development action may mean that windows of opportunities to respond to protracted displacement are missed, e.g., when camps are closed and IDP returnees receive return packages that are insufficient to make return sustainable.\textsuperscript{385}

Linking humanitarian and development planning with peacekeeping and peacebuilding processes is yet another challenge, as is ensuring that the voices of IDPs and host communities are heard in planning decisions affecting them.

2. Effective practices

Effective practices for Governments, given their primary responsibility for IDPs, include:

- Integrating and prioritizing collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement within their National Development Plan and, based on it, subnational and local development (particularly urban) plans and other relevant plans.

- Ensuring that such planning processes include the international community as well as civil society, IDPs or representatives of displacement-affected communities, as relevant.\textsuperscript{388}

Effective practices for humanitarian and development actors include:

- Advocating for the integration of collective outcomes on protracted displacement into National Development Plans and, based on them, subnational and local development plans or other relevant plans, using planning processes that include the international community as well as IDPs or representatives of displacement-affected communities, civil society and the private sector, as relevant.

- Integrating, depending on the country-level context, collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement within any of the following planning tools:

  - HRPs and UNDAFs: As part of setting out the UN’s contribution to implementing the National Development Plan or other relevant governmental plans, UNDAFs should specify how the UN will support the achievement of collective outcomes.
on protracted internal displacement. In parallel, HRP s ideally identify humanitarian actors’ contribution towards meeting collective outcomes. To ensure system-wide coherence regarding collective outcomes, UN planning processes, including, where relevant, peace and security programming, should be aligned with each other and in particular allow for flexible, multi-year humanitarian planning.

- Durable solutions strategies in accordance with decision No. 2011/20 of the UN Secretary-General on Durable Solutions: This approach makes sense when the Government has not adopted its own law, policy or strategy or is not otherwise leading the process. However, to be most effective, such strategies should still primarily aim to convince central or, as appropriate, subnational and local governments to take the lead, and they should support authorities in integrating durable solutions into relevant development plans or developing legal provisions, policies and strategies on durable solutions.

- Stand-alone joint programmes between humanitarian and development actors: They can be a useful instrument for more limited interventions, such as pilot projects or in between planning cycles.

- Ongoing development programmes and projects: One effective way to meet collective outcomes is to mainstream IDPs and host communities within ongoing, more general development programmes and projects. For example, relevant geographical areas could be enlarged to include irregular IDP settlements into urban infrastructure projects, or beneficiaries could be extended to include IDPs into poverty-alleviation programmes.

- Reshaping planning processes in ways that involve the relevant operational entities in charge of implementing the plans, secure input from affected IDPs and local communities, allow for multi-year time frames and foster collaboration between relevant actors, taking the agreed outcome as a starting point and then identifying the sequence of activities (or results chains) necessary to reach the envisaged result. Such processes could include a “who is doing what where” exercise for humanitarian, development and stabilization actors to identify overlap and complementarities across the three pillars of activities.

- Planning actions designed to achieve collective results over several years in ways that identify the steps necessary to reach an agreed result but allow for flexible adaptation to lessons learned during implementation or to unforeseen events.

- Ensuring that displacement-affected communities are consulted, including women and people with particular needs, such as youth, older people or people with disabilities, and that plans take those inputs into account.

Effective practices for donors include:

- Advocating with Governments for the inclusion of collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement within National Development Plans or other relevant planning tools.
Favouring programmes and projects to implement collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement developed through joint planning processes, including with the participation of IDPs and displacement-affected communities, civil society and the private sector as relevant.

Supporting flexible, multi-year humanitarian plans that contribute to achieving collective outcomes on protracted displacement.

VI. Promoting and creating normative and institutional frameworks conducive to achieving collective outcomes

1. Challenges

As mentioned above, inadequate or insufficient normative or institutional frameworks are important reasons why governmental efforts to address protracted displacement and prevent recent internal displacement from becoming protracted often fail. For example, a law may assign responsibility for improving IDPs’ living conditions to local authorities without providing the necessary financial resources within the national budget.

Measures to address normative and institutional challenges are crucial to ensuring Governments can assume their primary responsibility to address protracted internal displacement or prevent recent displacement from becoming protracted.

The international community’s increased presence and action may be essential in the early stages of a humanitarian crisis, but long-term solutions require ensuring countries can solve their problems with their own institutions, capacities and resources, albeit with international capacity-building and financial support, where needed.

The existence of sound normative and institutional frameworks at national and local levels is also a precondition for channelling more humanitarian and development funding to Governments of affected countries.

2. Effective practices

Effective practices for Governments include:

- Examining to what extent different ministries and authorities at the central level have overlapping powers related to displacement issues, and clarifying who is responsible for what.

- Adopting legal provisions, policies and strategies on internal displacement that create not only a normative framework but also necessary institutional arrangements and resource allocation mechanisms to the implementation of relevant norms.

- Establishing interministerial coordination mechanisms and focal points to address and prevent protracted internal displacement that bring together all relevant line ministries and State authorities.

- If the issue of internal displacement is allocated to a special authority, ensuring the designated authority has sufficient capacity and resources to implement programmes and the power to coordinate relevant line ministries.
Providing capacity and resources to local governments commensurate with their responsibilities regarding IDPs.

Ensuring that development plans and budgets are based on the de facto population including IDPs in a given location, rather than the regular (registered) population.

Effective practices for international humanitarian and development actors include:

- Assessing normative frameworks and potential gaps, as well as analysing institutional strengths and weaknesses at national and subnational levels when planning for collective outcomes and developing strategies to address them.

- Promoting and supporting the development of an IDP law or policy that clearly sets out roles, responsibilities and financing for all phases of the response to internal displacement, including the search for durable solutions.

- Promoting with the Government the establishment or strengthening of existing interministerial coordination mechanisms to address and prevent protracted internal displacement situations, avoiding the creation of parallel, competing administrative structures as much as possible. For example, this could mean replicating cluster approach mechanisms and adapting them to the recovery phase.

- Advocating for providing local governments with the necessary powers and resources to address and prevent protracted internal displacement, and investing in building local government capacity.

Effective practices for donors include:

- Providing funds for strengthening the capacity of institutions at national, subnational and local levels dealing with displacement issues.

Effective practices for all actors include:

- Assessing institutional strengths and weaknesses regarding the capacity to use data collection and analysis to address protracted displacement and prevent recent displacement from becoming protracted.

VII. Prioritizing outcome-oriented programmes and projects

1. Challenges

Rather than being driven primarily by output, outcome-oriented programmes and projects to address and prevent protracted displacement need to be oriented towards the common goal of helping IDPs move towards durable solutions or, when durable solutions are not possible, improving IDPs’ living conditions to an extent that they no longer need to rely on humanitarian assistance. Depending on the scenario, such as the level of Government engagement or whether a conflict is ongoing, programmes and projects may need to address all or only some of the elements necessary to achieve durable solutions. Priorities for the development of programmes should be set according to the most serious negative impacts of protracted displacement, a consideration of the main reasons displacement became
protracted, the intentions of IDPs and the actual availability of options, particularly whether return is possible at a given time.

A detailed discussion of what type of projects will work or not work in each scenario is beyond the scope of this study. However, based on the case studies, all actors developing projects to address and prevent protracted displacement, both in conflict and disaster situations, should consider the following:

Without exception, IDPs consulted for this study mentioned sustainable livelihoods as the number one condition to improve their living conditions and restore their lives during the crisis phase and especially once displacement became protracted. Livelihood interventions by humanitarian actors certainly make sense as an initial step. But they are largely ineffective over the medium to long term because they a) by nature are short term (e.g., cash for work), b) are too small in scale to have long-term impacts (e.g., short vocational trainings), c) are not effective in a specific market environment (microgrants) or d) are developed without an in-depth market analysis to assess their viability. At the same time, these activities are often undertaken because robust livelihood interventions by development actors targeting or including IDPs are largely absent. Furthermore, humanitarian and development action addressing other needs can have unintended negative effects on livelihoods, such as when new permanent housing is provided to IDPs in locations that lack reasonable access to their previous or new livelihood opportunities.

Housing- and land-related issues are also high on the list of IDPs’ priorities for moving out of protracted displacement. Housing projects in local integration or relocation areas are often problematic, for instance because they are located on land that lacks water, is too far away from jobs (e.g., at the outskirts of cities) or is not suitable for agricultural activities. The sustainability of housing solutions as well as access to land and property needed for livelihood activities, particularly in rural areas, may also be jeopardized by insecure land tenure, particularly in return areas, linked to a variety of challenges including conflict over land, the absence of cadasters or the absence of land titles or other relevant documents.

One particular challenge for ensuring adequate housing and access to services is that irregular settlements where IDPs live are often not included within urban-development plans. As a result, IDPs remain marginalized and unable to locally integrate.

With respect to education, which is another priority for IDPs, the exclusion of entire communities from access to secondary and higher education may contribute to keeping them in poverty.

Experience shows that programmes and projects aimed at durable solutions that are not holistic and only focus on isolated components, such as housing alone, are not sustainable. For example, many programmes fail to address the impacts of protracted displacement on social cohesion and mental health.

2. Effective practices

Effective practices for humanitarian and development actors and Governments include:

- Using the concept of “displacement-affected communities” when addressing
protracted displacement and durable solutions, rather than focusing solely on IDPs as beneficiaries.

- Calibrating humanitarian responses in ways that strengthen the resilience of all IDPs and members of host communities, including women and particularly vulnerable people, and addressing the risk of dependency syndromes, even during ongoing conflict or the immediate aftermath of a disaster. Measures may include the use of cash transfers to prevent the sale of productive assets, providing vouchers or cash grants that allow IDPs to access existing local services when adequate, ensuring the continuity of education and investing in community building through community organizers.

- Focusing on community-based approaches in the planning and implementing stages that include, in particular, women, youth, older people, indigenous peoples and people with disabilities.

- Programming in ways that strengthen the local capacity to address and prevent protracted displacement and respond to future displacement, including by directly investing in national and local institutions.

- Regarding specific programmes and projects:
  - Investing as a priority in the (re-)establishment of livelihoods early in the humanitarian response, as well as when displacement has become protracted. The most effective livelihood projects are often those that i) are based on building community leadership and cohesion, ii) are based on sound market analysis, iii) are built on IDPs’ pre-existing capacities, iv) reflect gender-specific dimensions, v) link the production or delivery of services to existing markets or the creation of new markets or vi) are implemented in close cooperation with the private sector.

    Measures may include: i) free transportation to access livelihood opportunities, ii) grants to re-establish pre-existing small businesses, iii) facilitating non-exploitive rental arrangements for agricultural land and other measures to create jobs for IDPs from rural areas, iv) linking livelihood projects to the local business community, v) innovative financial products and insurance and vi) facilitating, where appropriate, the regular migration of workers abroad.

  - Focusing, in the area of housing, on arrangements that provide security of tenure and on locations with access to livelihood opportunities and basic services. Effective practices include: i) transferring land ownership to occupants who have lived on the land for an extended period of time, ii) upgrading collective shelters and transferring ownership to inhabitants, iii) transforming camps into regular settlements or iv) voucher programmes allowing IDPs to find their own housing solutions.

  - Addressing land and property rights issues through practices such as i) providing legal advice, ii) creating mechanisms to solve conflicts over land, including regarding restitution of property left behind and iii) supporting land-titling exercises for IDPs.
• Using urban-planning approaches to ensure that settlements with a substantial number of IDPs receive urban infrastructure and have access to livelihoods and basic services. For example, in the context of facilitating local integration, this may include regularizing irregular settlements so that IDPs, as well as others in the settlements, can be linked with Government infrastructure and services.

• Facilitating access to vocational training and secondary education, including through financial support (e.g., conditional cash transfers or stipends).

- Ensuring the adequate operational presence of all UN humanitarian and development programmes, organizations and agencies with relevant mandates in the priority areas identified above, as necessary.

- Ensuring that interventions for local integration, return or relocation are comprehensive and holistic, with both broad-based development projects and IDP-specific interventions. In particular, programmes and projects should address critical needs, including:
  - The identification of land, shelter, livelihoods, transportation, electricity, water and sewage treatment, education and health services, including mental health.
  - The economic and social impact on the host community.
  - Strong community building in conflict situations with, where appropriate, peace-building components.
  - Investing in “soft” components that seek to build community, strengthen community leadership, including for women and youth, and maintain cultural practices. Such programmes and projects are particularly important in areas where IDPs and non-IDPs come from different locations, do not know one another and lack mutual trust.408

- Integrating DRR components within relevant programmes and projects.

- Creating monitoring and evaluation systems that focus on impacts and outcomes towards meeting collective outcomes, and allow for the adjustment of programmes to improve effectiveness and respond to unforeseen circumstances.

Effective practices for donors include:

- Providing robust funding for early recovery and other humanitarian responses that seek to strengthen the resilience and self-sufficiency of IDPs and their hosts alongside the delivery of life-saving humanitarian assistance.

- Promoting and insisting on approaches to protracted displacement that are comprehensive and holistic, taking into account all relevant aspects, i.e., not only housing but also livelihoods, social services, social cohesion, as well as, where appropriate, peacebuilding components.

VIII. Securing transversal financing

1. Challenges

Obtaining funding to address and prevent protracted displacement is not easy, particularly when a country still has ongoing humanitarian needs. The traditional distinction between humanitarian funding for life-saving interventions and development
funding for long-term poverty reduction and other development goals is one of the key reasons for the gap between humanitarian and development action.

This distinction is not necessarily an impediment to achieving collective outcomes, but the practice of earmarking or the “compartmentalization of humanitarian/development funding hampers efforts to realize collective outcomes.”[^409] This is because of restrictions recipients may have in terms of how they are obliged to use specific funds.

Resource mobilization for the humanitarian response also generally focuses on grant-based financing. This approach reinforces perceptions that may undermine “the mobilization of additional resources that could help provide more sustainable solutions,”[^410] such as loans and other financial instruments. Furthermore, the fact that humanitarian funding is short term and usually limited to one year makes it difficult for humanitarian actors to adopt a sustainability perspective and collaborate with development partners over multi-year timelines.

Despite efforts to improve, inter-agency planning and resources processes, such as the Humanitarian Programme Cycle (HPC), all too often generate a compilation of activities that agencies would like to implement without a clear strategic and results-oriented perspective. This approach is not necessarily attractive to donors who want their investments to produce tangible outcomes on protracted internal displacement.[^411]

These problems are increasingly recognized. The Governments and organizations that endorsed the Grand Bargain at the 2016 World Humanitarian Summit agreed that a “better way of working is not about shifting funding from development to humanitarian programmes or from humanitarian to development actors. Rather, it is about working collaboratively across institutional boundaries on the basis of comparative advantage.”[^412]

They stressed that:

“[c]ollaborative planning and funding mechanisms for longer programme horizons that are incrementally funded can produce better results and [...] identify results which highlight the linkages between humanitarian, development, stabilisation and conflict management initiatives that are fundamental to decreasing humanitarian needs.”[^413]

The Grand Bargain also promotes the idea that more funding should go directly to Governments and local civil society and communities.[^414] At the bilateral level, some donors, including the Sweden, the UK and the US, are increasing internal cooperation between their humanitarian and development branches regarding funding for durable solutions.

### 2. Effective practices

Effective practices for donors include:

- Providing more sustainable and predictable funding and enhancing the flexibility of such funding, particularly by reducing earmarking. Reduced use of earmarking was recognized by the countries and organizations endorsing the Grand Bargain “as a means to achieve [...] collective outcomes.”[^415]

Soft earmarks would allow recipients to have full flexibility within the boundaries of an agreed specific outcome.[^416]
Funding common strategies once they have been agreed.

Allocating development funding to Multi-Partner Trust Funds (MPTFs) at the country level that are dedicated to addressing and preventing protracted displacement and finding durable solutions for IDPs, and which consider the addition of a resilience component to Country-Based Pooled Funds (CBPFs) and other humanitarian pooled funds.

Taking more risks in allowing some portion of humanitarian and development funding to go directly to Governments and, in particular, local authorities or national civil society actors that work directly with displacement-affected communities.

Conditioning resource transfers on meeting performance-and-impact indicators, as is done by the Peacebuilding Fund, to enhance cooperation and accountability on collective outcomes.417

Effective practices for Governments include:

- Considering loans and other financial instruments besides grants to reach collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement.

- Ensuring that budget allocations to local governments reflect the de facto population (including IDPs) and their needs, rather than the regular resident population.

Effective practices for the UN include:

- Using flexible country-level pooled-funding mechanisms, including MPTFs, to address protracted internal displacement or prevent new displacement from becoming protracted.

- Engaging in sustained dialogue with donors to explore possibilities for, where appropriate, development funds to CBPFs and other humanitarian pooled funds to enhance humanitarian actors’ flexibility to address protracted displacement or prevent new displacement becoming protracted in situations with no or limited engagement of development actors.418

- Advocate for donors to create and provide low-cost finance sources that also stimulate private sector investment.419
PART 6
Conclusions and recommendations

I. Key findings

The traditional approach of international humanitarian actors to internal displacement has proven insufficient in meeting immediate humanitarian needs while at the same time supporting the achievement of durable solutions for the ever-growing number of IDPs worldwide. In addition to the millions of people newly displaced each year, people already displaced by conflict and disasters face significant challenges in rebuilding their lives. A rapidly resolved internal displacement crisis where IDPs quickly find durable solutions is a rare exception.

While some IDPs are able to rebuild their lives, tens of millions of IDPs live far below the poverty line in substandard housing without security of tenure, and with no or only limited access to basic services, education and health care. They face security concerns and discrimination, struggle to maintain social cohesion and are exposed to gender-related risks. As a result, they become marginalized, with structural economic, political and developmental factors often underlying why IDPs remain unable to improve their lives. Such IDPs find that for significant periods of time, they are prevented from taking or are unable to take steps that allow them to progressively reduce the vulnerability, impoverishment and marginalization they face as displaced people in order to regain a self-sufficient and dignified life and ultimately find a durable solution.

All too often, protracted internal displacement also has negative economic and social impacts on host families and host communities, undermining their resilience. These collective impacts create significant challenges for local governments, and in some contexts they jeopardize national efforts towards poverty alleviation or stabilization.

Comprehensive responses to most of the impacts of protracted displacement on IDPs and the wider displacement-affected communities require comprehensive, medium- to long-term development and political responses. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, the SDGs and the commitments made at the WHS explicitly recognize protracted internal displacement as a development challenge. Notably, a

Millions of IDPs have been “left behind” in contradiction to the promise of the SDGs that the most vulnerable members of the population must be empowered to contribute to and benefit from development efforts.
growing number of development agencies also now recognize internal displacement as a key development challenge, with examples of programmes specifically designed to support finding durable solutions for IDPs. Such programmes are based on an understanding that the humanitarian-development nexus is not so much an issue of phases, where the humanitarian response is followed by development interventions, but rather an opportunity for humanitarian and development actors to work together early on to complement each other’s efforts to meet immediate and longer-term goals. To be sufficiently nimble and flexible, development action needs to be supported by political will, institutional arrangements and financial mechanisms, which are currently lacking in many protracted internal displacement contexts.

This requires a shift in how we understand internal displacement: it is not a purely humanitarian concern but rather a challenge for a multitude of international actors. Consequently, humanitarian, development and, depending on the context, human rights, peace and security and DRR actors each have a distinct and essential role to play in supporting Governments to address the obstacles that have led internal displacement to become protracted, so that IDPs can begin the process of rebuilding their lives.

This recognition calls for shifting the focus from humanitarian responses to immediate needs towards the New Way of Working towards collective outcomes aimed at meeting immediate needs, but also improving the dignity and self-reliance of IDPs over time and thus addressing and preventing protracted internal displacement. Collective outcomes can be understood as commonly agreed results to reduce IDPs’ displacement-related needs through objectives that are strategic, clear, quantifiable, measurable and achievable through the combined efforts of relevant actors at national, local, regional and international levels. Furthermore, action towards achieving collective outcomes should involve displaced people, local communities, civil society and the private sector.

Work on collective outcomes to address and prevent protracted displacement can begin even before a conflict has ended or the impacts of natural hazards have ceased. For example, when returns are not possible, other viable opportunities for durable solutions may exist, such as through local integration or relocation to another unaffected part of the country. Even when sustainable return, local integration or settlement elsewhere in the country are not all feasible, measures can still be taken in many cases to improve IDPs’ living conditions and move towards solutions by removing obstacles that hinder IDPs’ efforts to become more self-sufficient and resilient.

Taking into account the primary responsibility of national Governments for IDPs as part of the broader population, as well as the complex, often political reasons why displacement has become protracted, efforts to achieve collective outcomes should ideally be Government-led but with international and local actors, including civil society, IDPs and their hosts, contributing to their formulation and supporting their implementation. In the absence of State-led initiatives to address and prevent protracted displacement, collective outcomes may be agreed within the UN system, albeit necessarily including consultation with relevant authorities.

Protracted conflict, a lack of political will, and countries’ inadequate normative and institutional frameworks and disregard for human rights are key reasons why internal displacement becomes protracted.
Provided collective outcomes are in line with international human rights guarantees and compatible with relevant standards, particularly the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement and the IASC Framework on Durable Solutions, the involvement of humanitarian actors in their attainment would not compromise the humanitarian principles of humanity, neutrality, impartiality and independence.

II. Key recommendations

Achieving collective outcomes

This study has identified a large number of practices that, depending on the context, may be effective when seeking to achieve collective outcomes that aim to address protracted displacement and prevent new displacement from becoming protracted. Actors must consider the operational context as well as relevant international standards, such as the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, to formulate collective outcomes in ways that respond to human suffering and are non-discriminatory. Humanitarian actors participating in the formulation and implementation of collective outcomes must continue to act in accordance with humanitarian principles.

This section summarizes, synthesizes and highlights key recommendations that are relevant for most situations.

