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Field Practice in Internal Displacement

As described in the Foreword, the "intent of this compilation is to provide, for field practitioners, examples of interventions on behalf of the internally displaced from a variety of country contexts." To better reflect the content of this compilation, the title has been changed to "Field Practice in Internal Displacement."

IASC members are invited to review the content and format of this draft. Feedback from the Working Group is requested on:

- (1) whether the general structure and content of the draft are appropriate;
- (2) recommendations for additional field examples; and,
- (3) initial reaction from field staff of IASC members about which types of examples and which format would be most useful.

All three types of input would assist in producing a contribution to IASC Working Group's work on behalf of IDPs.

DRAFT

FIELD PRACTICE IN INTERNAL DISPLACEMENT

Examples from UN Agencies and Partner Organizations of Field-based Initiatives Supporting Internally Displaced Persons

**United Nations Inter-Agency Standing Committee
Working Group**

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FOREWORD

Internal displacement, since it affects an estimated 22 million people in more than 55 countries, is often called a "global" crisis. Yet, the battle to overcome this worldwide problem is often fought at the family, village, barrio, district or national level. As displaced communities, local organizations, national authorities and international agencies confront internal displacement at the grassroots, they are often required to develop innovative program responses quickly and under stress.

Recognizing this reality, the UN Inter-agency Standing Committee Working Group (IASC-WG) -- the UN's designated inter-agency forum on internally displaced persons, or "IDPs" -- asked its members to contribute examples of field programs supporting the internally displaced. The intent of this compilation is to provide, for field practitioners, examples of interventions on behalf of the internally displaced from a variety of country contexts.

This is not a "how to" manual. The member agencies of the IASC recognize that internal displacement is a complex phenomenon, with diverse manifestations in different political, cultural, and developmental contexts. Effective programs addressing internal displacement at the field level will always need to grow from a sound analysis of local conditions, capacities and needs. Rather, this compilation offers field workers, humbly, a sampling of prior experience by agencies wrestling with internal displacement.

This first edition of *Field Practice in Internal Displacement* will miss, undoubtedly, many good examples of creative interventions on behalf of the internally displaced. Moreover, field practice is rapidly evolving, as more agencies examine how they can effectively support IDPs. Therefore, readers are invited to send comments, critiques and, especially, examples of sound field practice, to the publishers.

One additional caveat: this brief publication is not intended to serve as a primer on internal displacement. Crucial topics like the causes of displacement, definition of internal displacement, the legal bases for protection and intervention, the responsibilities of national governments, gender issues in displacement, global advocacy efforts, and others are touched on only briefly in this text. These important issues are best examined in depth in other literature. For this reason, two bibliographies have been appended to guide readers in additional research. The first, a comprehensive bibliography on internal displacement, was borrowed, with gratitude, from the Norwegian Refugee Council and Global IDP Survey's publication *Internally Displaced People: A Global Survey*.. The second, a bibliography on Gender and Internally Displaced Persons, was provided by UNICEF and the Women's Commission on Refugee Women and Children.

Finally, this publication – and the examples of field practice -- have intentionally been kept short, targeted as they are at practitioners in the field. The drafters recognize that busy people need useful information in digestible units, when confronted with the need to translate knowledge into program action.

All members of the IASC Working Group contributed examples to this work. A team composed of the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), the office of the Representative of the Secretary-General on Internal Displacement, and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) served as the focal point for pulling the publication together.

INTRODUCTION

“The humanitarian community is increasingly aware of the crisis of internal displacement which affects over 20 million people worldwide. While responsibility for the protection of internally displaced persons (IDPs) rests, first and foremost, with national governments and local authorities, it is important for the international community to see how best it can contribute to enhancing the protection of IDPs in conflict and crisis situations. We must also design humanitarian assistance in such a way that it will promote the protection of IDPs.” *Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement*, UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, 1998, foreword

These words of the United Nations Under-Secretary-General for Humanitarian Affairs, Mr. Sergio Vieira de Mello, highlight several important aspects of the internal displacement “crisis.” First, the scale of the problem is large, with over 20 million people affected in more than 55 countries. Second, solutions to the displacement problem are primarily the responsibility and duty of national governments and other authorities. Third, the international community, nonetheless, has an important responsibility to assist IDPs. And, fourth, this responsibility should not be limited to humanitarian assistance, but includes protection of all of those rights guaranteed to the internally displaced by international humanitarian and human rights law.

The question remains of **how** the international community should best respond when it confronts concrete problems of internal displacement at the ground level. What practical steps can and should representatives of UN agencies, NGOs or international organizations take to prevent or mitigate internal displacement? What is the appropriate balance between international action and the responsibility of local authorities? How can both assistance and protection be addressed? Which agencies should take the lead vis-à-vis IDPs?

These and other practical questions provoke diverse answers from analysts within the UN system and elsewhere. It is, perhaps quite naturally, a period of ferment in

programming vis-à-vis IDPs, given that there is no designated UN lead agency in the field for IDP programs; given the rapid growth in the numbers of IDPs; given the complex issues of sovereignty, rights and responsibilities embedded in the issue; and, given the evolving program knowledge base.

Recent Activities in the UN System; Where this Publication Fits: The past decade has witnessed a series of events that have increased focus within the UN system on issues of internal displacement. First, in 1992, the Secretary-General appointed a Representative on Internally Displaced Persons. That Representative, Dr. Francis M. Deng, has undertaken several initiatives – including country visits, reports and analyses – to raise the visibility of and focus on internal displacement. Most significantly, the Representative presented in 1998 *Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement*, a single-source compilation of international law applicable to the internally displaced. *Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement*, United Nations E/CN.4/1998/53/Add.2, 11 February 1998

In Dr. Deng's words, the *Principles* "identify the rights and guarantees relevant to the protection of the internally displaced in all phases of displacement. They provide protection against arbitrary displacement, offer a basis for protection and assistance during displacement, and set forth guarantees for safe return, resettlement and reintegration. Although they do not constitute a binding instrument, these *Principles* reflect and are consistent with international human rights and humanitarian law and analogous refugee law."

Second, supplementing the appointment of the Representative on Internally Displaced Persons, the UN's Inter-Agency Standing Committee has asked the Under-Secretary-General for Humanitarian Affairs/Emergency Relief Coordinator to act as headquarters Focal Point within the UN system for issues relating to the internally displaced. This step is intended to enhance the capacity of the UN system as a whole to respond to situations of internal displacement, and promote coordination among UN field agencies on this issue.

Third, operational UN agencies, NGOs and international organizations – individually, and in partnership – have increasingly focused on the protection and assistance aspects of internal displacement. There is broad consensus that these efforts, while encouraging, are fragmentary, and that much work remains to meet the needs of

more than 20 million displaced children, women and men. Nonetheless, the experience of these operational agencies provides models of field practice that might be examined for applicability in other displacement situations.

In this environment of heightened focus on internal displacement and evolving program initiatives, this publication attempts to capture examples of sound field practice supporting internally displaced persons. The core of this publication consists of more than fifty concise examples of program initiatives undertaken by operational agencies in countries confronting internal displacement. As readers will readily note, what worked in these fifty situations may not be directly transferable to displacement crises elsewhere. It is, rather, the purpose of this publication to share prior experience in order to stimulate practitioners in their own program design.

How this Publication is Organized: *Examples of field programming* are grouped into five chapter headings, mirroring the main sections of the *Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement*: "General Principles", "Protection from Displacement", "Protection during Displacement", "Humanitarian Assistance", and "Return, Resettlement and Reintegration". In each chapter, this publication summarizes briefly the *Guiding Principles* pertaining to that chapter (The summaries of the *Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement* provided in each chapter are intended only to convey the main thrust of the respective principles. Readers should consult the *Guiding Principles* themselves for an authoritative understanding of the principles), then suggests practical programming steps that field practitioners might consider to translate the *Principles* into action. Each chapter offers several historical examples of actual field programming by international agencies or governments.

For example, the chapter titled "Protection during Displacement" summarizes principles number 10 to 23 of the *Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement*. Principle 20 states that "every human being has the right to recognition everywhere as a person before the law... To give effect to this right for internally displaced persons, the authorities concerned shall issue to them all documents necessary for the enjoyment and exercise of their legal rights..." This publication suggests a practical programming step that would translate this principle into action: agencies working in the field can assist by "funding programs to replace lost documentation, such as birth certificates or property titles."

Then, an example is provided of a case where this was accomplished. In this case, UNHCR's 1992 documentation program in El Salvador is summarized, a program in which reprocessing of National Electoral Council data helped provide identity cards for more than one million Salvadorans, and helped restore municipal archives.

The fifty examples listed are presented neither as the only programming option nor as the best course of action. Rather, the objective is to stimulate appropriate field practice by offering examples of what operating agencies have attempted in the past when confronted with concrete problems of internal displacement.

After the examples of field practice, this publication provides three short case studies of displacement crises. Each of these case studies summarizes the experience of a particular country undergoing a displacement crisis. The case studies, taken from reports of the Representative on Internally Displaced Persons, provide a snapshot of how the crisis evolved, the stages of the crisis and the response of the international community. The case studies are intended to provide practitioners with a sense of the complex array of issues likely to arise in displacement crises. Three case studies, representing unique country situations, were selected: Tajikistan, Angola and Burundi.

Finally, this publication provides two bibliographies on internal displacement. The first was compiled for *Internally Displaced People: A Global Survey* (Janie Hampton, editor; *Internally Displaced People: A Global Survey*, Global IDP Survey and Norwegian Refugee Council; 1998. The bibliography was compiled by Louise Ludlam-Taylor.). This bibliography contains more than 200 publications addressing all aspects of internal displacement. The second bibliography was compiled for UNICEF's Office of Emergency Programmes by the Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children, as part of a study to be published by UNICEF on *The Gender Dimension of Internal Displacement*. Both bibliographies are provided as resources for practitioners who wish to pursue sources from the academic and institutional literature (The IDP bibliography is being regularly updated by Norwegian Refugee Council, and is accessible on that organization's website at <<http://www.sol.no/nrc-no>>).

Patterns of Sound Practice in Internal Displacement: As noted above, field practice in internal displacement is evolving. Yet, even at this relatively early stage

in the evolution of such practice, it is possible to discern several themes or patterns that characterize sound programming. Among these patterns of sound practice are:

Careful analysis of local socio-cultural patterns: The fact of displacement will be perceived differently by different communities and individuals, depending on prior experience and on local social, cultural, religious and community traditions and beliefs. Sound field practice will be preceded by careful study of these factors, in order to understand what displacement means to those experiencing it.

Investment in collection of detailed data on displacement: Chaos, separation, limits on access, desire for anonymity and other factors accompanying displacement crises complicate the international community's ability to get a clear picture of the displaced, their capacities and their needs. Sound field practice will be based on accurate data collection – including data disaggregated by gender, age and other key factors – in order to permit quality program design and targeting (Currently, the Global IDP Survey, in cooperation with the UN Inter-Agency Standing Committee Working Group on IDPs, is designing a global data-base on IDPs. Since this project is attempting to address the multitude of methodological issues pertaining to data collection on the internally displaced, it bears watching by practitioners.).

Recognition that displaced individuals, families and communities are the central actors: As in all emergency situations, the total effort of the international community will pale in comparison with what the displaced will do for themselves. Supporting displaced communities, understanding their objectives, seeking their input in planning, and enhancing their role in relation to local authorities are essential steps to sound field practice.

Recognition of the gender aspects of displacement: Many aspects of displacement – from camp facilities, to food access, to disruption of employment, to risk of violence, to social standing – will affect men and women differently, with the impact likely to be most severe on women. Just as important, the experience of displacement is likely to affect the social relationship between genders. Recognition of this reality is a core element of sound field practice.

Encouragement of local authorities to meet their responsibilities: The internally displaced, by definition, remain citizens of their own nation, and local authorities retain primary responsibility for their welfare. When lack of resources, or lack of will, limit assistance by local authorities, sound practice may suggest support for, or advocacy with, those authorities as an appropriate first step.

Protection, as well as, assistance interventions: Since IDPs remain within the boundaries of their nation, international efforts to guarantee the types of protection listed in the *Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement* will encounter issues of national sovereignty. Yet, displaced populations are especially vulnerable to abuse, and protection may be a higher priority than material assistance. Creative efforts to extend protection to IDPs are an essential element of sound field practice.

Integration of emergency and developmental interventions: Many displacement crises have an emergency phase, when immediate, life-saving assistance may be required. Many such crises, however, can last for years, as IDPs are caught in ongoing conflicts or political stalemates. Sound field practice is characterized by an early planning for durable solutions – such as return or resettlement – and a recognition that the solution to internal displacement may be related to national economic and political development.

Collaborative institutional arrangements among international organizations: The complexity of displacement crises, the gap in international institutional leadership, and lack of systematic practice should all impel close working relationships among responding organizations. It is all too easy for the particular needs of IDPs to “fall through the cracks” if international organizations are not talking with each other, sharing data, and rationally allocating tasks. Close and collaborative working relations among responding institutions – including the use of IDP working groups, and similar targeting arrangements – are related to sound field practice.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES

In the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, principles one to four cover non-discrimination against internally displaced persons, both with respect to domestic and international law; the maintenance of individual criminal responsibility under international law; the responsibility of all authorities, groups and persons - irrespective of their legal status - to observe the Principles; the maintenance of all existing international humanitarian and human rights protections, including the right to seek asylum in other countries; the primary duty of national authorities to provide protection and humanitarian assistance to IDPs; the right of the displaced to appeal to national authorities without prejudice; the applicability of the principles without distinction of any kind, such as language, religion, ethnic origin, age or disability; and, the entitlement of certain categories of IDPs (such as female heads of households, children and the elderly) to protection and assistance that takes into account their special needs.

Practitioners can help support these principles by:

disseminating the *Guiding Principles*, and information about the *Guiding Principles*, especially in languages used by IDPs and relevant authorities;

supporting training programs in the *Guiding Principles*, and in international humanitarian and human rights law;

ensuring that program interventions are based on a sound understanding of international humanitarian and human rights laws;

designing “rights-based” programs, that focus on the displaced as possessors of rights rather than as victims;

advocating widely for application of the *Guiding Principles*;

ensuring that programs do not, intentionally or unintentionally, restrict the right of IDPs to seek asylum;

advocating vigorously with national authorities that they accept their duty vis-à-vis the internally displaced;

supporting, through training and other support, efforts by national authorities to accept responsibility for IDPs;

facilitating channels for IDPs to approach national authorities to seek protection and assistance;

ensuring that all program interventions are applied in a non-discriminatory fashion;

taking into account, in program design, “special needs” groups within the displaced population;

monitoring and reporting on compliance with the *Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement*.

Field-based examples of such practice include:

Translating the *Guiding Principles* into Local Languages Facilitates Advocacy [Azerbaijan]: Primarily as a result of conflict in Nagorno-Karabakh, Azerbaijan holds one of the world's highest concentrations of IDPs, with one of eight citizens displaced. In light of these conditions, the office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) has arranged for the translation of the *Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement* into the Azerbaijani language, in both Latin and Cyrillic alphabets in order to increase access. Making this document available in Azerbaijani has increased significantly its value as an advocacy tool. Government officials, for example, have noted how increased access to the *Guiding Principles* will facilitate the incorporation of IDP protection into national legislation. [Draft report

of the Representative of the Secretary-General for IDPs on his mission to Azerbaijan, 1998]

Integrated IDP Assistance and Protection Programme in the Sudan: In order to improve programming for IDPs in the Sudan, in coordination with other UN agencies and NGOs, the UN Humanitarian Coordination Unit in Khartoum created a six-person team of IDP Coordinators, deployed in five locations. The team, assembled in 1997, neither managed separate programs nor attempted formal coordination of other agency operations. Rather, through collaborative efforts at information gathering, analysis and assistance in field coordination, the IDP program attempts to improve work in seven issue areas:

- Garnering a better profile of displacement through data collection and analysis

- Assisting in field coordination among UN agencies, NGOs and government

- Creating humanitarian space, and promoting humanitarian principles

- Assisting government authorities in protection of IDPs

- Ensuring that IDPs are involved in relief planning and implementation

- Improving relations between displaced and host communities

- Supporting self-reliance for displaced communities

To gain local knowledge, cultural awareness and communications skills, Sudanese nationals were recruited to serve as IDP coordinators. However, recognizing that local officers might be susceptible to increased political pressure, international officers backed up the team through short-term field assignments. Team members, prior to deployment, received intensive training in topics including: humanitarian operations; displacement, including the *Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement*; child rights; humanitarian principles; international law; and, gender issues. Although the IDP program is new, initial evaluation suggest it has made a contribution in improving information and analysis of IDP situations, in creating humanitarian space through discussions with government authorities, assisting in field coordination among agencies, and in providing some protection for displaced communities. [Evaluation of the UNHCU IDP Programme, UN Humanitarian Coordination Unit, Khartoum, 1998]

Local Representatives of International Agencies Support Government IDP

Efforts [Sierra Leone]: In late 1991, the Government of Sierra Leone established NARECOM, the National Rehabilitation Committee, to take charge of coordinating IDP relief and rehabilitation assistance. With assistance from a UN task force, set up locally, NARECOM developed in June, 1993, a six-month plan for emergency relief to the internally displaced, and launched an appeal for assistance to the international community. [*UNHCR's Operational Experience with Internally Displaced Persons*, 1994]

International Efforts Can Benefit IDPs by Spurring Government Coordination

[Azerbaijan]: With more than one half million IDPs, internal displacement is a major issue facing the Azerbaijani government. Although the government has generally accepted its responsibilities vis-à-vis IDPs, coordination among government ministries has remained a problem, with multiple ministries managing different aspects of internal displacement. Recognizing that better coordination would benefit the internally displaced, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) worked with Azerbaijani authorities to develop a framework for enhanced coordination.

The resulting "State Commission for the Development of the Unified Migration Management Programme" is intended to take a comprehensive view of migration, with five areas of focus:

- Refugees and IDPs
- Labor migrations
- Policy and management
- Border management, and
- Migration information systems.

In an environment of limited resources, elimination of duplication and better targeting by the State Commission could significantly benefit those IDPs most in need. [Draft report of the Representative of the Secretary-General for IDPs on his mission to Azerbaijan, 1998]

Engaging Both Government and Opposition Forces Yields Benefits [Sudan]:

"Operation Lifeline Sudan (OLS)," launched in 1989, was an early effort to link both parties controlling access to IDPs – the Government of Sudan, and the opposition

Sudanese People's Liberation Army (SPLA) – into an agreement for relief delivery. Although the approach to a rebel force like the SPLA initially raised serious issues for UN agencies, the resulting agreement was the only hope of reaching 1.5 million displaced and war-affected, since both sides to the conflict controlled displacement sites and access. The OLS agreement, although it has continued to face problems in an ongoing conflict, permitted international humanitarian assistance in each side's area of operations, and guaranteed safe passage in designated "corridors of tranquillity." [UNHCR's *Operational Experience with Internally Displaced Persons*, 1994]

Negotiations with Opposition Groups Can Gain Important Protection for IDPs

[Sri Lanka]: In situations of internal displacement, negotiations with opposition groups which control portions of national territory will always be sensitive. Nonetheless, active engagement with the opposition by international organizations operating in Sri Lanka expanded substantially the protection available to the internally displaced. The Special Representative of the Secretary-General for Children and Armed Conflict, during a 1998 visit to Sri Lanka, sought and achieved a number of commitments from the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE) regarding children's rights. These commitments included limitations on recruitment of children, and an agreement to train fighters in the Convention on the Rights of the Child. The ICRC sought and achieved commitments from the LTTE on adherence to key portions of the Geneva Conventions. [UNICEF assessment visit, 1998]

IDPs Declare Themselves "Communities of Peace" in Colombia: After three decades of armed conflict in Colombia, communities of IDPs and others threatened by the violence – like San Jose de Apartado's 800 residents in the war-torn region of Uraba -- are trying to stop the killing in their communities and prevent further displacement by publicly declaring themselves neutral to the conflict. In 1997, the community collectively decided not to carry arms and not to support or associate itself with any armed group. By publicly rejecting all groups in conflict, however, the community is left open to intimidation by all sides and protected by none. Within three months of the declaration, 37 members of the community were killed. A number of national and international NGOs have subsequently offered their support to the "communities of peace" initiative, including Oxfam and Medicos del Mundo,

providing accompaniment and emergency supplies, which appear to be providing a degree of protection. [*Forced Migration Review*, January-April, 1998]

Disaggregating IDP Data by Gender Assists Program Design [Angola]: With over a million IDPs spread across its vast territory, Angola in 1996 faced difficult issues of care, protection and return. Angolan and international institutions had only fragmentary data on the location and condition of IDPs. In an attempt to fill this gap, UNICEF and UNDP supported a multi-province socio-demographic study of the displaced population, conducted by the government's National Institute of Statistics, in cooperation with UNITA. The design and results of the survey were especially significant for the 44 per cent of Angolan IDPs who were women or girls. By disaggregating IDP data by gender and age, the study alerted agencies to concentrations of women, teenagers, and girls who were vulnerable. The findings permitted more precise targeting of program efforts to ensure that women's status and views were considered. In one province, researchers found that 63 per cent of households were headed by women, underlining the need to include women in decision-making processes. [*Internally Displaced People: A Global Survey*, 1998]

Focusing on the Psycho-Social Needs of Displaced and Returnee Children [Sri Lanka]: Many Sri Lankan children, both the displaced and recent returnees, have experienced the trauma and disruption of war. Indeed, many of these children have known virtually nothing but conflict and displacement. These children often face problems readjusting to their new environments, to altered family and community life, and to school. In the Jaffna peninsula and elsewhere in Sri Lanka, UNICEF supports community-based "drop-in" centers for displaced and returnee children, where normal play and artistic activities are encouraged in a calm, supportive atmosphere, reintroducing the children to normal childhood activities.

UNICEF and program partners have also recognized the importance of teachers in meeting children's psycho-social needs. Given the importance of formal education in Sri Lanka, enrolling displaced and returnee children in classes is a high priority for IDP families. UNICEF/Sri Lanka recognized that many of the re-enrolled students were still deeply affected by the conflict and experience of displacement, and that teachers were in a unique position to observe students facing adjustment difficulties. UNICEF initiated training programs for primary school teachers to help recognize

signs of psycho-social needs in IDP children, and to guide appropriate interventions or referrals. [UNICEF assessment visit, 1998]

Meeting the Special Needs of Former Combatants in Mozambique: By the time a peace agreement was signed in 1992, there were an estimated 3.7 million internally displaced individuals in Mozambique. A significant number of these, more than 150,000, were ex-combatants returning to their homes or resettling. These former fighters faced special problems adjusting to the post-conflict environment, and faced uncertain reception and prospects in the communities where they settled. IOM developed several programs to strengthen the capacity of local communities to absorb ex-combatants and to support these returnees to develop a civilian life. The Provincial Reintegration Fund funded small-scale economic initiatives aimed at employing former fighters, either as entrepreneurs or as employees. The Information and Referral Service Project established a referral and counseling network, supported vocational training, and funded other activities to assist demobilized soldiers. IOM also help establish a national transportation network which, at its operational peak, was transporting up to 2,000 ex-combatants per day. [*Internally Displaced Persons: IOM Policy and Programmes*, IOM, 1997]

PROTECTION FROM DISPLACEMENT

Principles 5 to 9 of the *Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement* cover the responsibilities of authorities to avoid arbitrary displacement; to limit the extent of displacement; to explore alternatives to displacement; to avoid family separation during displacement; to provide proper accommodation to displaced persons; to consult with the displaced; to permit appeal of the decision to displace; to provide special protection to those groups with a special attachment to the land; and other responsibilities. These requirements are intended to ensure that displacement will be avoided, if possible, and, if it does occur, that displacement “shall not be carried out in a manner that violates the rights to life, dignity, liberty and security of those affected.”