ALL ACTORS:

This study recommends that Governments, humanitarian and development partners, donors, local authorities, civil-society organizations and the private sector combine their efforts to:

- Undertake, as a matter of priority, concerted efforts over the coming years to reverse the trend of increased protracted internal displacement and substantially reduce the number of people living in such displacement as well as to prevent new displacement from becoming protracted, recognizing that IDPs are part of a country’s regular population with equal rights but specific needs and vulnerabilities. These are important steps towards achieving the SDGs and the target of significantly reducing protracted internal displacement in a safe and dignified manner by 2030.

- Take steps to progressively reduce the vulnerability, impoverishment and marginalization of IDPs even before a conflict ends or the impacts of a disaster subside, and consider permanent or at least temporary local integration or settlement in another part of the country as options in such situations.

- Commit to strategic, clear, quantifiable and measurable collective outcomes, in line with international human rights law and relevant standards, such as the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement and the IASC Framework on Durable Solutions, and collaboratively agree on collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement.

- Achieve collective outcomes through close cooperation among all relevant actors, particularly governmental and international humanitarian and development actors, and, depending on the circumstances, human rights, peace and security or disaster risk reduction actors, as well as with the participation of civil society, the private sector, IDPs and host communities.
Use the **seven elements and effective practices** identified in this study to achieve collective outcomes on protracted displacement by: (1) creating the evidence base; (2) defining collective outcomes; (3) ensuring a strategic outlook; (4) integrating collective outcomes into relevant planning tools and identify measures supporting their achievement; (5) promoting and creating necessary normative and institutional frameworks; (6) implementing outcome-oriented programmes and projects; and (7) securing transversal financing that transcends the humanitarian-development divide.

**Gather and analyse relevant evidence** and conduct profiling exercises of internal displacement situations through **open, collaborative and joint processes** that include data and analysis relevant for development and humanitarian action. Such processes should be undertaken in cooperation with, and ideally under the leadership of, the Government as well as local authorities, and supported by humanitarian and development organizations.

**Focus on displacement-affected communities**, while recognizing and addressing IDPs’ displacement-specific needs, and prioritize investment into:

i. the creation of **livelihoods** allowing IDPs and, where relevant, host families and communities, to become self-sufficient and move out of poverty, and

ii. **adequate housing with security of tenure**, but also

iii. **access to basic services**, including **education and health**, without neglecting

iv. the **other needs** of IDPs, as relevant, such as those associated with security, social and cultural practices, protection against discrimination and access to justice.

**Invest in building local government capacity** to ensure that subnational and local governments responsible for activities to achieve collective outcomes on protracted displacement have the necessary **powers** and **adequate resources** allocated on the basis of the total population, inclusive of IDPs.

**Ensure the provision of information, consultation with and the participation of** displacement-affected communities, including women, youth, older people or people with disabilities, on all matters affecting them.

**GOVERNMENTS:**

Specifically, Governments of displacement-affected States need to:

**Lead efforts among stakeholders**, wherever possible, to achieve collective outcomes that address protracted displacement and prevent new displacement from becoming protracted.

**Integrate and prioritize collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement within National Development Plans** and, based on it, subnational and local development plans (particularly urban planning instruments) or other relevant plans, or at a minimum, within IDP-specific policies and strategies.

**Ensure that development plans and budgets are based on the total population**, inclusive of IDPs
in a given location, rather than the regular (registered) population.

- Create, where necessary, adequate normative and institutional frameworks, including IDP-specific laws, policies and strategies, along with accompanying financial resources to implement them in the budgets of national and local authorities.

- Establish appropriate mechanisms to facilitate and ensure coordination between relevant line ministries and departments.

- Consider the use of loans and other financial instruments, in addition to grants, to implement measures to address and prevent protracted displacement.

INTERNATIONAL HUMANITARIAN AND DEVELOPMENT ACTORS:

In addition, international humanitarian and development organizations should:

- Conduct joint needs and capacity assessments and analysis, as appropriate, including the profiling of internal displacement situations, that incorporate specific and data-driven indicators relevant for development and humanitarian action, and ideally with the leadership and/or cooperation of local and national authorities. Such assessments should
  - Attempt to ensure a comparative perspective to i) identify the respective needs and vulnerabilities of IDPs, host families, non-host families and host communities as a whole, ii) cover different patterns of displacement, and iii) disaggregate data by gender and age.
  - Analyse the wider social, political and economic context with a special emphasis on the causes of protracted displacement and ensuing risks, and develop strategies to address them.

- Support national and local governments in their efforts to implement the recommendations listed in the “Governments of displacement-affected States” section by
  - Facilitating capacity-building initiatives to enable Governments to integrate and prioritize collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement within National Development Plans as well as subnational and local development plans.
  - Assisting Governments as they create adequate normative and institutional frameworks on IDPs, e.g., by providing international guidance on IDPs.

- Drawing on the expertise of development actors, plan humanitarian operations with a view to building and strengthening the resilience of all IDPs and members of host communities, including women and particularly vulnerable people, and address the risk of aid dependency, even during ongoing conflict or the immediate aftermath of a disaster. Focus on community-based approaches both in the planning and implementing stages that include, in particular, women, youth, older people, indigenous peoples and people with disabilities. As a matter of priority:
  - Invest in the (re-)establishment of livelihoods early in the humanitarian response, as well as when displacement has become protracted.
• Focus, in the area of **housing**, on arrangements that provide security of tenure, and on locations with access to livelihood opportunities and basic services, and address **land and property rights**.

• Facilitate, regarding education, access to **vocational training and secondary education**, including through financial support.

• Promote and support **urban planning approaches** to ensure that settlements with a substantial number of IDPs are provided with urban infrastructure and have access to livelihoods and basic services.

• Adopt and use **responsible data-sharing practices**, with the goal of ultimately having a system-wide data-responsibility framework that facilitates information sharing on internal displacement situations, and systematically **integrate data and contextual analysis of the causes** of protracted displacement within data management systems.

• In the absence of State-led initiatives to address protracted internal displacement or to prevent recent displacement from becoming protracted, **agree on collective outcomes within the UN system**, albeit necessarily including consultation with relevant authorities and the displacement-affected communities themselves.

**INTERNATIONAL AND BILATERAL DONORS:**

• **Condition resource transfers** on meeting performance and impact indicators, as is done by the Peacebuilding Fund, for example, to enhance cooperation and accountability on collective outcomes. In particular, **prioritize programmes and projects that**

  • **Are geared towards collective outcomes**

  • **Are strategic and based on sound analysis** of the reasons why displacement has become protracted or risks becoming so

  • **Include monitoring and evaluation mechanisms** that measure to what extent planned outcomes are achieved

• **Apply the principles of the Grand Bargain** to generously support efforts to achieve collective outcomes addressing and preventing protracted internal displacement, particularly by providing more sustainable and predictable funding, and enhancing the flexibility of such funding by reducing or only using “soft” earmarking.

• **Allocate increased, flexible funding to well-designed country-level Multi-Partner Trust Funds (MPTFs)** that have a broad programmatic scope that includes addressing and preventing protracted displacement and finding durable solutions for IDPs, and that are designed to be linked to existing country-level humanitarian pooled funds, where in place.
Allow a proportion of humanitarian and development funding to go directly to national authorities and, in particular, local authorities or national civil-society actors that work directly with displacement-affected communities in support of collective outcomes.

Consider the provision of loans and other financial instruments, in addition to grants, to implement measures to address and prevent protracted displacement.

Create and provide low-cost sources of finance that also stimulate private sector investment to support collective outcomes, possibly by building on the experience of development donors involved in the Concessional Financing Facility for refugees and host communities in middle-income countries and on the International Development Association Sub-window for refugees and host communities.

The following recommendations address key areas where the United Nations should consider action necessary to make the institutional shift required to achieve collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement:

RCs/HCs and UN Country Teams, with support from UNDP and OCHA, should undertake concrete multi-year action in three to five selected countries to achieve collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement, supported by multilateral as well as bilateral donors. Such action could begin with a series of country-level workshops, co-hosted by the respective Governments, to introduce the concept of collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement and explore financial support for engaging in this New Way of Working.

In order to support UN Country Teams and IASC/Humanitarian Country Teams, UNDP and OCHA should:

- Develop clear guidance on how to use existing planning tools that sets out the specific, measurable and necessary steps to reach agreed collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement, and in particular

  - Ensure coherence between HRP and UNDAF or UN-specific durable solutions strategies, and where relevant and feasible, stabilization plans, and

  - Explore how multi-year, flexible HRPs could enhance humanitarian actors’ contribution to collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement.

Suggested next steps for the United Nations

The need to switch to result-oriented, strategic, clear, quantifiable, measurable and achievable collective outcomes, as opposed to output-oriented projects, is gaining ground within the UN system and among humanitarian and development actors. Nevertheless, the aspiration to achieve collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement has not yet translated into concrete action in most countries. As the findings and recommendations of this report indicate, the New Way of Working requires a full set of complex institutional and operational measures at all levels and among a wide and diverse group of actors.
• Examine **whether new joint planning tools** are needed to facilitate planning among humanitarian, development and other relevant actors on collective outcomes.

• Create **monitoring and evaluation systems** that focus on impacts and outcomes towards meeting collective outcomes, and allow for the adjustment of programmes to improve effectiveness and respond to unforeseen circumstances.

• Clarify and strengthen the role of the RC/HC in facilitating multi-stakeholder dialogue to foster collective outcomes.

• Review decision No. 2011/20 of the UN Secretary-General on Durable Solutions with a view to: i) integrate the concept of collective outcomes; ii) highlight the importance of working with and through Governments; iii) strengthen the role of the RC/HC to enhance country teams’ ability to effectively and collaboratively contribute to collective outcomes; iv) expand the list of actors supporting the RC/HC in this role, particularly by including actors with mandates covering livelihoods, housing, urban planning and gender.

• **Promote “multilingualism,” i.e., familiarity with each other’s concepts and processes**, to facilitate common or shared understanding among humanitarian and development agencies, such as by providing specific training to their staff as well as RC/HCs.

Unlike other thematic fields, there is no system-wide focal point for IDPs whose responsibilities span UN humanitarian, development, human rights, peace and security, and disaster risk reduction action. Therefore, strong overall leadership and coordination are needed to bring together the different UN officials and agencies that play prominent roles in addressing internal displacement. This leadership and collaboration will be key to successfully implementing the diverse set of actions listed above and thus translating the emerging consensus on collective outcomes into robust action to reverse the trend of protracted internal displacement. Leadership could be provided within the framework of a **system-wide internal displacement initiative** led by the UN Secretary-General and his Deputy. In addition, such an initiative should include the following elements:

- **Review of the role of and contributions to be made by the UN’s peace and security actors** towards meeting collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement.

- **Engagement with UN donor groups** to test possibilities to ensure the provision of more flexible, predictable and sustainable financing to achieve collective outcomes on protracted internal displacement.

- **Consideration of a high-level event** convened by the Secretary-General on the new outcome-oriented approach to protracted internal displacement in 2018 on the occasion of the twentieth anniversary of the UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement. This event could provide a platform for promoting UN institutional and operational changes to enhance system-wide responses to protracted internal displacement and secure commitments from Governments, organizations, donors, civil society and the private sector.
Internally displaced children walk home from the UNHCR supported educational learning centre in the outskirts of Soacha, Colombia. Their mother purchased the land they live on, but perpetually worries about the risks of landslides, common in the rainy climate of this region of Colombia.

Credit: UNHCR/Sebastian Rich
ANNEX I
Country case studies

I. Colombia

With an estimated 7.1 million IDPs as of the end of 2016, Colombia has the world’s second largest number of IDPs. The main causes of displacement are armed conflict, violence linked to control over illicit economies, including drug trafficking or illegal mining, and violence associated with land conflicts. Most displacement is from rural to urban and peri-urban areas, where most IDPs flee to settle in slums and shanty towns rather than camps. Secondary intra- or inter-urban displacement due to threats and violence by criminal elements or people associated with armed groups is common. Disasters triggered by natural hazards are another important driver of displacement, with reportedly 3.32 million people displaced between 2008 and 2013. New displacement occurs on a regular basis, but most IDPs have lived in protracted displacement for several years or even decades.

1. Causes

The reasons for protracted displacement in Colombia are multiple and complex. For example, although a large majority of IDPs would like to locally integrate, sustainable integration is inhibited by the fact that they live in irregular settlements with no services, few livelihood opportunities and limited market connectivity. The underlying causes and challenges related to protracted displacement thus include the following, which are often combined: (i) protracted conflict and insecurity exacerbated by the lack of State presence in areas of origin, as well as high levels of crime and violence in areas of refuge that trigger recurrent intra-urban and inter-urban displacement and compound other factors, such as unaddressed trauma and other mental issues; (ii) lack of marketable skills for urban labour markets, particularly for IDPs with rural backgrounds or who belong to indigenous and Afro-descendant communities, and insufficient access for IDP youth to higher education, which, in the Colombian context, is essential for moving out of poverty; (iii) land issues, such as difficulties linked to land restitution in areas of origin, insecure tenure or the illegal status of the settlements that block municipal authorities from providing services and infrastructure; (iv) insufficient local government capacity, including insufficient resource allocations from the central Government due to calculations based on outdated census data rather than the de facto population that includes IDPs; (v) lack of integration of IDPs within regular State action, and weak coordination between relevant line ministries and (vi) limited resources allocated for durable solutions by donors, because MPTFs prioritize other aspects of the November 2016 peace agreement between the Government and
FARC, such as transitional justice, and disarmament, demobilization and reintegration.

2. Impact

The effects of protracted displacement on IDPs are particularly well documented in Colombia following the Constitutional Court’s declaration in 2004 that the internal displacement situation amounted to an “unconstitutional state of affairs” (decision T-025). Since then, the Court has regularly assessed IDPs’ situation based on data and analysis provided by the Government, civil society and UNHCR. Above all, protracted displacement has left the vast majority of Colombian IDPs in poverty or extreme poverty, primarily in urban areas, with poverty levels two to three times higher than that of the general population. IDPs’ unemployment also has been identified as up to three times higher than that of non-displaced people. Most IDPs, particularly those who originally came from rural areas, including marginalized indigenous or Afro-Colombian communities, work in the informal sector as unskilled labourers or street sellers for low pay. Even IDPs with land in rural areas may struggle to develop sustainable livelihoods due to difficulties commercializing their agricultural products.

As of 2008, an estimated 43 per cent of displaced households were headed by women. Many were forced to adopt negative coping strategies to support their families, including survival sex. Other coping strategies included early marriage and withdrawing girls from school. Displaced youth have particular challenges developing sustainable livelihoods opportunities. Many who grew up in informal settlements did not have access to formal education,

limiting potential well-paying employment opportunities in the city and pushing some of them into criminality. Several IDPs who the researchers met in Soacha, for example, stated that their children had been killed by criminal gangs.

Even though some IDPs have been living in informal settlements for decades, they have little incentive to invest in improving their substandard homes because most IDPs lack formal rental or ownership rights and could be forced to leave at any time. This, in combination with the illegal settlements’ minimal or non-existent access to water, electricity or sewage and often high levels of violence and crime, has placed IDPs in increasing levels of vulnerability and poverty over time.

The influx of IDPs into already poor and marginalized host communities also places a severe strain on already limited social services and reduces the local government’s capacity to provide adequate levels of services. Reportedly, this has triggered the outflow of habitual residents from locations such as Soacha to areas with better living conditions. A representative of a municipality in Meta commented that the local market for food was severely affected when the farmers were displaced and no longer produced food for local consumption, forcing the municipality’s remaining residents to purchase more expensive food from other parts of the country.

Addressing the needs of victims, the majority of whom are IDPs, is a central component of the peace process and agreement between the Government of Colombia and FARC, recognizing that finding durable solutions to displacement is entwined with the success of ending the conflict. However, IDP returns will be difficult. The protracted
displacement of IDPs from rural areas and their unresolved land claims have made it possible for criminal armed groups and demobilized paramilitaries to occupy IDPs’ vacant land.\textsuperscript{437} This may generate continued violence and human rights violations beyond the conflict. One of the key elements in the Peace Accord with the FARC is the Comprehensive Rural Reform, which focuses on access and land formalization, infrastructure and land adaptation, education, and health, among other issues. In this context, the implementation of the Peace Accord will contribute to improve and promote IDPs’ human rights.

3. Prospects for collective outcomes to address protracted displacement

Colombia’s approach to internal displacement differs from that of many other countries insofar as IDPs are recognized as victims of human rights violations entitled to reparation. The 2011 Victims and Land Restitution Law (Victims Law) addresses the needs of some 8 million Colombian people affected by conflict and violence, which includes more than 7 million victims of displacement.\textsuperscript{438} The law provides for three levels of reparation for victims of displacement. The first is immediate humanitarian assistance for the first three to six months following displacement. This financial support is followed by a second form of support to address victims’ vulnerability with respect to socioeconomic needs through housing, educational and livelihood assistance. The last element includes reparation, including compensation. In this context, Colombia has important lessons learned and best practices to share with other displacement-affected countries.

Regarding the second element to address socioeconomic needs, the current Colombia National Development Plan 2014-2018 sets the goal of moving 500,000 IDPs out of vulnerability, as defined by the Constitutional Court, by 2018.\textsuperscript{439} This is a unique example of a strategic, clear, quantifiable, measurable and achievable goal set by a Government that calls for a collective outcome.

The Unit for Comprehensive Victim Support and Reparation (Victims Unit), established under the Victims Law, is responsible for implementing this goal and has undertaken multiple activities. However, the ambitious and comprehensive nature of the law demands a significant financial investment, roughly estimated at $1 billion a year for 10 years, which the Government currently does not have.\textsuperscript{440} Given the need to prioritize, most of the Government’s assistance has taken the form of humanitarian assistance. To date, the Victims Unit has also had limited success in convincing relevant line ministries to join efforts to achieve the goal. Even though the State is committed to implementing the Victims Law, budget restrictions are not its only challenges. It also needs to work within a limited legal and administrative framework to facilitate collaborative relationships among line ministries as well as 1001 municipal authorities, and it needs to implement an IDP durable solutions framework to measure progress. The Government also has to reach out to the public at large to generate support for the initiative, and at the same time help victims reduce their dependency on assistance and become self-reliant.

The Transitional Solutions Initiative 2012-2015\textsuperscript{441} was implemented in Colombia by UNHCR and UNDP and funded by bilateral donors and the Government. The aim was to find durable solutions for IDPs in 17 communities through return (3),
relocation (5) and local urban integration (9) in rural and urban areas. Interventions were based on action plans developed with the participation of communities. The initiative’s approach was comprehensive, combining community organization and strengthening; capacity-building at local government levels; solving land and housing issues (including legalization of irregular settlements); providing basic public services; investing in local economic development (e.g., linking a rural relocation site to local markets); and strengthening the protection of IDPs’ rights. Not all projects had the desired impact, nonetheless the initiative has successfully allowed several of the communities to find or at least make important steps towards durable solutions. The initiative is a good example of how UN agencies and organizations can work together towards collective outcomes. Despite positive results, a second phase of the initiative or similar programmes are not envisaged due to lack of donor support.

Other pre-existing programmes could support the Victims Unit in reaching the goal set out in the National Development Plan, such as ICRC’s Access to Employment programme that is implemented in close cooperation with the private sector. However, the potential to contribute to addressing protracted displacement through collective outcomes demands greater attention from and action by the international community, particularly the UN Country Team.

4. Recommendations

Based on this analysis and in line with the findings of this study, the following recommendations to address protracted displacement and prevent new displacement becoming protracted are made:

- To the Government of Colombia to continue and redouble its efforts to reach the goal of moving 500,000 IDPs out of vulnerability, as defined by the Constitutional Court, by 2018, and to set a strong example of State commitment to achieve collective outcomes. In particular:
  - Ensure that the Victims Unit is able to initiate and support activities addressing protracted displacement as a matter of priority, in addition to providing humanitarian assistance to newly displaced people and paying compensation to victims.
  - Ensure that IDPs are systematically included into regular State activities, particularly ongoing development programmes and activities by relevant line ministries, in addition to the work done by the Victims Unit.
  - Ensure that
    - in rural areas, displacement-affected communities (IDPs, host communities, communities in areas of return) are systematically integrated into programmes and projects within the framework of the Integral Rural Reform, as set out in the Peace Accord with the FARC, taking into account affected communities’ specific needs and vulnerabilities.
    - in urban areas, the legalization of irregular settlements with IDP populations is continued and expanded to ensure these areas are included within municipal infrastructure and services.


• Continue strengthening the capacity of municipalities and local communities to address and prevent protracted displacement, and to review resource allocation systems to ensure that such allocations to local authorities are based on the de facto population that includes IDPs rather than outdated census data.

• Continue to provide security for community leaders, human rights defenders and populations faced with threats to their lives in rural areas to facilitate returns.

• Reach out to and cooperate with UNDP, UNHCR and other relevant international and non-governmental organizations and agencies to continue programmes addressing protracted displacement.

► To international humanitarian and development actors:

• Systematically integrate displacement-affected communities into relevant ongoing or envisaged development programmes and projects, taking into account their specific needs and vulnerabilities.

• Agree as the UN Country Team on activities and joint programmes, building on experiences with the Transitional Solutions Initiative to support the Government of Colombia in reaching the goal of moving 500,000 IDPs out of vulnerability by 2018, and in preventing new displacement from becoming protracted.

► To donors:

• Provide flexible multi-year funding for programmes and projects addressing and preventing protracted displacement, particularly in urban areas, that complements funding made available for the implementation of the Peace Accord.

II. Democratic Republic of the Congo

Internal displacement is an essential feature of the humanitarian crisis in the DRC, particularly in the eastern provinces, where the security situation remains volatile and about one out of ten persons have been internally displaced since 2009. New displacements occur daily due to the activities of armed groups and military counter-operations (86.4 %), inter-communal violence (13.5 %) and natural disasters (0.1 %). By 31 December 2016, an estimated 2.2 million people were internally displaced, mainly in the nine easternmost provinces of the country. While North Kivu province was hosting over 40 per cent of the total IDP population, the largest growth in displaced persons from July to December 2016 occurred in Tanganyika province and the three Kasai provinces. Women and children continued to represent more than two-thirds of IDPs. On average, some 2,000 people were newly displaced every day in 2016. In May 2016, the average daily figure reached 4,000 people.