Practitioners can help prevent displacement, or ameliorate the conditions of displacement, by:

- collecting accurate data on the populations and conditions in communities at risk;
- collecting and disseminating accurate information on the factors impelling displacement;
- opening channels of communication with local authorities who may be able to prevent displacement;
- establishing a presence in communities at risk of displacement;
- advocating among the displaced, authorities, donors, international organizations, and others for the rights of communities at risk;
- convening discussions with community leaders and authorities to determine alternatives to displacement;
- pre-positioning supplies that may be necessary if displacement appears inevitable;
- ascertaining with community leaders and authorities optimal locations for displaced populations, and preparing sites;
- organizing transport to avoid chaotic displacement; and,

identifying high risk groups among populations at risk and targeting special needs for care or protection.

Field-based examples of such practice include:

Widespread Contacts with Contending Groups, Plus Advocacy for International Humanitarian Law Can Limit Displacement [Colombia]: Multi-sided conflict in Colombia, frequently targeting civilians, has resulted in the internal displacement of one in every forty residents. With 12 offices and sub-delegations in Colombia, the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) has made a major investment in serving as a neutral intermediary in Colombia. Although the ICRC has provided large-scale assistance to thousands of IDPs after displacement, a major objective is enabling people to stay in their homes and communities. In part, this implies a ceaseless effort to instruct all parties in the essentials of international humanitarian law, especially the duty to safeguard persons not taking part in hostilities.

As a practical matter, advocacy to prevent displacement requires widespread, extensive, and ongoing contacts between ICRC representatives and contending parties in Colombia. The ICRC reports the following among regular contacts: civilian authorities, local and international NGOs, the high command of the Colombian military, every military brigade or division of the armed forces, battalions of the anti-guerrilla units, the major self-defense and private security groups, most of the one hundred or so "fronts" of the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC) and the National Liberation Army (ELN), the directors of 150 prisons, numerous "cabildos" or native population municipalities, all autonomous branches of the Colombian Red Cross, and the different strata of the Catholic Church. In urban areas, these contacts are extended to numerous militias and youth gangs. [*ICRC special report: The role of a neutral intermediary in Colombia, 1997-1998*, ICRC, 21 April 1998]

Building Local Capacity Can Prevent or Mitigate Displacement Due to Natural Disasters [Tajikistan]: The prevalence of natural hazards, such as landslides and floods, contributes significantly to internal displacement in mountainous Tajikistan. Recognizing this threat, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) designed a training program to prevent or mitigate the effects of these natural threats. As part

of its capacity building effort, IOM assisted Government and local officials to develop a model for adaptive resettlement of villages in high risk areas, and trained these officials in planning for and implementing resettlement activities. [*Internally Displaced Persons: IOM Policy and Programmes*, IOM, 1997]

Rapid international response while IDPs are fleeing can ameliorate conditions of displacement [Sri Lanka]: Following a major military offensive, IDPs from the Kilinochche District of Sri Lanka began to flee westward to the “open relief center” at Madhu. Fearing overcrowding of facilities at Madhu, UNHCR staff responded rapidly, meeting groups of IDPs *en route* and assessing their security and humanitarian needs. After determining that IDPs were secure in the locations to which they had moved, UNHCR provided shelter and other program services *in situ*.. This response avoided overcrowding and potential health problems at Madhu, allowed IDPs to settle where more land was available, and supported IDPs closer to their homes, to facilitate visits and potential return. [UNICEF assessment visit, 1998]

Careful Planning with Returnee Communities Can Diminish Repeat Displacement [Peru]: Many families forced to flee their homes during Peru’s internal struggle in the 1980s and 1990s were eager to attempt return by the early 1990s, having faced discrimination and limited opportunities in areas of displacement. In the absence of organized returnee programs, many IDPs returned on their own. Subsequently, many of these returnees fled a second time, as they encountered continued insecurity in the countryside, loss of their farmland, or other hardships. The International Organization for Migration (IOM) analyzed this phenomenon in 1994-95, distilling factors likely to foster durable return. Among these were:

- Careful identification of potential returnees
- Careful selection of the communities where return would be promoted, taking into account security and other factors
- Implementation of a health program before return
- Initiation of psycho-social assistance before return
- A joint evaluation, by communal leaders and partner organizations, of the minimum conditions for self-sustenance upon return
- Necessary technical assistance for agricultural production
- Reinforcement of social relations through conflict resolution programs, and

Continuation of education programs.

In subsequent organized returns supported by IOM, IOM staff interviewed potential returnees prior to the move, placed monitoring staff in the area of return, and installed critical community infrastructure. This careful analysis and these programs increased the likelihood that return would be permanent, and decreased the potential for re-displacement. [*Profiles in Displacement: Peru*; Report on Internally Displaced Persons by the Representative of the Secretary-General; 4 January 1996]

Even Limited Program Assistance Can Enhance Security and Help Prevent Displacement [Sri Lanka]: In many “border areas” close to the conflict’s front lines, like northern Anuradapura District, farm families face security threats from regular and irregular armed forces operating in their vicinity. These families face difficult daily choices about whether to join the ranks of the displaced or, as they strongly prefer, remain on their own land. International organizations are not providing formal protection services in this area, nor is there a permanent international staff presence on the ground. Nonetheless, UNICEF and other agencies supported health and education programs in these border areas, and they were visited periodically by UNICEF staff monitoring program progress. Even these limited interventions are widely cited by local residents as supporting the voluntary choice of most families to remain in their communities and on their own land. [UNICEF assessment visit, 1998]

Contingency Planning and Stockpiling by International Agencies Can Mitigate Displacement Crises [Burundi]: Continued instability in Burundi, related to ethnic struggle between Hutu and Tutsi communities, has led to the internal displacement of hundreds of thousands. In 1995, heightened tensions led aid agencies to conclude that further displacement -- either the creation of new IDPs, or additional movement by those already displaced -- was imminent.. While international agencies continued efforts to defuse the tensions threatening further displacement, practical reality also suggested the need for serious, coordinated contingency planning.

Not only did aid agencies husband relief food and other program supplies, but also the logistics resources necessary to manage programs during the chaos of widespread displacement. Among items stockpiled against future contingencies were vehicles, satellite communications equipment, and additional emergency

response personnel. [*The Forsaken People: Case Studies of the Internally Displaced*, 1998]

PROTECTION DURING DISPLACEMENT

Guiding Principles 10 through 23 cover the displaced population's right to life; to protection from attacks or other acts of violence; the right to dignity; to protection from inhuman or degrading treatment; to protection from arbitrary arrest, detention or internment; to protection from forcible recruitment into hostilities; the right to freedom of movement (including movement in and out of camps); the right to asylum or to seek safety elsewhere in his/her country; to protection from forcible return or resettlement; the right to information about relatives, including the deceased; the right to maintain family units; the right to a decent standard of living; the right to basic health care for the wounded or sick; the right to, and documentation to assure, equal legal rights; the right to protection from arbitrary taking of property or possessions; basic freedoms of thought, religion, assembly, civic participation and use of his/her preferred language; the right to education; the guarantee that women will have equal access to these rights; and related protections.

Practitioners can assist in guaranteeing these rights by:

- disseminating information about these rights to displaced populations and those in positions of authority;
- advocating with authorities for the protection of these rights;
- training military personnel, local and peacekeeping forces, in principles of protection
- establishing monitoring and reporting systems that document violations;
- securing information on, and visiting, detainees;
- providing support to local NGOs or other groups advocating for these rights;
- organizing protected arenas such as "zones of peace" or "corridors of tranquility";
- maintaining a presence in displaced communities through regular visits or stationing staff;
- considering evacuations of high-risk individuals or groups;
- drafting camp guidelines that support these rights;

locating children separated from families during displacement, and otherwise promoting family reunification;
creating programs that give the displaced an opportunity to earn an income;
funding programs to replace lost documentation, such as birth certificates or property titles;
studying gender relations in the local cultural context, and how those relations have been affected by displacement;
advocating for the full participation of women in all programs;
supporting attempts by displaced children to enroll in local schools;
studying barriers to asylum or resettlement, and working to dismantle those barriers; and,
actively engaging the displaced in all program activities.

Field-based examples of such practice include:

Advocating for the Right to Cross a National Border [Afghanistan]: After heavy fighting in Kabul in 1994, over 200,000 people fled to Jalalabad and other locations in eastern Afghanistan, near the Pakistani border. Many were stranded there as Pakistani authorities closed the border, arguing – on the basis of their negotiations with warring Afghan factions – that creation of a “safe haven” in Jalalabad was a viable alternative to flight to Pakistan and refugee status. After UNHCR and other agencies and interested parties intervened at high levels, Pakistani authorities relaxed stringent controls and permitted larger numbers of displaced Afghans to enter Pakistan. [*UNHCR’s Operational Experience with Internally Displaced Persons*, 1994]

Lending Support to Documentation Programs for IDPs [El Salvador]: A major obstacle to return and reintegration in El Salvador was the loss of identity documents by IDPs, often related to the destruction of municipal archives during the fighting. In 1992, UNHCR launched a large-scale documentation project on behalf of one million Salvadorans. In addition to actually providing documents to former IDPs, the project aimed at the restoration of municipal archives by reprocessing national Electoral Council data. The documentation effort required the promulgation of new decrees by the Government of El Salvador, to provide a legal basis for the documentation effort. [*UNHCR’s Operational Experience with Internally Displaced Persons*, 1994]

Taking Documentation Efforts to IDP Communities [Sri Lanka]: The loss of important documents can be one of the most damaging results of displacement. Absent a birth certificate, identity document, school registration form or other important papers, IDPs may face discrimination, loss of citizenship rights, suspicion, limited employment opportunities, loss of inheritance or other consequences. In Sri Lanka, after studies indicated many children were without birth certificates, Save the Children Fund (SCF) undertook a creative remedy. SCF advocated with government authorities for the deployment of “mobile registration clinics” to regions where IDPs were concentrated. These mobile clinics are intended to provide IDP children with at least basic identity documents on which school registration and other important activities are based. [UNICEF assessment visit, 1998]

IDP Coordinators Raise Protection Issues in the Sudan: A team of IDP Coordinators, assembled by the UN Humanitarian Coordination Unit (UNHCU) in Khartoum in 1997, has taken an active role working with government counterparts – including security officials and the military – to enhance protection of displaced communities. The team, comprised of Sudanese nationals, has spent much time in open dialogue with IDP leaders to understand the perspectives and protection needs of displaced communities. In Wau, for example, team members opened a dialogue with government officials on the problems of disappearances and looting, which led to the voluntary resettlement of several groups of IDPs to more secure areas locally. Although the UNHCU IDP Programme emphasizes the linkages between humanitarian assistance and protection issues, the existence of this team of UN officers with terms of reference that emphasize protection has raised the profile of IDP protection issues. [*Evaluation of the UNHCU IDP Programme*, UN Humanitarian Coordination Unit, Khartoum, 1998]

Human Rights Field Operations from UNHCHR Can Bolster IDP Protection during Displacement and During Return [Rwanda]: The UN High Commissioner for Human Rights (UNHCHR) established a Special Rapporteur on human rights in Rwanda in 1994. In that same year, UNHCHR established its first human rights field operation -- the Human Rights Field Operation in Rwanda, or HRFOR -- to support the work of the Rapporteur. By 1998, the number of UNHCHR-sponsored field missions worldwide had increased to 22, adding a potentially significant resource to the effort to protect internally displaced children, women and men.

In Rwanda, HRFOR, with up to 147 human rights field officers deployed, established field offices in prefectural capitals throughout the country. Beyond its task of monitoring the ongoing human rights situation and preventing violations through its presence, HRFOR's terms of reference specifically included the mandate to "cooperate with other international agencies to...facilitate the return of refugees and IDPs..." HRFOR signed a MOU with the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) to monitor return, resettlement and reintegration processes. [*United Nations Human Rights Field Presences: Rwanda*; UNHCHR website]

International Presence near Concentrations of IDPs Can Enhance Protection

[Sri Lanka]: UNHCR has packaged its IDP assistance activities in parts of Sri Lanka to create the model of the "open relief center" (ORC) or "area of relative safety." At the Madhu ORC, although UNHCR does not operate this site of several thousand displaced families as a camp, it does maintain a full-time presence in the center with international staff, flies the UN flag, and works diligently with authorities to maintain a strictly demilitarized environment. International NGOs have also maintained a presence in Madhu ORC. Displaced Sri Lankans residing at the center feel added security because of the international presence at Madhu. [UNICEF assessment trip, 1998]

Economic Development Efforts for IDPs Promote the Right to a Decent Standard of Living [Guatemala]:

By 1992, widespread displacement and diminution of economic opportunities were two results of more than 30 years of internal conflict in Guatemala. IOM, working with the Government of Guatemala, recognized that the estimated 1.5 million IDPs, especially, faced many constraints to earning a living, including lack of credit, limited access to land, degradation of productive land, and lack of technical skills. To respond to these constraints, IOM developed the Labour and Productive Reinsertion Fund (FORELAP), a program of small projects intended to offer a decent standard of living to IDPs and returnees. By 1997, the Fund had executed more than one thousand small projects in the areas of:

- purchase of agricultural land
- promoting value-added modification of products
- supporting commercialization efforts
- providing technical assistance to participants in credit programs

promoting soil conservation and silviculture development

FORELAP benefited more than 20,000 IDP and returnee families by increasing earnings and economic opportunities. [*Internally Displaced Persons: IOM Policy and Programmes*, IOM, 1997]

Investment in Research and Analysis Help Agencies Understand IDP Priorities

[Sri Lanka]: Several international organizations working with the displaced in Sri Lanka completed detailed surveys of IDP attitudes, to help structure program interventions. Save the Children Fund and OXFAM, working in conjunction, completed three annual, in-depth surveys of IDP perspectives, including the perspectives of IDP children. The ICRC completed a dwelling-by-dwelling visit of each IDP family benefiting from its programs. These agencies report that insights gained from the studies greatly benefited program design, as well as their understanding of the displaced community. [UNICEF assessment visit, 1998]

In the Philippines, Local and International NGOs Collaborate to Document

Violations: Rural villagers on the Philippine island of Mindanao have faced repeated displacement due to military operations between the Armed Forces of the Philippines (AFP) and opposition groups. These displacements tend to be of short duration, as villagers flee fighting and military “sweeps” through their villages, but IDPs often endure large-scale destruction of housing, looting of possessions by combatants, and subsequent impoverishment. Although the scale of displacement is large – an estimated 178,500 Filipinos were displaced in the first half of 1997 – the situation is not widely understood within the Philippines and virtually unknown elsewhere. To better document the causes and conditions of internal displacement in the Philippines, the U.S. Committee for Refugees (USCR) worked with indigenous NGOs that had access to displaced communities. These local NGOs conducted field interviews in conflict-affected areas and documented human rights abuses by combatants. USCR aggregated reporting data, and issued a substantial report, advocating specific action steps for the Government of the Philippines, the insurgents, and international agencies. For example, based on reports of looting by undisciplined AFP soldiers, the report recommended training soldiers in humanitarian law and disciplining of military personnel who abuse citizens. [*Internal Displacement in the Philippines: A USCR Site Visit Report*, August, 1997]

Advocacy for Access to Land Benefits IDP Communities [Sri Lanka]: Few IDPs in Sri Lanka, despite their primarily agricultural backgrounds, have access to garden plots. Space considerations within displaced camps and land ownership patterns outside restrict IDPs' ability to supplement their livelihoods by growing consumables or cash crops. CARE reports that its office in the Wannu region of Sri Lanka successfully advocated with local authorities to allow IDP families access to fallow agricultural lands within walking distance from their settlement. Access to garden plots both increased income and gave a sense of normalcy to IDPs. CARE provided first-year agricultural inputs to jumpstart the garden initiative. [UNICEF assessment visit, 1998]

International Organizations Engage in Protection of At-Risk Individuals in Colombia: Multi-sided conflict has caused the internal displacement of one in forty Colombians, more than one million residents. IDPs in conflict zones, as well as returnees, are among thousands of civilians who are under severe, personal threat from one faction or another. Although these threats can sometimes be addressed at the community level, international organizations have also provided protection services for individuals. One form of such protection is "accompaniment." One international NGO provides foreign NGO workers who live with an individual who has been threatened, on the theory that a foreigner, who can report to the outside world, may deter armed groups from attacking.

The International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) regularly assists civilians who have been threatened by one of the armed groups by providing transport to safer areas of Colombia, and even provides escort to transportation facilities. In 1997, the ICRC provided transport assistance to approximately 7,000 people whose lives were in danger, including IDPs, returnees and others. [*Colombia's Silent Crisis: One Million Displaced by Violence*, U.S. Committee for Refugees, 1998]

Creative Tracing Programs Protect the Right to Information about Relatives [Chechnya]: Major armed clashes in 1994-95 between Russian military forces and Chechen separatists both caused widespread internal displacement and destroyed communications facilities. By 1995, it was virtually impossible for the civilian population to know the whereabouts or condition of displaced relatives. Confronting a breakdown of mail and telecommunications services, the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) established its own network for the exchange of family

news. ICRC delegates established liaison with local civilian authorities and local Red Cross/Red Crescent branches in every district in Chechnya, since these authorities were most likely to know the whereabouts of displaced populations in their areas. Through this informal, but comprehensive, network, the ICRC was able to convey messages between displaced populations and family members in other locations in war-torn Chechnya.

To supplement this *ad-hoc* system, ICRC delegates encouraged IDPs in conflict zones to write messages to relatives outside Chechnya. This both assured family members that IDPs were safe, and provided a return address to facilitate return communications. Overall, this creative tracing system -- despite logistics constraints -- significantly enhanced the right of IDPs to know the whereabouts and condition of relatives. [*Chechnya: ICRC launches tracing programme,* ICRC News 4, 25 January 1995]

Tracing Activities Can Adjust to the Realities of Internal Displacement [Sri Lanka]: IDPs, especially those living near their original communities, may attempt to visit their homes periodically to assess conditions, make repairs, work fields, or salvage important items. In Sri Lanka, the presence of landmines, shifting front lines, and military fears of infiltration sometimes lead to the disappearance of IDPs on such visits. In the Wanni region, the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) has initiated tracing activities for IDPs missing on visits to their homes. Other international organizations operating there collaboratively refer inquiries to the ICRC. The establishment of such tracing programs attempts to deal realistically with conditions confronting the displaced. [UNICEF assessment visit, 1998]

Applying National Standards Creatively Can Direct Education Resources to the Internally Displaced [Sri Lanka]: Many IDPs in Sri Lanka were displaced to remote and/or marginally secure regions of the country, making the recruitment of teachers to overcrowded schools in those regions a difficult process. The Ministry of Education (MOE), which administers the national teacher qualifying exam and manages teacher transfers, waived the teacher exam qualifying score for those applicants willing to teach in schools with large numbers of IDP students. Applicants scoring just beneath the normal qualifying mark were accepted as teachers, provided they agreed to work in these hardship posts for a specified period, thereby expanding educational opportunities for displaced children.

The Ministry of Education also took steps to encourage volunteer teachers to work with IDP children. A number of international and Sri Lankan organizations instituted volunteer teacher programs, sometimes recruiting among IDPs themselves, to fill gaps in teacher rosters in overcrowded schools. Although these volunteer programs were useful, they were plagued with high turnover, since volunteers received neither pay nor official standing as educators. The MOE helped with this situation by awarding “bonus points” to any volunteer teacher who subsequently applied for a regular teaching job, increasing the chances that volunteers would gain full-time employment as teachers. [UNICEF assessment visit, 1998]

Engaging Skilled IDPs in Rehabilitation Efforts Helps Protect the Right to a Decent Standard of Living [Azerbaijan]: Among Azerbaijan's half million IDPs are many individuals with desirable technical skills and capabilities. Two program efforts by international agencies make use of these skills to assist the rehabilitation effort and provide income to displaced communities. In IDP camps managed by the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC), for example, displaced persons with medical skills provide much of the health care to residents. Utilizing food for work and other types of payment, IFRC's program delivers cost-effective health care, while allowing medical practitioners to retain skills and generate income.

UNHCR's Azerbaijani "Public Building Rehabilitation Project" improves the public facilities housing many IDPs through winterization efforts, electrical safety improvements, water and sanitation upgrades, and partition of family living spaces. UNHCR and implementing partners have hired IDP contractors for much of this work, increasing opportunities for income in the short-term and developing business skills that will remain in demand in the future. [Draft report of the Representative of the Secretary-General for IDPs on his visit to Azerbaijan, 1998]

HUMANITARIAN ASSISTANCE

Principles 24 to 27 cover humanitarian assistance to the displaced and humanitarian access. They list the principles that: humanitarian aid should be impartial and non-discriminatory; that humanitarian assistance should not be diverted for political or military purposes; that primary responsibility for humanitarian assistance resides with national authorities; that international organizations have the right to offer humanitarian assistance, the right of access to the displaced, and the freedom to deliver supplies without interference; and, that humanitarian agencies should give due regard to the human rights and protection needs of the displaced.

Practitioners can help ensure these rights by:

- establishing, and advocating with donors for, codes of conduct for humanitarian operations;
- establishing regular consultation systems among humanitarian agencies working with the displaced;
- advocating vigorously for humanitarian access to all displaced populations;
- documenting and reporting impediments to full and free access;
- developing and enforcing uniform policies regarding diversions of humanitarian assistance for military or political purposes;
- supporting, technically and financially, attempts by cognizant authorities to fulfill their humanitarian assistance responsibilities to the internally displaced;
- creating accurate and open assessment, monitoring and reporting systems for humanitarian needs;
- monitoring, during humanitarian assistance operations, human rights and protection needs of displaced populations;
- communicating regularly with organizations advocating for human rights and protection issues; and,
- reviewing regularly the political and military impact of humanitarian assistance, and making appropriate corrections.