Displacement in the DRC is heterogeneous in terms of patterns, causes and dynamics. While tens of thousands of IDPs return to their places of origin each month, the overall average number of IDPs in DRC has remained relatively steady at about 2 million people over the past 10 years, with spikes as high as 3.4 million in 2003. Some 79 per cent of IDPs live with host families; the

"I have hope thanks to the trees that were given to me and those I have already planted. These might help us avoid future disasters. It's better to help us protect our fields rather than distribute food to us because it will help us forever."

Xavérine, internally displaced in South Kivu, DRC
An internally displaced woman participates in a reforestation project in South Kivu, DRC.

Credit: OCHA/Naomi Frerotte
remainder live in IDP sites primarily located in North Kivu Province. Many IDPs are displaced and stay in one place of refuge for the duration of their displacement, as in North Kivu. However, IDPs in South Kivu and other areas also commonly use a strategy known as “déplacement pendulaire.” This means that, security allowing, they return to care for their agricultural land during the day and sleep in the place of displacement. Others may be displaced multiple times for relatively short periods of time, returning to their place of origin when it is deemed safe, only to be displaced again months or years later, further undermining their resilience.

In most cases, IDPs seek to remain close to their places of origin, fleeing to neighbouring communities or the bush. However, when IDPs lose access to their land for an extended period of time, or when insecurity follows them to their place of refuge, they are more likely to flee further from rural to more urban areas with host families or to IDP camps and sites. Most international and Government assistance to IDPs is concentrated on those living in IDP sites. IDPs who flee in small numbers and remain in remote areas may not receive any assistance, largely due to access challenges.

1. Causes

In those parts of the country where displacement has become protracted, this phenomenon has multiple causes. First and foremost is the ongoing conflict and insecurity in many areas of the country due to continued fighting or the presence of multiple armed groups in areas where Government authorities lack effective control over the territory. However, not all areas of eastern DRC are equally volatile, and thus insecurity alone is not the only barrier to finding durable solutions. Other reasons include (i) Government authorities’ lack of political will, technical capacity and resources to not only address the underlying causes of the conflict but also to find practical solutions to internal displacement, particularly regarding resolving complicated land issues; (ii) lack of a national legal framework that clearly sets out the role and responsibilities for respective Government ministries at all levels of Government, including financing mechanisms, and coordination with international actors; (iii) conflicts over land linked to competing use (farms, national parks, livestock, resource extraction and other purposes) and land occupation that go unresolved due to centralized and insufficient land management, conflicts between formal and customary law, and slow land-reform efforts; (iv) inadequate conditions in return areas in terms of livelihood opportunities and access to basic services, including health and education; (v) lack of concerted engagement and interest in finding durable solutions for IDPs, particularly by international development actors but also humanitarian actors who felt that immediate humanitarian needs were more pressing.

2. Impacts

Although not comprehensively documented, there are strong indications that protracted internal displacement has negatively impacted not only the IDPs but also the wider host community and the country as a whole. Relatively recent reliable data available for IDPs living with host families and in IDP sites in Goma indicate that “amongst the population studied across all districts of the city, IDPs are the most vulnerable population group, followed by host communities. Living conditions for IDPs are generally poor and marked by poor economic stability, low level
of asset ownership, and limited access to basic services.” Food security is also a significant challenge for many IDPs. Forty-five per cent of IDPs surveyed in Goma reported eating only one meal a day as compared to 26 per cent of residents who ate only once daily. IDPs’ food insecurity is linked to protracted displacement in terms of challenges in finding employment as well as an inability to access agricultural land over extended periods of time for reasons linked to insecurity or occupation, or the fact that crops may be destroyed due to armed conflicts. Overall, housing conditions are relatively the same among all population groups in Goma, but only 10 per cent of IDPs own property as compared with host families (59 per cent) and the regular population (51 per cent).

IDPs’ food insecurity is linked to protracted displacement in terms of challenges in finding employment as well as an inability to access agricultural land over extended periods of time for reasons linked to insecurity or occupation, or the fact that crops may be destroyed due to armed conflicts. Overall, housing conditions are relatively the same among all population groups in Goma, but only 10 per cent of IDPs own property as compared with host families (59 per cent) and the regular population (51 per cent).

This lack of secure housing tenure places IDPs at a much greater risk of harassment, forced eviction and other threats. Repeated displacement poses other social and cultural challenges for IDPs. Each time they are displaced they lose their assets, resulting in greater levels of poverty and an overall loss of stability that compound over time to weaken their self-sufficiency and resilience.

Protracted displacement has significant negative impacts on host families’ resources due to the protracted and repeated nature of the displacement. In general, host families face economic hardship and cramped living conditions in order to accommodate displaced guests, which can result in conflict within the household over time. IDPs also cited this burden as a reason for leaving a family over time. However, many host families were once displaced people themselves, and they provide support with the understanding that they may need to flee themselves in the future. Within the broader community, displacement can place a significant strain on access to resources, such as water and basic social services, with local authorities recognizing insufficient resources and planning to adjust to Goma’s growing population.

In terms of economic impact, the increase in the availability of low-cost day labour supplied by the IDPs has reportedly been welcomed by some who could profit. The researchers also heard anecdotal evidence that protracted displacement has had a negative impact on the national economy in the sense that the Kivus were once known as the breadbasket of the country.

Despite little documented evidence, protracted displacement allegedly contributes to continued insecurity and conflict in terms of long-standing IDP sites being infiltrated by militarized elements, and in terms of tensions emerging between the IDPs and the host communities, which resulted in armed conflict and new displacement. Thus, ending protracted displacement would be one component of finding a sustainable conclusion to the conflict.

3. Prospects for collective outcomes to address protracted displacement

Governmental leadership is weak regarding durable solutions in DRC. The country neither has an IDP law (a draft is pending with Parliament since 2014) nor a durable solutions strategy adopted by the national Government. At the same time, relevant ministries and authorities with assigned responsibility for displacement issues focus on humanitarian assistance and have overlapping activities.
This makes it difficult for the international community to work towards collective outcomes. The humanitarian community is generally viewed positively and its interventions have saved thousands of lives. However, it recognized that the overall humanitarian situation had not improved despite millions of dollars in assistance. Providing support for the creation of conditions that help to find durable solutions for IDPs is part of MONUSCO’s mandate, yet there is no comprehensive and system-wide approach to addressing protracted displacement in DRC. Nevertheless, there are several good practices that provide elements of such an approach.

In August 2016, efforts were under way to align development, humanitarian, and UN peace and security programming cycles to create spaces for conversation and ultimately allow for joint contextual analysis, objectives, planning and programming. Under the leadership of the DSRSG/RC/HC with the support of OCHA, the HCT recently changed to a three-year planning cycle to align with the preparation of the new UNDAF and the next International Security and Stabilization Support Strategy for DRC. Although still in its initial stages, a senior-level technical reference group has been created to participate in and review each other’s planning process. The OECD’s resilience systems analysis framework is being explored as a potential unifying framework for common action across the different pillars. Mapping the “9ws” (who is doing what where) for the humanitarian, development, and stabilization actors to identify overlap across the three pillars of activities is also part of these efforts. It is intended to contribute to identifying geographical and operational opportunities for collaborative and cooperative programming.

An IDP durable solutions strategy was developed in cooperation with the Ministry of Planning of North Kivu Province through a consultative process and analysis of existing literature and data by UNHCR and UNDP, with the support of a ProCap consultant. The strategy seeks to bring together the three pillars of international action and Government authorities to find durable solutions for IDPs, as set out in the IASC Framework on Durable Solutions, for IDPs who have been displaced for at least 12 months. The national strategy is meant to be piloted in a few initial locations, partly to clarify particular roles and responsibilities of the various actors.

As a pilot project to support community-based resilience, the Government of Sweden contributed humanitarian and development funding to the multi-donor humanitarian funding mechanism (the DRC Humanitarian Fund) to be distributed through a standard allocation allowing for the implementation of projects over an 18-month period. Such flexible funding, albeit limited at this time, helps to implement joint resilience-building efforts and thus can foster sustainable approaches to protracted displacement during an initial period.

There are also interesting examples of programmes and projects highlighting the need for holistic approaches to durable solutions, such as UNDP’s 3x6+ project development approach. It begins with a peacebuilding approach to foster social cohesion between IDPs, returnees and the resident population by developing a common, labour-intensive infrastructure project to benefit the whole community and generate jobs. This is followed by a livelihood education and training project that brings people together from the three groups to work together and save money, incentivizing collective action through financial investment,
again to promote social interaction. The group members are followed up with support to ensure the market viability of their livelihood activities. Such programmes are coordinated with other agencies’ activities to enhance their impact, for example, UNICEF developing an educational programme addressing the needs of children whose parents participate in the livelihood training project. However, such programmes are not sufficiently coordinated with camp closures and other instances where humanitarian actors are confronted with involuntary or involuntary returns.

Community-based programming—such as World Bank projects in Ituri, Katanga and the Kivus through community development projects—is another example of programmes seeking to improve the overall living conditions of the host community and displaced people in an effort to support greater community cohesion in return areas and reduce community tension. Working with local authorities, the World Bank develops specific priorities for each community context, which may include providing land to returnees or promoting agriculture.

Another example includes transforming IDP sites into viable communities as part of a wider camp-closure strategy in North Kivu. Two IDP sites have been identified and are in the early stages of being transformed into viable communities to support local integration for those who do not want to return to their place of origin. The process will ultimately include building new infrastructure and providing an increased police presence that also benefits the surrounding resident population. Initiated by the Camp Coordination and Camp Management Cluster, the process is carried out in collaboration with local government authorities and MONUSCO, which provides security.

Despite these positive examples, achieving collective outcomes in DRC will only be possible to a limited extent unless the Government becomes fully engaged and provides (political) leadership. The proposed establishment of a sub-commission on displacement within the Groupe Technique de Travail of the Cadre National de Concertation Humanitaire offers a viable perspective for bringing together all relevant national, humanitarian and development actors around a common analysis of the situation and collective goals for ending protracted displacement.

4. Recommendations

Based on this analysis and in line with the findings of this study, the following recommendations to address protracted displacement and prevent new displacement becoming protracted are made:

- **In general:**

  - In addition to long-term displacement, conceptualize pendular or repeated short-term displacement as protracted displacement when its cumulative impact results in increasing levels of vulnerability and impoverishment. The concept of protracted displacement should likewise apply to secondary displacements, i.e., situations where IDPs face violence and threats in the place where they found refuge that force them to flee to yet another location.

  - Focus interventions on displacement-affected communities (IDPs, their hosts
and communities in areas of return) rather than IDPs as beneficiaries. In particular,

- Strengthen the self-sufficiency of communities in return areas, even if returns might not be sustainable, in order to strengthen their resilience to withstand new shocks.

- Consider temporary or permanent local integration as an alternative to returns.

- Prioritize programmes and projects for displacement-affected communities that emphasize livelihoods and housing, land and property rights.

To the Government of the Democratic Republic of the Congo:

- In addition to providing humanitarian protection and assistance to IDPs, assume responsibility for creating conditions conducive to durable solutions. In particular,

  - Have the draft IDP law adopted by parliament before the upcoming elections.

  - Develop and adopt, in close cooperation with the international community and building on UNHCR's work, a national durable solutions strategy as a matter of priority.

  - Explicitly integrate internal displacement into existing provincial and local development plans as well as the envisaged National Development Plan and action plans based on it, including by defining strategic, clear, quantifiable, measurable and achievable outcomes.

  - Work through the Cadre National de Concertation Humanitaire to establish a sub-commission of the Groupe Technique de Travail as a platform for advancing sustainable solutions to protracted displacement, in consultation with relevant humanitarian and development actors.

  - Provide provinces affected by internal displacement with the necessary powers and resources to build the resilience of displacement-affected communities and work towards durable solutions.

  - Continue to provide, in close cooperation with MONUSCO, security to communities in return areas.

To humanitarian and development actors:

- Continue, as UNCT and HCT and under the leadership of the DSRSG/RC/HC, to align humanitarian, development and stabilization planning with a view to achieve conflict-sensitive collective outcomes addressing protracted displacement that are realistic under the present circumstances.

- Continue lobbying competent authorities to assume responsibility for IDPs beyond the provision of humanitarian assistance, particularly regarding measures necessary to address protracted displacement.

- Continue to lobby for the timely adoption of the pending draft IDP law and for the formal adoption of a
national, or in its absence a provincial, durable solutions strategy building on UNDP and UNHCR’s work.

- Use community-based approaches to gradually shift from a focus on providing humanitarian assistance in IDP camps and settlements to a wider approach that supports displacement-affected communities, such as through cash transfers, the provision of building materials to host families or the creation of livelihood opportunities.

- To prevent recurrent displacement, reinforce coordination mechanisms between international actors to facilitate and align short-term interventions by development and security actors alongside humanitarian responses to spontaneous returns or camp closures.

- Gradually shift from substituting for the Government to strengthening the capacity, particularly of provincial and local authorities, to deliver necessary services on their own.

» To donors:

- Provide and expand flexible humanitarian and development funding to the multi-donor humanitarian funding mechanism, allowing humanitarian actors to integrate, where appropriate, a resilience component within humanitarian responses to support collective outcomes aimed at strengthening the resilience of displacement-affected communities.

- Continue to provide and expand resources for community-based development programmes and projects seeking to improve the resilience and overall living conditions of displacement-affected communities.

III. Philippines

Most ongoing internal displacement in the Philippines is located in Mindanao, comprised of several southern islands with ongoing armed conflict, violence and the country’s highest poverty levels. During the first six months of 2016, an estimated 210,000 people were internally displaced in Mindanao due to armed conflict, clan feuds, family conflicts, crime and violence, although the vast majority of IDPs (153,000) were able to return home soon after their initial displacement. In addition, an estimated 76,000 people were living in temporary shelters in Eastern Mindanao following Typhoon Pablo, which struck the region in December 2012.

Natural hazards, such as typhoons and floods, regularly displace significant numbers of people in other parts of the country, placing the Philippines among the top 10 countries worldwide with the highest number of people displaced by disasters per capita. In November 2013, Typhoon Haiyan/Yolanda, the strongest tropical storm to ever make landfall, resulted in the deaths of some 6,000 people and the displacement of 4 million others in Tacloban and the surrounding eastern Visayas region.

In conflict and disaster contexts, internal displacement in the Philippines is largely characterized as short term, with people being brought to evacuation camps or seeking shelter in neighbouring villages with host families or urban areas. They then return to their places of origin relatively soon after the reason for the displacement has dissipated, despite damaged or
Buhaini Dimsian is over 70 years old and shares a room in a sports centre bunkhouses with her three granddaughters in Zamboanga, Philippines. Before being displaced, Buhaini made a living as a pearl dealer but now struggles to find work.

Credit: OCHA/Cworks
destroyed homes or inadequate livelihood opportunities. In Mindanao’s conflict-affected areas, for example, people are often displaced for weeks at a time to areas relatively close to their homes. Displacement is also generally short following disasters. For example, most IDPs returned to their homes relatively soon after the Typhoon Haiyan/ Yolanda. Small numbers of people have relocated to new sites or remain in transitional shelters, but the majority of IDPs are largely thought to have returned to their places of origin, rebuilt their homes and resumed their previous livelihoods to comparable pre-displacement levels, even though these areas are in “no dwelling zones” with high levels of disaster risk. Thus, protracted displacement in the sense of people living for many years or decades in displacement is not common in the Philippines. The estimated 12,800 IDPs in Zamboanga, Mindanao, are an exception: they still await a durable solution after being displaced by fighting between the Moro National Liberation Front and the Philippine Army in September 2013.

However, protracted displacement as understood in this study can also take the form of multiple displacements, which is common in the Philippines, particularly in conflict-affected areas of Mindanao. Over the course of a year, it is not uncommon for people to be displaced numerous times to avoid not only military operations or other forms of violence, but also disasters for days or weeks at a time to areas relatively close to their homes. Some locations, such as those in Maguindanao Province, are close enough for people to return to tend to their farms during the day. Over time, this repeated displacement, although short in duration, can gradually erode IDPs’ resilience if upon each return they need to repair damaged homes, replace destroyed assets, recover from lost livelihoods (such as an inability to harvest or plant crops), face higher levels of food insecurity, resume disrupted education or live with the cumulative psychosocial impacts of displacement.

1. Causes

Continuing armed conflict and other forms of violence, particularly over land, are the main reason repeated displacement becomes protracted. The root causes of ongoing violence are the high levels of extreme poverty and underdevelopment, the lack of effective justice systems to resolve land and other conflicts breeding a culture of violence, extrajudicial killings and the proliferation of small arms.

At a more operational level, the fact that authorities and the international community perceive repeated short-term displacement as a humanitarian problem only contributes to the increased weakening of the resilience of IDPs and host communities. For instance, a lack of investment in livelihoods may force IDPs to sell productive assets, or the absence of schooling in evacuation sites jeopardizes the education of repeatedly displaced youth.

In disaster contexts, challenges related to resettling IDPs to relocation sites may contribute to protracted displacement or spontaneous return to unsafe areas of origin. Inadequate conditions in relocation sites to complement housing construction, including a lack of sufficient livelihoods, water, electricity, sewage treatment, a lack of access to schools and health services, and inadequate consultations and planning with IDPs, have led to situations where IDPs have either not remained in newly constructed housing, refused to move in the first place or faced conditions not suitable for finding a
durable solution. Some of these difficulties are linked to the fact that authorities cannot find sufficient or suitable land for relocation sites, or they cannot resolve complex land tenure issues, which stalls the relocation process despite the availability of funds for housing.

Inadequate coordination, unclear roles and responsibilities, and slow disbursement of funds to respond to internal displacement between the central, regional and local government levels further undermine efforts to address and prevent protracted displacement in conflict and disaster contexts. Local government units (LGUs) have a calamity fund, but limited financial resources are often insufficient to support local integration. Other reasons include a lack of development plans at the barangay [smallest administrative division] level, and the absence of addressing displacement-specific needs in municipal and national development plans to incorporate durable solutions within overall development strategies, which are instead based on the regular population.

2. Impacts

The impact of recurrent internal displacement is not comprehensively documented in the Philippines, but there are strong indications that such displacement has negative effects not only on the IDPs but also on host families, the wider host community and local government authorities.

A key problem faced by IDPs is accessing and maintaining their livelihoods during displacement, particularly by farmers who need regular access to their agricultural land and fisher folk who need close proximity to the sea. This includes IDPs displaced for short periods of time in conflict and disaster situations and IDPs who had not yet found a durable solution in a relocation site. Even displacement for a week or month could have lasting impacts if productive assets were destroyed in the conflict or by a disaster (livestock killed, farming equipment burned in armed conflict or boats lost at sea), or if the season for planting or harvest occurred during displacement, resulting in significant financial setbacks.

Obstacles to finding durable solutions are often linked to land and housing issues, e.g., if IDPs do not receive adequate support to rebuild houses destroyed in fighting or in a disaster, or where IDPs did not own land to begin with, they have no place to go and so they squat on Government land in poorly constructed shelters with little to no security of tenure. In extreme cases, IDPs seek shelter in collective centres or camps, sometimes remaining for months or years at a time in crowded evacuation or transitional centres.

Collectively, the constant stress and poverty associated with the conflict and protracted displacement undermine the social fabric of IDP families and communities with generational effects. This can lead to negative coping mechanisms, including selling off productive assets, early marriage and seeking employment overseas as undocumented workers using traffickers. Mental health issues associated with repeated and protracted displacement are also more prevalent, with aid workers reporting increasing levels of depression and anxiety among IDPs despite the social stigma associated with mental health issues. Youth living in protracted displacement situations may stop attending school to help meet families’ needs or risk being drawn into radicalized groups given the uncertainty of the peace process, poverty and general perceived lack of opportunities. Notably,
IDPs did not report discrimination, because they generally were welcomed and stayed with family or members of the same clan.

Host families and communities are also affected by the high levels of poverty and the impacts of conflict and disasters prevalent in displacement-affected communities. In addition, however, hosting displaced family members for extended periods of time creates social and financial burdens for host families that, over time, can undermine their own resilience and prompt them to seek Government assistance. In 2010, host communities stated that the presence of IDPs also increased competition for jobs.¹

LGUs as the first responders to displacement face financial and operational burdens when providing assistance for IDPs. LGUs may have a small “calamity fund” to respond to needs following a disaster, but this fund can quickly be exhausted by multiple or extended displacement incidents, leaving LGUs to request additional assistance from the municipal level, which in turn often faces administrative hurdles to access funds from central authorities. In particular, it was noted that protracted displacement strains school and health-care facilities when local budgets are not expanded.

The broader host community may also bear the brunt of IDPs’ negative coping mechanisms during protracted displacement (e.g., petty crime, violence and drug abuse) in the absence of adequate livelihoods support, as was noted in Tacloban after humanitarian aid workers left Typhoon Haiyan/Yolanda-affected areas. Agricultural land left idle during displacement was also noted as having a negative impact on the overall economic productivity of central Mindanao and the eastern Visayas region.

3. Prospects for collective outcomes to address protracted displacement

The Philippines has very advanced disaster management laws and systems,² and in most cases it is successful in addressing the immediate humanitarian needs of displaced people. It also has sophisticated laws and systems regarding recovery in the aftermath of disasters.³ However, despite several attempts, it has not yet been possible to adopt a law specifically protecting IDPs.

Here, the challenge is implementation that sometimes is hindered by inadequate coordination between different central Government authorities and between the central, regional and local government levels, bureaucratic obstacles and slow disbursement of funds. To the extent desired by the Government, the international community can contribute to collective outcomes in the aftermath of disasters mainly by providing capacity and support to ensure that relocation-and-return programmes and projects are planned and implemented in consultation with and through the participation of IDPs and provide comprehensive solutions, particularly by addressing livelihoods and DRR in addition to housing.