Field-based examples of such practice include:

Sudan IDP Programme Works to Increase Humanitarian Space in Dealings

with Officials: The placement of “IDP Coordinators” – experienced national officers – in sensitive areas, including active theaters of war, has enabled the UN Humanitarian Coordination Unit in Khartoum, in coordination with colleague agencies, to negotiate access at the field level. The IDP Coordinators, trained in international humanitarian principles and negotiating skills, have made a contribution during the difficult discourse that occurs between humanitarian agencies and government actors, including security forces, the military and local civilian authorities. Working on behalf of sister agencies, the IDP Coordinators have served as troubleshooters on issues like travel permits, project agreements, requests for non-interference, and defending international privileges and immunities. [*Evaluation of the UNHCU IDP Programme*, UN Humanitarian Coordination Unit, Khartoum, 1998]

Micro-credit Programs Can Be Extended to the Displaced Community [Sri

Lanka]: CARE, with UNHCR funding, has designed small-scale loan programs for IDPs in Sri Lanka’s Wanni region to encourage economic activity. Despite great poverty, despite limited familiarity by IDPs with the local economy in displacement sites, and even despite multiple displacements that disrupt micro-enterprises, CARE reports a high rate of loan repayment among IDPs participating in the program. The loan program is structured to favor single heads-of-household, especially war widows.. [UNICEF field visit, 1998]

IDP “Mapping” in Urban Areas Opens Access to Displaced Populations [Peru]:

During Peru’s long internal struggle in the 1980s and 1990s, many of the estimated 600,000 internally displaced fled to urban shantytowns, around Lima and other major cities. Some groups of IDPs settled with others from the same home locale, while others dispersed in vast squatter communities. Fearful of being singled out as deserters from self-defense forces or as traitors, many did not readily identify themselves or their origins, some going so far as to destroy their personal identity cards in a quest for anonymity. In an effort to target resources to the neediest communities, international NGOs working in Peru were required to conduct community surveys and interviews – with sensitivity to the legitimate security concerns of individuals – to map concentrations of IDPs in urban areas. [*Profiles in*

Displacement: Peru; Report on Internally Displaced Persons by the Representative of the Secretary-General; 4 January 1996]

Resisting Unwarranted Reporting Requirements Can Maintain “Humanitarian Space” for International Organizations [Sri Lanka]: Given that IDPs are the primary responsibility of their own governments and, at least nominally, subject to the authority of those governments, international organizations working with the internally displaced will repeatedly confront issues of national sovereignty. In Sri Lanka’s Jaffna Peninsula, UN staff working with IDPs were asked by military authorities to comply with onerous new reporting requirements in 1998, despite complete compliance with government ministries’ reporting systems. UN officers insisted that the military obtain information on international activities through established civilian reporting channels, maintaining an appropriate balance between legitimate national sovereignty and freedom of international humanitarian response. [UNICEF assessment visit, 1998]

Relief Supplies Are Linked with Self-Help, Community Awareness of Target Populations [Somalia]: Severe flooding in the Lower Juba Valley in 1995 drove tens of thousands of Somalis from their homes and prompted the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) to distribute life-sustaining emergency supplies to more than 9,000 families. The relief distribution contained a month's supply of maize, beans and cooking oil. In addition, families received self-help material that would sustain them during an extended displacement, or assist in recovery after return. Self-help supplies included fishing equipment and seeds.

Also, since the Lower Juba Valley contained a very large number of poor families, the ICRC was concerned that distributions to flood-displaced would stigmatize these recipients in the eyes of their neighbors. The ICRC, including Somali staff, worked closely with village elders, to involve the elders in the distribution program and to explain that the assistance was targeted at the most needy. [*Somalia: Relief Operations Continue in Juba Valley*," ICRC News 30, 26 July 1995]

Local Recruitment and Training of Health Professionals Can Be Essential in Conflict Environments [Sri Lanka]: In Sri Lanka, the long internal conflict and related displacement of more than 1 million people created severe shortages of important health personnel. For example, the World Health Organization (WHO)

documented more than 700 vacant midwife positions in the northeastern part of the country, where fighting and displacement were concentrated, resulting in increased morbidity and suffering among IDPs and other conflict-affected populations. Moreover, ethnic sensitivities and practical transport issues rendered impractical the previous system of centralized training, in the capital, for replacement midwives. WHO took steps to remedy the shortage by advocating with the government for local recruitment of midwives, and local training in the local language, in the affected northeastern regions. WHO's efforts resulted in the filling of many vacant positions, and improved obstetric and neo-natal services for the internally displaced. [UNICEF assessment visit, 1998]

Airdrops Reached Internally Displaced Persons When Other Methods Were Unavailable [former Yugoslavia]: As lead agency in the massive displacement crisis in former Yugoslavia, UNHCR faced a particularly difficult problem in "enclave" areas. Throughout former Yugoslavia, pockets of land controlled by one of the protagonists had been surrounded by opposing forces, effectively cutting the enclaves off from land contact with the outside. Often these enclaves attracted large numbers of displaced persons -- fleeing ethnic cleansing elsewhere -- who overwhelmed facilities and food supplies within the enclaves. By the winter of 1993, these IDPs, along with original residents of enclaves, faced starvation.

UNHCR responded with a two-pronged strategy: continued negotiations and exertions to deliver relief supplies by overland convoys to the enclaves, and airdrops -- delivery of supplies by parachute from aircraft. The latter strategy was widely credited with staving off starvation in several enclaves, as overland convoys faced increased harassment and interdiction. Coordinating a large-scale, long-term airdrop campaign (with military aircraft provided by NATO countries), relying on precision drops into relatively small geographic areas, demanded technical and communications skills unprecedented in relief operations. UNHCR organized an air operations cell to determine the required supplies and communicate the needs to military planners. [*Evaluation Report: UNHCR/WFP Joint Evaluation of Emergency Food Assistance to Returnees, Refugees, Displaced Persons and Other War-Affected Populations in Bosnia and Herzegovina*, 8 May 1998]

Delivery of Relief Food Can Accommodate Community Input and Special-Needs Groups [Azerbaijan]: In Azerbaijan, the World Food Programme (WFP)

provides food assistance to a large percentage of the estimated half million internally displaced. After discussions with IDP community leaders, WFP has modified the composition of the food ration to alternative -- equally nutritious and comparably priced -- commodities, based on the community's stated preferences. For example, a simple change in the pulse allotment from green peas to white beans, as requested by the community, boosted community morale and retained some element of community control over its diet.

In the same communities, WFP -- in order to diminish the sexual exploitation sometimes associated with food deliveries -- has delivered food directly to women recipients. WFP's implementing partner, World Vision International, also ensures that women staff members are present in IDP communities during food distribution, to assess and monitor the equity of the distribution. [Draft report of the Representative of the Secretary-General for IDPs on his trip to Azerbaijan, 1998]

In Burundi, Impartiality of Humanitarian Assistance Required Balance between IDP and Refugee Communities: The large-scale internal displacement crisis in Burundi has been characterized by continued mistrust between ethnic groups, and multiple attempts to politicize the needs assessment and aid distribution processes along ethnic lines. A particularly volatile aspect of this process was the hostility between Tutsi IDPs in Burundi and the estimated 160,000 Rwandan Hutu refugees who entered Burundi in 1994. Burundian Tutsi IDPs associated the Hutu refugees with the prior genocide in Rwanda.

Efforts by UNHCR to meet its responsibilities for care and protection of the Rwandan refugees had to be balanced -- in a very volatile milieu -- with the perception of Burundian IDPs of an aid disparity in favor of the Hutu population. Although suspicion and violence -- both inter-communal violence and violence directed against aid organizations -- could not be avoided, UNHCR carefully monitored and analyzed the relationship between the refugee and IDP groups, and attempted to direct food and other resources to the IDP populations, in an attempt to show balance and impartiality. [*The Forsaken People: Case Studies of the Internally Displaced*, 1998]

Plugging Gaps in Health Care for the Internally Displaced [Sri Lanka]: Studies by international organizations working with IDPs in Sri Lanka noted two significant

impediments to adequate health care. First, the displaced often simply could not reach health care facilities. The deterioration of the health care infrastructure in conflict zones, the wide dispersion of the displaced, and concerns over security and transportation made it difficult for IDPs to access adequate care. UNICEF and program partners addressed this complex problem in part by supporting mobile health clinics that traveled to areas where the displaced were concentrated, to provide diagnostic and curative services, and referrals.

The second significant limitation was trained personnel. The displacement of health care workers themselves and continued security concerns have caused shortages of trained health personnel in areas with large numbers of IDPs and returnees. UNICEF and other organizations have supported programs to train temporary health care workers to plug gaps in the health care system, workers who often provide the only available care to the displaced. So that this training effort will not be lost with the return of regular staffing, and to encourage the temporary health workers themselves, international organizations have advocated for inclusion of qualified temporary staff in post-conflict plans of the Sri Lanka Ministry of Health. [UNICEF assessment visit, 1998]

Supporting User-Friendly Mine Awareness Training for Displaced

Communities [Sri Lanka]: IDPs in general and displaced children in particular are vulnerable to the landmines that are a regular feature of the conflict in Sri Lanka. Displaced communities, at least initially, may find themselves in unfamiliar surroundings with little knowledge of where mines have been placed. Also, the limited resources available to IDPs in relocation sites, or “welfare centers,” often require widespread exploration of new terrain for water, firewood or sanitary facilities. Often IDPs must cross active conflict zones in attempts to reach their former properties, either to assess conditions or retrieve resources, further increasing exposure to landmines. In recognition of these realities, UNICEF mounted a grassroots landmine awareness campaign in Sri Lanka, targeted at the displaced. Particularly useful to isolated IDP communities, the campaign includes the use of portable flip charts and other transportable instructional material that can be taken to displacement areas to reach large numbers of IDPs. [UNICEF assessment visit, 1998]

Opening Humanitarian Space May Require Modification of National Legal Framework [Azerbaijan]: With one half million IDPs spread across virtually the entire country, Azerbaijani government officials have generally cooperated with international humanitarian agencies. With the notable exception of the militarily contested Nagorno-Karabakh enclave, international agencies have enjoyed reasonable access to displaced communities and opportunities to assess needs. Nonetheless, NGOs and others working in Azerbaijan have found their programs constrained by cumbersome and time consuming registration laws at the national level.

To address this situation, UNHCR, the Open Society Institute, and the International Centre for Not for Profit Law have assisted the government to draft new legislation on NGO registration. The draft law is intended to bring government policy more in conformity with prevailing guidelines in other nations. When enacted, the new law will open additional humanitarian space in Azerbaijan. [Draft report of the Representative of the Secretary-General for IDPs on his visit to Azerbaijan, 1998]

RETURN, RESETTLEMENT AND REINTEGRATION

Principles 28 to 30 state that local authorities have primary responsibility to support return or resettlement; emphasize the importance of voluntary return or resettlement; note the right of the displaced to participate in the planning and management of their move; prohibit discrimination, upon return or resettlement, against those who have been displaced; guarantee that the displaced may recover property or possessions left behind during displacement, or be compensated for losses; and, guarantee international organizations access to returned or resettled populations to assist with reintegration.

Practitioners can help ensure these rights by:

- assisting representatives of displaced communities to assess conditions in potential areas of return or resettlement, by supporting visits or through other means;
- visiting areas of potential return or resettlement to independently assess conditions;
- convening consultations with populations residing in areas of return or resettlement to determine attitudes toward returnees;
- convening consultations with leaders of displaced groups prior to return, ensuring representation of women and all important segments of the displaced community;
- convening consultations between leaders of displaced communities, local authorities, and international organizations that will be involved with return;
- preparing for landmine removal or awareness campaigns, where landmines are an issue;
- assessing legal statutes or other relevant documents to determine returnees' claim to land and property upon return;
- with active participation of displaced community, preparing for systematic transport of returnees, where indicated;
- designing programs to rebuild community infrastructure in areas of return/resettlement;
- designing systems to monitor human rights conditions in areas of return/resettlement;
- ensuring international presence in areas of return or resettlement;
- convening, when appropriate, consultations between representatives of resident and returnee/resettled communities;
- designing programs for women-headed households and other special needs groups in areas of return/resettlement;
- considering the needs of resident, as well as returnee, populations in program design, to prevent stigmatization or resentment; and
- recognizing that the social disruption of return or resettlement may be present for years, plan for longer-term reintegration activities.