In the absence of sustainable peace in Mindanao, the challenge regarding conflict-induced internal displacement is to safeguard the resilience of victims of recurrent displacement and improve their living conditions pending durable solutions. To achieve that, it is important to understand recurrent displacement as a protracted displacement crisis for affected communities that cannot be adequately addressed by short-term humanitarian assistance.
only. Besides full respect for international humanitarian law by parties to the conflict, effective practices to help improve the living conditions of IDPs and returnees pending durable solutions in the volatile context of Mindanao would include measures such as i) improved information to and participation of IDPs; ii) increasing and expanding community-based peacebuilding and conflict-resolution programmes and projects; iii) strong investments in livelihood programmes and projects; iv) transitional or permanent local integration by providing access to land for housing and agricultural production; and v) building the capacity of LGUs. The planned adoption of the IDP law would facilitate such a comprehensive approach. In any case, and regardless of whether the law is adopted, it is highly advisable to develop a comprehensive IDP strategy for Mindanao that includes measures to address and prevent protracted displacement.

4. Recommendations

Based on this analysis and in line with the findings of this study, the following recommendations to address protracted displacement and prevent new displacement becoming protracted are made:

▶ In general:

- Regarding conflict-induced displacement:
  - Conceptualize pendular or repeated short-term displacement as protracted displacement that needs to be addressed or prevented.
  - Focus, even in the absence of realistic prospects for durable solutions, on interventions strengthening the resilience and self-sufficiency of displacement-affected communities, i.e., IDPs, their hosts and communities in areas of return rather than just IDPs, and ensure that IDPs can participate in community-based decision-making processes.

- Put a particular emphasis on livelihoods and issues related to housing, land and property rights.

- Consider temporary or permanent local integration as an alternative to returns for those IDPs who do not wish to return.

- Invest in community-based programmes and projects that address protection challenges issues, such as gender-based violence or child protection, respond to IDPs’ psychosocial needs, strengthen social cohesion and support peace-building and conflict-resolution projects.

- Regarding disaster-related displacement:
  - Ensure that relocation programmes adopt a holistic approach based on comprehensive site planning, with adequate support at the LGU level and in close collaboration and cooperation with IDPs and other members of the displacement-affected community to ensure, in particular, that the site has: (i) affordable, convenient access to livelihood opportunities, (ii) shelters designed based on the needs and desires of IDPs, and with clear title and repayment schemes clearly articulated, (iii) electricity, water and sewage, (iv) access to schools, health facilities and
markets, (v) DRR measures and (vi) community-governance structures.

- Develop, in cooperation with the private sector, insurance, credit and other financial products helping disaster-affected businesses, farmers and fisher folk to rebound as quickly as possible.

- Develop livelihood programmes in conflict and disaster situations that span the emergency phase to also address longer-term sustainability through activities such as:
  - Ensuring that such programmes: i) apply a “whole market approach” based on market analysis, ii) support multitargeted, diversified livelihoods in the same household, iii) provide medium- to long-term support and iv) include capital savings and insurance components to strengthen resilience against future shocks.
  - Systematically assessing IDPs’ skills at an early stage, such as while in evacuation or transitional shelters, to identify people with pre-existing skills who can more easily be trained and made productive quickly.

- Ensure IDPs are adequately informed of and included in decisions affecting them.

▸ To the Government of the Philippines:
  - Strongly encourage Parliament to adopt the draft IDP Act.
  - Develop a durable solutions strategy for conflict-affected IDPs with strategic, clear, quantifiable, measurable and achievable outcomes that include options for local integration as well as measures to improve IDPs’ living conditions pending and after return, recognizing that many conflict-affected IDPs are in protracted situations.

- Develop a national housing policy that sets out clear standards and practices for temporary, transitional and permanent housing in conflict- and disaster-displacement contexts.

- Provide LGUs with capacity-building support and financial support to integrate IDPs within local development and DRRM plans, such as through the provision of timely funding from the central Government to prepare for and respond to displacement.

- Conduct a stocktaking exercise of pre-existing technical assistance projects already under way in-country to determine what projects have been most effective for addressing protracted displacement with a view to scaling them up in other areas.

▸ To international humanitarian and development actors:
  - Advocate for the timely adoption of the pending draft IDP law and for the development and adoption of a durable solutions strategy for conflict-affected IDPs.
  - Identify areas where humanitarian and development actors could support the Government in achieving collective outcomes addressing and preventing protracted internal displacement in conflict and disaster situations.
• Identify IDPs in protracted situations and monitor displacement-affected communities over time to assess IDPs’ progress in achieving durable solutions.

To donors:

• Provide mixed humanitarian and development financing to develop holistic responses.

IV. Somalia

With the number of IDPs approaching an estimated 1.5 million people, about 9 per cent of Somalia’s population is internally displaced. About 80 per cent find themselves in southern and central Somalia, with Mogadishu alone hosting up to 400,000 IDPs. Puntland hosts some 130,000 IDPs, mainly in Galkayo and Bossaso, with smaller numbers in Garowe and Sool Sanaag. Somaliland has approximately 84,000 IDPs, with Hargeisa hosting the largest numbers. While new displacement takes place every year, the large majority of Somali IDPs are in protracted displacement. These IDPs fled armed conflict as early as the 1988 bombing of Hargeisa, with others displaced after many years of inter-clan violence and armed conflict in the aftermath of the 1991 collapse of the Government of Somalia and the 2011/12 drought and famine. Others had to move due to forced evictions. Most recently, the successive failure of two rainy seasons and the looming fear of a famine amidst an ongoing background of insecurity and conflict have forced around 400,000 people to move mostly towards cities and towns, with the number continuing to rise. Many IDPs have been displaced several times due to various causes. Many IDPs, particularly those displaced by drought or flooding, originate from rural areas. However, most IDPs currently live in urban or peri-urban areas. In several instances, IDP settlements have turned into urban slums with high levels of impoverishment. IDP settlements may also host returning refugees (returnees), who find themselves in an IDP-like situation as they were unable to return to their places of origin and rebuild normal lives. For example, in Hargeisa, where economic migrants, refugees and urban poor have joined IDP settlements in large numbers, sometimes non-IDPs even constitute the majority there.

1. Causes

In Mogadishu and Hargeisa, the majority of IDPs plan to stay in their present locations rather than return to their places of origin either because they have adapted to urban lifestyles or because return and sustainable reintegration are difficult due to the overall security situation, on-going conflict and lack of state presence in southern and central Somalia. In areas that came under Governmental control after successful military operations, return is hindered by insufficient efforts to rebuild rural economies and local services and create effective civilian local administrations. Thus, the “availability of livelihood opportunities in Mogadishu, however precarious, followed by the opportunity to access humanitarian assistance (...) and available public services” are the second and third main reasons cited by IDPs on why they want to stay rather than return.

There are multiple reasons why many IDPs live in protracted displacement. For IDPs seeking a durable solution through local integration or sustainable relocation in the urban and peri-urban areas where many
Internally displaced children at a learning center close to Mogadishu.
Credit: UN Photo/Tobin Jones
have found refuge, evictions as well as insufficient land for permanent settlement pose the most important obstacles. The latter is due to the fact that according to present law, public land is very limited or even non-existent, making it difficult to provide land for relocation. The problem is further exacerbated by a widespread lack of clarity regarding land ownership and instances of competing property claims by two or more people. Clan issues may also undermine the potential for durable solutions in some areas.

A specific issue in Somalia is so-called “gatekeeping”. Gatekeepers are people who control access and contact between IDPs and the international community, local NGOs and even authorities. Gatekeepers can be local officials, landowners, clan leaders, business people or local organizations. On the positive side, gatekeepers provide IDPs with a site where they can settle, reach out to humanitarian organizations to arrange the delivery of assistance to “their” IDPs and provide IDPs with some degree of security. At the same time, gatekeepers may divert or tax humanitarian assistance and exploit and abuse (e.g., rape) IDPs, particularly if IDPs cannot pay rent or taxes. Thus, to maintain their source of income, gatekeepers may prevent IDPs from returning to their places of origin or moving to a location where they could locally integrate.

Finally, displaced populations have not been integrated within regular State action and, with some exceptions (relocation sites in Bossaso, Galkayo and Hargeisa), infrastructure and services have not been expanded to serve IDP settlements. This is exacerbated by decades of conflict that have weakened the role of state and local governments in providing infrastructure and delivering basic services to cover the existing needs of the general population.

2. Impacts

While Somalia’s humanitarian and development situation is highly problematic for large parts of the population, recent profiling reports indicate that the impacts of protracted displacement on IDPs may differ from place to place. In Hargeisa, differences between IDPs and the local poor are minimal. By contrast, IDPs in Mogadishu are worse off than non-displaced Somalis in several respects.

Regarding safety and security, exorbitantly high levels of gender-based violence in IDP settlements are a continuing problem. On issues related to an adequate standard of living, IDPs account for 58 per cent of people who are food insecure even though they only comprise an estimated 9 per cent of the whole population. Some IDPs have been able to integrate into urban labour markets, but many do not possess the skills required in urban settings due to their rural origins. While the unemployment rate of IDPs is only slightly higher than that of the host community in Mogadishu, IDPs are more likely to work as daily workers (47 per cent) than members of the host community (30 per cent). In Mogadishu, more IDPs live in sub-standard housing than members of the host communities. One of the biggest protection challenges for IDPs are forced evictions as they settle on public land or private plots whose ownership is contested. Marginalization, discrimination and social exclusion are common experiences for IDPs who belong to minority groups, or who have lost their clan protection because they fled to areas where their clan is not present or is weak.
Impacts on host communities are not well documented. However, as recognized in the National Development Plan, the impact is mainly perceived as negative. The high numbers of IDPs in some urban areas (e.g., Mogadishu) put a high strain on already weak urban services. Many IDPs settle in public buildings needed by governmental authorities or on private land that cannot be used for productive purposes, hindering the development of fast-growing cities, such as Mogadishu. Authorities also often view IDP settlements as locations where Al-Shabaab fighters hide.

3. Prospects for collective outcomes to address protracted displacement

Presently, there are good opportunities for collective outcomes to reduce the number of IDPs in protracted displacement in Somalia. While returns to rural areas remain limited for the time being, there is a potential for local integration or resettlement within urban and peri-urban areas where the majority of IDPs wish to locally integrate.

In December 2015, the DSRSG/RC/HC supported by UNHCR and UNDP, launched the Somalia IDP Solutions Initiative, which was immediately welcomed by the Federal Government of Somalia, subnational governments and several donors. In the course of 2016, the DSRSG/RC/HC expanded the focus of the Durable Solutions Initiatives (DSI) from an IDP-centred approach to an approach simultaneously addressing the needs of “all displaced and displacement affected communities,” including IDPs, refugee returnees and host communities. This integrated and comprehensive approach to durable solutions promotes an area-based, multi-sectoral, multi-stakeholder, rights and needs-based approach involving humanitarian and development partners (UN, IASC Clusters, NGOs, international financial institutions, regional bodies, diaspora, private sector, etc.) under the leadership of the Government. Using this approach, Joint Area Based Assessments were developed in Kismayo, Bay and Benadir, with a Joint Area Based Durable Solutions Action Plan finalized for Kismayo.

The initiative is a Government-led comprehensive effort of relevant stakeholders attracting a “coalition of the willing” within and beyond the UN that aims to implement a paradigm shift with respect to forced displacement, moving from short-term humanitarian action focusing on beneficiaries towards community- and rights-driven, long-term and sustainably integrated and area-based approaches.

The Federal Government of Somalia has clearly and unambiguously expressed its strong political commitment domestically and in international forums (e.g., the 2017 IGAD Summit on Solutions for Somali Refugees) to support a state-led and community-focused Durable Solutions Initiative. In addition, representatives of several federal states have also made clear statements in support of the initiative. Policy frameworks that cover durable solutions already exist in Puntland and Somaliland but still need to be developed at the federal level.

The most important element of the initiative is the integration of internal displacement into the first National Development Plan adopted in October 2016. The National Development Plan acknowledges that internal displacement is one of the main causes of poverty in Somalia. One of the NDP’s explicit visions is “To reverse
the trend of protracted displacement and substantially reduce the number of IDPs in such displacement by facilitating and supporting durable solutions that bring them back into mainstream life and address underlying causes of their displacement and its protracted nature.\textsuperscript{511} It also sets out a strategic goal “To systematically enhance the absorption capacity of basic services for IDPs and returning refugees, enhance access to affordable housing and land as well as to vocational skill (sic) and professional development and facilitate and diversify access to employment sectors and labour market.”\textsuperscript{512} The plan does not set out quantitative goals.

Implementation of the strategy is bottom-up. At the time of this writing, an action plan for Kismayo covering IDPs, returning refugees from Dadaab and host communities was being finalized. The plan includes humanitarian, development and governance elements. This approach has already received substantial donor support. Replication of this model in other parts of Somalia is envisaged.

With the federal and state governments taking the lead, the international community’s role is to support governmental efforts. In this regard, four work streams are envisaged or under way.

i. An innovation competition will provide small grants up to $10,000 for IDPs and/or host communities to roll out the initiative, anchor it at grassroots levels allowing for the participation of communities, and generate examples of good practices adapted to local contexts that can inspire programming.

ii. Efforts to integrate IDPs into on-going and envisaged development programmes and looking for additional (“topping-up”) resources to expand the geographical scope of area-based programmes or to include IDPs into targeted beneficiaries are also key elements. They support the principle that because IDPs are citizens of their own country, efforts to address their marginalization should aim to bring them back within mainstream society rather than addressing their needs through stand-alone interventions. Priority actions thus include mapping potentially relevant programmes and projects, reaching out to relevant stakeholders and developing a topping-up mechanism.

iii. The creation of a joint programme by UN agencies on IDP durable solutions to address gaps within existing programmes that, while conducive and ready to integrate IDPs, do not cover all thematic and geographic areas that are relevant for finding durable solutions for IDPs.

iv. Finally, the international community was and is providing technical capacity to relevant authorities.

While the National Development Plan does not set quantitative goals, the State-led and community-focused Durable Solutions Initiative provides an excellent framework for achieving collective outcomes, particularly at the level of sub-national and local plans based on the National Development Plan. The Durable Solutions Initiative is also a good example of the role the UN can play under the leadership of the RC/HC in triggering and supporting governmental efforts to address protracted displacement.
4. Recommendations

Based on this analysis and in line with the findings of this study, the following recommendations to address protracted displacement and prevent recent displacement from becoming protracted are made:

- To the Government of Somalia:
  - Create, at the federal level, a task force incorporating durable solutions for the displaced at the level of the Prime Minister’s Office (e.g., chaired by the Deputy Prime Minister) and support of the implementation of the National Development Plan, including the development of relevant national policy and legislation.
  - Provide strong leadership to address the causes of protracted internal displacement, such as gatekeeping or repeated evictions without the provision of adequate alternatives.
  - Integrate strategic, clear, quantifiable, measurable and achievable outcomes for addressing protracted displacement into national and subnational development plans, action plans or strategies.
  - Focus on:
    - permanent local integration or sustainable relocation in urban and peri-urban rural areas for IDPs and refugee returnees opting for this solution.
    - improving living conditions for IDPs and refugee returnees willing to return pending opportunities for durable solutions in areas of origin.
  - Use area-based urban-planning approaches that integrate existing settlements with displaced population and planned relocation sites within urban areas with access to infrastructure and services.
  - Acquire private land for housing displaced people with secure tenure, such as by obliging landowners whose property value increased as a consequence of improved urban infrastructure and services in formally undeveloped areas to transfer part of their land to the State.

- To humanitarian and development actors:
  - Continue the envisaged efforts, as outlined above to support the Somalia Durable Solutions Initiative, applying an approach based upon strategic, clear, quantifiable, measurable and achievable outcomes for addressing protracted displacement.
  - Expand the number of participating UN agencies with experience in urban and rural livelihoods as well as urban planning and social cohesion such as FAO, ILO, IOM, UNIDO, UN Habitat and the World Bank.
  - Support bottom-up approaches (e.g., state action plans, community-based projects) within the framework of
• With specific reference to drought-induced mass displacement, respond to the humanitarian needs of IDPs in their current locations, while simultaneously investing in the conservation and development of natural resources such as land, watersheds, agriculture and livestock, to provide durable solutions \textit{in-situ} by minimizing the impacts of drought as a driver of displacement.

• Ensure that the ongoing, lifesaving humanitarian response is delivered as close to beneficiaries’ homes as possible to minimize the need for displacement and lessen the burden on urban areas.

\textbf{To donors:}

• Provide flexible multi-year funding to support strategic, clear, quantifiable, measurable and achievable outcomes for addressing protracted displacement.

• Consider channeling some funds through governmental entities at federal, state and local levels.

\textbf{V. Ukraine}\textsuperscript{513}

Internal displacement in Ukraine is primarily due to the armed conflict in the country’s eastern Donbass region that started in April/May 2014. Presently, more than 1.7 million people are officially registered as IDPs,\textsuperscript{514} amounting to 4 per cent of Ukraine’s overall population of 42.5 million but not including those displaced inside non-Government controlled areas. Displacement first occurred in 2014 and is ongoing. Since the beginning of 2016, another 106,000 IDPs were registered as such, although some of them might have been displaced earlier but were unable to register at the time of their displacement.\textsuperscript{515} The number of people displaced inside the non-Government-controlled areas is unknown. A much smaller number of IDPs originate from Crimea, which was annexed by Russia in March 2014.

The majority of IDPs remain close to their original homes, with 55 per cent of all IDPs located in Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts\textsuperscript{516} and a significant number (almost 200,000) in neighbouring Kharkiv Oblast. The capital, Kiev, hosts more than 100,000 IDPs, with the remaining IDPs living in other locations across the country. Many people who are registered as IDPs in the Government-controlled areas of the eastern oblasts move back and forth between the so-called contact line (which separates the parties to the conflict) to access social payments and markets and keep family ties.\textsuperscript{517}

While displacement in Ukraine is relatively recent, there is wide-spread consensus among national and international actors that in the absence of any progress in the peace process, Ukraine will need to face the challenge of protracted internal displacement. Some IDPs have already successfully found regular jobs or reestablished their businesses in new locations, helping them to lead relatively normal lives. But the majority of IDPs face a multitude of difficulties. Some even returned in precarious, often unsafe, conditions when their coping mechanisms were exhausted.

1. Causes

In addition to the ongoing conflict, insufficient Government attention to addressing displacement as a matter
Liudila Khomenko walks away from her home near Mariupol, Ukraine, which was destroyed by a rocket on January 24, 2015.

Credit: UNICEF
of priority, linked to the absence of a comprehensive and operational solutions strategy or action plan, is a major problem. Inconsistencies or contradictions between provisions of several legal instruments in different policy areas exacerbate the situation, as do inadequate human and financial resources, particularly at local government levels. Besides the overall economic downturn of Ukraine in recent years, IDPs’ ability to rebuild their lives and integrate into communities is also undermined by structural problems, such as widespread poverty, the overall high degree of unemployment, very low salaries in many economic sectors, the fact that many IDPs lack marketable skills, unfriendly business environments for starting a small business and increasing social tensions. The fact that the registration of IDPs has consequences tantamount to a legal status may further complicate efforts to find durable solutions, because in many cases deregistration triggers a loss of other social benefits linked to registration, such as pension rights.

2. Impacts

Overall, IDPs in Ukraine’s Government-controlled areas were well received by host communities when they arrived, with emergency humanitarian assistance provided by civil society and, to some extent, the Government, particularly including local authorities and the international community. Some IDPs had sufficient means to help themselves, at least at the beginning of the crisis. Due to these concerted efforts, the scale of a humanitarian emergency was mitigated.

Many problems faced by IDPs are structural in nature and also affect non-displaced Ukrainians. Nevertheless, key problems faced by many IDPs include a lack of livelihood opportunities and uncertain housing prospects. Regarding livelihoods, while poverty affects many Ukrainians, IDPs are in a particularly precarious situation. In 2014 and 2015, while 8.6 per cent of the general population was living at or below the national poverty line, some 81 per cent of IDPs fell within that category. A large percentage of IDPs are pensioners, but unemployment among economically active IDPs is also significantly higher than among non-displaced people. IDP women reportedly risk engaging in informal, unregulated employment or becoming victims of human trafficking. Many IDP households are led by women, who lack supportive social networks and face particular problems finding employment.

There are also marked differences between IDPs and non-displaced people regarding housing. Some 89 per cent of the local population in eastern Ukraine (Donesk and Luhansk oblasts) live in houses and apartments that they own. In comparison, 61 per cent of IDPs rent accommodation, 23 per cent live with host families and 4 per cent stay in collective shelters. Even then, only 17 per cent of IDPs in rental accommodation, as opposed to 90 per cent of non-displaced tenants, have Government-recognized rental contracts, exposing the large majority to the risk of arbitrary rent increases or evictions. In addition, many IDPs do not know how much longer they will be able to pay rent once their savings are depleted, and some are even returning to their place of origin for this reason. IDPs living in collective centres may also risk evictions, for instance, when owners want to use their buildings for other purposes or sell them.

Problems related to documentation and registration issues make IDPs more
vulnerable over time. For instance, remnants of the Soviet-era propiska-system [internal migration management system] make it difficult for IDPs (as well as for non-displaced Ukrainians) to become regular residents with full rights at their present location. One consequence is that most IDPs are not registered as residents and therefore cannot take part in local elections.

Regarding the future, the fact that the contact line has become a de facto border has a negative economic and social impact on people living in non-Government-controlled areas, which may trigger further displacement.

With respect to host communities, areas with a particularly large influx of IDPs (Donetsk, Kharkiv and Luhansk oblasts) have reportedly experienced additional strains on already limited local services, as well as increases in rental and food prices, and downward pressure on wages and employment opportunities. On the positive side, some localities benefited from the arrival of IDPs, particularly in areas that received institutions and businesses that relocated from non-Government- to Government-controlled areas. Due to the arrival of new families, some villages were also able to avert the risk of having their schools or other services closed due to a previous decline in population.

At the national level, protracted displacement is likely to undermine certain policy reforms, for instance, efforts to combat poverty or alleviate the overburdened and outdated pension system. Also, Ukraine has experienced a strong decline of its population in recent decades, which, inter alia, is due to large-scale emigration. Not taking measures to improve IDPs’ situation risks undermining Ukraine’s efforts to address this demographic challenge if IDPs opt for emigration once their coping mechanisms are exhausted and they lose hope for a better future in their home country.