Field-based examples of such practice include:

Assessing Conditions in Home Communities Empowers IDPs [Sri Lanka]:

IDPs are often eager to ascertain conditions in their home communities. Accurate information on security and other matters is essential to voluntary decisions on whether or not to attempt return. Yet, IDPs may lack access to home regions, either because of security concerns or inadequate transportation. In Sri Lanka's Puttalam area, the government sponsored bus trips by leaders of the displaced community to home areas in Mannar District, permitting free access in Mannar to information sources chosen by the IDPs. Such visits helped empower internally displaced communities with information essential to critical decisions they faced. [UNICEF assessment visit, 1998]

Shelter for Woman-headed Households in Tajikistan: UNHCR provided returnees in the Kurgan-Tyube region with shelter "kits" consisting of roofing elements, nails and asbestos sheets, as long as returnee families first rebuilt the four walls of their damaged homes. For some woman-headed households, including families in which the father had been killed during the conflict, the requirement for wall construction proved impossible. To address this issue, UNHCR also initiated a "food-for-work" program, supporting teams of construction workers to rebuild houses. [*Profiles in displacement: Tajikistan*; Report on internally displaced persons prepared by the Representative of the Secretary-General; 25 July 1995]

International Presence in Areas of Return Supports IDP Rights; Engaging Local Authorities Bolsters Protection Efforts [Tajikistan]: UNHCR's efforts to assist returnees in Kurgan-Tyube included the deployment of international monitors to the area. These monitors regularly interviewed returnees, registered complaints of harassment or other human rights abuses, and reported these cases to local authorities. A conscious attempt was made to ensure local authorities accepted their responsibilities to guarantee returnee rights.

At the same time, UNHCR provided material assistance, like shelter kits, to those returnees whose homes had been destroyed or heavily damaged. By including local authorities in the distribution of these shelter materials and other material assistance, UNHCR generated communication linkages and good will among the international community, local authorities, and returnees. These improved communications facilitated protection efforts, since officials whose status had been enhanced by participation in humanitarian assistance were empowered to assume

protection responsibilities. [*Profiles in displacement: Tajikistan*; Report on internally displaced persons prepared by the Representative of the Secretary-General; 25 July 1995]

Reintegrating Child Soldiers in Mozambique: Large numbers of children – including many who were forced to serve as child soldiers or partners to fighters – were separated from their families, either through capture or chaos, during the Mozambican conflict,. As these displaced children returned to their communities, Save the Children Fund studied, encouraged and supported a range of activities intended to rebuild social, cultural and family identity, including traditional ceremonies of reunification, thanksgiving, and purification. A network of community volunteers was mobilized to follow the progress of returned children, to assist with registration documents, school enrollment, introduction to community leaders and related activities. [*Internally Displaced People: A Global Survey*, 1998]

Negotiating for the Right to Voluntary Return across Front Lines [Georgia]: While conflict continued between the government of Georgia and the break-away Abkhazia region, many ethnic Georgian IDPs desired to take a calculated risk, cross the conflict lines, and voluntarily return to their homes and farms. After difficult quadripartite negotiations involving the parties and the Russian Federation, UNHCR successfully brokered an agreement on voluntary return in 1994. The accord, intended to serve as a confidence-building measure, permits (1) direct and unhindered access to all displaced persons from Abkhazia, both prior to and following their return; (2) unimpeded transit of humanitarian supplies through the territory of the Russian Federation; (3) establishment of local offices to facilitate return, rehabilitation and reintegration of the displaced; and, (4) security and protection for humanitarian agencies assisting IDPs. [*UNHCR's Operational Experience with Internally Displaced Persons*, UNHCR, 1994]

“Positive Conditionality” Assists Return of Minorities in Bosnia-Herzegovina: The Dayton Accords, which ended the 1992-95 conflict in former-Yugoslavia, guaranteed internally displaced persons the right to return to their homes. By 1997, however, only a minority of IDPs had returned to their former communities. The problem was acute for those IDPs attempting to return to communities where they were in the minority, and especially acute for those returning to communities where IDP members of the local majority group had been re-settled from other regions.

Attempts to break this logjam have included linking international assistance at the local level to the acceptance of returnees, including minority returnees. This “positive conditionality” means that the rehabilitation of housing, schools, health facilities, water and electricity supplies, as well as income generating programmes, is made conditional on the acceptance, by the municipality, of the return of minorities, on respect for human rights, and on guaranteed security for returnees. Although this approach is not a panacea, early indications are that positive conditionality is causing municipalities to alter their attitudes toward returnees. [*Forced Migration Review*, January-April, 1998]

Avoiding Artificial Inducements to Return in Hostile Areas [Tajikistan]:

UNHCR considered extending its returnee shelter assistance program to the Tavildara area, which continued to see heavy fighting between government and opposition forces. However, analysis indicated that the shelter program might induce many displaced to return to an area considered too dangerous to resettle, compromising the voluntary nature of return. UNHCR decided not to initiate the shelter program in Tavildara. [*Profiles in displacement: Tajikistan*, 1995]

Reconstruction and Economic Revitalization Can Be Combined in Returnee Areas [Tajikistan]:

Many shelter materials had to be imported and/or shipped to returnee areas of Tajikistan, raising costs and inviting delays. In the Garm and Kurgan-Tyube regions, the NGOs Shelter Now International and Caritas, respectively, initiated the production of local tiles. Local production of these tiles increased the availability of reconstruction materials, while helping jumpstart the damaged economy in returnee areas. [*Profiles in displacement: Tajikistan*, 1995]

Comprehensive Planning, with Government Involvement, Can Enhance the Processes of Return and Reintegration [Angola]: Working jointly, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) and Republic of Angola Ministry of Social Assistance and Reinsertion (MINARS) developed a comprehensive planning document to guide all aspects of the return process for the more than one million IDPs in Angola. The 1998 document -- the *Procedure for Implementing the National Programme for the Return and Resettlement of Displaced Persons* -- is a model for considering prospectively the issues that will arise during a large, complex return process.

In its 77 pages, the plan discusses overall objectives, areas of responsibility, coordination of national and regional structures, implementation methodology, and monitoring and assessment mechanisms. Of particular note, the "fundamentals" of the plan include emphasis on the "consensus of beneficiaries from the project," an explicit commitment to the active participation of displaced communities in the return process. The plan also addresses the needs and priorities of residents in communities of return. Included in the plan are sample documents such as transportation manifests, and checklists to guide those organizing the return, such as forms to assess travel risk categories for the physically disabled. [*Procedure for Implementing the National Programme for the Return and Resettlement of Displaced Persons*, OIM and MINARS, January, 1998]

COUNTRY CASE STUDY 1: TAJIKISTAN, 1992-96

[The following case study is distilled from the Report prepared by the Representative of the Secretary-General on Internally Displaced Persons, *UN document A/51/483/Add.1*, of 24 October 1996]

Causes of Displacement: The main cause of displacement in Tajikistan was the civil war that took place during the second half of 1992 and early 1993. More than 20,000 persons were killed out of a population of about five and a half million. The fighting led to the exile of approximately 100,000 into neighboring countries and the internal displacement of some 600,000.

Tajikistan has a large part of its territory covered by high mountains, frequently creating problems of movement between different parts of the country, and causing the relative isolation of communities. With the collapse of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, which created a power vacuum, latent conflicts erupted among different ethnic groups within the artificial borders of states. In Tajikistan, antagonism quickly emerged between those wanting to preserve the current system and power structures and those challenging the regime by advocating reforms. The conflict was compounded by regional differences, with ethnic and political affiliations. It gradually degenerated into widespread violence, and escalated into civil war.

It can be said that, as a national entity, Tajikistan was artificially created in the sense that an external power united regions and peoples that had only a limited sense of common identity. According to the 1989 USSR census, the population (then 5.1 million) consisted of three major ethnic groups: Tajiks (61%), Uzbeks (23.5%), and Russians (7.6%). The Tajik majority can be further subdivided according to places of origin and local cultural and linguistic variations, with Garmis and Pamiris prominent among subgroups.

Beyond these ethnic distinctions, both aspirations for regional autonomy and competition between proponents of an Islamic society, on one hand, and those who upheld a secular state system, on the other, contributed to the 1992 conflict. All of these tensions were exacerbated by the political uncertainty, declining economy and general scarcity of resources following the breakup of the Soviet Union.

Nature of Displacement: A unique aspect of Tajikistan, which affected the nature of displacement, was the Stalin-era alteration of the demographics of southwestern Tajikistan – a center of conflict and displacement in 1992 – as part of the Soviet

Union's efforts to increase cotton production. Under Stalin, many Garmis and Pamiris from the mountainous areas of the country were forcibly transferred to the southwest to provide labor. These groups integrated only partially with local communities, usually living in separate villages and retaining a sense of ethnic separateness.

In this regard, the term "regionalism" and the related "two homes" concept are key to understanding the lines along with the conflict developed and the routes fleeing civilians decided to take. Persons who found themselves in a minority position in their areas of residence sought refuge in their regions of origin. In the southwest, for example, despite migration for economic reasons five decades ago, many of the displaced had historical and family links with their ancestral homelands. The internally displaced, therefore, can be said to have had two homes: the one being the region where they had ties through their origins, but where possibilities for sustaining themselves were limited; the other being where they had their houses and lands, but where they had integrated only to a limited extent.

Fighting between regular and irregular forces spawned attacks on civilians, often based on ethnic origin. By June, 1992, many citizens of Tajikistan chose to flee. A predominant feature of the fighting was that houses and sometimes entire villages belonging to displaced civilians were systematically looted, with roofing material, windows and doors removed, or simply destroyed by fire. Many villages were either totally destroyed or completely unharmed, in accordance with the ethnic origin of their inhabitants.

Another unique aspect of the displacement concerned the disposition of property by IDPs. The homes of some displaced were looted or occupied by others, as IDPs departed. Sometimes, however, those fleeing managed to sell their property first. The conditions under which the sales were concluded – in haste, out of fear of destruction, with little prospect of return – often led to a very low sales price.

Eventually, approximately 600,000 fled to other parts of Tajikistan. Because of the traditional kinship patterns noted above, IDPs tended to concentrate in certain regions, increasing demands on poorer, mountainous regions of the country. For example, Gorno-Badakhshan, with a population below 200,000, received at least 100,000 displaced.

Assistance during Displacement: The civil war in Tajikistan was relatively brief, with heavy fighting ending by Spring of 1993. Many internally displaced did not receive international assistance before they returned to their homes. Notable exceptions were the work of the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), which mobilized food and medical assistance during the 1992 conflict, and the Aga Khan Foundation, which took an active role in meeting needs of the primarily Ismaili Muslim residents of Gorno-Badakhshan.

Many displaced received food, clothing and shelter from extended families. Given the kinship ties during the period of displacement, and the relative poverty of areas where IDPs fled, the ICRC chose to assist the entire population in areas where it worked, without distinguishing between the internally displaced and local populations. The government role in providing assistance was limited, although some IDPs were provided shelter in public buildings.

Return and Reintegration: Most of the internally displaced returned on their own initiative, without receiving assistance, in the first few months after the conflict ceased. However, the trip to places of origin was difficult for many IDPs, characterized by severe weather, inadequate transport and, most significantly, insecure conditions – including attacks by irregular bands – during the return trip.

Public transportation for returning internally displaced was provided by the Government, when transport was available. But, early attempts by the Government to assist this process also included attempts at forcible return. Some returnees were provided with neither food nor water for the transport, and no preparations had been made at the places of destination for their reception. Moreover, local communities, hostile to the returnees, blocked the rails in at least one case, and refused to permit passengers to disembark. Eventually, Government authorities accepted the participation of international agencies, and the International Organization for Migration (IOM), ICRC and the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) all assisted with return convoys.

While some individual returnees were able to return to their own homes, and others found occupied or destroyed structures, all returnee communities required assistance with safe water supplies, food, medical supplies, shelter, education, and reconstruction of economic activities, including seeds for planting. UNHCR took the lead among UN agencies in meeting the needs of IDPs upon return, with many other agencies and NGOs assisting displaced communities.