Regarding conflict dynamics, the fact that many IDPs maintain contact with families and friends who remain in non-Government-controlled areas, travelling back and forth across the contact line is an opportunity for them to contribute to confidence-building across communities on opposing sides of the conflict. On the other hand, unless the risk of protracted displacement is addressed in ways responding to legitimate demands of IDPs and their host communities, social cohesion may be undermined and tensions between displaced people and hosts increase, creating additional challenges of finding peace and stability in Ukraine.

3. Prospects for collective outcomes to address protracted displacement

Now that IDPs’ immediate humanitarian needs have largely been addressed, it is important to help the remaining number of IDPs find solutions for themselves before they become even more vulnerable, and thus potentially relapse into the category of people who need long-term humanitarian assistance. Action is needed to avoid creating long-term burdens on host communities, weakening social cohesion and undermining governmental policies in areas such as poverty alleviation or pension reform. Action is also needed to avoid premature, unsafe returns, which were already observed in 2016. Therefore, it is important to look at internal displacement not only as a humanitarian challenge but also a development challenge. However, some voices within the Government and the international community feel that,
with the exception of particularly vulnerable people with continuing humanitarian needs, no specific interventions are needed, because it is assumed that IDPs will be able to fend for themselves in the way that many other poor Ukrainians do. Nonetheless, others emphasize that specific efforts by development actors in particular are necessary because many IDPs have depleted their own resources and yet no longer can count on continuing humanitarian assistance. Thus, they risk becoming more vulnerable over time, placing increasing levels of burden on their host communities, as described above.

Despite the absence of concerted and operational governmental programmes, there are key elements that could help move towards collective outcomes to prevent internal displacement becoming protracted in Ukraine:

i. The recent adoption of the Targeted State Program for Recovery and Peacebuilding in the Eastern Regions of Ukraine aims at restoration of critical infrastructure and key social services in these areas, economic recovery, and improvement of social stability, peacebuilding and public safety. IDPs are not explicitly mentioned as part of these activity areas, but the programme explicitly recognizes that without proper interventions, internal displacement will increasingly burden host communities.

ii. The recently created Ministry for Temporarily Occupied Territories and Internally Displaced Persons is tasked with implementing the Targeted State Program and with assisting IDPs in finding durable solutions. While institutionally still weak, the Ministry can act as a driver of and focal point for activities aimed at finding durable solutions for IDPs, as long as it is fully and explicitly empowered by the Government to do so.

iii. The creation of the National Council for Recovery and Peacebuilding (chaired by Deputy Prime Minister), entrusted with the coordination of programmes and activities of relevant ministries pertaining to the implementation of the Targeted State Program, provides a mechanism to coordinate Government-wide activities.

iv. The creation of the United Nations/World Bank Multi-Partner Trust Fund (MPTF) on peacebuilding and recovery to support the Ministry in implementing the Targeted State Program provides some initial, albeit limited, funding and may attract further resources.

In addition, efforts to move towards collective outcomes to prevent protracted internal displacement will need to be supported by:

i) the Government developing a strategy or action plan on durable solutions and adopting a clear whole-of-Government engagement that brings together all State institutions dealing with IDPs; ii) the UN Country Team defining the UN’s contribution to achieve these goals as part of its HRP and UNDAF; (iii) a systematic and thorough engagement with the civil society, as most of the support has been provided and continues to be provided through local initiatives; and iv) multilateral development banks and bilateral donors rallying behind such efforts.

4. Recommendations

Based on this analysis and in line with the findings of this study, the following recommendations to address protracted
displacement and prevent recent displacement becoming protracted are made:

▸ To the Government of Ukraine:

• Recognize in all actions that IDPs, regardless of whether they live in Government- or non-Government-controlled areas, are citizens or part of the regular population of Ukraine with the same rights as non-displaced Ukrainians, but as victims of conflict, they have specific needs and vulnerabilities.

• Recognize internal displacement not only as a humanitarian challenge but also a development challenge.

• Adopt a whole-of-Government approach, and review and revise policies and normative frameworks that create obstacles for IDPs to move towards durable solutions, such as by:
  - removing legal and administrative impediments for IDPs to regain self-sufficiency, such as obstacles to opening a business.
  - addressing inconsistencies or contradictions between different policies and legal instruments, as identified by the Council of Europe, that exacerbate the situation of IDPs.
  - avoiding policies that undermine IDPs’ resilience, such as linking the loss of IDP status with the loss of pension rights.

• Prioritize the development of an action plan, based on the Targeted State Program for Recovery and Peacebuilding in the Eastern Regions of Ukraine, to address and prevent protracted displacement across the country, that:
  - is elaborated in close cooperation with the Ministry for Temporarily Occupied Territories and Internally Displaced Persons with relevant line ministries through a collaborative process that brings together humanitarian, development and protection actors, civil society and donors.
  - defines strategic, clear, quantifiable, measurable and achievable outcomes.
  - focuses on displacement-affected communities (IDPs and host communities), rather than IDPs as individuals.
  - fosters and facilitates local solutions using community-based approaches, which include the strong participation of IDPs and their hosts, and build on partnerships between authorities, civil society and the business community.
  - ensures that local governments have sufficient capacity and resources to facilitate local integration of IDPs.
  - emphasizes generating livelihood opportunities to help IDPs move out of poverty and temporary housing solutions.

▸ To all parties to the conflict:

• Ensure that humanitarian assistance in accordance with the principles of
humanity, neutrality, impartiality and independence can reach people in need wherever they are.

To international humanitarian and development actors:

- Foster synergies between humanitarian and development actors to facilitate working across silos.
- Foster community-based initiatives, and engage systematically and thoroughly with civil society to ensure sustainability of efforts, particularly at local levels.
- Systematically integrate displacement-affected communities into relevant development programmes and projects, including for longer-term interventions close to the contact line, in order to mitigate negative socioeconomic impacts that might trigger additional displacement.
- Agree as the UNCT/HCT on collective outcomes as the UN’s contribution to governmental efforts to prevent internal displacement in Ukraine from becoming protracted, and to integrate such outcomes into the forthcoming UNDAF and other relevant planning tools, including a possible multi-year humanitarian plan.

To donors:

- In addition to resources needed for ongoing humanitarian assistance, provide generous multi-year flexible funding, particularly to the existing United Nations/World Bank Multi-Partner Trust Fund on peacebuilding and recovery to support strategic, clear, quantifiable, measurable and achievable outcomes on protracted internal displacement.
- Ensure synergies between humanitarian and development donors.
ANNEX II
Impacts on IDPs – The Evidence

I. Long-term safety, security and freedom of movement

1. Safety and security conditions

When people flee armed conflict, violence or natural hazards, displacement is often a means to escape specific dangers and find safety elsewhere in the country. After escaping the initial cause of displacement, IDPs may face the same challenges as the local population in accessing safety, security and justice. However, depending on the circumstances, IDPs in protracted displacement may encounter the following categories of risks related to safety and security:

- Insecurity due to location in contested areas or close to ongoing fighting: IDPs living in contested areas, such as in border regions, may be exposed to armed conflict, skirmishes or security incidents that may prompt the need for repeated displacement.

- Violent conflict with host communities: Such conflict may have several causes, including the fact that IDPs are occupying public land or buildings pending return or relocation over a prolonged period; competing over and exhausting local natural resources, such as water or firewood; or are drawn into inter-ethnic or religious strife, including in return areas.

- Increased levels of gender-based and domestic violence: Social upheaval, marginalized living conditions, impoverishment and the consequential shifting of gender roles associated with prolonged displacement may exacerbate pre-existing risks, such as gender-based violence and domestic violence, that increase when overall living conditions deteriorate, such as in poorly maintained camps or collective centres. Even IDPs living with welcoming host families may find that the burden of sharing cramped living spaces, food and financial resources can eventually lead to tension and conflict between displaced people and their hosts, with children and women at a heightened risk of abuse.

- Trafficking, particularly of women and girls: Heightened risks of trafficking may emerge from greater impoverishment, particularly when humanitarian assistance has decreased over time or been phased out before IDPs have gained improved livelihood opportunities.

- Infiltration of camps and settlements by criminal elements: Such elements may use extortion to profit from continuing humanitarian assistance or profit from
opportunities created by the vacuum left behind when humanitarian actors leave. In some cases, it has been reported that second-generation IDPs in protracted displacement, particularly male youth, have turned to crime in the absence of legal means to meet their needs.

The “militarization” or control of IDP camps and settlements by armed groups: This happens where such sites are used as a hiding place before or after military or terrorist operations or where dissatisfied youth are (forcibly) recruited as child soldiers or radicalized. A rather unique situation exists in Colombia, where right-wing paramilitary organizations and other non-State armed groups exert control over IDPs in urban areas who are suspected of having been supporters of left-wing guerrilla groups.

The use of violence to evict IDPs from occupied land or buildings: IDPs living for extended periods on public or private land not owned by them often refuse to leave when faced with evictions that do not follow applicable human rights standards. This may prompt State and non-State actors to resort to violence to force IDPs to vacate the premises.

Exposure to high levels of disaster risk: IDPs living in sub-standard housing, such as within informal, unplanned settlements in urban areas, are often exposed to higher levels of disaster risk, such as flooding or storms, and health risks associated with congestion.

II. Freedom of movement

IDPs in protracted displacement situations occurring within ongoing or frozen conflicts may face restrictions on their freedom of movement, particularly when their displacement has been politicized. Over time, restrictions on freedom of movement can greatly contribute to greater impoverishment by limiting IDPs’ access to livelihood opportunities, social and family networks, basic services and education.

People living in protracted displacement within an active conflict zone or a high disaster risk area face the potential of being displaced multiple times before finding a durable solution, particularly when the underlying reasons for the initial displacement remain. In Iraq, unresolved property and land tenure issues placed IDPs at a continuous risk of eviction and multiple displacement. Repeated displacement often destroys whatever assets IDPs may have acquired in their first site of displacement, essentially forcing them to start rebuilding their lives all over again in the new site. Multiple displacements can also exacerbate the pre-existing vulnerability of particular groups, such as older people.

II. Adequate standard of living

In many conflict, post-conflict and post-disaster situations, it may be difficult to determine whether IDPs’ inability to maintain an adequate standard of living is linked to protracted displacement as such, or whether it reflects a more general state of a weakened economy, the impacts of the crisis, poor governance or underdevelopment.
Evidence in some contexts shows that people in protracted internal displacement face greater difficulties maintaining an adequate standard of living as compared with the broader community within which they live. For example, research on IDPs in south-east Europe and the Caucasus found that “IDPs are more often impoverished, unemployed, less educated and in a poorer state of health than their non-displaced neighbours.” The same is true to a large extent in Mogadishu as well as in Colombia, where IDPs are more likely to experience absolute poverty than non-displaced members of the urban poor. Differences may also be subtle. IDPs in Burundi had comparably poor levels of housing as their neighbours. However, the IDPs’ homes tended to be more congested and on smaller plots of land, which made subsistence farming challenging.

But IDPs are not always economically worse off than the wider host community. For example, a 2011 World Bank study on IDP families in Iraq found that overall, IDPs displaced after 2006 had a lower-than-average level of poverty, likely due to the fact that the 2006 displacement largely occurred in urban areas with relatively higher levels of wealth than rural areas, and because poorer people lacked the resources to move from violence in the first place.

1. Access to food and drinking water

Whether IDPs in protracted displacement are food insecure or lack access to clean drinking water depends on many circumstances. They include non-discriminatory access, or lack thereof, to food aid or jobs, IDPs’ level of poverty or the location of IDP settlements. For example, even amid broader development and governance challenges facing the wider population of Somalia, IDPs consistently constitute the majority or a large proportion of the population’s most food insecure. Accessing water may also be increasingly difficult for IDPs, particularly when resources become stretched. For instance, after being displaced for many years, Dinka IDPs in Yei, South Sudan, particularly women, faced challenges accessing water points even though they paid a monthly fee because of conflicts within the local community. These conflicts were linked to the fact that IDPs were living on squatted land, and water points were insufficient to serve the host community and displaced people.

2. Access to basic shelter and housing

Loss of housing is an immediate consequence of displacement. As time passes, some wealthier or “more socially mobile” IDPs may be able to purchase houses and land when it becomes clear that return will not be possible for an extended period of time, as was the case, for instance, for some IDPs in Serbia and Sri Lanka. However, in many protracted internal displacement situations, IDPs lack the financial resources to find suitable housing or to repair damaged or destroyed housing without assistance. For example, in Mogadishu, Somalia, some 75 per cent of IDPs live in traditional huts, as compared with 35 per cent of urban poor in the host community residing in the same area.

At different stages, IDPs may receive various types of housing assistance, including emergency shelter, rental subsidies,
construction grants, cash assistance and access to social housing. This was the case in countries such as Cyprus, Georgia, the Russian Federation and Serbia, which have had varying degrees of success. Thus, the degree to which IDPs have access to adequate housing is heavily dependent on interventions by the international community and local authorities.

Particular protection and impoverishment risks related to shelter and housing include:

- Collective centres, informal settlements or camps are poorly maintained and/or eventually closed by government authorities when they wish to return buildings to their original function or when official assistance ends. When IDPs decide to stay in collective centres or informal settlements without sufficient government support, these places often become crowded and run down, lacking adequate weather proofing, sewage treatment and safe places for children to play.

- Risk of eviction from occupied land or housing: In the absence of other options, some IDPs occupy land or are only able to negotiate informal rental agreements. Given a lack of secure tenure, some IDPs may not choose to invest in maintaining their housing, knowing that they could be evicted at any time. In other situations, the host community may object to or dispute IDPs’ long-term use of public land. However, after many years, some IDPs may feel they have a legitimate claim to the property, particularly if they invested in maintaining housing or land, and contest those who seek to reclaim their property. Frequent evictions may also mean loss of access to livelihoods.

- Sufficient money is no longer available to pay for rental accommodation: The gradual process associated with protracted displacement means that even IDPs who were relatively well-off during the initial period of displacement may face serious housing challenges over time.

- Emergency or transitional housing deteriorates, and replacement or permanent shelter is not available: Deteriorating emergency and transitional shelter is a common problem following major disasters when efforts to rebuild permanent shelter face significant delays extending months or years due to land disputes, an inability to find new land for relocation or the time needed to reconstruct thousands of houses. In other situations, authorities may not support housing maintenance in an effort to coerce IDPs to return to their place of origin.

- Extremely vulnerable people within the displaced population, such as female- or youth-headed households, older people without family support or people with disabilities are more likely to remain in substandard temporary housing, since they may lack the financial resources or ability to move.

3. Health

Living in a state of chronic displacement places a significant toll on many IDPs’ physical and mental health. Even when IDPs are able to access health care to the same degree as other non-displaced citizens, as is the case in Azerbaijan, “the negative impact of poor health on the general economic and psychosocial situation of IDPs...
is often more substantial for them than for the general population.” Likewise, a 2004 study in Georgia by UNDP found that IDPs’ general health was worse than the wider population’s, with IDPs in collective centres faring the worst. The de facto Ministry of Health of Abkhazia found that IDPs had twice the number of diseases as the general population, e.g., IDP women experienced higher levels of pelvic inflammatory diseases than the general population. Protracted displacement can negatively impact health in the following ways:

- Unsanitary, deteriorating living conditions combined with the broader impacts of poverty have been found to expose IDPs to numerous health risks in other protracted displacement situations.

- The psychological stress associated with the initial displacement and the conditions during displacement, such as long-term unemployment and the uncertainty associated with not knowing when displacement will end, can also result in psychological hardship. In some circumstances, youth, older people or men may face particular mental health issues.

- Older displaced people may have especially high levels of chronic health conditions or poor mental health. For instance, older IDPs living in collective centres in Georgia reported “higher rates of life dissatisfaction, depression, and anxiety due to feelings of social isolation combined with exceptionally bad living conditions.” In the case of similar findings in Japan for IDPs following the earthquake and tsunami disaster, social isolation due to young people or family members leaving older people behind in search of better conditions was identified as a major contributing factor.

- Women and girls may face challenges accessing sexual, reproductive and maternal health care. For example, in Papua New Guinea, IDPs living in poorly maintained collective centres for more than six years following a volcanic eruption reported that mothers and their babies were dying at a rising rate during childbirth. This was because the mothers were afraid to seek medical attention outside of the IDP camps due to security threats posed by conflicts with the host community.

III. Access to education

It is possible that IDP children, such as those who were displaced from poor rural areas, may have access to better education during their displacement, as was the case for some in northern Uganda. However, this is not commonly the case. In Georgia, for example, it was found that IDP children received a lower standard of education than their non-displaced peers. Protracted displacement can have a detrimental impact on childhood and adult education for various reasons.

- Educational facilities may not be available for IDP children or, where they exist, facilities may be crowded and underfunded or lack high-quality teachers. School buildings may have been destroyed during conflict or a disaster, closed by the Government due to security threats or simply not exist where displaced people live. Authorities may also not have invested in expanding educational access based
on the understanding that IDPs will ultimately return to their places of origin.

- Parents choose not to send children to school because they expect to return home, fear security threats due to continued conflict, or want to keep children close to home in case they need to flee again.

- Displaced families may be unable to afford the associated costs of education: Even relatively well-off displaced families who originally sent their children to school later may be forced to sell assets to pay for associated schooling costs or withdraw students from school.

- IDP children may be educated separately from the general population, resulting in lower educational standards and facilities if not financed equally. Displaced communities may be geographically isolated, or separation may be a policy decision to maintain social, cultural and community ties in the event of eventual return.

Over time, such circumstances can develop into a generation of displaced people that has grown up without adequate levels of formal education and even illiteracy. Adults, young and old, may also not have access to technical or higher education during displacement, which can limit their ability to gain skilled, well-paying jobs.

**IV. Access to employment and livelihoods**

Displacement results in a loss of productive assets, including one's home as well as livelihood opportunities. In some protracted internal displacement contexts, IDPs share the same employment and livelihood challenges as the general population that is recovering from a post-conflict or disaster situation, making it difficult to distinguish displaced people's livelihoods needs from those of their host community. However, even when IDPs are living among the wider population of the urban, IDPs are often the poorest of the urban poor. In Colombia, for example, the percentage of IDPs in extreme poverty is about 2.5 times higher than that of the general population.

Livelihood issues are thus highly contextual. IDPs with specific skills may be able to find employment early on in their displacement. Those with financial resources or family, clan or other social networks may also be able to start small businesses or find employment. In the case of camps for displaced people in northern Uganda, for instance, small businesses were able to expand over time when the camps evolved into trading centres and routes opened up to Juba in neighbouring South Sudan. Over time, IDPs may also be able to adapt and develop new skills. Such has been the case for displaced young people who have grown up in urban areas of Sudan and Uganda.

Other IDPs may be able to rely on humanitarian assistance and their own resources to meet their basic needs during the initial period of displacement. However, when displacement lasts for months or years, savings often dry up, humanitarian assistance may no longer be available or inadequate, and efforts to work may fail to meet basic needs.

Depending on their individual characteristics and backgrounds, IDPs may also face specific
impediments that lead to higher levels of impoverishment. For example, older people in Japan, such as those who previously relied on agricultural land to grow food, were found to face “greater challenges than the young in restoring their pre-disaster standards of living and regaining their economic welfare.”

However, for many IDPs, issues related to their protracted displacement can make it difficult to develop adequate livelihood opportunities to meet their basic needs. Such challenges include:

- Insufficient access to employment opportunities and markets: Areas where IDPs live may be far from urban areas or lack sufficient infrastructure or public transportation.

- Inability to access land or essential assets: In some protracted displacement situations, IDPs may still be able to access their land during the day, even if they face certain risks. However, for others, an inability to tend to agricultural land for multiple seasons during displacement may result in future losses, even if IDPs were to return, as in the Central African Republic, where displaced farmers were unable to save seeds that are essential for agricultural production.

- Maintaining displacement status: In some countries, such as Serbia or Kosovo, obtaining employment or buying land that could be used to support enhanced livelihood opportunities can jeopardize eligibility for benefits, such as social benefits or a small stipend, linked to an IDP status.

- Risk of exploitation and negative coping mechanisms: Many IDPs work in the informal economy, which places them at a higher risk of exploitation, given the absence of regulation and access to benefits. The absence of an ability to meet their basic needs can expose IDPs to a growing risk of “serious economic exploitation, including contemporary forms of slavery, sexual exploitation of women and girls, dangerous or exploitative forms of child labor and underage recruitment of child soldiers.” Negative coping mechanisms, such as child labour and prostitution, as well as the trafficking of women and children, may also increase, with single women and female-headed households potentially more at risk. In the Kurdistan region of Iraq, for example, it was found that “the incidence of child labour appears to increase among displaced families the longer displacement lasts.” Children may also face a growing risk of recruitment into armed groups.

Even when IDPs have found livelihood opportunities, such activities may not be dependable or long lasting.

- IDPs who rely on the informal or casual labour market for their main source of income may have less predictable income as compared with their previous livelihoods, further exacerbating the risk of greater impoverishment.

- Insecure land tenure: A constant risk of eviction can threaten not only housing but also IDPs’ ability to maintain small businesses or harvest crops or continued access to previously secured employment.

- Rising land costs and other associated costs: If land and housing costs
gradually rise in the context of protracted displacement and growing competition, IDPs may increasingly find it difficult to purchase or maintain property for productive purposes.629

Over time, displacement can force IDPs into ever-increasing states of poverty or complete dependency on humanitarian assistance.630 Consequently, IDPs may also struggle with debt and an inability meet pre-existing and new financial obligations,631 including mortgage payments in their places of origin,632 which may force them to sell their durable or productive assets to meet their immediate needs.633

V. Housing, land and property rights

People displaced for extended periods of time often face challenges asserting rights over housing or property left behind, or benefiting from restitution, compensation or reconstruction schemes. These challenges may include:

- Inability to access the place of origin for extended period of time: An inability to return may make it increasingly difficult to monitor, care for and assert ownership over land and property in the place of origin, particularly if the land or homes have been occupied for long periods in their absence. In extreme cases, it may result in IDPs losing ownership under domestic law.634

- Ineligibility for housing: IDPs’ housing situation may deteriorate in situations where they have been deemed ineligible for “municipal or similar housing schemes on the same basis as other nationals”635 for prolonged periods in the place where they are displaced because of a lack of documentation, or because housing programmes are limited to regular residents, based on the assumption that IDPs will eventually return.