With regard to food assistance, aid was initially distributed by UNHCR on behalf of WFP. UNHCR also provided a one-time distribution to recent returnees and funded Save the Children Federation to distribute seeds. In many cases, international organizations—aware that IDPs in a region tended to represent one ethnic group, and sensitive to public perceptions that certain ethnic groups were responsible for the conflict – provided food assistance to all needy target groups within areas of return, without distinction as to former displacement, in order to avoid resentment. Observers noted, unfortunately, that food assistance appeared to induce a degree of passivity and dependency on the part of returnee communities, perhaps a legacy of the Soviet welfare state.

In the area of health care and sanitation, the international community provided medicines to health care units and, in some cases, “food for work” to medical personnel. In order to prevent water-borne disease, UNHCR initially funded a water

and sanitation program, using international NGOs as implementing partners. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) later took over management of these projects, as it assumed the role as lead agency in this sector.

With regard to shelter, UNHCR distributed temporary shelter materials during the initial phases of the emergency. The major part of UNHCR's assistance, however, was geared toward the reconstruction of houses in 170 villages in returnee areas. Although implementation of the program was delayed – by the required importation of roofing materials and other factors – 18,500 houses had been reconstructed by April, 1996. International NGOs CARITAS and Shelter Now International assisted efforts to provide shelter by initiating the manufacture of local building material in several areas.

In the education sector, some efforts were made by the international community to repair damaged school buildings and heat them in the winter, provide food for work as an incentive for teachers, and distribute food to children to encourage school attendance. School attendance nevertheless took place in two or three daily shifts, and was affected by the need for returnee children to work to earn money. UNICEF, with the Ministry of Education, initiated a program to address war-induced stress in children, involving 500,000 students. The program emphasized themes like tolerance of diversity, conflict resolution, and the Convention on the Rights of the Child.

Economic reconstruction in returnee communities was stifled by destruction, lack of access to critical inputs (credit, supplies, seed), disruption of trade by armed bands and other factors. In Autumn, 1994, UNHCR initiated – as “quick impact projects” – a series of income-generating activities in the Kurgan-Tyube region. These projects were aimed at providing returnees a source of livelihood, providing communities with necessary commodities and strengthening the local economy. These small enterprise projects were later transitioned to the UN Development Program (UNDP). An evaluation noted that the program would have been more successful if the quick impact projects – which, naturally, were established under urgent conditions – had been conceived as long-term development efforts from the outset, since some did not appear to be sustainable.

In addition to meeting basic material needs of returnees, the international community faced serious protection issues. Although some communities welcomed returnees, there was often considerable hostility among the local population. The problem of insecurity was particularly difficult during the early post-war period, when the lack of law and order allowed uncontrolled armed bands to take justice into their own hands. Numerous disappearances, killings, beatings and other forms of harassment of the returnees characterized this period.

The Government of Tajikistan generally placed a high priority on return, and made attempts – within its means – to facilitate return and reintegration. For example, the government adopted in 1994 a law “on forced migrants.” The law regulated

registration procedures and provided for assistance to and protection for the internally displaced. During the displacement phase, the law granted IDPs the right to accommodation, help to find work or unemployment allowances, and free food. Further, the law provided for the return of their property, or for compensation, and protection against forcible return. When resettling, IDPs were entitled to free return transport, the right to repossess property, a lump sum allowance, temporary shelter, free food, medical services, and work equivalent to their previous experience.

Emphasizing the importance of the Government's responsibility to its citizens, UNHCR and other agencies advocated to ensure that the law was applied coherently and in a non-discriminatory manner. UNHCR approached the problem by deploying field officers in the return areas, who actively monitored human rights conditions, registered complaints of the returnees with relevant Government authorities, and followed up cases to ensure appropriate action. Rather than taking a stand on the merits of individual cases, field monitors brought them to the attention of authorities for resolution. This protection activity was later handed over to the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE).

General insecurity, ill-prepared officials, pressure by local groups, extra-legal harassment, a weak court system, mistrust of officials by returnees, and other difficult issues made protection for returnees in Tajikistan a complex and resource-intensive undertaking. By mediating between hostile communities and officials, however, field officers were able to make a significant contribution to restoring confidence. These human rights monitoring and advocacy efforts were aided by ensuring that local officials were engaged in relief aid distribution programs, which raised the stature of these officials and helped break down animosity between ethnic groups.

Issues related to Internal Displacement in Tajikistan:

Management model: Prior to UNHCR taking a "lead agency" role vis-à-vis IDPs in Tajikistan, and other UN agencies taking the lead in individual sectors, there was uncertainty about the best management model to meet IDP needs. Despite the isolation of the country and international organizations' relative unfamiliarity with the republics of the former Soviet Union, how could the UN system have been better prepared, or reacted earlier, to organize itself to focus on IDP problems in Tajikistan?

Participation of Displaced Communities: Several observers noted the seeming passivity of IDPs in Tajikistan, when groups received international assistance. How could more attention have been paid, through research and analysis, to ways to engage displaced communities in planning relief and return efforts?

Prevention Activities: Clearly, the conflict and resulting displacement in Tajikistan were related to deep and long-standing cleavages in society. How was it possible to establish an early warning system to alert local and international organizations to pending disruption, or to design prevention activities? Given ongoing instability in Tajikistan, would such techniques be beneficial now?

Supporting Local Capacity: Despite its transitional nature and instability, the Government of Tajikistan – as illustrated by its law on migrants – showed some inclination to assist the internally displaced. How could the international community have done more to support Government institutions to assume responsibility for assistance to and protection of IDPs?

Targeting of Assistance to IDPs: Both during the displacement phase, when many displaced were living with relatives, and upon return to home communities, international organizations in Tajikistan engaged in wholesale distribution of assistance, in order to avoid jealousy and tamp down antagonism to IDPs. How could these realities have been balanced with the need to target benefits to those who had been displaced?

Alerting Government to the Role of International Organizations: Reports indicate that many Tajik Government officials, even at high levels, had little understanding of the role of international organizations proffering aid to IDPs. This led to confusion, delayed decisions and even suspicion. How could international organizations, including UN agencies, have better publicized their roles, and the non-partisan nature of their work?

Making Protection More Effective: International human rights monitors deployed to areas of return in Tajikistan limited their activities to monitoring and reporting. When bringing complaints to the attention of local authorities, they did not argue the merits of individual cases of abuse or harassment. Given the highly charged political environment, was this the appropriate response, or should the mandate of monitors been expanded?

Linking Relief to Development: When UNHCR handed management of its small enterprise projects to UNDP, it became apparent that many of the projects were not viable over the long term. Yet, they were started in areas of return in Tajikistan during desperate times, when project refinement would have caused unwarranted delays. How could these “quick impact projects” have been implemented in a timely fashion, but with long-term potential?

Addressing Underlying Problems Affecting Internal Displacement: As instability continued beyond 1996 in Tajikistan, deep seated issues of ethnicity, religious orientation, regionalism, fairness and capacity of government institutions, and full political participation continue to threaten fragile social harmony, and threaten future displacement. How could the international community do more to address these large, underlying issues as a method of avoiding internal displacement in the future?

COUNTRY CASE STUDY 2: ANGOLA

Causes of Displacement: Since gaining independence in 1975 Angola has experienced three periods of major internal displacement: 1975-1991, 1992-1994 and 1998. Today the UN estimates there are over 1,3 million internally displaced persons in Angola.

The signing of the Lusaka protocol in November 1994 ended the nearly 20-year old civil war between the Angolan Government and the rebels of the National Union for Total Independence of Angola (UNITA), which killed over 300,000 and left over 3.7 million Angolans, mostly IDPs, in dire need of assistance.

In 1995 the UN established a military force known as UNAVEM III to monitor the implementation of the Protocol, including the disarmament and demobilization of UNITAS troops. In July 1997, the military force was replaced with a smaller less expensive observer mission known as MONUA. In 1997 a new Government of Unity and National Reconciliation (GURN) was inaugurated.

The peace process continued to suffer from delays. Between 1997 and 1998 Angola experienced a systematic breakdown of dialogue between the Government and UNITA, UNITA's reoccupation of parts of the national territory it had previously handed over to GURN and troop movement and military operations. Thousands of people abandoned their villages and moved into areas that they considered more secure. Between January and April about 4,000 people were displaced, however the amount escalated rapidly from June onwards, with 280,000 people displaced by October 1998.

Assistance during Displacement: The long time period of sporadic displacement has given rise to questions such as how long a person is considered displaced, who is entitled to return assistance and who is entitled to emergency assistance.

For instance, the population of Luanda has grown from about 400,000 in the 1970's and 1980's to over two million. Under the definition for displacement almost half of Luanda could be considered an IDP, as this population was forced to leave their homes and chose to make their way to Luanda as a safe haven. However those who have been displaced since the 1980s and/or has developed some ties to the community, particularly economic ties, tend to be considered either "non vulnerable" IDPs or a resettled persons.

The general assumption regarding the 40,000 to 100,000 people in southern Kuando Kubango, on the other hand, is that they were forced to move there and are unable to leave. Therefore, even though they have lived in the southern region for up to fifteen years, they are, in most cases, still considered displaced and potentially vulnerable. Most of these people do not necessarily have a home to return to and for various political and financial reasons it has been difficult to help these people to return.

To coordinate the response and assistance to IDPs, in 1995 the Government of Angola, UNITA, UN Agencies and NGOs created a national Sub-Group on IDPs and Refugees. The sub-group provided a forum for improving coordination and information flows on IDP issues and a large part of the coordination efforts on the most recent IDPs crisis is conducted through the sub-group structures.

Various assistance programmes were put in place to assist those displaced since 1992, the "old" IDPs, and who were registered by MINARS and lived in camps or towns. These IDPs initially received food and non-food assistance from UN agencies and NGOs. Over the years programmes were initiated for the temporary resettlement and food security. In 1998 "old" IDP continued to receive health and agricultural assistance.

With the renewed wave of violence in Angola, "new" IDPs began arriving in the major towns. At the close of 1997, an estimated 67,000 people were forced to flee their villages. Most displacement appeared to be related to organised banditry attacks. Based on this assumption, it was decided to limit the construction of camps and create minimum conditions with a view toward spending more resources to assist with their return. Unfortunately, in April-October 1998 attacks by both parties to the conflict as well as by bandits increased throughout the country, leading to population displacement in all provinces.

For the New IDPs, displaced in the course of 1997 and 1998, UN agencies agreed on a basic survival packages of food and non-food items, yet the growing insecurity and lack of access have greatly hindered the capacity of humanitarian organizations to reach these populations and deliver aid.

Return and Reintegration: Immediately after the signing of Lusaka Protocol the Angolan Government, UN agencies, IOM and NGOs established assistance programs for the displaced and returning populations. Due to continued insecurity in some parts of Angola, with some UNITA residual troop movement, and a reluctance on the part of the IDPs to return home due to mined roads and fields these programmes were not fully realized. The humanitarian organizations assisting IDPs in returning experienced shortage of funding that resulted in limited size and scope of programmes.

Alternatively, in the course of 1995 and 1996, resettlement programmes were pursued. In some cases provincial authorities allocated small plots of land to the IDPs, as temporary settlements were they could become at least semi-independent.

In 1997, the Government of Angola reaffirmed its support for the return process. The Ministry of Social Reintegration and Assistance (MINARS) in collaboration with the Humanitarian Assistance Coordination Unit (UCAH), UN agencies, IOM and NGOs, developed the National Programme for the Return and Re-integration of IDPs to facilitate the dignified return of IDPs.

The programme spelled out the criteria for the assisted return of IDPs:

- the normalization of State administration;
- encourage return only to municipalities and communes under the control of the Government civil administration;
- security
- a voluntary return;
- the existence of basic infrastructure including access to water, food, health care; and
- food security.

During 1997 and the first quarter of 1998, it is estimated that 124,000 IDPs resettled in their village of origin or in new settlements near their place of origin.

Approximately 100,000 of these IDPs returned spontaneously, but almost all received resettlement assistance in the form of food, seeds, tools and/or other non-food kits from UN agencies and humanitarian organizations.