- Customary systems of property ownership eroded during displacement: Property markers and records may have been destroyed in a conflict or disaster, which is not unique to a protracted displacement situation. However, when land ownership depends on customary laws, such systems can become eroded or no longer function when communities are displaced for an extended period of time and social structures break down.636

VI. Access to and replacement of personal and other documentation

As in any internal displacement situation, IDPs in protracted displacement may have difficulties obtaining replacement documents that are essential for accessing IDP-related benefits, basic services, schooling, health care, employment authorization, establishing property ownership and pensions.637 Such challenges may also be equally faced by the wider community within which IDPs live.638 However, specific challenges may arise in protracted situations.

- Administrative complications to replace documentation:639 In many countries, replacement documentation is only available in areas of origin, which IDPs cannot access. In other situations, ongoing political disputes may result
in authorities refusing to acknowledge the legitimacy of documents issued by another political body, such as Serbian authorities not recognizing the legitimacy of Kosovo’s administration authority.  

Designating IDP status to women, children or newly married couples: In some countries, such as Georgia, one IDP card was issued per family, without measures to grant an IDP status and associated benefits to children or newly married couples. In other countries, such as Azerbaijan and Cyprus, an IDP benefit could only be passed to children of IDP men, not women.  

VII. Participation in public affairs at all levels on an equal basis with the overall population  

Depending on the situation, IDPs may or may not be able to participate in public affairs during their protracted displacement. For example, IDPs in Yei, South Sudan, reported that they had participated in elections and censuses and did not feel discriminated against because of their IDP status. However, in many countries, the right to vote can only be exercised at the place of habitual residence, excluding IDPs from local or even national elections. In other contexts, IDPs may not be able to fully participate in public affairs due to a lack of documentation, discrimination or other reasons. This is particularly problematic regarding local elections. In such cases, IDPs on the one hand cannot influence political outcomes in their places of origins, which means that those responsible for their displacement might be elected and hold democratically legitimized positions of power. On the other hand, IDPs are deprived of the opportunity to have their interests represented in the areas where they presently reside.  

VIII. Social integration, non-discrimination, and political, cultural and religious practices  

Over time, some IDPs may build social networks in their place of displacement and find that they feel integrated within the wider community. For example, most IDPs in Cyprus reported that after 35 years of displacement, they had “transcended the social and psychological shock of displacement, though they remained marked by it. This transcendence was due to political stability, effective state emergency planning, rapid economic growth and IDPs’ own flexible, innovative recovery efforts.” For some, the degree to which protracted displacement affected social integration at the place of residence varied according to factors such as whether IDPs had pre-existing cultural, familiar, linguistic or clan ties, which made integration easier. However, for IDPs in other contexts, extended periods of displacement in poorly maintained camps or collective centres separated from or far away from non-displaced people can lead to heightened social, cultural and economic marginalization, particularly if displaced people hold a strong desire to return home even after many years of displacement or want to be certain that displacement will be addressed within a peace agreement. For others, trying to adapt their rural lifestyle...
and practices to an urban environment makes integration challenging.\textsuperscript{652}

Over time, particularly if the protracted displacement places a toll on the host community’s economy and social services, IDPs may find that they face increasing levels of stigmatization and discrimination.\textsuperscript{653} For example, it has been observed in the Sri Lankan context that “the IDP status and category has separated IDPs from other citizens and has restricted rather than secured their access to rights, effectively creating unequal access to citizenship rights.”\textsuperscript{654} If IDPs are associated with a party to a conflict, they may not be welcomed by the host community, with sentiments passed down to subsequent generations even after decades of displacement.\textsuperscript{654}

Protracted displacement can also compound pre-existing discrimination.\textsuperscript{656} For instance, in Europe it was found that “People who fled areas where they were an ethnic minority and who went to areas where they were part of the ethnic majority face more subtle discrimination as they are often viewed as non-locals even years after their arrival.”\textsuperscript{657}

Protracted displacement can weaken cultural, political and religious activities and practices.\textsuperscript{658} Traditional leadership structures or caregiving for the most vulnerable people in a community\textsuperscript{659} may be compromised by years of receiving humanitarian aid and practices such as IDP camp-leadership structures.\textsuperscript{660} In Colombia, for instance, extended periods of time away from traditional lands and the culture shock of living in urban areas have also made it difficult for indigenous and Afro-Colombians to maintain and pass on their cultural traditions to younger generations.\textsuperscript{661}
## ANNEX III

Protracted Displacement in HRPs and UNDAFs

### Humanitarian Response Plans (HRPs) 2016

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<th>COLOMBIA</th>
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<th>PHILIPPINES[^1]</th>
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<td>Yes (contributing to Government-led long-term solutions)</td>
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<td>Strong emphasis on need for comprehensive IDP solutions strategy</td>
<td>Some emphasis on social cohesion and permanent shelter</td>
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### United Nations Development Assistance Frameworks (UNDAFs) 2016

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<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes (IDP children and returnees)</td>
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<td>Yes (durable solutions; land restitution)</td>
<td>Yes (child-protection mechanism; reintegration of returnees)</td>
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<tr>
<th>Development and humanitarian actors</th>
<th>COLOMBIA</th>
<th>DRC</th>
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<th>UKRAINE</th>
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### ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CBPF</td>
<td>Country-Based Pooled Funds</td>
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<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>Democratic Republic of the Congo</td>
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<tr>
<td>DRM</td>
<td>Disaster Risk Management</td>
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<tr>
<td>DRR</td>
<td>Disaster Risk Reduction</td>
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<tr>
<td>DRRM</td>
<td>Disaster Risk Reduction and Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSRSG</td>
<td>Deputy Special Representative of the Secretary-General</td>
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<tr>
<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agriculture Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>FARC</td>
<td>Fuerzas Armadas Revolucionarias de Colombia</td>
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<tr>
<td>HC</td>
<td>Humanitarian Coordinator</td>
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<td>HCT</td>
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<td>HPC</td>
<td>Humanitarian Programme Cycle</td>
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<td>HRP</td>
<td>Humanitarian Response Plan</td>
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<td>IASC</td>
<td>Inter-Agency Standing Committee</td>
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<td>ICRC</td>
<td>International Committee of the Red Cross</td>
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<td>IDMC</td>
<td>Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre</td>
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<td>IDP</td>
<td>Internally Displaced Person</td>
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<td>IOM</td>
<td>International Organization for Migration</td>
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<td>IRR</td>
<td>Impoverishment Risk and Reconstruction</td>
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<td>JIPS</td>
<td>Joint IDP Profiling Service</td>
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<tr>
<td>LGU</td>
<td>Local Government Unit</td>
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<tr>
<td>MONUSCO</td>
<td>United Nations Organization Stabilization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo</td>
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<td>MPTF</td>
<td>Multi-Partner Trust Funds</td>
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<td>NDP</td>
<td>National Development Plan</td>
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<td>NGO</td>
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<td>OCHA</td>
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<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
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<td>RC</td>
<td>Resident Coordinator</td>
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<td>SDGs</td>
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<td>Special Representative of the Secretary-General</td>
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<td>UN</td>
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<td>UNDAF</td>
<td>United Nations Development Assistance Framework</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNHCR</td>
<td>United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees</td>
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REFERENCES

1 Norwegian Refugee Council/Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (NRC/IDMC), Global Report on Internal Displacement – GRID 2016, May 2016, p. 8 ff. Of the 27.8 million people, 8.6 million were displaced in the context of conflicts and violence, whereas 19.2 million were disaster-displaced people.
3 Ibid.
4 World Humanitarian Summit, Transcending humanitarian-development divides. Changing People’s Lives: From Delivering Aid to Ending Need, Commitment to Action, 23 May 2016, para. 3.
5 Strengthening of the coordination of emergency humanitarian assistance of the United Nations, GA/RES/71/127 (2016), para. 22. See also GA/RES/71/243, para. 24, calling on UN development entities “to enhance coordination with humanitarian assistance and peacebuilding efforts” in countries with humanitarian emergencies and “to work collaboratively to move beyond short-term assistance towards contributing to longer-term development gains.”
7 See annex I.
8 NRC/IDMC, GRID 2016, p. 8 ff.
9 In 2015, only 201,400 refugees were returning to countries such as Afghanistan, Sudan, Somalia and Central African Republic (UNHCR, Global Trends in Forced Displacement in 2015, 20 June 2016, p. 3. Available from www.unhcr.org/576408cd7.pdf).
10 Different sources mention different numbers of years ranging between 17 years (Center on International Cooperation, Addressing Protracted Displacement: A Framework for Development-Humanitarian Cooperation, December 2015, p. 6.) and 23 years (N Crawford and others, Protracted Displacement: Uncertain paths to self-reliance, Humanitarian Policy Group, Overseas Development Institute, September 2015, p. 1).
11 Ibid., p. 5.
12 NRC/IDMC, Global Overview 2015 - People internally displaced by conflict and violence, May 2015, p. 11
13 Crawford and others, p. 1 f.
14 Average based on IDMC disaster-displacement data for 2008 to 2015.
15 NRC/IDMC, GRID 2016, p. 30 f.
16 Ibid., p. 29. At the end of 2015, at least 715,000 IDPs were identified as living in protracted displacement following sudden-onset hazards, such as earthquakes, tsunamis and hurricanes, with some people displaced for as long as 26 years. However, numbers would be significantly higher if displacement following disasters was better documented (Ibid., p. 29), or if disasters associated with slow-onset hazards, such as drought, were included (Ibid., p. 50).
17 World Bank Group, Forcibly Displaced, 2016, p. 12 f.
19 Case studies, annex I.
20 See, for example, World Bank Group, Forcibly Displaced, 2016, p. 66 f; Part 2; and annex II.
22 According to the 1989 UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displaced Persons, IDPs are people 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 generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized state border.” Thus, for example, IDMC considers displacement lasting at least one year to be protracted. UNHCR regards protracted refugee situations as those where 25,000 or more people have been in asylum for five years or more without any immediate prospect for a durable solution (UNHCR, Executive Committee of the High Commissioner’s Programme, Standing Committee, “Protracted Refugee Situations,” EC/54/SC/CRP14, 2004., p.
2.). UNHCR Executive Committee, Conclusion on Protracted Refugee Situations No. 109 (LXI) (2009), preambular paragraph keeps the five-year deadline but contains no reference to numbers. Based on UNHCR’s approach, it was suggested to define protracted IDP situations as those where “populations of 25,000 persons or more […] have been displaced within their own countries for five or more years” (Elizabeth Ferris, “Durable Solutions for IDPs in Protracted Situations: A work in progress”, 1 June 2007. Background paper for the “Expert Seminar on Protracted IDP Situations”, UNHCR and Brookings-Bern Project on Internal Displacement, Geneva (21-22 June 2007), p. 24). More recently, a purely temporal notion of protractedness was used by Crawford and others, p. 10 ff. UNDP focuses on the “about 50% of internally displaced persons [who] have been displaced for more than 3 years” (UNDP, “Development Approaches,” 2016, p. 2.)


Ibid.


See for instance, IOM, Progressive Resolution, 2016, p. 3.

Source: Joint Internally Displaced Person Profiling Service (JIPS) based on analysis of profiling data from Côte d’Ivoire, Honduras and Somalia. All data and full profiling reports are available from www.jips.org

These were the elements most often mentioned when we asked IDPs in protracted displacement what they would have needed at the time of their displacement once their immediate assistance needs were satisfied.


See DRC and Philippines case studies, annex I.

Colombia case study, annex I.

Crawford and others, p. 1.

NRC/IDMC, GRID 2016, p. 29.

See DRC and Philippines case studies, annex I.


NRC/IDMC, GRID 2016, p. 31.


For example, the ongoing mud flow in Sidoarjo, Indonesia, that has made return impossible for 10 years, with flows expected to continue for another 20 years. IDMC, “Global Estimates”, p. 56.

NRC/IDMC, GRID 2016, p. 28.

NRC/IDMC, GRID 2016, p. 52.

Ibid., p. 58.

See decision No. 2011/20 of the UN Secretary-General on Durable Solutions, para i), referring to “Ending Displacement in the Aftermath of Conflict”.

For recent discussions, see IOM, “Progressive Resolutions”, 2016.

IASC, Framework on Durable Solutions, p. 5. The Framework’s aim is to help guide and support national authorities and other relevant actors as they develop durable solutions for internally displaced persons, including with criteria to evaluate progress toward achieving solutions (UN General Assembly, Report of the Representative of the Secretary-General on the human rights of internally displaced persons, A/HRC/13/21 (5 January 2010), para. 83.). For more details, see below Part 4.III.

See Colombia and Somalia case studies, annex I.


Ibid., p. 8.
Ibid., p. 6.


For the impacts of protracted displacement on IDPs, see Part 2 and annex II.


For the impacts of protracted displacement on IDPs, see Part 2 and annex II.


Cordova, p. 9.

Harild, p. 5.

A. Christensen and N Harild, Forced Displacement – The Development Challenge, The World Bank Group, December 2009, p. 17. However, the authors note that due to several factors, the development challenge of sustainable recovery is less intricate in disaster situations than in conflict settings.

Center on International Cooperation, Addressing Protracted Displacement, December 2015, p. 3.

Ferris, “Durable Solutions”, p. 36.

Other Goals, such as 2 and 3 on ending hunger and ensuring healthy lives, are relevant for at least some among the IDPs in protracted displacement.


Multilateral Development Banks, pp. 6 and 8. Notably, much of the text refers specifically to refugee contexts, but the paper addresses forced displacement as a whole.


See, for example, Dayton Peace Agreement, annex 7, 1995, the Sudan Comprehensive Peace Agreement 2005, the Nepal Comprehensive Peace Agreement 2006 and the Colombia Peace Agreement of November 2016.

Uniting Our Strengths for Peace, A/70/95-S/2015/446, para. 122.

Ibid., para. 89.

For example, while the Center on International Cooperation, After the World Humanitarian Summit, p. 2.,
recognizes the critical need to find political solutions to ongoing conflict, details on how to ensure greater collaboration with peace and security actors are not addressed by development and humanitarian actors.


For detailed evidence, see annex II. See also generally www.jips.org/en/home

www.jips.org

www.globaldtm.info

www.reach-initiative.org


In the case of IDPs in Burundi, Zeender notes: “The situation of IDPs is broadly comparable to that of surrounding communities, but there are also some substantial differences...” Erika Zeender, “The Right to Stay: local Integration of IDPs in Burundi”, in Elizabeth Ferris, Ed., *Resolving Internal Displacement*, p. 24.

In Georgia, many IDPs displaced from Abkhazia in the early 1990s are still unable to recover property left behind.


The UN Special Rapporteur on the human rights of IDPs is leading an ongoing collaborative effort with JIPS to elaborate agreed upon approaches to informing and measuring durable solutions. For more information see JIPS, “Informing Responses to Support Durable Solutions”, 2015. Available from www.jips.org/en/profiling/durable-solutions/measuring-progress-towards-solutions

Source: JIPS based on analysis of profiling data from different contexts, including Honduras and Somalia. All data and full profiling reports are available from www.jips.org


Nina Sluga, “Still a Long Way to Go: Local Integration of IDPs in Yei, Southern Sudan”, in Elizabeth Ferris, Ed., *Resolving Internal Displacement*, p. 120. In Yei, South Sudan, for example, the city’s poorly resourced and understaffed police force equally affected Dinka IDPs and the locals.

Ibid., p. 121.

An example is presented in *Report of the Representative of the Secretary-General, Walter Kälin. Addendum, Mission to Sudan, E/CN.4/2006/71/Add.6, 13 February 2006*, para. 34.


Ibid., para. 58.

Colombia case study, annex I.


As cattle herders by tradition, the Dinka IDPs also had to adapt their diets when they moved to Yei, since they could no longer live off their cattle’s milk and meat and instead were forced to rely on “greens” that they illegally cultivated on occupied land. Sluga, pp. 120-123.


For instance, IDPs’ poorer health in Georgia was linked to “their low quality of life, unhealthy habits, on-going
stress as a result of displacement and uncertainty about their future, as well as lack of access to medical services.”

Walicki, “Part Protracted, Part Progress”, p. 74. In Haiti, IDP camps continued to decline after 2012 when the levels of international humanitarian assistance and the presence of NGOs declined, resulting in insufficient numbers of latrines, sewage disposal and waste management. The poor water and sanitation facilities were linked to deadly cholera outbreaks in Haiti. Report of the Special Rapporteur on the human rights of internally displaced persons, Chaloka Beyani. A/HRC/29/34/Add.2, Addendum, Mission to Haiti, paras. 42 ff.


Mosneaga and Vanore, p. 23 f.


Ibid., p. 55.


Unemployment was also higher for IDPs as compared with the general population in Montenegro and Serbia.


Colombia case study, annex I.

Data provided by the World Bank. Available from data.worldbank.org/country/ukraine


Ibid., p. 7. Unemployment for working-age IDPs is estimated at about 20 per cent, more than double the reported national percentage of 9.3 per cent in July 2016. See also www.tradingeconomics.com/ukraine/unemployment-rate. According to the World Bank, the unemployment rate of IDPs is 69.5 per cent (World Bank Group, “Ukraine Peacebuilding and Recovery Programmatic Approach, Policy Brief 1: The Development Impacts and Policy Implications of Forced Displacement in Ukraine”, Working Draft for Consultation, February 2016, p. 6). However, this number seems to include pensioners. ILO, “Employment Needs Assessment and Employability of Internally Displaced Persons in Ukraine – Summary of Survey Findings and Recommendations”, 2016, p. xi, reported an “estimated unemployment rate among IDPs [of] 34.1 percent of all economically active IDPs” for the second half of 2015.


Sluga, p. 121.

Single women in Côte d'Ivoire reportedly used prostitution to avoid poverty, which in turn led to increased gender-related violence, such as when men physically abused women who sought payment for sex they had provided on credit. Representative of the Secretary-General, Mission to Côte d'Ivoire, para. 46.

Williams, “Protracted Internal Displacement”, pp. 95 f.

In Sri Lanka, the Special Rapporteur noted that “Prescription Ordinance gives land ownership to those who have occupied the land for at least 10 years, even for land belonging to those who fled during the conflict.” Report of the Special Rapporteur on the human rights of internally displaced persons, Chaloka Beyani, Addendum, Follow-up mission to Sri Lanka, A/HRC/29/33/Add.4, 5 June 2014, para. 45.

Berg, p. 141.

Ibid.

Williams, “Protracted Internal Displacement”, pp. 87 and 94.


In Côte d’Ivoire, the RSG found that assistance for IDPs was largely given to those living in camps, with assistance outside “not very coherent” and with “major gaps in protection and assistance for the most vulnerable displaced persons” including those living with host families. Representative of the Secretary-General, Mission to Côte d’Ivoire, para. 34 and 43.


Davies, p. 11.

Representative of the Secretary-General, Mission to Côte d’Ivoire, para. 40.

Special Rapporteur, Mission to Ukraine, para. 34; Representative of the Secretary-General, Mission to Nepal, para. 67(a).

Berg, p. 128.

Ukraine case study, annex I.


Ibid. See also Brun, “Local Citizens or Internally Displaced Persons”, pp. 376 ff.

Ukraine case study, annex I.

Ibid. In such cases, IDPs arriving together with their businesses and institutions are on their way towards self-sufficiency and would not be viewed as being in protracted displacement as understood by this study. However, other members of the displaced population could be. See also Ukraine case study, annex I.

World Bank Group, Forcibly Displaced, p. 50. More vulnerable members of the wider host communities, such as migrants, may also be negatively impacted by protracted internal displacement. See discussion in IOM “The Progressive Resolution of Displacement Situations”, pp. 5-6.

World Bank Group, Forcibly Displaced, p. 52.

In 2010, host communities in Mindanao, Philippines, perceived that the presence of IDPs also increased competition for jobs. IDMC, “Durable solutions still out of sight for many IDPs and returnees in Mindanao”, 10 June 2011. In Colombia, “the inflow of IDPs led to a wage reduction of 28.4 per cent among low-skilled workers, while wages and employment were not affected in the highly regulated formal sector.” World Bank Group, Forcibly Displaced, p. 49.

On the complex impacts on wages and prices, see World Bank Group, Forcibly Displaced, pp. 48 ff. For an example, see Ukraine case study, annex I.

In Colombia, “The arrival of IDPs increased demand for housing in urban areas, triggering a hike in prices”, World Bank Group, Forcibly Displaced, p. 51.

See Philippines case study, annex I.

In Puttalam, Muslims represented 64 per cent of the population in an area that previously did not have an ethnic majority. Brun, “Local Citizens or Internally Displaced Persons”, p. 385.

For example, Davies notes regarding Serbia: “In some communities IDPs represented 25% of the population and municipalities received no assistance from the national government.” Davies, p. 14.

Center on International Cooperation, Addressing Protracted Displacement, p. 6.

Local government units (LGUs) in the Philippines may have a small “calamity fund” to respond to needs following a disaster, but this fund can quickly be exhausted by multiple or extended displacement incidents, leaving LGUs to request additional assistance from the municipal level, which in turn often faces administrative hurdles to access funds from central authorities. See Philippines case study, annex I.

See Ukraine case study, annex I.

Bohnet and others, p. 29, explains “whole neighborhoods … are reported to deteriorate as more people are crammed into less space. Prices for land and commodities rise while the labour market is saturated and wages are low - social cohesion diminishes. The development of infrastructure does not match the numbers of IDPs in hosting communities, and the subsequent increase in people living in town impairs the access and quality
of basic services.”


Colombia case study, annex I.

Bohnet and others, p. 29.


Philippines case study, annex I.

See DRC and Philippines case studies, annex I.