Local authorities, NGOs and UNICEF designed programmes to rehabilitate and strengthen health and education services in the area of return as well as agriculture projects. WFP through NGOs also rehabilitated basic infrastructure and demined road corridors with food for work programmes to facilitate the return of displaced population, improve access to markets and improve food security. IOM Assisted the returning displaced through registration and mapping, transport and medical exam prior to departure. The European Union, through NESAs and ECHO also assistance in a number of provinces with resettlement kits, food and agricultural programmes.

All involved in the return programme were encouraged to take a community centers approach. Therefore in the National Programme also included data on the resident populations to facilitate community project planning.

Despite the most recent wave of violence and displacement in Angola, almost half of those who returned in 1997 are prospering in their place of origin, particularly where they continue to receive some form of humanitarian assistance and an international presence exists to perform a monitoring function.

The emergency assistance offered is limited and is designed to help the returned IDPs become more independent and create basic living conditions. Many organizations are planning long term development projects targeting areas of return as soon as stability returns to the country.

Issues related to Internal Displacement in Angola:

Targeting of Assistance to IDPs: In Angola, more than 30 years of war have displaced large numbers of people over a broad geographic region, many of them several times making an accurate determination of IDP numbers and their needs is

extremely difficult. The humanitarian community was confronted with the problem of targeting assistance to very different case-loads, such as old IDPs, new IDPs, vulnerables, etc. Would an “official” definition of IDPs assist field workers in identifying IDPs? With IDPs displaced for over 15 years and with little chance of returning to their places of origin, how can the international community best coordinate assistance efforts, ensuring relief and development linkages?

Lack of Funding: Return and resettlement programmes were not fully realized also due to shortage of funding. How could the UN optimize the Consolidated Appeal Process to ensure that adequate resources are mobilized? How can a timely and adequate international response to appeals for assistance to IDPs be ensured? How can donors’ interest be promoted?

Prioritization of Funding: The strategy presented in the 1998 Consolidated Inter-Agency Appeal for Angola prioritized on-going humanitarian assistance to vulnerables and reintegration activities for IDPs rather than emergency assistance. The renewed tensions and insecurity led to new internal displacement and the suspension of all return and reintegration activities. The gap between strategy and current needs became evident, causing major shortfalls in emergency assistance. While some UN agencies and NGOs were able to shift their focus to quickly confront the emergency, others had to enter into negotiations with donors to change the focus of resources. In a volatile situation such as Angola which prevents clear and concise planning for the immediate future needs how can the international community optimise its capacity to mobilise emergency assistance rapidly and effectively? How best can gaps and shortages in the UN response mechanism be identified and brought to the attention of the donor community?

Presence as protection: It was observed that an international presence that could perform a monitoring function was an important factor in the successful reintegration of IDPs in their places of origin. Based on the paradigm, presence alias protection, how could the international community enhance its presence on the ground when faced with a deteriorating security condition? How could UNAVEM III, before and MONUA, after, best have been deployed to assist the humanitarian community in confidence-building and monitoring?

Sensitisation of military personnel: To sensitise the international forces in Angola to the issue of internal displacement, UCAH prepared a pamphlet on “Understanding IDPs in Angola”. What other activities, such as training, seminars or sensitisation campaigns could be undertaken to engage more international military personnel on humanitarian issues, in particular with regard to the operationalisation of Guiding Principles?

COUNTRY CASE STUDY 3: BURUNDI

Causes of Displacement: Burundi has the largest internally displaced population in the Great Lakes Region. By the end of 1998, after 5 years of conflict, over 550,000 people, 10% of the country's population are currently displaced.

This densely populated nation has a history of deadly political and ethnic violence. More than 80% of Burundi's estimated 6 million people are ethnic Hutu. Ethnic Tutsi constitute most of the remaining population. Despite their minority numbers, Tutsi historically have maintained political and military power. Struggles over political power have led to recurring eruptions of violence and large population displacements.

In June 1992, President Pierre Buyoya called the country's first democratic elections, losing to Melchior Ndadaye, a Hutu from the Front Democratic du Burundi (FRODEBU) opposition party. In October 1992 Ndadaye was killed in an attempted coup. This led to violent retaliation and marked the start of an armed rebellion, as the Tutsi-dominated army confronts Hutu rebel groups (Forces for the Defense of Democracy FDD, National Council for the Defense of Democracy, CNDD, Party for the Liberation of the Hutu People Paliphetu). In July 1996 Buyoya returned to power in a coup. The civil conflict continues today although there are regular negotiations with the rebels

In the aftermath of the coup, the governments of Tanzania, Kenya, Uganda, Rwanda, Ethiopia, Zaire, Zambia and Cameroon determined to apply pressure on the authorities for the restoration of constitutional order, imposed an embargo on Burundi,

Nature of Displacement: Displacement in Burundi is not a static phenomenon, population movements occur in several parts of the country and for a number of reasons. Some of these movements are the result of military operations in which people are forced to move, others are organized by local authorities in order to "protect" specific populations or to bring them nearer to their land and others are spontaneous, people fleeing from real or perceived dangers. While some displaced have remained uprooted since 1993 others have repeatedly fled as security conditions changed.

Different terms are used to describe the country's uprooted population:

- the displaced, indicating ethnic Tutsi who have fled to camps or villages. By the end of 1998 they amount to an approximate 200,000;
- the regrouped, indicating ethnic Hutu whom the Government required to move into regroupment camps. By the end of 1998 they amount to an approximate 200.000;
- the dispersed, indicating an unknown number of mostly ethnic Hutu who have fled from their homes to remote areas scattered throughout the countryside;

These different labels were adopted by the humanitarian community and to some extent reflected the different humanitarian needs of the uprooted populations. In 1998 the humanitarian community called for an abandonment of the practice of calibrating assistance to affected populations on the basis of a series of semantic categories, in favour of more objective criteria for assistance such as vulnerability and capacity for sustainable reinstallation.

Assistance during Displacement: The assistance provided to IDPs includes the distribution of food, non-food items, and seeds and tools. It also includes the establishment of supplementary and therapeutic feeding centres where required and support to health centres through the provision of drugs and training of health staff. The overcrowded regroupment camps lead to poor sanitation and limited access to water, therefore the improvement of water supply systems and sanitation structures is also a priority. Organisations also have established temporary schools and are undertaking basic rehabilitation activities where possible. Attention is also being paid to identification and tracing activities for unaccompanied minors.

The Policy of 'Regroupment' and international humanitarian assistance: The term regroupment is used to indicate where the populations of areas subject to systematic destabilization, owing to sustained rebel activity, are required to leave their homes and relocate to camps guarded by the armed forces. The purpose of this exercise being to give the military a free hand to conduct operations aimed at flushing out rebel positions. Typically the civilian population will be given a deadline by which they must make their way to a designated regroupment site; any one remaining in the area after the deadline expires will be considered a legitimate military target.

In Burundi, the policy of mandatory regroupment was first implemented in 1996. By 1997, those displaced by this policy, accounted for nearly half of the total displaced population. The Government of Burundi always maintained that regroupment was a short-term security measure designed to protect civilians. It claimed that in some areas of the country it could only guarantee the safety of the people if they assembled voluntarily in designated "regroupment" centres, established at locations that were purposely close to the farms and homes of the regrouped.

On the assumption that those who did not regroup would be considered as supporters of the rebels, the regroupment process could not be regarded as entirely voluntary. On the other hand some camps did in fact close down in areas of regained security.

The response of the humanitarian community to the regroupment policy was concerted and firm. There was a clear reluctance to provide humanitarian assistance to regroupment camps as this could be seen as giving support to a policy that involved forced relocation. Following a broad consultation process involving UN agencies, NGOs and donors both at field and HQ levels, a common position was adopted in March 1997.

The humanitarian community agreed that no assistance be provided for the creation or administration of regroupment centres and that every effort had to be made to support the return and reintegration of the regrouped to their homes. Where in the collective view of the humanitarian community, people were forced to move by military/political authorities, the response would be limited to life sustaining measures. Whereas in the case of populations being moved as a short-term measure in an organised but voluntary manner, as a protective measure, or fleeing spontaneously from a perceived threat, the full range of humanitarian interventions would be considered.

In particular it was recommended that UN humanitarian assistance provided to the regrouped:

- be confined to the provision of life sustaining supplies, namely food, medicine water and sanitation;
- be dependant on an independent assessment of needs and that;
- its distribution be monitored independently.

Furthermore the conditions under which assistance was to be provided would include the confirmed full and free access of Human rights observers to regroupment centres to monitor any abuses that may occur and a fresh assessment of needs and circumstances for any replenishment of humanitarian supplies to the centres.

In June 1997 the closures of the regroupment camps began. In early September the Government of Burundi convened a meeting attended by UN, donor and NGO representatives to discuss timetables for the dismantling of the camps in various provinces. The humanitarian community encouraged this process by providing return packages consisting of ninety-day food ration, seeds, tools and non-food items. By the end of 1997, a total of 250,000 people had returned to their homes.

There have since been some instances of small numbers of former regrouped regaining the protection of disbanded sights at night, particularly where the security situation remains volatile. However the indications are that this is a spontaneous

phenomenon and the chapter of large-scale mandatory regroupment can be regarded as closed.

Return and Reintegration: Burundi's conflict has produced ethnic segregation in many areas. For many displacement may be permanent, some may never feel safe to return home and this will in turn raise complicated questions about land tenure, resettlement and social reconciliation.

In 1998 the humanitarian community defined a policy of long term reinstallation, recognizing that there are a number of affected populations in Burundi who will remain unwilling or unable to return to their original homes for the foreseeable future, but who might have other options. The resettlement policy broke away from the previous policy focused on the return of population to their original areas.

A set of criteria was developed for long term reinstallation:

- stability and security;
- willingness to move;
- access to land or a means of support;
- access to essential basic services.

The humanitarian community committed to pursuing an integrated approach with regard to reinstallation. Such an approach includes an orientation towards peace and reconciliation, reconstruction/rehabilitation of social infrastructures, income generating activities and agricultural projects.

Issue related to Internal Displacement in Burundi:

Protection and Displacement: Security and protection issues are major factors in Burundi's displacement. It has been observed that in the case of Burundi, internal displacement is not always a by-product of conflict but can be deliberate and targeted. Although many IDPs suffers from poor nutrition, inadequate shelter and poor or non-existent health care, their greater needs appear to be physical security. Some IDPs gravitate to areas where they can receive protection from the national army, others fear the army and flee from it. Furthermore, increasingly regroupment sites have become target of attacks as the displaced are regarded as combatants or conspirators. What are the most effective ways for the international community to provide protection when governments are unable or unwilling to ensure the security of their citizens or deliberately place them at risk? How can the UN's response to the protection needs of IDPs be enhanced?

The impact of Sanctions: The regional embargo imposed on Burundi crippled the national economy and further endangered local coping mechanisms. In additions the embargo limited the availability of aid material and posed difficulties and delays in the delivery of assistance. How can the UN strengthen its capacity to respond quickly to the potential imposition of sanctions, in particular in terms of exemptions and clearances procedures ? Once the negative impact of sanction on the humanitarian situation was assessed, should the international community have advocated more strongly for the lifting of the sanctions?

Early Warning: In his report to the Commission on Human Right on displacement in Burundi (e/cn4/1995/50/Add.2), the Representative of the Secretary-General on IDPs, noted that international agencies appeared to have been caught somewhat by surprise by the crisis of internal displacement in Burundi. At the time resources were directed towards addressing the needs in Goma and other camps for Rwandan refugees. Agencies in Burundi were left with fewer stocks and less means to address the humanitarian situation there and the dilemmas of how to prioritize the needs and which persons to care for first. How can the UN promote an early warning

capacity to enhance response to IDP crises? Given ongoing instability in Burundi, would this capacity be beneficial now?

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