See, for example, Crawford and others.

UNHCR and Brookings-Bern Project, “Expert Seminar”, 2011, p. 47. The magnitude of the challenge is, for instance, illustrated by Azerbaijan: In 2004 government spending on IDPs exceeded all other social protection programs at 150 million USD, equivalent to three per cent of the country’s gross domestic product. This investment was only possible due to Azerbaijan’s new found oil wealth. Ferris, “Durable Solutions”, p. 29, citing S Holtzman and T Nezam, Living in Limbo, Washington, D.C., World Bank, 2004, p. 9.

Ley de Víctimas y Restitución de Tierras, Law 1448, June 2011.

See Colombia case study, annex I.


Bohnet and others, p. 6.

Kälín and Schreper, p. 10.


DRC and Philippines case studies, annex I.

Kälín and Schreper, p. 13 f.

See, for example, Ukraine case study, annex I.

Crawford and others, p. 5.

Ibid., p. 25.

Ibid.

Ibid., p. 2.


Bohnet and others, p. 44. However, see Brookings-Bern Project on Internal Displacement/United States Institute of Peace, “Integrating Internal Displacement in Peace Processes and Agreements”, Washington, D.C., 2010.

DRC case study, annex I.

Bohnet and others, p. 16.

Colombia case study, annex I.

Ukraine case study, annex I. There is a general reference to humanitarian assistance, but the Minsk II Agreement (Package of Measures for the Implementation of the Minsk Agreements of 12 February 2015) does not mention internal displacement.

Ukraine case study, annex I.

Xavier Devictor, “As development actors, how should we address the forced displacement crisis?” World Bank, 14 December 2015. Available from blogs.worldbank.org/developmenttalk/development-actors-how-should-we-address-forced-displacement-crisis


See, for example, Somalia case study, annex I and Representative of the Secretary-General, Mission to the Republic of Chad, paras 58 and 60.


Ibid., p. 34.

Special Rapporteur, Follow-up mission to Sri Lanka, paras. 29 and 31.

Crawford and others, p. 5.


For example, a school built by UNHCR in Soacha, Colombia. See Colombia case study, annex I.

Crawford and others, p. 21.

The World Bank, “Supporting the Livelihoods of Internally Displaced Persons in Georgia: A Review of Current Practices and Lessons Learned”, May 2013, p. 11. For example, the Representative of the Secretary-General visiting return areas in eastern Sri Lanka observed that “UNHCR had quick impact projects for livelihoods, as well as UNDP and FAO, and the 180-day plan for the East mentioned the need to prioritize agriculture and fishing, but this cannot begin to have the needed reach. Whole communities literally had nothing to do.” Representative of the Secretary-General, Mission to Sri Lanka, para. 52.

See, for example, Médicines Sans Frontières criticizing the concept of “incorporation of humanitarian assistance into a broader development and resilience agenda” as a reason to not attend the World Humanitarian Summit. MSF, “MSF to pull out of World Humanitarian Summit”, 5 May 2016. Available from www.msf.org/en/article/msf-pull-out-world-humanitarian-summit

NRC/IDMC, GRID 2016, p. 29.


One Humanity, para. 5, observes that in conflict situations, “...displaced persons may have no desire to return, because (i) they belong to a minority group that still risks certain forms of harassment and discrimination, (ii) the degree of destruction in the place of origin is so large that opportunities to secure a livelihood are minimal or non-existent, (iii) the circumstances that originally led to their forced exit were too traumatic, (iv) they lack capital, (v) they have close ethnic ties with the host society, or (vi) have better access to livelihood opportunities in the host area.”


Mooney and Hussain, p. 23 f.

Long, p. 6.

See case studies, annex I.

Center on International Cooperation, Addressing Protracted Displacement, p. 2.


In South Sudan in 2006, it was found that “An estimated 1 million landmines obstruct return and agricultural and other economic activities throughout the south, with an increase in casualties and mutilations expected as more return. There is limited information on their exact location, and some maps provided by SPLM/A pursuant to their obligation in CPA proved unreliable.” Report of the Representative of the Secretary-General on the human rights of internally displaced persons, Walter Kälin, Addendum, Mission to the Sudan, E/ CN.4/2006/71/Add.6, 13 February 2006, para. 45.

Representative of the Secretary-General, Mission to Sri Lanka, para 52.

Colombia case study, annex I.

See Colombia, Philippines and Somalia case studies, annex I.

For example, Representative of the Secretary-General, Mission to the Sudan, para. 46.

IDPs in PNG who fled the Manam volcanic eruptions faced threats of physical attacks, which arose when relations with the host community became increasingly violent during the years of displacement. IDMC, “Papua New Guinea: Invisible and neglected protracted displacement”, 2014, p 7.

For example, in Colombia. See Colombia case study, annex I.

NRC/IDMC, GRID 2016, p. 65.

Special Rapporteur, Follow-up mission to Azerbaijan, para. 9.


One Humanity, para. 153. In DRC, the UN’s largest peacekeeping mission has not managed to bring peace and stability to the eastern part of the country since MONUC (now MONUSCO) was created in 1999, and the number of IDPs remains huge. Despite multiple efforts by the Security Council and the African Union, many parts of Somalia are still affected by conflict 25 years after the collapse of the national Government of Siad Barre and the subsequent rounds of civil war. Colombia managed to conclude a peace agreement with the most important insurgent group (FARC) only more than 30 years after large-scale displacement started in 1985.


See Ukraine case study, annex I.

JIPS/UNHCR, Mogadishu Profiling, p. 40.

See country case studies, annex I.

Representative of the Secretary-General found in Serbia and Montenegro that “IDPs have had particular trouble obtaining ‘working booklets’ which are necessary to obtain regular jobs or unemployment benefits and pensions if their former employer is no longer in business or has moved, or if they have lost these documents.” Representative of the Secretary-General, Mission to Serbia & Montenegro, paras. 34 ff. For documentation related to IDPs’ difficulties finding work in Ukraine, see Report of the Special Rapporteur on the human rights of internally displaced persons, Chaloka Beyani, Addendum, Mission to Ukraine, A/HRC/29/34/Add.3, 2 April 2015, para. 48.

Center on International Cooperation, Addressing Protracted Displacement, p. 3.

Colombia case study, annex I.


Somalia case study, annex I.

Colombia case study, annex I.

In the context of the 2015 Nepal earthquake, IDMC observed that: “Reconstruction following such a major disaster can be expected to take many years, and is likely to be delayed because of a shortage of technical and skilled labour, complex land issues and continuing political instability.” NRC/IDMC, GRID 2016, p. 18.


Representative of the Secretary-General, Mission to Nepal, para. 56.

In Côte d’Ivoire, for example, the lack of identity papers limited IDPs’ “access to social and educational services. For example, mothers describe[d] how difficult it is to enroll their children in school without a birth certificate. Their lack of identity papers also [made] them particularly vulnerable to racketeering and corruption.” Report of the Representative of the Secretary-General on the human rights of internally displaced persons, Walter Kälin, Addendum, Mission to Côte d’Ivoire, A/HRC/4/38/Add.2, para. 42.

An example is provided by Kälin, Mission to Sri Lanka, paras. 22, 60 and 61.

Representative of the Secretary-General, Mission to the Sudan, para. 33.

See, for example, Ukraine case study, annex I.

Representative of the Secretary-General, Visit to Iraq, paras. 38 and 42.

In Georgia, for example, ethnic Georgian IDPs feared that if they refused to assume Abkhaz “citizenship”, they would potentially face a range of negative consequences. This was one of the key reasons why return to Abkhazia remained low. Representative of the Secretary-General, Mission to Georgia, para. 41.

Denial of jobs in the public sector, refusal to link reconstructed houses to water and electricity, educational programmes celebrating majority culture and the provocative use of national or religious symbols were important factors why 10 years after the Dayton Peace Accord, the return of IDPs to areas in Bosnia-Herzegovina where they belong to a minority were all too often not sustainable (Report of the Representative of the Secretary-General on the human rights of internally displaced persons, Mission to Bosnia and Herzegovina, E/CN.4/2006/71/Add.4, paras. 43, 46 ff., 52).

For example, in Serbia and Montenegro, where Kosovo Serb displaced families cited the absence of instruction in Serbian in their places of origin where they would be minorities, despite national legislation that they have a right to choose (Representative of the Secretary-General, Mission to Serbia & Montenegro, para. 25). Similarly, IDP children who had returned to southern Sudan could not continue their education in the same language of instruction that they followed during their displacement (Representative of the Secretary-General, Mission to the Sudan, para. 53). In Georgia, the fact that the Georgian language was forbidden to be used as language of instruction was a key obstacle to return of ethnic Georgian IDPs to Abkhazia (Report of the Representative of the Secretary-General on the human rights of internally displaced persons, Walter Kälin, Addendum, Follow-up mission to Georgia, A/HRC/16/43/Add.3 (2010), para. 24).

Walicki, “Part Protracted, Part Progress”, p. 66 and 76.
Ibid., p. 70. Walicki explains, “Some 100,000 dispossessed people registered their losses, but the lack of supporting documentation and the failure of the de facto Abkhaz authorities to collaborate mean the programme is still to be implemented. The government also drafted legislation regulating the restitution of property of IDPs from South Ossetia or compensation in lieu, but the de facto South Ossetian authorities rejected the proposals. Despite Tbilisi’s pledges and efforts, there is no mutually agreed remedy to restore IDPs’ rights as regards their property.”


274 For instance, in 2015, early recovery activities included across clusters received an average of 26 per cent of their requested budget, with Early Recovery Clusters receiving an average of 24 per cent of their budgets. Global Cluster for Early Recovery, “Global Early Recovery Overview 2015” UNDP, p. 9. Available from earlyrecovery.global/sites/default/files/global_early_recovery_overview_2015_0_0.pdf

277 For instance, in 2015, early recovery activities included across clusters received an average of 26 per cent of their requested budget, with Early Recovery Clusters receiving an average of 24 per cent of their budgets. Global Cluster for Early Recovery, “Global Early Recovery Overview 2015” UNDP, p. 9. Available from earlyrecovery.global/sites/default/files/global_early_recovery_overview_2015_0_0.pdf


281 See, for example, Colombia case study, annex I.

283 See, for example, Colombia case study, annex I.

284 Harild, p. 4.

285 Five years after the earthquake in Haiti, the Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of Internally Displaced Persons noted that a comprehensive IDP durable solutions strategy was still absent, although he noted that steps had been taken in a positive direction (Special Rapporteur, Mission to Haiti, para. 23).

286 However, a preliminary operational guide for the implementation of the decision was published in early 2016.

For example, the UN Secretary-General notes: “The multidimensional nature of many of the challenges facing countries in crisis or post-crisis settings requires a rethinking about how all parts of the United Nations system can collectively support Member States in addressing these issues and build resilience. … The report of the High-level Panel on Peace Operations, the report of the Advisory Group of Experts and the reports on the preparatory process for the World Humanitarian Summit have also echoed the call of Member States for the integration of peace, humanitarian and development efforts.” UN General Assembly Economic and Social Council, Implementation of General Assembly resolution 67/226 on the quadrennial comprehensive policy review of operational activities for development of the United Nations system, report of the Secretary-General, A/71/63-E/2016/8 (31 December 2015), para. 156. See also Center on International Cooperation, After the World Humanitarian Summit.

One humanity, para. 81.
ibid., paras. 82 and 83.
ibid., para. 84.
Ibid.

Strengthening of the coordination of emergency humanitarian assistance of the United Nations, GA/RES/71/127 (2016), para. 22. See also General Assembly resolution GA/RES/71/243, para. 24, calling on UN development entities “to enhance coordination with humanitarian assistance and peacebuilding efforts” in countries with humanitarian emergencies and “to work collaboratively to move beyond short-term assistance towards contributing to longer-term development gains.”

Outcome of the World Humanitarian Summit-Report of the Secretary-General, UN Doc (2016), para. 34 (emphasis added).

2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, para. 23.
World Bank Group, Department for International Development and UNHCR. Forum on New Approaches to Protracted Forced Displacement: Co-Hosts Summary Statement, Wilton Park, United Kingdom, 4-6 April 2016, paras. 9 and 14 ff.
World Bank Group, Forcibly Displaced, p. XIII.
OCHA, An end in sight, p. 8.
World Bank Group, Forcibly Displaced, p. XIII f.
See Part 4, II.4.
Kälin and Schrepf, p. 33.
Center on International Cooperation, Addressing Protracted Displacement, p. 3.
ibid., p. 6.
OCHA, An end in sight, p. 3.
2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, fifth preambular paragraph.
UNDG, The Human Rights Based Approach to Development Cooperation - Towards a Common Understanding Among UN Agencies, adopted in 2003 by the UNDG.
The following builds on Kälin and Schreifer, p. 26 f.


M Cernea, M. Impoverishment Risks and Reconstruction, pp. 20 and 22-30. Social disarticulation is understood as “the tearing apart of social structures, interpersonal ties, and the enveloping social fabric as a result of forced resettlement” (McDowell and Morrell, p. 165).

Cernea, Impoverishment Risks and Reconstruction, p. 20.

Ibid.


For a general discussion of the contemporary relevance of these principles, see Norwegian Refugee Council and Handicap International, “Challenges to Principled Humanitarian Action: Perspectives from Four Countries”, Geneva 2016.


NRC and Handicap International, p. 51.


Part 1, III.2.

See the different contexts of addressing protracted displacement (above Part 1, III.1).

Ibid.

These elements are based on available documents, in particular Center on International, After the World Humanitarian Summit; OCHA, An end in sight; World Bank Group, Forcibly Displaced; as well as from interviews and discussions conducted in the course of preparing this study.


JIPS, for instance, has shifted from “IDP profiling” to “Profiling of IDP situations” and now compares the situation of IDPs with that of local communities. IOM’s Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) provides not only information about numbers and locations of IDPs but information on some countries (e.g., Ukraine) also contains detailed qualitative data on their situation, including comparisons with local communities.

See, in particular, Guiding Principle 28. See also Principles 18 and 22.

For more details, see N Baal, K. Jacobsen and W Chemaly, Forced Displacement, Go Figure: Shaking the Box of IDP Profiling. Feinstein International Center, Tufts University/JIPS, 2016.

OCHA’s Humanitarian Data Exchange (HDX) platform helps to share humanitarian data.


An inter-agency process is under way to operationalize the 2010 IASC Framework on Durable Solutions for Internally Displaced Persons by developing a library of indicators that can be used to identify priorities and measure progress towards durable solutions for IDPs. Under the guidance of the Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of IDPs, and in collaboration with a broad group of development, humanitarian and peacebuilding actors and the Joint IDP Profiling Service, the project aims to develop tools for comprehensive yet practical approaches to analysing displacement situations in order to identify key displacement-related challenges and provide concrete evidence for jointly addressing them. See www.jips.org/en/profiling/durable-solutions/measuring-progress-towards-solutions.


Source: JIPS based on analysis of profiling data from Honduras, Côte d’Ivoire, Somalia and Goma, DRC. All data and full profiling reports are available from www.jips.org


Williams, “Protracted Internal Displacement” pp. 87 f. NRC/IDMC, Recovery postponed - The long-term plight
of people displaced by the 2011 Great East Japan Earthquake, tsunami and nuclear radiation disaster, 6 February 2017, pp. 6 and 8.

363 See the scenarios in Center on International Cooperation, After the World Humanitarian Summit, p. 3.
365 In the case of Colombia, the Victims’ Unit has set the goal to remove 500,000 IDPs from extreme poverty by 2018.
366 See Colombia case study, annex I.
367 This could, for example, be a way to support the goal of Colombia’s Victims’ Unit to lift 500,000 IDPs out of vulnerability by 2018. See Colombia case study, annex I.
368 Somalia case study, annex I.
370 Durable solutions strategies that are not Government-led will only be successful in exceptional cases and must be limited in scope (e.g., limited to specific geographical areas or address as specific situation, such as the closure of certain camps as the North Kivu durable solutions strategy). See DRC case study, annex I.
371 Such a harmonized and coordinated planning process is currently under way in DRC. However, without a focus on collective outcomes. DRC case study, annex I.
372 See, for instance, the Transitional Solutions Initiative in Colombia. Colombia Case Study, annex I, p. X.
373 Center on International Cooperation, After the World Humanitarian Summit, para. 29.
374 With the exception of humanitarian demining.
375 OCHA, An end in sight, p. 7.
377 Somalia has also goals integrated into its first national development plan but they are not quantified. Somalia Case Study, annex I.
378 See Colombia case study, annex I.
380 Ibid. At the time of writing, an Action Plan for Jubbaland was being finalized. It covers IDPs, returning refugees from Dadaab, and host communities that combine humanitarian, development and governance elements. Note that this quote can be read as “systematically enhance the absorption capacity of basic services for IDPs and returning refugees, enhance access to affordable housing and land as well as to vocational skill[s] and professional development and facilitate and diversify access to employment sectors and labour market[s]”.
381 “Ending Displacement in the Aftermath of Conflict: Preliminary Framework for Supporting a more coherent, predictable and effective response to the durable solutions needs of refugee returnees and internally displaced persons”, annex to decision No. 2011/20 of the UN Secretary-General on Durable Solutions, para 8.
382 Ibid.
383 However, a preliminary operational guide for the implementation of the decision was published in early 2016. See UNDP and UNHCR, “Global Cluster for Early Recovery”, (Technical Working Group on Durable Solutions) with the Global Protection Cluster, Joint Strategies to support Durable Solutions for Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) and Refugees Returning to their Country of Origin A Preliminary Operational Guide to the United Nation’s Secretary-General’s Decision on Durable Solutions to Displacement, January 2016.
384 OCHA, An end in sight, p. 13 ff.
385 For example, where camp closures in North Kivu could have been linked to UNDP’s 3x6 project approach to make returns in a very volatile environment more sustainable. DRC case study, annex I.
386 The Philippines has no current HRP. Instead, the 2013 Philippines (Mindanao) Humanitarian Action Plan was used for this analysis.
387 The same was true for the 2013 Philippines (Mindanao) Humanitarian Action Plan.
388 In Georgia, for instance, regular and well-coordinated missions by the Representative of the Secretary-General on the Human Rights of IDPs and the Commissioner on Human Rights of the Council of Europe between 2005 and 2008, strongly supported by UNHCR and donors, played a crucial role in convincing the Government to change its position and allow IDPs to locally integrate. See IDMC/NRC, “Durable Solutions”, p. 2. “In 2006, Georgia established a commission to develop a state strategy on IDPs, which was adopted in February 2007. IDPs’ representatives were actively involved in the four working groups engaged in process, on legal issues, housing,
economic activities and social protection. Two of the eight seats on the commission were designated for civil society organisations (CSOs), two for international representatives and four for government ministries. The CSO representatives were drawn from organisations that support IDPs."

See DRC case study, annex I.

Such a joint programme is being developed in Somalia. See Somalia case study, annex I.

This is presently explored in Somalia. See Somalia case study, annex I.

Results chains are used by development actors. They have been defined as “The causal sequence for a development intervention that stipulates the necessary sequence to achieve desired results – beginning with inputs, moving through activities and outputs, and culminating in outcomes, goal/impacts and feedback.” Guidance note on developing the UN Business Operations Strategy, p. 41

See also OCHA, An end in sight, p. 15.


See Part 3, VI.

Innovation can be taken from experiences in the area of disaster management, which show that countries with limited capacity can make huge progress in responding to disasters using their own capacities. Positive examples include Bangladesh and Mozambique. See OCHA, An end in sight, p. 19 f.

For an example, concerted efforts by OCHA and the Representative of the Secretary-General on the Human Rights of IDPs were an important element in triggering the process of developing the country’s IDP law and policy following the 2008 post-election violence and displacement crisis.

For example, a study focusing on the situation of young people employed in the catering business in a post-conflict northern Uganda city concluded that “investing so many resources in programmes like microfinance appears to miss the point, addressing a symptom and consequence of poorly functioning labour markets and weak workers’ rights.” Richard Mallett and Teddy Atim, “Gender, youth and urban labour market participation: evidence from the catering sector in Lira, Northern Uganda”, Feinstein International Center, December 2014, p. 32.

See Colombia and Philippines case studies, annex I.

See Somalia and Colombia case studies, annex I.

Examples include World Bank projects in DRC. See also Colombia and Somalia case studies, annex I.

In Colombia, the most successful livelihood projects were those that connected IDPs with viable markets, such as the “peasant markets” in Meta that allow IDPs to sell their produce directly to consumers.


This was an important aspect of the Transitional Solutions Initiative, Colombia case study, annex I.

See Representative of the Secretary-General, Follow-up visit to the mission to Serbia and Montenegro, para. 10 on UNHCR’s village house programme in Serbia; Report of the Representative of the Secretary-General on the Human Rights of Internally Displaced Persons, Walter Kälin, Mission to Georgia, A/HRC/10/13/Add.2, 13 February 2009, para. 28.

Several interlocutors in Colombia mentioned this to the researchers.

Center on International Cooperation, After the World Humanitarian Summit, p. 16.

Ibid.

See World Vision International. Looking Beyond the Crisis, Future Humanitarian Funding, p. 6.


Ibid., p. 11.

Ibid., p. 5.

Ibid., p. 12.

See ibid., annex 1.


A good example is UNDP’s 3x6+ project development approach. See DRC case study, annex I.

Several interlocutors in Colombia mentioned this to the researchers.

Center on International Cooperation, After the World Humanitarian Summit, p. 16.

Ibid.


A good example is UNDP’s 3x6+ project development approach. See DRC case study, annex I.


This case study draws on the authors’ field visit to Colombia from 6 to 11 November 2016. The visit included a series of bilateral and collective meetings in Bogota with the Government at the ministerial and technical levels, members of the UN Country Team and donors, as well as a field visit to projects of the Transitional Solutions Initiative in and near Villavicencio and in Soacha. In Bogota, OCHA hosted a one-day workshop on the subject of protracted internal displacement, with the participation of IDP leaders, Government officials, international humanitarian and development international organizations, donors, and local and international NGOs.

Registro Único de Victimas (RUV), 2017. Available from mi.unidadvictimas.gov.co/RUV.

These cumulative figures do not reflect deaths or IDPs who have found a durable solution, and thus are likely higher than the actual number of people who would define themselves as IDPs (NRC/IDMC, GRID 2016).
Ibid., p. 15. Some 78 per cent of all registered IDPs live in 282 of Colombia’s 1,122 municipalities, with large numbers in big cities and their surroundings, such as Bogota and Cali.
For example, the Soacha mayor’s office stated that while it would like to do more to assist IDPs, the central Government allocations were based on the 2005 census that reported the municipality had only 480,000 inhabitants, when in fact the population had likely risen to over 1 million.
IDPs may be excluded from regular development programmes meant to benefit all Colombians because it is assumed that these IDPs live in UN areas. Despite the 2011 Victims and Land Restitution Law, will meet all victims’ needs, even though the Unit is small and has only limited human and financial resources.
According to the Government, a 2013-2014 study concluded that some 80 per cent of IDPs lived below the poverty line, finding that 35 per cent per lived in extreme poverty (UNHCR, “UNHCR’s role in finding durable solutions for Colombia’s IDPs and refugees”, UNHCR Colombia, 28 February 2015, p. 3). Another study in 2010 reported even higher levels of poverty, stating that IDPs’ poverty and extreme poverty levels had reached 98.6 per cent and 82.6 per cent, respectively. By comparison, the 2010 study noted that 29.1 per cent of the general population was poor, with 8.7 per cent living in extreme poverty. S. Albuj and M Ceballos, “Urban displacement and migration in Colombia”, Forced Migration Review, 2010 (34), 10–11.
HPG, “Protracted displacement: Uncertain paths to self-reliance in exile”, annex 8 - Case Studies: Colombia, Darfur, Jordan and Uganda, September 2015, p. 3.
Ibid., with references.
Ibid., p. 4 with references.
IDPs explained to the researchers that it was often difficult to rent housing in legal settlements when they initially fled to urban areas. Landlords did not want to rent to families that had four or five children, which was common for rural families. Others said they were discriminated against because they came from indigenous or Afro-Colombian communities.
Ley de Victimas y Restitucion de Tierras, Law 1448, June 2011.
According to the World Bank, the Government of Colombia has an estimated $3 billion of fiscal space for all expenditures over and above those already mandated by law. At a minimum, execution of the Victims’ Law would require one third of the fiscal space.
At the time of writing, an evaluation of the TSI Colombia program was under way. See also, TSI Colombia, “Progress Update”, April 2015. Available from www.unhcr.org/protection/operations/55534200540/transitional-solutions-initiative-tsi-progress-update.html
This case study draws on the authors’ field visit to DRC from 5 to 10 September 2016 and largely focuses on the situation of IDPs in protracted displacement in North Kivu. The visit included a series of bilateral and collective meetings in Kinshasa with the Government at the ministerial and technical level, the UN DSRSG/RC/HC/RR, members of the Humanitarian and UN Country Teams, donors and the Protection Cluster. In Goma, OCHA hosted a one-day workshop on the subject of protracted internal displacement with the participation of local government officials, international humanitarian and development international organizations, donors, and local and international NGOs.
Notably, for those living in the IDP sites in the Kivus, there is currently a discussion within DRC as to whether the ethnic Hutus living in the IDP sites are Congolese IDPs or Rwandese who fled to the region and stayed.
Seeking refuge in a camp or transitional shelter site is generally viewed as a last resort, even though as “home-based” people sought shelter in three poorly equipped evacuation centres in a neighbouring city.

For example, indigenous people are frequently displaced from their ancestral lands, such as the Manobo tribe in eastern Mindanao. They were most recently displaced for a year in December 2015 when some 2,800 homes were occupied, representing around one per cent of the overall goal. David Doyle, “Rebuilding after Typhoon Haiyan.”

The government’s plans to relocate them from the “no dwelling zones” in coastal areas thus becomes a disaster risk reduction and overall development concern to prevent future displacement and harm. However, further information is needed to confirm this, as it has been reported that some returnees are more poor and vulnerable than they were three years ago. See Doyle, “Rebuilding after Typhoon Haiyan.”


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Seeking refuge in a camp or transitional shelter site is generally viewed as a last resort, even though as “home-based” IDPs, they may not be “tagged” by local authorities as displaced and be eligible for humanitarian assistance. OCHA, “Humanitarian Bulletin Philippines”, Issue 09, 1-30, September 2016, pp. 1-2. Available from reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/OCHAPhilippines_Humanitarian_Bulletin_No9_September_2016_FINAL.pdf

Recent analysis by OCHA indicates that a significant number of IDPs in South Kivu (some 53 per cent of those newly displaced) may in fact fall into this latter category, as the level of displacement is so small that it is not addressed by the RRMP.

The fact that IDPs are underemployed and farming less has contributed to the overall decline in agricultural production in eastern DRC, although it is not known to what extent as compared to the overall impacts of the ongoing conflict.

IDPs, Goma, p. 5.

UN Security Council resolution S/RES/1925 (2010), para 12 (g).

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The Philippine Disaster Risk Reduction and Management (DRRM) Act of 2010, RA 10121, assigns clear governmental responsibilities and establishes a uniform coordination framework down to the municipal level. Spanning the prevention, preparedness, response and recovery phases, the Act institutionalizes the IASC humanitarian cluster system and adopts a similar coordinating system for the recovery phase, bringing together government ministries, international organizations, NGOs and the private sector. Available from www.ndrrmc.gov.ph/attachments/045_RA%2010121.pdf

See, for example, the 2013 Comprehensive Land Use Plan, which provides guidance on the development of temporary and permanent IDP settlement sites, territorial issues between municipalities for large tracts of land and ownership issues related to public and privately owned land. Available from hlrعب.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/services/lgu/CLUP/HLURB_CLUP_Vol_1.pdf. See also the Local Government Code of 1991, RA 7160, which requires the creation of local peace and order councils, development councils and other special bodies, with at least 25 per cent of the membership comprised of NGO or CSO representatives. The code also allocates funding streams to augment Quick Response Funds that enable local governments to respond to humanitarian disaster events and minimize protracted displacement. Available from www.gov.ph/1991/10/10/republic-act-no-7160/

This case study draws on work done by the first author in his capacity as Special Advisor to the DSRSG/RC/HC Somalia on Internally Displaced Persons since December 2015, which includes several missions with visits to Hargeisa (Somaliland), Garowe, Bossaso and Galkayo (Puntland) as well as Mogadishu, Kismayo, Baidoa and Beletweyne (South-Central Somalia).

This figure is somewhat contested. See Drumtra, Jeff. “Internal Displacement in Somalia,” Brookings-LSE Project on Internal Displacement, December 2014, p. 4 ff, reporting that some actors believe that these figures are too high, while others feel that they might be too low because some IDPs live with host families and thus are largely invisible.

According to IDMC, 89,000 persons were newly displaced due to conflict in 2014 whereas the number of persons newly displaced in the context of disasters triggered by natural hazards amounted to 51,100 in the same year. The respective figures for 2015 are 90,000 (conflict) and 59,000 (disasters) newly displaced persons (IDMC, “Somalia: internal displacement as of March 2015,” 2015. http://www.internal-displacement.org/sub-saharan-africa/somalia/2015/somalia-internal-displacement-as-of-march-2015).

In Mogadishu, the overall population was estimated in 2014 at 1.65 million people with almost 370,000 (i.e. 22%) IDPs (UNHCR, Population Estimation Survey 2014- Somalia, Nairobi, October 2014, p. 31). The number of IDPs increased to almost 400,000 persons in 2016 (UNHCR, “Internal Displacement Profiling in Mogadishu,” April 2016, p. 3). The present overall population is unknown but estimated to be as high as 2.12 million (id., p. 18) due to the arrival of internal migrants from rural areas, arrivals from Yemen and the influx of members of the diaspora investing in construction and business.

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“lack of proper land registration and security of land tenure remains a major constraint for delivering economic opportunities and long-term development assistance for IDPs.”

One source of such conflicts is the fact that the Mogadishu land cadaster has been moved to Djibouti, where private “individuals provide non-authorised land registration for citizens of Mogadishu, based on the stolen cadastre” (“Global Program on Forced Displacement,” p. 32).


Ibid.

Ibid.

Ibid. Restrictions on the movement of IDPs for financial reasons are also reported by “Global Program on Forced Displacement,” pp. 23 and 31.


“Global Program on Forced Displacement,” p. 25.


Ibid.


Unemployment is estimated at 20% for IDPs as compared to 18% for host communities. UNHCR, “Mogadishu Profiling,” p. 39.

Ibid., p. 40.

Ibid., p. 37. While 75 per cent of IDPs in Mogadishu live in buuls (traditional huts made of wood sticks and covered with cloth and plastic) in unplanned settlements the percentage for the host community without solid shelters is 35 per cent.

United Nations, “HRP Somalia 2016,” p. 33. See also Drumtra, p. 31 f.

See Drumtra, p. 6 highlighting that “IDPs who are members of the Rahanweyn and Bantu communities, or who belong to weak sub-clans within predominant clan, face extra vulnerabilities and protection threats.”


Several discussions by the author with governmental officials in February 2016.

In line with Decision of the UN Secretary General No.2011/20 which calls for the RC/HC to lead a process of developing a durable solutions strategy and lead the coordination of international humanitarian and development assistance to support national efforts.


Ibid., p. 36.

Ibid., p. 152.

Ibid.

This case study draws on the author’s field visit to Ukraine from 18 to 26 September 2016. The visit included a series of bilateral meetings in Kiev with the Government at the ministerial and technical levels, the RC/HC and members of the Humanitarian and UN Country Teams, donors, development banks (World Bank and KFW) and civil society. Roundtables with Government, UN, INGO and civil-society representatives were held in Kramatorsk and Kiev. The author also visited a collective shelter and met IDPs in the Kramatorsk region. He presented his conclusions at a lecture hosted by the Embassy of Switzerland at the Taras Shevchenko National University Kiev.


The number is insofar inaccurate, as some IDPs did not want or were unable to register, whereas some who are registered are not IDPs or have in the meantime returned or left the country. The Ministry of Social Policy of Ukraine is presently undertaking a verification exercise that is likely to result in a somewhat lower number of IDPs.

Ibid., p. 1.


According to one assessment, a quarter of IDP households mentioned such movements. Reasons include the wish to secure their former property, contact with non-displaced family members and, in a few cases, continuing employment or business activities at the former place of habitual residence. In some cases, families have split, with men returning and women and children remaining at the displacement site. See Shelter Cluster Ukraine, “Shelter &NFI Needs Assessment Report”, Ukraine, August 2015, p. 16.

Council of Europe, “Enhancing the National Legal Framework in Ukraine for Protecting the Human Right of
During the course of the visit to Ukraine, it was not possible for the authors to study the situation in the non-Government-controlled areas.

Data provided by the World Bank available from data.worldbank.org/country/ukraine.


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IDPs in Haiti with poorly constructed housing face serious safety hazards during hurricane season. Report Special Rapporteur, Mission to Haiti, para. 9.

For example, IDPs living in rural enclaves in Kosovo faced restrictions when trying to leave these areas, as did Ugandan IDPs living in heavily congested, poorly maintained camps at the height of the fighting with the Lord’s Resistance Army. (SOURCE) IDMC, “Protracted Internal Displacement in Europe”, p. 14.

Vulnerability to secondary displacement by disasters during protracted displacement can occur for a number of reasons, including overall weakened resilience over time due to a lack of sufficient levels of assistance, a failure to invest in disaster risk reduction efforts where IDPs live because they are viewed as temporary or illegal settlements, and the fact that such settlements are often located in hazard prone areas, such as in floodplains or hillsides. IDMC, “Global Estimates”, p. 33.

For example, in Afghanistan, about 25 per cent of the IDPs in urban areas had sought refuge there when insecurity and inadequate livelihoods forced them to leave from the places where they had originally fled. Schmeidl, p. 20.


In DRC, for example, “endemic violence, insecurity and poverty caused repeated displacements in 2015. People become more vulnerable each time they are displaced, setting the scene for further displacement in the future as the resilience of individuals, households and communities is eroded.” NRC/IDMC, GRID 2016, p. 65.

For example, in Georgia, it was found that, “The renewed conflict (2008) once again disrupted livelihoods and social networks, which presented especially difficult challenges for the elderly struggling to adapt to unfamiliar settings.” Mosneaga and Vanore, p. 23.

Research on IDPs in south-east Europe and the Caucasus, for example, has found that “IDPs are more often impoverished, unemployed, less educated and in a poorer state of health than their non-displaced neighbours.” IDMC, “Protracted Internal Displacement in Europe”, p. 14.

See Somalia and Colombia case studies, annex I.

Zeender, p. 33.

However, the study also reasoned that IDPs who fled within their own governorates could continue to receive social benefits and assistance without registering. Circumstances for those fleeing to other governorates and living illegally in settlements on occupied land, however, were worse. These IDPs faced discrimination, constant threats of eviction and difficulties accessing state services. Chatelard, p. 12.


As cattle herders by tradition, the Dinka IDPs also had to adapt their diets when they moved to Yei since they could no longer could live off of their cattle’s milk and meat, and instead were forced to rely on “greens” that they illegally cultivated on occupied land (Sluga, pp. 120 f.).

Williams, “Protracted Internal Displacement”, p. 96.


In Mogadishu, Somalia, only 7% of all IDPs live in planned settlements, with 75 per cent of IDPs in Mogadishu still living in buuls (traditional huts made of wood sticks and covered with cloth and plastic). OCHA, 2016 “Humanitarian Needs Overview Somalia”, p. 22. By comparison, the percentage for urban poor of the host community without solid shelters in the same areas is 35 per cent. UNHCR, “Mogadishu Profiling”, p. 37.

Ferris and Birkeland, “Local Integration”, p. 18.

In contrast to Mogadishu, a series of shelter projects and programmes in Somaliland and Puntland were successful insofar as 45 per cent of IDPs now “live in planned settlements with improved transitional or permanent shelter solutions.” OCHA, “2016 Humanitarian Needs Overview Somalia”, p. 22. In Colombia, progress has also been made in the area of the quality of housing with—depending on the source—between 66 and 83.8 per cent of IDPs living in solid stone or brick houses as of 2013/14, Comisión de Seguimiento a la Política Pública sobre Desplazamiento Forzado, El reto ante la tragedia humanitaria del desplazamiento forzado, volumen 15, 2016, p. 82.

For instance, when the Government of Serbia withdrew support for IDPs who had been living in communal centres for over a decade, IDPs who had nowhere else to go either stayed on in the derelict, leaking buildings or, if forcibly evicted from the centres, moved to irregular settlements. IDMC found that “IDPs have been evicted from collective centres in Azerbaijan, Georgia and Russia, at times forcibly and often without compensation or an offer of alternative housing.” IDMC, “Protracted Internal Displacement in Europe”, p. 14.

Williams, “Protracted Internal Displacement”, p. 96.

Walicki, “Part Protracted, Part Progress”, p. 70.

Sluga, p. 119.

In Burundi, for example, IDPs had been living for ten years on land that was thought to be owned by the State, whose ownership was later challenged by individuals and institutions. Zeender, p. 33.

Sluga, p. 116.
displaced persons camp in 1998. However, a young man working with the family business still expressed a desire
Berg, p. 145, describes a Ugandan family that was able to purchase land and start a small business at the
and Haslie, p. 15.
For example, some Somali leather workers were able to find employment opportunities in Mogadishu. Lindley
Colombia case study, annex I.
Representative of the Secretary-General,
Unemployment is also higher for IDPs as compared to the general population in Serbia and Montenegro.
Representative of the Secretary-General,
rights of IDPs found that after many years of displacement, the IDP children were increasingly illiterate.
For example, during a mission to Georgia, the former Representative of the Secretary-General on the human
IDMC, “Protracted Internal Displacement in Europe”, p. 15-16.
Berg, pp. 143-144.
IDMC notes in the case of Pakistan, for example, “Displacement could have the positive effect of providing
children from FATA and KP with better-quality schooling in other parts of the country. In reality, however, only
very few displaced children from North Waziristan have benefitted in this way. This is because local schools
were already under strain before their arrival, facilities have been used as shelters and many lost school books
and other material during their flight.” IDMC. “Pakistan: Solutions to displacement elusive for both new and
protracted IDPs”, 24 August 2015, p. 9.
Similarly in Japan, it was reported, “In Fukushima prefecture, the death toll resulting from health problems and
suicides after the nuclear disaster has exceeded that from the direct impacts of the earthquake and tsunami, with
people over 66 years of age accounting for more than 90% of such fatalities.” Mosneaga and Vanore, p. 23 f.
UN Women, Preventing Conflict, Transforming Justice, Securing Peace, A Global Study on the Implementation
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to receive training to help him expand the business.

disasters, and to pay for legal services to resolve issues linked to property, accumulated debt, insurance claims, mortgage payments on their homes in the place of origin. The study also found that those people displaced for a longer period by Hurricane Sandy also needed more assistance to replace lost property, such as household items. For example, one study on people displaced in 2013 by Hurricane Sandy in the United States found that a large proportion of IDPs in Ukraine have already depleted their financial resources. Report of the Special Rapporteur on the human rights of internally displaced persons, Chaloka Beyani, Addendum, Mission to Ukraine, A/HRC/29/34/Add.3, 2 April 2015, para. 38.

While not in life-threatening situations, some IDPs in Afghanistan reported inadequate levels of food, water and emergency shelter. Visit of the Representative of the Secretary-General on the human rights of internally displaced persons to Afghanistan 11 – 17 August 2007, “Key findings and recommendations”, para. 23.

UNHCR and Brookings-Bern Project. IDPs in Protracted Displacement, p. 28.

IDPs in Haiti commonly noted a lack of transportation to access employment in city centers. Special Rapporteur, Mission to Haiti, para. 41.

Entwisle notes that, “In certain situations, security conditions may also allow IDPs to access their land during the day, but still force them to sleep elsewhere at night – a phenomenon known in the Democratic Republic of Congo as ‘deplacment pendulaire.’” Hannah Entwisle, “The End of the Road? A Review of UNHCR’s Role in the Protection of Internally Displaced Persons”, PDES/2010/09, July 2010, para. 50.

Representative of the Secretary-General, Mission to the Central African Republic, paras. 54 f.

Williams, “Protracted Internal Displacement”, pp. 95 f.

IDPs working in the “grey market” in Serbia faced difficulties accessing “working booklets” needed to gain regular employment as well as obtain unemployment benefits and pensions. Representative of the Secretary-General, Mission to Serbia & Montenegro, para. 34.


The use of child labour by displaced communities in Iraq rose as economic situations become increasingly dire. Representative of the Secretary-General, Visit to Iraq, para 50.

Displaced women in Nepal, particularly those who head households expressed a concern about resorting to prostitution or allowing their children to be indentured labourers to ensure their survival. Representative of the Secretary-General, Mission to Nepal, para. 53.

In Iraq, NGOs and authorities were concerned about perceived increases in IDP women resorting to prostitution or becoming trafficking victims in the absence of adequate livelihood opportunities. Representative of the Secretary-General, Visit to Iraq, para. 60.

Child prostitution was reportedly frequent in a number of IDP camps in Haiti even 10 months after the earthquake. Representative of the Secretary-General on the Human Rights of Internally Displaced Persons, Mr. Walter Kālin, “Human Rights of Internally Displaced Persons in Haiti: Memorandum based on a Working Visit to Port-au-Prince” (12-16 October 2010), paras. 32-33.

Single women in Côte d’Ivoire reportedly used prostitution to avoid poverty, which had in turn led to increased gender-related violence, such as when men physically abused women who sought payment for sex they had provided on credit. Representative of the Secretary-General, Mission to Côte d’Ivoire, para. 46.

In Northern Uganda, for instance, land was relatively easy and affordable through clan networks, however, over time, protracted displacement in confined areas compounded by population growth made purchasing or renting land too expensive for the majority of IDPs. Berg, p. 140.

In 2013 an estimated 70 per cent of IDPs in Vavuniya and Mullaitivu Districts in Sri Lanka were food insecure. Sluga, p. 122.

Ibid., pp. 139 f. Notably, almost all displaced Ugandans maintained a physical link to their places of origin, where many owned land and had strong ties to their respective clan.

In 2013 an estimated 70 per cent of IDPs in Vavuniya and Mullaitivu Districts in Sri Lanka were food insecure. Special Rapporteur, Follow-up mission to Sri Lanka, para. 27. In Azerbaijan in 2007, the Representative of the Secretary-General on the human rights of internally displaced persons found that some one third of IDPs relied on food assistance. Report of the Representative of the Secretary-General on the human rights of internally displaced persons, Walter Kālin, Addendum, Mission to Azerbaijan, A/HRC/8/6/Add. 2, 15 April 2008, para. 49.


For example, one study on people displaced in 2013 by Hurricane Sandy in the United States found that a large proportion of IDPs displaced for longer periods were unable to pay for rental housing while also continuing mortgage payments on their homes in the place of origin. The study also found that those people displaced for a longer period by Hurricane Sandy also needed more assistance to replace lost property, such as household furniture and appliances, finance weather-proofing on their homes to avoid additional damage by future disasters, and to pay for legal services to resolve issues linked to property, accumulated debt, insurance claims,

In Sri Lanka, the Special Rapporteur noted that the “Prescription Ordinance gives land ownership to those who have occupied the land for at least 10 years, even for land belonging to those who fled during the conflict.” Special Rapporteur, Follow-up mission to Sri Lanka, para. 45.


For instance, in Northern Uganda, where land is primarily governed by customary law through elders, the protracted war and displacement destroyed the social fabric essential to the functioning of the system, with many elders taking essential knowledge related to land demarcation with them when they died. The absence of a functioning system led some returning IDPs to take control over additional land and prevent other IDPs from returning, particularly as land become more valuable in the post-conflict phase for development. Berg, p. 141.


Walicki, “Part Protracted, Part Progress”, p. 68.

Colombia case study, annex I.

The Ukraine United Nations Partnership Framework 2012 – 2016 was adopted before the outbreak of the conflict and accompanying internal displacement.